Home-Based Restaurants, Snack Bars, and Retail Stores: Their Contribution to Income and Employment in Lima, Peru

by

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Abstract

Evidence from a 1983 survey of 1,706 home businesses in Lima, Peru, shows that 908 home-based retail stores, restaurants, cafes, bars, and the like, generate as much or more output with about the same amount of input as home businesses that produce manufactured goods or other services. The store-cafes that do badly (yielding a low income), like other unproductive home workshops, are often those operated by women and selling only in the neighborhood. Low productivity is, therefore, not generally due to the inherent nature of some product or service, but to the inferior job opportunities for women.

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HOME-BASED RESTAURANTS, SNACK BARS, AND RETAIL STORES: THEIR CONTRIBUTION TO INCOME AND EMPLOYMENT IN LIMA, PERU[1]

Familiarity with economics tends to encourage a more abstract view of what is worthy and unworthy in production.[2] Those least familiar or sympathetic with the neoclassical approach tend to emphasize only what is tangible--wheat, cloth, oil, steel--to the point at which, in some centrally planned economies, nothing else is counted. It is not GNP, but GMP (or "Gross Material Product") that becomes all-important. Among policy-makers in the West and in many Third World countries, traces of such thinking can be found in the preference for supporting farmers and factories rather than services, especially retail stores, refreshment stands, and lunch counters. The rationale seems to be that stores and cafes are easily set up in one's home and that their marginal product must therefore be low. Any resources devoted to them are believed to add no value to the basic product. Retailing or serving food from homes is at best somewhat redistributive and at worst parasitic.

This paper presents evidence from a 1983 survey of home businesses in Lima, Peru, that partly contradicts that rationale and partly suggests that the issue should be posed differently. First, we show that home-based retail stores, restaurants, cafes, bars, and the like, generate as much or more output with about the same amount of input as home businesses that produce manufactured goods or other services. All types of business proliferate to the point where returns to the average worker diminish to a low of about fifty dollars or less. Second, we suggest a redefinition of the issue by showing that the stores-cafes that do badly (yielding a low income), like other unproductive home workshops, often are those operated by women and selling only in the neighborhood. The explanation for low productivity must, therefore, be sought not in the inherent nature of the product or service but in the isolation of some neighborhoods and the inferior job opportunities for women.

Comparison of Stores and Restaurants with Other Home Businesses

A survey of 1,706 randomly selected home businesses throughout the metropolitan area of Lima, Peru, was carried out in late 1983.[3] Of these, 53.2 percent were stores, restaurants, cafes, snack counters, and bars. If the proportion holds for the city, no fewer than 52,000 households had such store-cafes, as we shall call them. In terms of sheer numbers they were three times as prevalent as the next most numerous home business, garment making, with 15,000 enterprises.

The average monthly net earnings of store-cafes were the equivalent of US$73.5 dollars with US$66.7 for other home businesses. Store-cafes and others all employed an average of 1.4 workers, but per worker income was US$52.5 monthly in the store-cafes, nearly 10 percent more than the US$47.6 of other home workers. Garment makers earned US$46.2 monthly.

As a whole, restaurants and the like did better than retail stores, earning a net of US$89.6 monthly (US$54.6 per worker), compared with US$71.9 monthly (US$51.4 per worker) (see Table 1). The least successful enterprises of all types earned less than US$3.00 monthly. The median income of US$60.1 monthly of restaurants was higher than the US$45 median for both stores and other enterprises. In households with restaurants, restaurants contributed somewhat more than half of the household income, while those stores and other enterprises gained about forty percent of the household income from the business.

Total net household income for households with store-cafe businesses averaged about US$175. The average household had one worker in addition to those in the home business. The monthly earnings of that non-home worker averaged US$99.8, less than the average of US$112.6 monthly earned by the outside workers in households with home businesses other than store-cafes. Non-home workers throughout the city received an average US$95.3 monthly including property and pension income. Thus, the monthly earnings of workers in home businesses averaged about half those of outside workers regardless of whether the home business was a store, cafe, or other enterprise.

The characteristics of households operating store-cafes were similar to those of households operating all types of home businesses, as may be seen in the last three lines of Tables 2 and 3. Thus, the average household consisted of 6.3 members and was headed by someone in his or her mid-forties. Like home businesses in general, 65 percent of the store-cafes were operated by a female household head or by the wife of the male head.

For store-cafes the average of 6.1 years of education for the operator of the business was less than the 7.6 years of other home business operators. Like other household business operators, store-cafe operators had lived in their dwellings a dozen years and had operated the enterprise for four or five years. The average structure had slightly more than 115 m^2 of floorspace and occupied a 150 m^2 site. Of the 115 m^2 of floorspace, stores used an average of 27.2 m^2 and restaurants or cafes used an average of 43.5 m^2; the latter is close to the 43.0 m^2 average for other home businesses. The owners/occupants of the home business structures were asked to estimate their value; their responses averaged $4,600 for those with stores, $4,200 for those with restaurants, but $6,800 for all others, for an overall average of $5,600. In both more and less developed countries, such estimates have been remarkably close to those of appraisers and of averages of actual sales. In Lima, structures housing store-cafes probably had lower values than those with other types of home businesses because they were more likely to be located in squatter settlements.

