MEXICO'S REAL WAGES IN THE AGE OF THE GREAT DIVERGENCE, 1730-1930*

AMÍLCAR E. CHALLÚ

Bowling Green State University^a

AURORA GÓMEZ-GALVARRIATO

El Colegio de México^b

83

ABSTRACT

This study builds the first internationally comparable index of real wages for Mexico City bridging the 18th and the early 20th century. Real wages started out in relatively high international levels in the mid 18th century, but declined from the late 1770s on, with some partial and temporal rebounds after the 1810s. After the 1860s, real wages recovered and eventually reached 18th-century levels in the early 20th century. Real wages of Mexico City's workers subsequently fell behind those of high-wage economies to converge with the lower fringes of middle-wage of stagnation and decline relative to the world economy.

Keywords: real wages, prices, welfare ratios, standards of living

JEL Code: N30, N36, E31, J31

^{*} Received 1 August 2014. Accepted 28 January 2015. The authors are grateful for the excellent research assistance supplied by Yttzé Quijada. They have also benefited from help with data, useful advice and criticism offered by Graciela Márquez, Leticia Arroyo Abad, Ted Beatty, Andrés Calderón, John Coatsworth, Rafael Dobado, Iván Escamilla, Luis Fernando Granados, Sandra Kuntz, Carlos Marichal, Robert McCaa, Tommy Murphy, Enriqueta Quiroz, Richard Salvucci, Ernest Sánchez Santiró, Sergio Silva-Castañeda and Eric Van Young.

^a Department of History, Bowling Green State University, Bowling Green, OH 43403, USA achallu@bgsu.edu

^b El Colegio de México, Camino al Ajusco No. 20 Col. Pedregal de Sta. Teresa, 10740 México, D.F. agalvarriato@colmex.mx

RESUMEN

Este trabajo construye el primer índice de salarios reales comparable internacionalmente que comprende del siglo XVIII a principios del siglo XX. Los salarios reales se redujeron sustantivamente a partir de los 1770s, con alguna recuperación parcial y no duradera después de los 1810s. A partir de los 1860s éstos comenzaron a recuperarse para casi alcanzar hacia principios del siglo XX, los niveles de mediados del siglo XVIII. Los salarios reales de los trabajadores de la ciudad de México cayeron en relación a los de economías de salario alto, convergiendo hacia el umbral bajo de las economías de salario medio. La era de la gran divergencia, fue para México un periodo de estancamiento y declive en relación a la economía global.

Palabras clave: salarios reales, precios, índices de bienestar, niveles de vida

1. INTRODUCTION

Were working-class Mexicans better off after the country's independence or did they have higher standards of living under Spanish domination? How did the late 19th century's first wave of economic modernisation and globalisation affect the livelihoods of Mexican workers and their families? Today Mexico lags behind the most advanced economies of the world, but was this always the case? If not, when did Mexico start to fall behind? This article seeks to find answers to these simple but fundamental questions about Mexico's economic history by reconstructing trends in real wages in Mexico City from the mid-18th to the early 20th century. Real wages (the purchasing power of wages in terms of a representative basket of goods and services) serve as an indicator of both material welfare and economic productivity.

Our period of study encompasses the foundational moment of the Mexican nation. During the second half of the 18th century, the Spanish crown sought to gain a tighter rein on the colony through economic and political initiatives known as the Bourbon reforms. In the 1970s and 1980s, historians indicated that living standards had declined in the aforementioned period (Florescano 1969; Coatsworth 1978; Tutino 1986; Van Young, 1987), but more recently, revisionist positions have problematised the use of evidence and highlight the undergoing process of economic growth led by the mining sector and trade (see Dobado-González (2015) for an overview of the revisionist arguments). The political crisis unleashed by the French invasion of Spain brought widespread insurrection in the 1810s and the destruction of the most productive mines. The ensuing decades of recurrent instability, civil and foreign wars are truly a *terra incognita* in Mexican

84

economic and social history (McCaa 1993). The economy reoriented, peasants gained more autonomy and perhaps political leverage, but the overall trends in productivity and welfare remain hard to decipher (Tutino 1986; Cárdenas 2003; Dobado et al. 2008; Sánchez Santiró 2009). The economic landscape changed in the 1870s when the triumph of liberalism and the Porfiriato (as Porfirio Díaz's aegis is known) ushered in policies geared to modernising economic institutions, integrating Mexico in the global economy and industrialisation. Historians who examined general economic and social trends have emphasised the growth of the economy, yet the deterioration of living conditions for the majority of the population (Coatsworth 1978; Katz 1981; Knight 1990). However, empirical studies suggest either stagnation or a small improvement of real wages of the working classes during the Porfiriato (López-Alonso 2012; Gómez-Galvarriato 2013). Our period concludes with the Mexican Revolution (1910-1920) and its aftermath characterised by price spikes, increased leverage of organised labour and improvements in the earnings of industrial workers (Bortz and Haber 2002; Gómez-Galvarriato 2013). In sum, from Mexico's perspective these 200 years were nothing short of Polanvi's Great Transformation experienced throughout the western world, but we know very little about how it correlated with living standards and productivity.

From a global perspective, this is the period when modern disparities in economic welfare and productivity widened (Pomeranz 2000). Economic historians working on real wages emphasise that this variable provides a better gauge of «the great divergence» because, at least before the 20th century, GDP estimates are unrepresentative aggregates (of land, capital and labour) based on dubious assumptions. By contrast, real wages allow the comparison of the differences in productivity as experienced in the compensation of workers. In particular, Robert Allen's methodology has enabled comparisons encompassing different regions of the world by systematising measurements, wages and prices, and devising a standard metric of economic welfare (Allen 2001; Allen et al. 2011). Studies have applied Allen's methodology to certain cities in Latin America during the colonial and early national periods (Allen et al. 2012; Arroyo Abad et al. 2012; Arroyo Abad 2013, 2014). These works show that real wage levels in non-European regions were comparable to northern European countries before 1800, but that by the second half of the 19th century the divergence in incomes became noticeable.

Our study builds the first internationally comparable index of real wages for Mexico City bridging the 18th and the 20th century. We used the income of unskilled construction workers and weighted price indexes of thirteen products including food, fuel and other everyday items. Mexico City, the capital and a city that surpassed half a million inhabitants by the early 20th century, is a good case for an in-depth study of living standards because of the availability of information throughout the period (Miño Grijalva 2004, 2006; INEGI 2009). Moreover, broader conditions in the populous central region influenced labour and goods markets in the city. Mexico City's population fed from migration from rural communities and towns in the surrounding region and beyond throughout the period (Guerrero 1901, p. 161; Pescador 1992, p. 108; Piccato 2001, pp. 21-26; Pérez Toledo and Klein 2004; Scardaville, 2004). The large size of the city also meant that it drew supplies from surrounding areas. For these reasons, Mexico City was a barometer of labour and goods markets in the central region of the country. Similar studies from other regions will be necessary to establish representative trends for the country.

The article builds long-term series of unskilled real wages based on construction workers' wage rates, and two alternative consumer price indexes, following Robert Allen's welfare ratio methodology. Section 2 outlines the procedures and sources and discusses the pitfalls and advantages of the methodology. Section 3 discusses the evolution of real wages in connection to other trends in the economy and the country. Section 4 compares the trends with other economies of the time. In the conclusion, we discuss the broader implications of our empirical findings.

2. METHODOLOGY AND SOURCES

The building of real wage indexes across time and countries requires data on wages and prices, as well as a household basket to weigh the relative importance of items in the overall household budget. In order to build internationally comparable welfare ratios, it is necessary to rely on assumptions that do not generate long-term or country-specific biases. These assumptions are simplistic, yet they provide a reliable broad comparative framework. It is our purpose to provide a general measure of material constraints in everyday life that allows historians to benchmark economic welfare at different points in time. This analysis is not a substitute for more historically rich studies of work, diet and welfare.

2.1. Wages

Our wage sources are hundreds of weekly receipts of construction works that report the daily pay rates of labourers (*peones*) in Mexico City. Through the mid 19th century, the origin of the reports is varied: churches, convents, hospitals, jails and other public and religious institutions. From the 1830s most observations originate in the construction work contracted by the Vizcaínas school to repair their facilities¹. Regardless of the source, the

¹ While most of our sources are from our original archival research cited in online Appendix A, we complemented them with Quiroz (2005, pp. 239-241) and the data files of the Global Price and Income History Group (GPIH; http://gpih.ucdavis.edu).

format is the same: the overseer reported the names, days worked, pay rates and total weekly compensation. For all weekly reports, we collected information on the number of days worked and daily pay rates, from which we obtained weighted averages of daily wages. In all, we have data for over 240,000 man-days with an annual average for two-thirds of the years.

Our payrolls indicate very little change in the way labourers were paid, their hierarchies, technologies or work descriptions². The *peones* (labourers) were at the bottom of the hierarchy in construction work. The guild of *albañiles* (masons) regulated construction work during the colonial period, yet *peones* did not belong to it. Guilds were formally abolished in January 1814, but they remained a guiding principle in labour relations until at least the mid 19th century (Carrera Stampa 1954, pp. 276-277). Guild members *albañiles* (masons) hired the *peones* at a customary (but not fixed) rate. While guild exams were expensive, peons could aspire to become low-rank masons if trained by a *maestro* and after passing a basic examination of their skills (92, 101). In our payrolls, less than 10 per cent of peons became masons.

The daily wage was the only compensation since there were no payments in rations. According to an anonymous construction treatise written in the late 18th century, overseers discounted the «real de comidas» for the meals that had been given during the week (Schuetz 1987, p. 89), showing that whenever rations were provided it was discounted from the total salary³. One real (one-eighth of a peso) represented the approximate weekly cost of food for one person in the colonial period.

It is likely that labourers lived in between the rural and urban worlds. Granados (2008) has shown that construction workers were the single most important occupational group among the indigenous people, representing 16 per cent of workers in a tributary list of 1800, compared with about 3 per cent in the whole population (Pérez Toledo and Klein 2004). While many lived in the *traza* (the Spanish city), one-third of the Indian construction workers, and perhaps many more, lived in the *barrios* and peripheral areas of the town where subsistence agriculture remained an important activity⁴. Moreover, we rarely found workers employed more than 150 days at any time in our period, and work tended to slow down during the harvest and sowing time. As we approach the 20th century, such a seasonal pattern becomes less evident, suggesting a greater integration of workers into urban labour markets, as the city population quadrupled between 1895 and 1930.

Given their social background and unregulated compensation, the daily pay rates of construction *peones* were relatively homogenous in the city and were representative of the earnings of other unskilled workers, who

² Only after 1925 we found the introduction of concrete and materials that exceeded the usual use of bricks, sand, lime and wood; still, the pay rates were comparable.

³ A large-scale construction work only accounts for the rations of workers who did not collect their wages at the end of the week; see *El Monitor Republicano*, 17 January 1863.

⁴ We are thankful to Luis Fernando Granados for sharing this information with us.

represented more than half of the labour force in the city (Piccato 2001, p. 23). Reported wage rates of construction *peones* and other unskilled, entry-level workers were often the same and at most diverged by 15 per cent without a systematic bias.

2.2. Prices

Our calculations of cost of living are based on the most extensive combing of prices of which we are aware of in the economic history literature of Mexico. Information was collected on nineteen items that appeared prominently in the expenditures of working-class urban households: maize, tortillas, bread, flour, wheat, frijol beans, sugar, pulque, beef, lamb, pork, ham, lard, soap, candles, tallow, charcoal, firewood and coarse cloth. We converted all prices to silver grams per liter (pulque), squared metre (cloth), million British thermal units or BTUs (charcoal and firewood) and kilograms (all the rest). We used regression analysis to sort out systematic biases of the different sources, types of transactions and seasonality.⁵

For each product annual prices were calculated by year, proceeding in three stages. First, we averaged annual prices using three types of local prices: institutional, retail and wholesale. Institutional sources comprise purchases in convents, hospitals, prisons and schools. Retail prices included posturas from the colonial period, which were prices set by city authorities for a variable period of time (every 2 years in the case of the *abasto* of beef and lamb, annual for lard and candles, quarterly for flour and bread and daily for maize sold in the *alhóndiga*)⁶. More surprisingly, we found that after independence the authorities of the Federal District regulated prices (tasas de efectos) in several years (1832, 1833, 1841, 1856, 1859, 1860, 1867, 1892, 1909 and 1914). By the 1880s, the authorities collected information on retail prices in the different municipalities of the Federal District and reported them to the Secretaría de Fomento, and later to the Departmento del Trabajo and the Departamento de Estadística Nacional. Wholesale prices typically included market updates published in newspapers, and some governmental reports. We also identified scattered sales from haciendas and factories in Mexico City. We found that seasonality did not have a significant effect on price levels, hence we did not apply any seasonal corrections.

Because no single source spans the entire period, we sought to maximise the use of all available information with procedures that were simple and easy to reproduce. For this reason, we averaged the observations of the three

Revista de Historia Economica, Journal of Iberian and Latin American Economic History

⁵ Online Appendix A reports the additional information and analysis that guided our procedures.

⁶ Colonial regulations established that any retailer had to sell these goods at the authorized price. Still Ouweneel (1996, pp. 118-120) argues that regulated prices were not always the actual final consumer price.

types of sources to obtain a single annual price by product. Overlapping observations in some years (288 intersections of year-products distributed throughout the period) did not show the existence of any systematic biases except for a 5.2 per cent markup of retail relative to wholesale prices that we applied to correct the latter.

Finally, missing annual entries were imputed using the prices of correlated products and markets. Although we collected 1,237 annual average prices, we lacked local, direct prices for many years: from three-quarters of the years in the case of candles, charcoal and pulque, to less than one-quarter for maize and sugar. Whenever possible we imputed prices from their inputs (e.g. candles from tallow, charcoal from firewood and cloth from yarn), from other products that shared the same inputs (ham, lard, pork and soap), from substitutes (lamb and beef), or from markets that supplied Mexico City (e.g. cloth from Puebla, sugar from Atlacomulco) or experienced similar market conditions (bean prices from Valladolid, Michoacán, and cloth prices from Zacatecas). In the case of tortilla and bread prices, they were predicted from maize, and wheat and flour, respectively. We obtained the correction factors from years with common observations. The imputations allowed us to add 336 additional annual entries and did not change trends or the variation in the series.

Even with this broad range of sources, we lack information for more than one-third of all possible annual price observations. Data are scarcer in the mid 18th century and the mid-19th century, as indicated in Table 2. In order to fill in missing data, we followed a modified version of Drelichman's (2005) construction of price indexes for early modern Spain: in any given year in which a product's price was missing, we calculated a high and low band of prices corresponding to the 75th and 25th percentiles of the prices in a 10- or 20-year window. In the case of pulque and soap, products with scarce data but relatively stable prices, we used wider time windows.

2.3. The Consumer Basket and the Consumer Price Indexes

We build two Laspeyres consumer price indexes based on two consumer baskets⁷. The quantity for each item is fixed throughout the duration of the series, with the exception of rent (see Table 1). The advantage of using this type of index is that it establishes a fixed subsistence or poverty line measured in calories, heating units, clothing, etc., that allows standard comparisons across regions and time periods. The energy represented in the food

⁷ The Laspeyres index is defined as IPL = $\Sigma p_1 q_0 / \Sigma p_0 q_0$, where p_1 is the new price, p_0 the old price and q_0 the old quantities. Alternative price indexes could be used, yet as Deidre McCloskey has pointed out, there is no price index that would not introduce some kind of bias in the calculation (see McCloskey, 1985, pp. 184-186). In online Appendix C, we contrast the results using alternative CPIs based on fixed shared of consumption rather than fixed quantities.

Item	«Barebones»	«Respectable» Mexico	«Respectable» London
Beef (kg)	5.0	31.5	33.8
Pork/other animal (kg)		7.7	
Lard/butter (kg)	3.0	4.1	5.2
Bread (kg)		31.0	182.0
Maize (kg)	165.0	45.2	
Tortillas (kg)		47.2	
Beans (kg)	20.0	40.1	52.0
Pulque/beer (l)		76.6	182.0
Sugar (kg)		6.1	
Fuel (mBTU)	2.0	4.2	5.0
Candles and lamp oil (kg)	2.6	3.4	5.2
Cloth (m)	3.0	5.0	5.0
Soap (kg)	1.3	2.6	2.6
Rent (%)	5.0	5.0	5.0
Energy/day (kcal)	1,936	1,941	1,941
Cost circa 1750 (silver g)	234.0	548.1	558.6

 TABLE 1

 CONSUMER BASKETS (Rent excluded)

Sources: Allen (2001); Allen et al. (2012). See text for construction of Mexican baskets.

Notes: The «barebone's» basket is entirely based on Allen *et al.* (2012). For the «respectable» basket, see text and online Appendix B.

component of the baskets is constant and meets minimum daily dietary requirements (1,940 calories). However, a Laspeyres index does not account for changes in quantities through time, which could be particularly relevant when analyzing a long period of time.

The first index is based on a «barebones» or subsistence basket, similar to Allen's basket for Milan (Allen *et al.* 2012)⁸. It includes food products that

⁸ Arroyo Abad *et al.* (2012) use an alternative barebones basket based on South American budgets. These observations as well as our findings do not change regardless of the specification.

minimise the total price per calorie and supplies minimum nutritional requirements. It also provides minimum heating, lighting and clothing needs. It includes eight items and represents the minimum cost of subsistence below which individuals could hardly survive — a concept similar to Adam Smith's price of subsistence or Karl Marx's cost of reproduction. The basket relies heavily on corn and beans, a consumption pattern that reflects the usual depiction of the customary Mexican diet. Yet, corn was consumed mainly in the form of tortillas, which demanded over 20 hours of weekly work per family (Bauer 1990). Moreover, the urban working classes consumed a remarkable amount of more expensive, but still affordable food that was adapted to the constraints and lifestyles of the city (Quiroz 2005; Miño Grijalva 2006; Moncada 2013).

Our second index better captures the complexity of the urban workingclass diet, while keeping the caloric output, services and cost comparable to the «respectable» price indexes in the literature (Allen 2001: Bassino and Ma. 2005; Cvrcek 2013). This basket includes fourteen products that were considered more appealing by urban workers. We based our basket on average expenditures observed in working-class family budgets from the early 20th century and in the expenses of a convent and school for indigenous peoples from the early 19th century discussed in the online Appendix B. The share of expenditures in our stylised «respectable» basket is roughly comparable to «respectable» budgets in Beijing and London (see Table 1 and Table B1). The basket includes bread, more allowance for beans and meat, maize tortillas, sugar and pulgue (a fermented beverage that contributed more than 4 per cent of the daily calories). It does not include chili peppers, chocolate (or coffee) and salt, items that were present in the observed budgets but were not comparable with other baskets, did not provide any calories, or were untraceable over time. The food items were not necessarily the cheapest per calorie, but still add up to the minimum energy requirements (1.940 calories); clothing, lighting and fuel are 60-100 per cent higher than in the subsistence basket. We can consider this basket as a poverty, rather than a subsistence line, necessary to maintain a «respectable» but still very limited lifestyle.

In order to make the results internationally comparable, we consider rent as a constant five per cent of all other expenses in the basket, following Allen (2001). Our research on housing costs suggests that the rent of a room ranged from 15 to 18 per cent of other living expenses. Research in large cities, with the exception of London, indicates housing costs similar to those in Mexico City, suggesting that housing affects the comparison in levels⁹.

⁹ On changes in housing costs in Mexico City, see Calderón (2009); Piccato (2001, p. 17, 27), *Secretaría de Hacienda* (1911). Other studies in other areas of the world support housing costs comparable to Mexico City's: Cvrcek (2013), Horrell (1996), Johnson (2011, p. 196), Kok *et al.* (2005) and Smith (1990, pp. 103-107).

Like Allen (2001, p. 12), we justify this seemingly low allowance in the fact that many workers did not pay for housing, and also in the fact that using higher estimates would not significantly affect the trends presented in the paper¹⁰. Nonetheless, we consider actual rental costs that range between 15 and 18 per cent of other expenses in the elaboration of an alternative visualisation of the cost of living.

2.4. The Welfare Ratio

We calculate two welfare ratio indexes based on the two baskets described above, both estimates are based on assumptions about the unit of analysis, employment and the composition of the basket of goods and services. Research in real wages treads a thin line between being accurate to the population being analysed using reliable information and assuring that the results are comparable with other international experiences and time periods. The advantages and pitfalls of different methods and metrics are thoroughly discussed in this issue. Our approach builds on Robert Allen's methodology that calculates real wages as welfare ratios, or the number of household consumer baskets that could be purchased with a wage-earner's annual income (Allen 2001; Allen *et al.* 2015). The price and wage observations of a given year are combined with a series of multipliers that result in an annual real wage index constructed as

Welfare ratio = $(dailywage \times days)/(basket \times household)$

The numerator (the daily wage multiplied by the number of days worked in 1 year) is the annual income estimate of the reference working-class household, typically urban construction workers. The denominator corresponds to the expenses needed to satisfy minimum consumption needs. The composition of baskets may vary across countries, but they all yield the same caloric output, fuel energy and lighting. To obtain household consumption, the basket is multiplied by the number of adult-equivalent members of the household.