Of course, these averages obscure diversity within categories, but they show that, as a whole, stores and cafes as home businesses were not remarkably different from other types of home businesses. The problem is to identify those with the greatest potential for raising incomes, employment, and savings in support of national economic development.

Gender and Markets

As with other businesses, stores and restaurants with higher earnings tend to be operated by a male head of a household and to have customers from the entire city, or at least the broad district where the enterprise is located. Low earnings are associated with operation by a woman and sales "mainly to neighbors in this building, this block, and in nearby streets."

The larger market category is called "city-wide" even though few or no customers might come from remote districts. For manufacturing shops, sales to other businesses were considered a separate market category. To attract a city-wide or business clientele, quality of product or service must be higher, which implies the use of more skills and usually more capital. Neighborhood stores operated by males had twice the earnings of those operated by females, and city-wide stores operated by males had nearly three times the earnings of city-wide stores operated by females. The combination of the two factors sextupled earnings from less than $50 montly for a female-operated neighborhood store to over $300 for a male-operated store with city-wide sales. Earnings per worker in these latter stores were better than those of any other home business type, $191.7 monthly (see Table 1, columns 2 and 4). There were, however, only about 1,500 of them in the Lima metropolitan area, compared with 33,500 female-run neighborhood shops, the most widespread home business comprising 34.3% of all home businesses.

Eating and drinking establishments showed similar but smaller differences based on the two factors of sex of operator and size of market. As can be seen in Table 1, column 2, the fact of having a male operator still doubled earnings, but the extent of the market has a smaller effect. Since restaurants with a city-wide clientele employed one or two extra workers, their earnings per worker were actually comparatively low at $63.1 monthly.

The low monthly income per worker of $38.3 for a female-operated neighborhood store or $41.7 for a neighborhood cafe should be compared with other neighborhood-oriented, female-run businesses. Those producing textiles, garments, or food products had monthly net earnings averaging US$30.1; laundresses averaged US$26.4 per month. The operation of stores and cafes, therefore, was one of the better alternatives open to these women. Moreover, a job in the formal sector, even if available, would require commuting and additional clothing expenses. More than half (54.2%) of cafe-store operators compared with 30.3 percent of laundresses and 48.1 percent of women who wove, sewed, or prepared food for the neighborhood, said that the home business was "much better" than a formal sector job.

If a male household head operated a store for the neighborhood, he earned US$65.4 monthly; if he operated a restaurant or cafe, net earnings were US$73.0 monthly per worker. If the man produced garments, textiles, or food products for the neighborhood, earnings were only US$59.8 per month for metal, wood, or leather goods, earnings per worker were US$56.7 per month. For city-wide markets, these latter two categories gave higher earnings of

US$78.9 and US$63.1 per month respectively. These earnings are similar to incomes from city-wide markets. These store-cafes also had the highest median income (US$123.6) that was statistically significant. In this group was the most lucrative home business of all, a store with US$2,500 of monthly earnings. To some extent, the higher incomes of store-cafes in general had to offset the higher cost and inconvenience of the sharper separation of business space from domestic space that such businesses entail. Compared with manufacturing, customers appear more often and stay longer so that any privacy requires at least separation--extra rooms are often additional space.

Income is not, however, the same as contentment. The proportion of operators who said a store-cafe with a city-wide clientele was "much better" than a formal sector job was 48.4 percent. This preference was less than that of metal products makers (63.6%), furniture makers (58.0%), shoemakers (68.6%); but greater than that of men producing garments, textiles, or food products for a city clientele (41.3%). These percentages show, nevertheless, a strong preference for being self-employed, even though average incomes were only half as much as earnings from outside work. The male-run businesses contributed 55-85 percent of household income, while the female-run store-cafes yielded 30-55 percent. This difference in percentages contributed reflects the earnings differential between men and women, and hence access to training, capital, and other opportunities.

Differences in household characteristics that lie behind these earning patterns are worth noting. Male-operated eating and drinking establishments had the largest average household size, 7.7 members, and generated the most employment per business. Only three had a city-wide clientele, and these were run by household heads with an average age of only 40.3 years (compared with the overall average of 46.2 years). They had the largest premises, 191 m^2 of floorspace on 323 m^2 lots, with 72 percent of the floorspace used for the business establishment. The expectation of 91.7 percent interest rates on loans showed a more realistic business sense than the 43.2 percent rate expected by the average operator, given the current and expected rate of inflation of perhaps 125 percent. Any interest rate below this percentage, of course, means that in real value terms, less would be repaid than was lent.

The three restaurants with city-wide clientele may be ambitious projects that will either expand out of the home or fail and may, in any case, stop being part of the home business population. Male-operated restaurants with a neighborhood clientele, by contrast, were run by the oldest heads, 53.6 years of age. Both types were run by the only store-cafe operators with an average of over seven years of education.