Allen assumes that labourers worked 250 days per year. Although guild regulations support this number as an upper bound figure (Carrera Stampa 1954, pp. 163-167), the social history of this time period indicates that job insecurity and constant mobility were regular features in the work experience of the urban poor (Guerrero 1901; Haslip-Viera 1999, p. 29). In the Vizcaínas payrolls, in which we have systematic records by name, non-eventual workers worked on average 108 days per year before 1910; after 1913, Vizcaínas relied

Revista de Historia Economica, Journal of Iberian and Latin American Economic History

¹⁰ «Las oscilaciones del costo de la vida en la República Mexicana», *Estadística Nacional*, vol. 4 28 February 1925, pp. 1-13; and vol. 4, 15 March 1925, pp. 1-21, estimates housing expenses as 16.6 per cent of the total budget of industrial workers and masons, but rural and mining labourers faced no housing costs.

on fewer workers working more days in the year, but still they worked an average of 165. Given that construction work is not a steady form of employment and there was a high turnover, it is likely that workers at Vizcaínas had other jobs through the year. However, if the alternative employment (e.g. subsistence agriculture) was not the equivalent to the construction wage rate, then it is likely that we are introducing an upwards bias in our calculations.

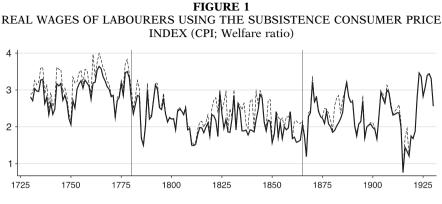
We scale all budgets to represent a nuclear family of two adults and two young children living from one adult income. The ratio of consumers to wage earners is three to one assuming that young children consume half an adult basket of goods. Some studies support this choice of household size (Pescador 1992, pp. 183-190; Dirección General de Estadísticas 1898). However, the single-family household with children was far from being the majority. In 1811, 38 per cent of the households of unskilled and skilled workers were of this kind, but multi-family or extended family households represented almost the same proportion (Brun Martínez 1979; Vera Bolaños 2004). In Guadalajara (1821-1822) and Oaxaca (1930), households were similarly varied with the nuclear-family structure being the most frequent but not representing the majority¹¹. Moreover, control of the household size was a common economic strategy of the poor in Mexico City (Scardaville 2004). These adjustments are a predicted consequence (as the welfare ratio dips below one, households need to boost income or cut costs to the extent of their possibilities), the ranges of possibilities and aggregate choices made by different societies may have varied in substantial ways.

Overall, Allen's specifications of household size, days worked and rent values are reasonable in relation to our empirical findings, and their use is crucial to allow an international comparison of welfare ratios. However, in order to account for the greater complexity of working-class livelihoods we constructed an alternative representation of welfare: the number of days of work in a year required to buy the basket that supports a four-person annual household budget (see Figure 3).

3. GENERAL TRENDS IN PRICES, NOMINAL AND REAL WAGES

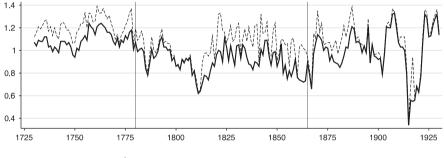
The evolution of welfare ratios follows three well-defined patterns: the erosion of high real wage levels during the last decades of the colonial period, low levels and stagnation through the mid 19th century, and partial recovery

¹¹ In Guadalajara, one-third of the households were composed of nuclear families, but a similar percentage lived without children. Multi-family and extended-family households were also very common (with or without children). We obtained the figures from Guadalajara Censuses Project (Anderson 2006–2010), in the frequency tables under the Research folder. In the southern city of Oaxaca, the average household size integrated by a construction worker was close to four members, but the variability was remarkable as well. Only one-third of the forty-five households in the sample were of a nuclear structure. We are thankful for Robert McCaa's generous contribution of the Oaxaca information.



Sources: See Appendix.

FIGURE 2 REAL WAGES OF LABOURERS USING THE RESPECTABLE CONSUMER PRICE INDEX (CPI; Welfare ratio)



Sources: See Appendix.

with great volatility during the Porfiriato and early 1920s. In the long run the most noticeable feature of the trend is that of stagnation. The «barebones» basket indicates that the high initial 18th-century levels were never reached again, while when using the «respectable» basket these levels were recovered — at least briefly — during the Porfiriato and during the 1920s.

Figures 1 and 2 show the high and low boundaries of annual welfare ratios of labourers using the «barebones» and the «respectable» price indexes, while Table 2 summarises prices, wages and welfare ratios by quarters of a century. The scale is the number of «barebones» or «respectable» household annual baskets (welfare ratios) that could be purchased with 250 days of labourers' income. Both indexes show a similar wide *U*-shaped trend, although

94

Products	1730- 1749	1750- 1774	1775- 1799	1800- 1824	1825- 1849	1850- 1874	1875- 1899	1900- 1930
Maize	0.69	0.61	0.80	1.13	1.13	1.15	1.12	2.09
Bread	0.98	0.87	1.14	1.61	1.60	1.63	1.59	2.98
Beans	3.02	2.83	2.96	3.46	3.39	3.34	3.43	6.93
Beef	1.20	1.33	1.19	1.73	2.09	1.89	1.76	4.06
Meat	1.00	0.88	1.34	2.59	3.24	3.79	3.82	12.90
Pork	2.58	2.33	3.50	4.89	3.87	4.40	4.04	13.60
Lard	8.40	7.36	8.54	10.86	8.15	7.32	6.35	18.75
Sugar	10.27	8.99	10.48	13.25	9.97	10.48	10.35	20.31
Pulque (l)	6.38	4.92	4.67	4.79	5.26	5.62	4.61	6.62
Soap			1.11	1.46	1.21	1.21	0.79	0.88
Candles	4.99	5.89	7.45	7.58	4.84	5.51	5.61	9.15
Charcoal (mBTU)	12.98	13.34	13.58	14.85	16.06	19.05	21.47	53.74
Cloth (m)	7.47	9.95	7.36	9.27	8.77	5.00	3.36	5.76
CPI, barebones	243- 265	232- 249	274- 286	371- 398	344- 397	358- 392	340- 365	625- 649
CPI, respectable	622- 699	599- 659	672- 721	859- 958	749- 881	759- 884	737- 804	1600- 1678
Missing	95%	72%	20%	48%	72%	32%	32%	10%
Daily wage	9.25	9.29	9.07	10.14	10.62	9.65	10.14	21.56
Welfare ratio, barebones	2.81- 3.06	3.02- 3.25	2.63- 2.76	2.07- 2.21	2.16- 2.5	2.03- 2.21	2.24- 2.41	2.40- 2.47
Welfare ratio, respectable	1.05- 1.18	1.12- 1.24	1.01- 1.09	0.85- 0.95	0.96- 1.13	0.88- 1.03	1.00- 1.10	1.00- 1.05

 TABLE 2

 AVERAGE PRICES AND CPI (silver grams per kilogram)

Notes: CPI: consumer price index.

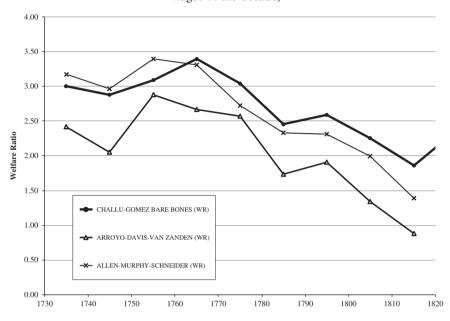
The CPI values reflect the upper and lower bound in the cost of living. The price of tortillas and bread were derived from maize and wheat (or flour) as described in the text. The percentage of missing data is the missing observations relative to the total number of possible observations (e.g. 12 products \times 25 years = 300 possible observations).

Sources: See Appendix and online Appendix A.

they differ, expectedly, in their levels and volatility and the trend of «respectable» welfare ratio is even flatter.

Our barebones price and real wage indexes are highly correlated with those of Allen *et al.* (2012) and Arroyo Abad *et al.* (2012), resulting in the similar trends shown in Figure 3. Yet the levels and the magnitude of changes were different.

FIGURE 3 COMPARISON OF REAL WAGE SERIES IN THE COLONIAL PERIOD (Average real wages of the decade)



Sources: Allen *et al.* (2012), Arroyo Abad *et al.* (2012) and Appendix. *Notes*: We thank the authors for facilitating the data at the annual level.

Our barebones welfare ratios are above Allen, Murphy and Schneider's by a small difference (2.7 vs. 2.6) and above Arroyo Abad, Davis and Van Zanden's by a larger difference (2.7 vs. 2.1). Our series has a smaller range of variation, hence showing a less pronounced, yet significant decrease in real wages from the 1750s to the 1800s. The correlation with price indexes and real wages for the Porfirian and revolutionary periods are also high and significant (see Figure C2)¹².

During the colonial period there was an increase in welfare ratios towards the 1760s, followed by a steep decline that began in the late 1770s and reached a nadir during the early 1810s. Between 1760 and 1815, real wages decreased by 40 per cent according to the respectable index and by 50 per cent according to the barebones index.

From 1750 to 1812, labourer nominal wages were pegged at three *reales* per day (slightly more than 9 silver g), with some spread in wage rates

Revista de Historia Economica, Journal of Iberian and Latin American Economic History

 $^{^{12}}$ A more detailed explanation of comparison with other series of prices, wages and real wages is provided in online Appendix C.

noticeable since the 1780s that produced tiny annual variations (lower than 2 per cent) that did not correlate with price changes (see Table 2 and Appendix Table A1 at the end of the article). From the third quarter of the 18th century to the first of the following century, prices increased by 53 per cent. While prices rose to historical highs during the insurrection, inflation was not negligible during the previous decades (average annual inflation of 2 per cent from 1775 to 1809). The trends are remarkably similar in our two price indexes and in other price indexes, indicating a high degree of certitude that prices, both in nominal and real terms, experienced a sustained decline.

Given the stability of nominal wages, the rise of prices eroded the welfare of workers since *circa* 1780. It was only in 1813 when nominal wages began to increase reaching four reales by 1817. The demand for labour caused by forced levies and steep price inflation during the insurrection (1810-1821) was the likely cause of the spike. However, real wages kept falling due to the disruptions in the city's supply lines and harvest losses that increased prices to historical records. In sum, these findings reinstall the traditional notion of a significant and generalised increase in prices in the late colonial period and a decline in living standards (Florescano 1969; Tutino 1986; Van Young 1987; García Acosta 1995) that has been the subject of recent revisionism (Quiroz 2005; Silva Riquer 2008; Dobado and García 2010, 2014).

In the decades after independence, real wages rose from the 1820s to the 1840s, and declined sharply in the 1850s and 1860s. Nominal wages gradually receded from the high rates of the 1810s and stabilised around 3.25 reales (10 silver g) per day for most of the 19th century (the typical annual variation being less than 4 per cent, without a trend). After 1825 prices declined slightly, but they tended to remain higher than in the second half of the 18th century. Welfare ratios recovered ground during the 1820s, but the uncertainty of the information leads to some caution in interpreting the magnitude of the recovery. The most likely scenario is that the real wages of Mexico City remained below the high levels of the mid 18th century and comparable to those of the turn of the 19th century. This picture supports the case of secular stagnation presented by Coatsworth (1978) and, in a more nuanced way, by Salvucci (1997). However, the alternative thesis of a strong recovery, and even improvements in living standards (Tutino, 1986; McCaa, 1993), cannot be entirely ruled out since the upper-level estimates of the «respectable» approached the lower boundary levels of the mid 18th century. Regardless of the strength of the rebound following independence, as Sánchez Santiró has argued (2009), the intense civil war of the 1850s and its continuation into the 1860s had ruinous consequences for the economy and the welfare of workers.

Once peace was restored after 1867, welfare ratios began to increase once again although with great volatility. The recovery continued into the end of the period with pronounced swings. Nominal wages started an upward trek in the last quarter of the century and by the start of the 20th century they increased sharply to almost 5 reales (15 silver g) and beyond (see Table 2).

This evolution of Mexico City's nominal unskilled wages bears a strong relationship with similar data from other regions of the country¹³. In the mid and late 19th century, the price trend flattened but during the early 20th century prices increased at higher rates, particularly during the most violent years of the Mexican Revolution (1914-1918) and surrounding years. From the 18th to the late 19th century, the relative prices of manufactured and processed products decreased in relation to food and charcoal prices.

For sustained periods (1868-72, 1885-91, 1904-07 and then 1922-27) real wages reached and even surpassed the highs of the colonial period, yet there were periods when real wages dipped well below those levels (1880-85, 1900-03). The Mexican Revolution (1911-1920) hit welfare ratios hard, reaching their lowest value in 1915 even if our data exaggerates the decline due to monetary anarchy.

The increase of real wages during the last decades of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th century could be explained by the pacification of the country, its integration into the global economy, and the introduction of new technologies and forms of organisation. Still, it shows that the modernisation process was not deep or wide enough to increase welfare levels above those of the 18th century. In conclusion, the significant and real gains in productivity represented in the growth of GDP per capita only partially contributed to a greater well-being of unskilled workers in Mexico City.

Along with the characteristics of each period, war and climatic disasters are major factors behind the dramatic falls in welfare shown in the series. The deepest plunges occurred in years of both civil wars and climatic disasters: 1810-13, 1867 and 1915-18. In general, years of harsh climatic conditions and agricultural disasters (such as 1785-86, 1801-02, 1874-77, 1902) were years of low real wages that were well below average. In these periods, higher unemployment probably reduced the welfare of the working classes below what is represented in the welfare ratio. These episodes were as frequent and intense in the late 19th and early 20th century as they were in the colonial period, indicating that the Mexican economy was still subject to structural constraints in its food supply.

Throughout the whole period, with the exception of 1915, a labourer living on a barebones budget earned enough to acquire the basic requirements of a nuclear family to survive. In the years with the highest ratio (1760s and 1920s), a labourer's income could easily afford three baskets, translating into a capacity to spend in a less austere standard of living or to work fewer days. With a «respectable» budget, the income of a labourer was just enough to stay above the poverty line, but in many years (1795-1817;

¹³ See Gómez-Galvarriato (2013), INEGI (2009, table 5.8.1) and Van Young (1987). In comparison with wages in a textile mill in Orizaba (1900-1930), our wages increased 2.7 times, CIVSA's three times; see Archive of the *Compañía Industrial Veracruzana S.A.* (*Orizaba*), Records of «Talleres, Edificios y Terrenos». On the colonial period, see wages reported in Garner (1993) and Van Young (1987).

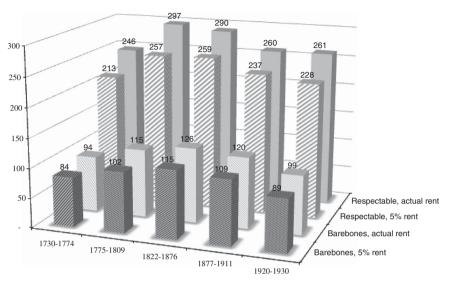


FIGURE 4 DAYS OF WORK REQUIRED TO PURCHASE A HOUSEHOLD BASKET, 1730S-1920S

Sources: See Appendix and online Appendix B.

1856-67; 1896-1903; 1914-21) this was not the case. Under these conditions, households had to work more days (or increase the number of workers), lower housing costs or switch to a basket more similar to the barebones. We seek to shed light on these accommodations by presenting an alternative representation of real wages.

Figure 4 presents this alternative visualisation by describing changes in purchasing power without assuming 250 days of work per labourer and introducing variable housing costs¹⁴. This perspective allows a more intuitive interpretation of the absolute levels of poverty or well-being that

¹⁴ We calculated actual housing costs as the percentage of the cost of a one-room apartment relative to the other costs in the respectable basket. As a percentage of total costs, housing costs were 17 per cent in 1730-1774, 18 per cent in 1775-1809, 15 per cent in 1822-1876, 13 per cent in 1877-1911 and 17 per cent in 1920-1930. The sources used to calculate housing were the workingclass budgets cited in Appendix B, as well as monthly costs of rooms in *casas de vecindad* (the low end of the housing market) in: AGN, *Hospitales*, vol. 5, exp. 1: *Hospital de San Lázaro* (1806-1813); AGN, *Indiferente Virreinal*, Box 538, Exp. 3: *Convento de Santa Clara* (1798-1806); CEHM, *Arch. Hist. Prov. de Carmelitas, Sto Desierto, Libro Manuscrito* 4 (1784-1818); *Memoria Economica de la Municipalidad de Mexico (Mexico: Imprenta de Martin Rivera*, 1830), p. 96: *Finca de la Barata.* Calderón's rates of *accesorías* and rooms in the Vizcaínas school (2009) served to control the trends observed in our sources.

construction workers in Mexico City faced through the period. According to these results, the number of work days required to purchase an annual household basket increased from the mid 18th (1730-1774) to the mid 19th centuries (1822-1876) and then declined. Labourers were able to afford the subsistence basket working around one-third of the year throughout the period. However, they needed to work most of the year, in some periods more than 250 days, to afford a «respectable» basket, which could be considered a poverty line. During some sub-periods this required more days of labour than the 250 days previously assumed; and this was the case in the entire period if actual housing costs are factored in.

This representation also serves to highlight the flexible nature of the actual well-being of working-class households in Mexico City. It is plausible that labourers and their families farmed their own subsistence plots, particularly earlier in the period, in which case maintaining these levels of welfare would require fewer days of wage work. On the other hand, it is possible that labourers did not find work during all the days required, or carried out work that gave them a lower remuneration than the wages paid in construction. If this were the case their welfare would fall below the poverty line. Moreover, there were many expenses not included in these basic baskets, such as other goods (salt, chile, chocolate), rituals (baptisms, burials etc.), medical costs and amusement. Although these costs were highly variable, Figure 4 helps visualise that in order to afford such expenses a small working-class household in Mexico City had to expand the numbers of days worked by its members beyond 250 to afford this type of expenses that in many ways were essential to their well-being.

The trends in real wages correlate well with decadal averages of adult heights, an indicator of nutritional status and biological well-being (see Figure 5). Our comparison uses the long-term series of infantry heights by Challú (2010) and López-Alonso (2012). These are a fraction of a broader anthropometric history literature, but they span a long time period with a relatively homogeneous population (infantry from the central region or the entire country) that encompasses a broad swath of the Mexican working classes¹⁵. Real wages and height had parallel trends through the 1810s, evidencing high levels in the mid 18th century, followed by a decline. From the 1820s on, the trends do not track each other; still the rebound in average heights by the 1870s corresponds in broad strokes to the rise in real wages. It would not be until the mid 20th century that material wellbeing improved as policies and technology made food more accessible and

¹⁵ The two series used regression analysis with similar control variables to build the series; we centred the averages on the central region and unskilled occupations. See Dobado-González (2015) or other regions of colonial Mexico, and Baten and Blum (2012) aggregation of height series for the 19th and 20th centuries.

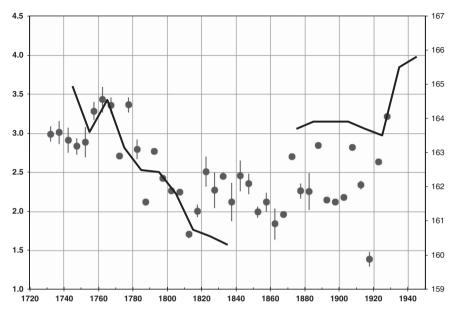


FIGURE 5 BAREBONES WELFARE RATIOS AND SOLDIER HEIGHTS IN MEXICO, 1730-1930

Sources: Challú (2010), López-Alonso (2012) and see Appendix and online Appendix A.

Notes: Soldier heights are represented by decade of birth. The constant in the original regression reports was changed to match unskilled workers and the central region.

affordable (Ochoa 2000; López-Alonso 2012). Overall, both anthropometric data and real wages stress that welfare throughout the period did not make substantial progress.

4. MEXICO CITY'S REAL WAGES IN INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE

Today, Mexico is considered an «upper middle-income» economy in the World Bank's classification, which in itself attests to the substantial divergence in incomes that has occurred since the end of the 19th century. Table 3 breaks down the historical trends in «respectable» welfare ratios in Europe and Asia in income level groups. Figures 5 and 6 show the «barebones» and «respectable» welfare ratios. While the selection of cities and the levels in the two figures are different, the overall picture is similar. We mostly follow the «respectable» version here as it provides a more representative gauge.

	1725	1750	1775	1800	1825	1850	1875	1900
Mexico	1.12	1.18	1.05	0.90	1.05	0.95	1.05	1.13
High wage (Euro	pe)	•	•			•		•
Amsterdam	1.50	1.41	1.28	1.08	1.08	0.92	1.46	2.06
London	1.54	1.44	1.28	1.27	1.42	1.64	2.45	2.69
Mid wage (Europ	be)							
Leipzig	0.71	0.61	0.61	0.77	0.76	0.89	1.33	1.81
Paris	0.69	0.70	0.73		1.03	1.03	1.46	1.77
Warsaw	0.62	0.91	0.86	0.94	1.19	1.24	1.35	1.77
Low wage (Europ	pe)							
Madrid	1.58	1.32	1.12	0.86	1.03	1.07	0.39	1.10
Milan	0.66	0.56	0.40	0.32	0.42	0.38	0.58	0.79
Vienna	0.83	0.69	0.66	0.51	0.59	0.75	1.01	1.29
Low wage (Asia)	-	-		-	-		-	
Beijing		0.52	0.52	0.42	0.31	0.29	0.58	0.66
Kyoto/Tokyo	0.53	0.56	0.52	0.63	0.60	0.48	1.23	1.42

 TABLE 3

 REAL WAGES IN SELECT CITIES RESPECTABLE CPI (welfare ratios)

Notes: CPI: consumer price index.

In most cities (but not Mexico City), the last period ends in 1913.

Sources: For Mexico, our Appendix C. For Beijing, our own calculations of Allen *et al.*'s (2011) respectable budget using prices distributed in the GPIH website. For Vienna, Cvrcek (2013). For Kyoto/ Tokyo, we used Bassino and Ma's (2005) real wages index adjusted to reflect earnings over 250 days, a basket for three adults, a 5 per cent rent allowance and a 9 per cent allowance for fuel and soap (items excluded from Basino and Ma's calculation). For Madrid, we relied on Llopis and García (2011) and Reher and Ballesteros (1993), scaling their index values to Allen's welfare ratio for 1800 (the only common year in the three series). For all others, see Allen (2001).

Table 3 and Figures 6 and 7 show that from the beginning to the end of the period there were sustained gaps in real wages, although the rankings changed as some cities grew more than others. The high-wage tier included Amsterdam, London and other English cities, although they were not homogeneous in trajectory. The slide of Amsterdam's real wages through the mid 19th century was remarkable, but well documented in the economic history of the country. Its welfare ratios rebounded in the second half of the

102

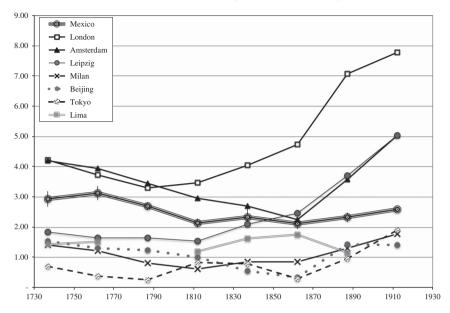


FIGURE 6 REAL WAGES IN COMPARISON, BAREBONES CPI, 1750-1930

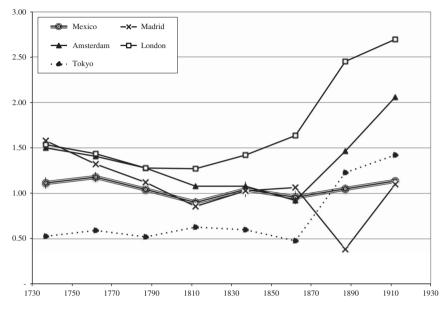
Sources: Allen et al. (2011), Arroyo Abad (2014), Arroyo Abad et al. (2011) and Appendix.

Notes: The year represents the center of 25-year periods.

19th century; by the end of the period Amsterdam was below London but still experienced almost a 50 per cent growth in real wages. Mid-wage cities such as Leipzig, Paris and Warsaw experienced solid growth; Leipzig gained parity to Amsterdam by the eve of World War I. Among the group of low-wage cities, Madrid's decline is remarkable: from levels comparable to London and Amsterdam in the 18th century, it steadily declined through the early 19th century. By the beginning of the 20th century, Vienna and Tokyo moved up in the ranking, while the other low-income cities increased their levels moderately and remained far below.

In the comparison, Mexico City started out with high real wages, almost at par with Amsterdam and London. The decline through the early 19th century was above the average rate and became more comparable to the mid-income group of cities. It was in the 19th and early 20th centuries, however, when Mexico City's mild improvement in real wages was no match to the trajectory in any other city with comparable information. Kyoto/ Tokyo, Leipzig, Paris, Warsaw were poorer than Mexico City, yet by the early 20th century they had all surpassed it. The three cities in the Hispanic

FIGURE 7 REAL WAGES IN COMPARISON, RESPECTABLE CONSUMER PRICE INDEX (CPI), 1750-1930



Sources: See Table 3.

Notes: The year represents the center of 25-year periods.

world in this compilation, Madrid, Mexico City and Lima, stand out as the only ones that failed to experience growth in the long term. These data add one more dimension to the scholarship highlighting the connections and resemblances of the economic history of old Spanish empire (Dobado *et al.* 2007).

Mexico City's trajectory indicates a «reversal of fortune», but its timing does not match well the interpretation of the coiners of the expression. If Acemoglu, Johnson and Robinson (2002, 2001) focus on the colonial experience as the root of extractive and rent-seeking institutions that stifled growth, our trends indicate that Mexico City in the 18th century was closer to being a wealthy city than to other income tiers. The erosion of Mexico's position started during the late colonial period. Mexico City was 67 per cent above middle-income cities in 1725-1749, and only 6 per cent ahead by 1800-1824 (see Table 4). The fall was more pronounced at the very end of the 19th century when, even though Mexico's welfare ratios were growing, they fell behind middle-income cities. By the early 20th century, Mexico City's welfare ratios became comparable to low-income cities in Europe and Asia. If a

Revista de Historia Economica, Journal of Iberian and Latin American Economic History

	1725- 1749	1750- 1774	1775- 1799	1800- 1824	1825- 1849	1850- 1874	1875- 1899	1900- 1930
High-Income Europe (%)	74	83	82	77	86	81	57	48
Middle-Income Europe (%)	167	164	146	106	109	92	76	63
Low-Income Europe (%)	125	157	172	187	177	155	185	111
Low-Income Asia (%)	211	219	202	179	257	263	133	125

 TABLE 4

 MEXICO CITY REAL WAGES AS A PERCENTAGE OF OTHER CITIES (respectable CPI)

Notes: CPI: consumer price index.

Sources: See Table 3. The percentage results from dividing Mexico and the group average.

«reversal of fortune» took place it could only have been through lagged consequences that produced a failure to carry out the sort of industrialising economic growth that raised welfare ratios in several countries significantly above their 18th-century levels (Sokoloff and Engerman 1997). In Mexico, although rates of economic growth rose after 1880s they did not translate into increasing welfare ratios in a similar way to industrialising countries.

5. CONCLUSIONS

Mexico City's real wages were high in an international perspective by the mid 18th century, only moderately below those of northwestern European cities. Yet, real wages hit a low point by the end of the colonial period and the decade of insurrection. The late colonial era of Bourbon reformism and mining expansion (1780s-1800s) was not a period of bonanza, but of significant decline in living standards, caused in part by the high extraction of resources by the Crown from the New Spain in order to fight wars against its European rivals (Marichal, 2007). Our real wage series using the «barebones» and «respectable» specifications, other welfare ratio series of the colonial period, and heights agree on this characterisation.

After the late colonial decline, periods of growth were all brief and followed by periods of decline. The estimates from c. 1825 to c. 1850 indicate that welfare may have recovered mid-18th-century levels, to experience a further collapse in the following civil conflicts. When peace was achieved in the late 1860s, real wages regained a higher average level punctuated by some pronounced falls and a dramatic plunge during the Mexican Revolution.

Revista de Historia Economica, Journal of Iberian and Latin American Economic History

This paper provides a valuable perspective in which to place the long-held views about the Porfiriato (1877-1911) that often focus on its failure to improve general standards of living. Porfirian economic growth allowed a recovery of Mexico City's workers' real wages. However, real wages grew slowly and with great volatility, a finding that contrasts with relatively high rates of GDP and GDP per capita growth during this period¹⁶. This could be the result of increasing inequality during the period, and a failure to translate economic growth into better living standards for the working classes, a conjecture that is in line with the historiography of the period, but that requires further research. It is also important to highlight that the upward movement in living standards did not begin during the Porfiriato but in the late 1860s, when the country finally reached an era of greater political stability. It was interrupted by the revolutionary war (1913-1920), but it quickly rebounded and continued in the 1920s.

In the long run, our results show that there was no long-term growth in real wages in Mexico City and, probably, in Mexico as a whole. The collapse of the Spanish empire and the instability and constant warfare that followed were very costly for Mexico City's workers in terms of their living standards. During the Porfiriato (1876-1910) and in the 1920s real wages recovered ground but did not soar. The close correlation with soldier heights (an indicator of nutrition), the high relative price of food and charcoal throughout the period, and the impact of climatic crises suggest that a low level of agricultural productivity and constraints in the food supply remained a constraint on the capacity to attain higher levels of productivity¹⁷.

Finally, as real wages stagnated in the long run and other regions of the world grew, the Mexican economy fell behind. From having real wages moderately below high-wage northern European cities, by the beginning of the 20th century Mexico City found its place below the average middleincome group. The erosion of Mexico's position in the world economy started in the last two decades of the colonial period yet it became sustained and pronounced after the second half of the 19th century. This outlook agrees with John Coatsworth's thesis that identifies the 19th century (before the Porfiriato) as period of stagnation of the economy in the context of fast growth in the industrialised nations (1978, 1989). Although Mexico experienced some modernisation, industrial growth and global integration during the Porfiriato, these results show that the degree of this process was modest in relation to those experienced by these countries. In the era of the great divergence, Mexico converged, not to early-industrialisation countries, but to the rest of the world.

¹⁶ Between 1877 and 1910, GDP increased by 200 per cent and GDP per capita increased by 95.6 per cant; see INEGI (2009).

 $^{^{17}\,}$ FAO (1952, p. 51) estimated that food supply in Mexico in the 1930s averaged an appalling 1,800 kcal per capita.

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

To view supplementary material for this article, please visit http://dx.doi. org/10.1017/S021261091500004X.

REFERENCES

- ACEMOGLU, D.; JOHNSON, S., and ROBINSON, J. (2001): «The Colonial Origins of Comparative Development: An Empirical Investigation». *The American Economic Review* 91, pp. 1369-1401.
- ACEMOGLU, D.; JOHNSON, S., and ROBINSON, J. (2002): «Reversal of Fortune: Geography and Institutions in the Making of the Modern World Income Distribution». *Quarterly Journal of Economics* 117, pp. 1231-1294.
- ALLEN, R. C. (2001): "The Great Divergence in European Wages and Prices from the Middle Ages to the First World War". *Explorations in Economic History* 38, pp. 411-447.
- ALLEN, R. C.; BASSINO, J.-P., MA, D., MOLL-MURATA, C., and VAN ZANDEN, J. L. (2011): «Wages, Prices, and Living Standards in China, 1738-1925, in Comparison with Europe, Japan, and India». *Economic History Review* 64, pp. 8-38.
- ALLEN, R. C.; MURPHY, T. E., and SCHNEIDER, E. B. (2012): "The Colonial Origins of the Divergence in the Americas: A Labour Market Approach". *Journal of Economic History* 72, pp. 863-894.
- ALLEN, R. C.; MURPHY, T. E., and SCHNEIDER, E. B. (2015): «Una de cal y otra de arena. Building Comparable Real Wages in a Global Perspective». *Revista de Historia Económica/Journal* of Iberian and Latin American Economic History 33 (1), pp. 61-75.
- ANDERSON, R. D. (ed.) (2006–2010): The Guadalajara Census Project (CD-ROM). Tallahassee, Florida: Department of History, Florida State University.
- ARROYO ABAD, L. (2013): «Inestabilidad, costo de vida y salarios reales en Venezuela en el siglo XIX». América Latina en la historia económica 20, pp. 114-137.
- ARROYO ABAD, L. (2014): «Failure to Launch: Cost of Living and Living Standards in Peru during the 19th Century». *Revista de Historia Económica/Journal of Iberian and Latin American Economic History* 32 (1), pp. 47-76.
- ARROYO ABAD, L.; DAVIES, E., and VAN ZANDEN, J. L. (2012): «Between Conquest and Independence: Real Wages and Demographic Change in Spanish America, 1530-1820». *Explorations in Economic History* 49, pp. 149-166.
- BASSINO, J.-P., and MA, D. (2005): «Wages and Living Standards of Japanese Unskilled Laborers in 1720-1913: an International Comparison». *Research in Economic History*, 23, pp. 229-248.
- BATEN, J., and BLUM, M. (2012): «Growing Tall But Unequal: New Findings and New Background Evidence on Anthropometric Welfare in 156 Countries, 1810–1989». *Economic History of Developing Regions* 27, pp. 66-85.
- BAUER, A. J. (1990): «Millers and Grinders: Technology and Household Economy in Mesoamerica». Agricultural History 64, pp. 1-17.
- BORTZ, J., and HABER, S. H. (2002): *The Mexican Economy, 1870-1930: Essays on the Economic History of Institutions, Revolution, and Growth.* Stanford: Stanford University Press.
- BRUN MARTÍNEZ, G. (1979): «La organización del trabajo y la estructura de la unidad doméstica de los zapateros y cigarreros de la ciudad de México en 1811». *Anuario de la Universidad Veracruzana* II, pp. 9-29.

- CALDERÓN, A. (2009): «Una serie de precios de vivienda. Las accesorías del Real Colegio de San Ignacio de Loyola de los señores vizcaínos (1771-1821)». Gaceta Vizcaínas 4, pp. 47-83.
- CÁRDENAS, E. (2003): Cuándo se originó el atraso económico de México. La economía mexicana en el largo siglo XIX, 1780-1920. Madrid: Editorial Biblioteca Nueva, Fundación Ortega y Gasset.
- CARRERA STAMPA, M. (1954): Los gremios mexicanos; la organización gremial en Nueva España, 1521-1861. Mexico: E.D.I.A.P.S.A.
- CHALLÚ, A. E. (2010): «The Great Decline: Biological Well-Being and Living Standards in Mexico, 1730-1840», in R. D. Salvatore, J. H. Coatsworth and A. E. Challú (eds), Living Standards in Latin American History: Height, Welfare, and Development, 1750– 2000. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University David Rockefeller Center for Latin American Studies, pp. 23-67.
- COATSWORTH, J. H. (1978): «Obstacles to Economic Growth in Nineteenth-Century Mexico». American Historical Review 83, pp. 80-100.
- CVRCEK, T. (2013): «Wages, Prices, and Living Standards in the Habsburg Empire, 1827-1910». *Journal of Economic History* 73, pp. 1-37.
- DOBADO, R., and GARCÍA MONTERO, H. (2010): «Colonial Origins of Inequality in Hispanic America? Some Reflections Based on New Empirical Evidence». *Revista de Historia Económica* 28, pp. 253-277.
- DOBADO, R.; GÓMEZ-GALVARRIATO, A., and MÁROUEZ, G. (2007): *México y España: ¿Historias económicas paralelas?* México: Fondo de Cultura Económica.
- DOBADO-GONZÁLEZ, R. (2015): «Pre-Independence Spanish Americans: Poor, Short and Unequal... or the Opposite?». *Revista de Historia Económica/Journal of Iberian and Latin American Economic History* 33(1), pp. 15-59.
- DOBADO GONZÁLEZ, R., and GARCÍA MONTERO, H. (2014): «Neither So Low nor So Short: Wages and Heights in Bourbon Spanish America from an International Comparative Perspective». *Journal of Latin American Studies* 46, pp. 291-321.
- DOBADO GONZÁLEZ, R.; GÓMEZ GALVARRIATO, A., and WILLIAMSON, J. (2008): «Mexican Exceptionalism: Globalization and De-Industrialization, 1750–1877». *Journal of Economic History* 68, pp. 758-811.
- DRELICHMAN, M. (2005): «The Curse of Moctezuma: American Silver and the Dutch Disease, 1501-1650». *Explorations in Economic History* 42, pp. 349-380.
- ENGERMAN, S. L., and SOKOLOFF, K. L. (1997): «Factor Endowments, Institutions, and Differential Paths of Growth among New World Economies: A View from Economic Historians of the United States», in S. Haber (ed.), *How Latin America Fell Behind*. Stanford: Stanford University Press, pp. 260-304.
- FLORESCANO, E. (1969): Precios del maíz y crisis agrícolas en México (1708-1810). Mexico City: El Colegio de México.
- FOOD AND AGRICULTURE ORGANIZATION (FAO). (1952): Second World Food Survey. Rome: Food and Agriculture Organization.
- GARCÍA ACOSTA, V. (1995): «Comparación entre el movimiento de los precios del trigo y del maíz y el alza generalizada de precios a fines de la época colonial», in V. García Acosta (ed.), *Los precios de alimentos y manufacturas novohispanos*. Mexico City: Centro de Investigaciones y Estudios Superiores en Antropología Social and Instituto Mora, pp. 173-194.
- GARNER, R. (1993): *Economic Growth and Change in Bourbon Mexico*. Gainesville: Florida University Press.
- GóMEZ-GALVARRIATO, A. (2013): Industry and Revolution: Social and Economic Change in the Orizaba Valley, Mexico. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

108

- GRANADOS, L. F. (2008): Cosmopolitan Indians and Mesoamerican barrios in Bourbon Mexico City: Tribute, community, family and work in 1800. Ph.D. thesis, Georgetown University.
- GUERRERO, J. (1901): La génesis del crimen en México: estudio de psiquiatría social. Mexico City: Vda de C. Bouret.
- HASLIP-VIERA, G. (1999): Crime and Punishment in Late Colonial Mexico City, 1692-1810. Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press.
- Horrell, S. (1996): «Home Demand and British Industrialization». *The Journal of Economic History* 56, pp. 561-604.
- INEGI. (2009): Estadísticas Históricas de México. Mexico City: INEGI.
- JOHNSON, L. L. (2011): Workshop of Revolution: Plebeian Buenos Aires and the Atlantic World, 1776-1810. Durham: Duke University Press.
- KATZ, F. (1981): The Secret War in Mexico: Europe, the United States and the Mexican Revolution. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- KNIGHT, A. (1990): *The Mexican Revolution*. 2 vols. Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press. Kok, J.; MANDEMAKERS, K., and WALS, H. (2005): «City Nomads: Changing Residence as a
- Coping Strategy, Amsterdam, 1890-1940». Social Science History 29, pp. 15-43.
- LLOPIS AGELÁN, E., and GARCÍA MONTERO, H. (2011): «Precios y salarios en Madrid, 1680-1800». Investigaciones de Historia Económica 7, pp. 295-309.
- LÓPEZ-ALONSO, M. (2012): Measuring Up: A History of Living Standards in Mexico, 1850-1950, Palo Alto: Stanford University Press.
- MARICHAL, C. (2007): Bankruptcy of Empire: Mexican Silver and the Wars Between Spain, Britain, and France, 1760-1810. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- MccAA, R. (1993): «The Peopling of Nineteenth-Century Mexico: Critical Scrutiny of a Censured Century». *Statistical Abstract of Latin America* 30, pp. 602-633.
- Mccloskey, D. N., and Scheraga, J. D. (1985): *The applied theory of price*. Macmillan. New York.
- MIÑO GRIJALVA, M. (2004): «La población de la ciudad de México en 1790: Variables económicas y demográficas de una controversia», in M. Miño Grijalva and S. Pérez Toledo (eds), La población de la ciudad de México en 1790: Estructura social, alimentación y vivienda. Mexico City: Universidad Autónoma Metropolitana, El Colegio de México, Consejo Nacional de Ciencia y Tecnología, pp. 21-74.
- MIÑO GRIJALVA, M. (2006): «Población y abasto de alimentos en la ciudad de México, 1730-1838», in M. Grijalva (ed.), Núcleos urbanos mexicanos, Siglos XVIII y XIX: Mercado, perfiles sociodemográficos y conflictos de autoridad. Mexico City: El Colegio de México, pp. 19-140.
- MONCADA GONZÁLEZ, G. (2013): La libertad comercial: El sistema de abasto de alimentos en la ciudad de México, 1810-1835. Mexico City: Instituto Mora.
- OCHOA, E. (2000): Feeding Mexico: The Political Uses of Food since 1910. Wilmington: Scholarly Resources.
- OUWENEEL, A. (1996): Shadows over Anáhuac: An Ecological Interpretation of Crisis and Development in Central Mexico, 1730-1800. Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press.
- PÉREZ TOLEDO, S., and KLEIN, H. (2004): «Perfil demográfico y social de la ciudad de México en 1790: Evaluación de tres zonas contrastantes», in M. Miño Grijalva and S. Pérez Toledo (eds), *La población de la ciudad de México en 1790: Estructura social, alimentación y vivienda*. Mexico City: Universidad Autónoma Metropolitana, El Colegio de México, Consejo Nacional de Ciencia y Tecnología, pp. 75-109.
- PESCADOR, J. J. (1992): De bautizados a fieles difuntos. Familia y mentalidades en una parroquia urbana: Santa Catarina de México, 1568-1820. Mexico City: El Colegio de México.

Revista de Historia Economica, Journal of Iberian and Latin American Economic History

- PICCATO, P. (2001): City of Suspects: Crime in Mexico City, 1900-1931. Durham: Duke University Press.
- POMERANZ, K. (2000): *The Great Divergence: China, Europe, and the Making of the Modern World Economy*. Princeton: Princeton University Press.
- REHER, D. S., and BALLESTEROS, E. (1993): «Precios y salarios en Castilla la Nueva: La construccion de un indice de salarios reales, 1501-1991». Revista de Historia Económica/Journal of Iberian and Latin American Economic History (Second Series), 11, pp. 101-151.
- QUIROZ, E. (2005): Entre el lujo y la subsistencia: mercado, abastecimiento y precios de la carne en la ciudad de México. Mexico City: El Colegio de México, Instituto de Investigaciones Dr. José María Luis Mora.
- SALVUCCI, R. (1997): «Mexican National Income in the Era of Independence, 1800-1840», in S. Haber (ed.), *How Latin America Fell Behind: Essays on the Economic Histories of Brazil and Mexico, 1800-1914.* Stanford: Stanford University Press, pp. 216-242.
- SÁNCHEZ SANTIRÓ, E. (2009): «El desempeño de la economía mexicana tras la independencia, 1821-1870: nuevas evidencias e interpretaciones», in E. Llopis and C. Marichal (eds), *Latinoamérica y España, 1800-1850: Un crecimiento económico nada excepcional.* Madrid: Marcial Pons Historia, Instituto de Investigaciones Dr. José María Luis Mora, pp. 65-110.
- SCARDAVILLE, M. C. (2004): «Trabajadores, grupo doméstico y supervivencia durante el período colonial tardío en la ciudad de México, o «la familia pequeña no vive mejor»», in M. Miño Grijalva and S., Pérez Toledo (eds), *La población de la ciudad de México en 1790: Estructura social, alimentación y vivienda*. Mexico City: Universidad Autónoma Metropolitana, El Colegio de México, Consejo Nacional de Ciencia y Tecnología, pp. 227-280.
- SCHUETZ, M. K. (1987): Architectural Practice in Mexico City: a Manual for Journeyman Architects of the Eighteenth Century. Tucson: University of Arizona Press.
- SECRETARÍA DE ESTADO Y DEL DESPACHO DE HACIENDA Y CRÉDITO PÚBLICO (1911): Memoria de Hacienda y Crédito Público correspondiente al año económico de 1 de julio de 1909 a 30 junio de 1910. Mexico City: Tipografía de la Oficina de Estampillas.
- SILVA RIQUER, J. (2008): Mercado regional y mercado urbano en Michoacán y Valladolid, 1778-1809. Mexico City: El Colegio de México.
- SMITH, B. G. (1990): The «Lower Sort»: Philadelphia's Laboring People, 1750-1800. Ithaca: Cornell University Press.
- TUTINO, J. (1986): From Insurrection to Revolution in Mexico: Social Bases of Agrarian Violence, 1750-1940. Princeton: Princeton University Press.
- VAN YOUNG, E. (1987): «The Rich Get Richer and the Poor Get Skewed: Real Wages and Popular Living Standards in Late Colonial Mexico». *All-UC Economic History Conference*.
- VERA BOLAÑOS, M. (2004): «La composición de la familia en la ciudad de México en 1790: Una reconstrucción demográfica», in M. Miño Grijalva and S. Pérez Toledo (eds), La población de la Ciudad de México en 1790: Estructura social, alimentación y vivienda. Mexico City: Universidad Autónoma Metropolitana, pp. 115-145.

APPENDIX

	«Barebo in silver	nes» CPI r grams	«Respecta in silver	able» CPI r grams	Wage in silver gram		re ratio bones)		e ratio ctable)	
Year	Low	High	Low	High	Daily	Low	High	Low	High	Observation
1730	235	242	606	633	8.53	2.80	2.88	1.07	1.12	11
1731	241	261	610	682	8.91	2.71	2.93	1.04	1.16	6
1732	227	243	609	676	9.30	3.04	3.26	1.09	1.21	7
1733	235	249	619	685	9.30	2.97	3.14	1.08	1.19	7
1734	230	250	605	682	9.31	2.96	3.22	1.08	1.22	5
1735	206	226	585	662	9.31	3.27	3.59	1.12	1.26	5
1736	204	225	579	662	9.31	3.29	3.62	1.12	1.27	6
1737	255	280	633	717	9.31	2.63	2.90	1.03	1.17	6
1738	235	264	613	708	9.31	2.80	3.15	1.04	1.21	4
1739	291	317	656	746	9.31	2.33	2.53	0.99	1.13	5
1740	252	278	615	715	9.31	2.65	2.93	1.03	1.20	3
1741	290	315	653	731	9.31	2.34	2.55	1.01	1.13	7
1742	273	298	675	752	9.31	2.48	2.71	0.98	1.10	7
1743	204	233	601	684	9.31	3.17	3.62	1.08	1.23	6
1744	207	237	589	681	9.31	3.11	3.56	1.08	1.25	4

TABLE A1COST OF LIVING AND REAL WAGES 1730-1930

Revista de Historia Economica, Journal of Iberian and Latin American Economic History

TABLE A1	(Cont.)
----------	---------

	«Barebones» CPI in silver grams		«Respecta in silver	able» CPI r grams	Wage in silver gram		re ratio pones)		e ratio ctable)		
Year	Low	High	Low	High	Daily	Low	High	Low	High	Observation	
1745	208	232	602	683	9.31	3.18	3.56	1.08	1.23	5	
1746	251	272	627	702	9.31	2.72	2.94	1.05	1.18	6	
1747	242	259	626	693	9.31	2.86	3.05	1.07	1.18	6	
1748	262	278	651	719	9.31	2.65	2.82	1.03	1.13	6	
1749	315	333	695	767	9.31	2.22	2.34	0.96	1.06	5	
1750	339	358	693	788	9.31	2.06	2.18	0.94	1.07	6	
1751	220	273	636	726	9.31	2.71	3.35	1.02	1.16	6	
1752	232	294	621	740	9.31	2.51	3.19	1.00	1.19	4	
1753	229	245	597	683	9.31	3.02	3.22	1.08	1.24	6	
1754	214	234	595	670	9.31	3.16	3.46	1.10	1.24	6	
1755	208	227	553	651	9.31	3.25	3.54	1.13	1.33	6	
1756	233	242	616	679	9.31	3.05	3.17	1.09	1.20	9	
1757	207	226	555	597	9.31	3.27	3.56	1.24	1.33	7	
1758	209	232	558	612	9.31	3.19	3.53	1.21	1.32	5	
1759	233	238	593	619	9.31	3.10	3.17	1.19	1.25	11	
1760	253	269	585	645	9.31	2.75	2.92	1.14	1.26	8	

AMÍLCAR E. CHALLÚ/AURORA GÓMEZ-GALVARRIATO

112

1761	186	231	531	612	9.31	3.19	3.97	1.21	1.39	6
1762	221	230	554	602	9.31	3.21	3.34	1.23	1.33	6
1763	197	209	555	596	9.31	3.54	3.75	1.24	1.33	8
1764	185	203	539	607	9.31	3.64	3.99	1.22	1.37	8
1765	193	206	559	616	9.31	3.58	3.82	1.20	1.32	9
1766	205	220	576	637	9.31	3.36	3.60	1.16	1.28	9
1767	211	228	564	636	9.31	3.24	3.49	1.16	1.31	7
1768	229	239	596	648	9.31	3.09	3.23	1.14	1.24	8
1769	233	245	624	683	9.31	3.02	3.17	1.08	1.18	5
1770	259	262	673	704	9.31	2.82	2.85	1.05	1.10	6
1771	257	260	646	668	9.31	2.85	2.88	1.11	1.14	9
1772	320	320	687	705	9.17	2.27	2.28	1.03	1.06	9
1773	260	268	637	667	9.17	2.71	2.80	1.09	1.14	7
1774	253	260	623	682	9.17	2.80	2.87	1.07	1.17	11
1775	223	229	595	642	9.17	3.18	3.26	1.13	1.22	10
1776	238	255	579	660	9.17	2.85	3.06	1.10	1.26	6
1777	195	210	548	627	9.17	3.47	3.73	1.16	1.33	6
1778	190	208	532	617	9.17	3.50	3.83	1.18	1.37	5
1779	212	218	692	717	9.17	3.33	3.43	1.01	1.05	12

MEXICO'S REAL WAGES IN THE AGE OF THE GREAT DIVERGENCE

113

TABLE A1	(Cont.)
----------	---------

		«Barebones» CPI in silver grams		able» CPI r grams	Wage in silver gram		re ratio pones)		e ratio ctable)		
Year	Low	High	Low	High	Daily	Low	High	Low	High	Observation	
1780	240	266	611	680	9.17	2.73	3.03	1.07	1.19	7	
1781	293	310	667	738	9.17	2.35	2.49	0.99	1.09	9	
1782	262	280	650	721	9.17	2.60	2.78	1.01	1.12	9	
1783	223	255	622	713	9.17	2.85	3.26	1.02	1.17	7	
1784	241	258	671	740	9.20	2.83	3.03	0.99	1.09	9	
1785	409	418	798	840	8.89	1.69	1.73	0.84	0.88	10	
1786	476	481	897	923	9.09	1.50	1.52	0.78	0.81	11	
1787	342	354	744	797	8.95	2.01	2.08	0.89	0.96	9	
1788	220	235	625	689	8.80	2.98	3.18	1.01	1.12	9	
1789	313	328	719	779	9.13	2.21	2.31	0.93	1.01	9	
1790	317	321	742	766	9.20	2.28	2.30	0.95	0.98	12	
1791	262	266	707	732	9.09	2.71	2.76	0.99	1.02	12	
1792	225	230	646	670	9.09	3.14	3.20	1.08	1.12	12	
1793	228	240	606	647	9.09	3.01	3.17	1.12	1.19	10	
1794	282	286	674	699	9.09	2.52	2.56	1.03	1.07	13	
1795	282	292	671	702	9.09	2.47	2.56	1.03	1.08	11	

AMÍLCAR E. CHALLÚ/AURORA GÓMEZ-GALVARRIATO

114

1796	248	262	684	724	9.09	2.75	2.91	1.00	1.06	10
1797	297	299	667	695	8.88	2.36	2.37	1.01	1.06	11
1798	316	322	717	749	8.62	2.13	2.16	0.91	0.95	11
1799	317	319	744	763	9.04	2.25	2.26	0.94	0.96	12
1800	315	316	813	816	8.82	2.21	2.22	0.86	0.86	12
1801	323	325	824	828	9.09	2.22	2.23	0.87	0.88	12
1802	373	373	853	863	9.00	1.92	1.92	0.83	0.84	12
1803	304	308	800	810	9.41	2.42	2.46	0.92	0.93	11
1804	286	291	799	814	9.09	2.48	2.53	0.89	0.90	10
1805	298	298	779	779	9.09	2.43	2.43	0.93	0.93	13
1806	323	327	833	842	9.61	2.33	2.36	0.91	0.92	11
1807	283	289	757	771	9.11	2.50	2.56	0.94	0.96	12
1808	358	377	871	922	9.09	1.92	2.02	0.78	0.83	9
1809	362	370	871	880	9.09	1.95	1.99	0.82	0.83	12
1810	452	482	957	1026	9.09	1.50	1.60	0.70	0.75	8
1811	476	484	1146	1156	9.10	1.49	1.52	0.62	0.63	12
1812	454	474	1105	1136	9.17	1.53	1.60	0.64	0.66	11
1813	398	429	871	1085	9.73	1.80	1.94	0.71	0.89	7
1814	383	413	842	1045	10.29	1.98	2.13	0.78	0.97	8

MEXICO'S REAL WAGES IN THE AGE OF THE GREAT DIVERGENCE

	«Barebo in silve	nes» CPI r grams	«Respecta in silver	able» CPI r grams	Wage in silver gram		e ratio oones)	Welfare ratio (respectable)		
Year	Low	High	Low	High	Daily	Low	High	Low	High	Observation
1815	383	419	839	1069	10.41	1.97	2.15	0.77	0.98	4
1816	421	453	883	1126	10.52	1.84	1.99	0.74	0.95	5
1817	460	490	985	1183	12.22	1.98	2.11	0.82	0.98	6
1818	414	456	850	1083	12.08	2.10	2.32	0.89	1.13	2
1819	482	516	967	1055	11.37	1.75	1.87	0.86	0.93	8
1820	377	400	896	968	11.77	2.33	2.48	0.96	1.04	7
1821	354	419	731	960	12.16	2.30	2.72	1.00	1.32	3
1822	336	431	705	944	11.79	2.17	2.79	0.99	1.33	2
1823	379	520	771	1009	11.43	1.74	2.39	0.90	1.18	5
1824	292	301	760	793	11.06	2.92	3.01	1.11	1.16	11
1825	349	358	790	823	10.69	2.37	2.43	1.03	1.07	11
1826	320	434	755	935	10.69	1.96	2.65	0.91	1.12	6
1827	321	431	779	909	11.96	2.20	2.96	1.04	1.22	5
1828	487	499	855	972	11.68	1.86	1.90	0.95	1.08	5
1829	325	438	735	928	10.21	1.85	2.49	0.87	1.10	2
1830	401	411	756	872	11.46	2.21	2.27	1.04	1.20	5

AMÍLCAR E. CHALLÚ/AURORA GÓMEZ-GALVARRIATO

116

1831	289	306	697	828	10.91	2.83	3.00	1.05	1.24	5
1832	425	438	869	909	10.61	1.92	1.98	0.93	0.97	11
1833	319	323	771	808	10.69	2.62	2.66	1.05	1.10	8
1834	332	350	718	836	10.77	2.45	2.58	1.02	1.19	7
1835	345	449	783	905	10.69	1.89	2.46	0.94	1.08	5
1836	321	449	701	962	10.69	1.89	2.64	0.88	1.21	1
1837	393	427	745	940	10.26	1.91	2.07	0.87	1.09	4
1838	406	447	773	953	10.02	1.78	1.96	0.83	1.03	2
1839	316	442	697	947	10.69	1.92	2.69	0.90	1.22	1
1840	308	446	693	956	10.69	1.90	2.75	0.89	1.23	3
1841	441	456	938	987	10.69	1.86	1.92	0.86	0.90	10
1842	297	400	665	867	11.07	2.20	2.96	1.01	1.32	3
1843	308	330	705	848	10.21	2.46	2.63	0.96	1.15	7
1844	285	295	729	776	10.69	2.88	2.98	1.09	1.16	11
1845	291	297	662	758	10.41	2.78	2.84	1.09	1.25	9
1846	342	347	748	774	9.25	2.12	2.15	0.95	0.98	12
1847	365	386	763	833	9.17	1.89	1.99	0.87	0.95	9
1848	313	388	724	862	10.68	2.18	2.71	0.98	1.17	5
1849	306	391	675	847	10.59	2.15	2.74	0.99	1.24	2
1850	509	532	911	971	10.50	1.57	1.64	0.86	0.91	9

TABLE A1	(Cont.)
----------	---------

		nes» CPI r grams	«Respectable» CPI in silver grams		Wage in silver gram	Welfare ratio (barebones)		Welfare ratio (respectable)		
Year	Low	High	Low	High	Daily	Low	High	Low	High	Observation
1851	399	407	754	796	9.24	1.80	1.84	0.92	0.97	11
1852	316	316	694	719	9.58	2.41	2.41	1.06	1.10	12
1853	321	423	667	908	9.17	1.72	2.27	0.80	1.09	1
1854	333	344	690	834	9.17	2.11	2.18	0.87	1.05	11
1855	324	433	688	970	9.17	1.68	2.24	0.75	1.06	4
1856	363	364	846	891	9.17	2.00	2.00	0.82	0.86	11
1857	321	379	664	942	9.17	1.92	2.27	0.77	1.09	1
1858	347	400	712	952	9.93	1.97	2.27	0.83	1.11	5
1859	325	327	828	854	9.93	2.41	2.42	0.92	0.95	12
1860	466	469	1012	1040	9.93	1.68	1.69	0.76	0.78	12
1861	338	422	703	978	9.17	1.72	2.15	0.74	1.03	1
1862	336	461	696	1003	9.17	1.58	2.16	0.73	1.05	2
1863	346	455	711	1008	9.17	1.60	2.10	0.72	1.02	3
1864	348	445	725	990	9.17	1.64	2.09	0.73	1.00	2
1865	335	355	763	822	9.17	2.05	2.17	0.89	0.95	11
1866	406	417	885	923	9.20	1.75	1.80	0.79	0.83	11

118

		1								
1867	611	611	1076	1099	9.17	1.19	1.19	0.66	0.68	13
1868	357	373	740	874	10.68	2.28	2.38	0.97	1.15	11
1869	350	357	763	801	10.69	2.38	2.43	1.06	1.11	12
1870	247	260	617	734	10.50	3.21	3.37	1.14	1.35	10
1871	306	306	706	729	10.31	2.68	2.68	1.12	1.16	13
1872	282	288	647	738	10.12	2.79	2.85	1.09	1.24	10
1873	320	326	752	787	9.93	2.42	2.46	1.00	1.05	12
1874	338	338	727	749	9.74	2.28	2.28	1.03	1.06	13
1875	334	339	709	743	9.55	2.23	2.27	1.02	1.07	12
1876	297	355	693	819	9.36	2.09	2.50	0.91	1.07	5
1877	295	300	728	758	9.17	2.42	2.47	0.96	1.00	12
1878	306	350	698	807	9.17	2.08	2.38	0.90	1.04	5
1879	334	363	669	818	9.17	2.00	2.18	0.89	1.09	2
1880	379	392	749	823	9.17	1.85	1.92	0.88	0.97	8
1881	283	384	697	857	9.17	1.90	2.57	0.85	1.04	6
1882	273	376	681	850	9.55	2.02	2.78	0.89	1.11	3
1883	276	373	644	832	9.93	2.11	2.85	0.95	1.22	1
1884	348	367	731	797	10.31	2.23	2.36	1.03	1.12	7
1885	308	354	708	828	10.69	2.39	2.76	1.02	1.20	9
1886	288	291	652	743	10.69	2.92	2.95	1.14	1.30	12

MEXICO'S REAL WAGES IN THE AGE OF THE GREAT DIVERGENCE

119

 TABLE A1
 (Cont.)

	«Barebo in silve	nes» CPI r grams	«Respecta in silver	able» CPI r grams	Wage in silver gram	Welfare ratio (barebones)		Welfare ratio (respectable)		
Year	Low	High	Low	High	Daily	Low	High	Low	High	Observation
1887	279	282	654	745	11.38	3.20	3.24	1.21	1.38	10
1888	323	325	737	765	11.51	2.81	2.83	1.19	1.24	12
1889	327	328	797	822	11.06	2.67	2.68	1.07	1.10	13
1890	326	331	790	821	11.15	2.67	2.72	1.08	1.12	12
1891	434	436	826	836	11.13	2.02	2.03	1.06	1.07	13
1892	480	507	842	904	11.18	1.75	1.85	0.98	1.05	13
1893	420	420	838	843	11.00	2.08	2.08	1.04	1.04	14
1894	357	357	774	778	9.65	2.14	2.14	0.98	0.99	14
1895	345	364	766	806	12.34	2.69	2.84	1.21	1.28	12
1896	415	428	784	817	9.17	1.70	1.75	0.89	0.93	13
1897	365	365	691	695	9.17	1.99	1.99	1.05	1.05	14
1898	354	354	759	763	9.16	2.05	2.05	0.95	0.96	14
1899	365	373	799	818	9.73	2.07	2.12	0.94	0.97	12
1900	384	410	829	884	10.21	1.98	2.11	0.92	0.98	12
1901	441	451	908	932	10.97	1.93	1.97	0.93	0.96	13
1902	506	506	1060	1064	10.63	1.67	1.67	0.79	0.80	14

AMÍLCAR E. CHALLÚ/AURORA GÓMEZ-GALVARRIATO

120

1903	401	410	942	966	11.71	2.27	2.32	0.96	0.99	13
1904	382	383	928	935	14.25	2.95	2.96	1.21	1.22	13
1905	413	432	959	1003	15.12	2.77	2.90	1.20	1.25	13
1906	461	464	1009	1017	15.43	2.64	2.66	1.20	1.21	13
1907	445	464	1014	1059	17.55	3.00	3.13	1.32	1.37	13
1908	491	495	1085	1095	18.32	2.93	2.96	1.33	1.34	13
1909	552	571	1167	1212	18.33	2.55	2.64	1.20	1.25	13
1910	626	626	1350	1354	18.33	2.32	2.32	1.07	1.08	13
1911	598	621	1300	1408	18.33	2.34	2.43	1.03	1.12	11
1912	582	611	1299	1419	18.33	2.38	2.50	1.03	1.12	11
1913	560	611	1296	1450	18.33	2.38	2.60	1.00	1.12	12
1914	687	733	1687	1814	18.33	1.98	2.12	0.80	0.86	11
1915	409	434	795	956	4.16	0.76	0.81	0.34	0.41	8
1916	181	216	458	561	3.92	1.44	1.72	0.56	0.68	6
1917	704	1033	1457	2480	17.28	1.33	1.95	0.55	0.94	6
1918	1009	1009	2119	2163	15.34	1.21	1.21	0.56	0.57	13
1919	632	632	1591	1626	13.89	1.75	1.75	0.68	0.69	13
1920	713	713	1879	1917	15.14	1.68	1.68	0.63	0.64	13
1921	1167	1167	2715	2843	27.61	1.88	1.88	0.77	0.81	12
1922	857	857	2112	2219	30.18	2.80	2.80	1.41	1.46	12

 TABLE A1
 (Cont.)

	«Barebones» CPI in silver grams		«Respectable» CPI in silver grams		Wage in silver gram	Welfare ratio (barebones)		Welfare ratio (respectable)			
Year	Low	High	Low	High	Daily	Low	High	Low	High	Observation	
1923	791	791	2007	2065	34.45	3.46	3.46	1.61	1.61	13	
1924	784	784	1989	2045	33.30	3.37	3.37	1.55	1.55	13	
1925	921	921	2276	2331	32.83	2.83	2.83	1.31	1.31	13	
1926	922	922	2447	2506	35.82	3.08	3.08	1.35	1.36	13	
1927	891	903	2423	2513	38.53	3.39	3.43	1.47	1.47	13	
1928	878	878	2297	2360	38.04	3.44	3.44	1.56	1.56	13	
1929	969	969	2363	2430	40.43	3.31	3.31	1.62	1.63	13	
1930	1644	1647	3604	3705	53.35	2.57	2.58	1.36	1.37	12	

Notes: CPI: consumer price index.

All CPI and wages in silver grams. The last column reports number of prices available.

Sources: See online Appendix A.