Women operate the vast number of small stores and cafes for the neighborhood. These women had less than the average amount of education for home business operators, between five and six years of schooling. Though earning less, they did not use significantly less space for the business. Their many neighborhood stores averaged 25 m^2 and their restaurants

averaged 38.9 m^2. A disproportionate number of neighborhood-oriented stores and cafes were in the Pueblos Jovenes (squatter settlements) around Lima. If they were evenly distributed in proportion to population, one would expect some 18,000, but there were actually over 23,000 as extrapolated from our random sample. We found 53.5 percent located in the squatter settlements, and they were 57.4 percent of home businesses in these areas.

Raising the productivity of these women workers is not simply a matter of switching occupations but of providing training and of overcoming the drawbacks of poor location, meaning cheaper access to the rest of the urban economy. To encourage women to be seamstresses or laundresses at the same location or to expect them to commute for a quarter of the day from that place and back is of little help. With respect to training, however, women in light manufacturing were ready to pay reasonable fees for 30-50 hours of instruction, while the owners of stores and restaurants thought two hours was the limit.

Major Problems of Home-based Stores and Cafes

Like other home-based enterprises, the stores and cafes are problem-solvers more than problem-raisers. They help to provide both income and space. Among occupants with stores, 73.1 percent said they could not have built, bought, or rented the dwelling without the home business income. For all other households, including the restaurant operators, this view was held by 63.0 percent. For cafes and stores with city-wide markets, however, the need for the business to support the cost of dwelling space approached eighty percent (79.7%).

Conversely, of course, the businesses could not have started without the space that the dwellings provided. That was true for 65.8 percent of eating and drinking establishments and for 74.8 percent of stores. The average for all other home businesses was 66.1 percent.

The viability of the stores and cafes is shown by the high proportion (90%) that did not consider closing even though the year 1983 had been economically depressed. A fall in business during the 1980s was reported by 43.2 percent. Some 31.2 percent, however, expected business to recover during the coming year. Economic conditions might be poor, but competition from larger stores, restaurants, cafes and bars (i.e., those outside of dwellings) was not feared by 85 percent of respondents, including both those with neighborhood clientele and those with city-wide clientele.

As was the case with other home businesses, the main problem perceived by store and cafe operators was credit. It was listed first by 17.4 percent of the respondents. Better access to piped water and the sewer system was listed as more important by store-cafe operators than by any others except the laundresses. It was listed first by 5.7 percent and as necessary before expansion by 17.2 percent. The high ranking for water and sewerage access is partly explained by the high number of store-cafes located in Pueblos

Jovenes that are inadequately supplied with such service. Only one percent considered inspections, regulations, taxes, and other payments to government a problem.

If the cafe or store were to sell more, its primary need would be more space, as stated by 24.0 percent of the neighborhood-oriented establishments and by 29.2 percent of those with city-wide customers. Acquiring space, together with the need for more furniture, equipment, and inventory, explains the need for additional credit before expansion.

Altogether, 60.3 percent of store-cafe operators said credit or access to loans was necessary for the business, and these are the ones who used it. Among home businesses other than store-cafes, credit was considered indispensable by 66.1 percent; the share exceeded 85 percent in the case of male-operated workshops that made textiles, garments, food, or metal products.

When loans were needed, two-thirds (67.5%) of the store-cafe operators sought them from friends and relatives. Only 7.3 percent mainly sought them from banks; the rest went to pawnbrokers, money lenders, credit clubs, and other sources. Table 3, column 5, shows that willingness to pay a realistic amount of interest was more common among male-operated enterprises with a city-wide clientele, and especially among the restaurant, bar, etc., operators.

The reluctance to use formal credit is underscored by the relatively high unwillingness or inability of these enterprises to offer any guarantee of repayment. Nothing was offered by 27.8 percent, a share exceeded only by the laundresses. The dwelling itself was offered as collateral by 30.0 percent; and equipment or furniture by 19.0 percent. The rest thought they could produce an adequate counter-signature by someone, payroll deductions of a family member working elsewhere, and the like. Two-thirds were unwilling to take responsibility for a joint loan together with other small neighborhood businesses.

Initiating home businesses into the world of formal credit is the task of the government affiliated Banco Industrial del Peru. In our sample, we found 37 enterprises that had received loans from that institution. Half were in manufacturing, but over a third were stores and two were restaurants. Since manufacturing does not invariably have a greater potential for generating income, savings, and employment, it would have been a mistake to concentrate all lending on that category of business.

Is the Contribution Trivial?

The 52,000 retail stores and eating establishments that operated in dwellings in Lima were not too many. That one in seventeen dwellings had such a business was not a waste. In fifty years, when real income per capita may well triple or perhaps quintuple, the proportion with store-cafes will be much lower. There will also be fewer small farms, small artisan

shops, and fewer of many other types of small business. Economic development goes with capital accumulation and economies of scale.

In the meantime, however, the 73,000 jobs provided by the store-cafes were important for 3.9 percent of the metropolitan labor force. They generated net income equivalent to US$46 million per year at a rate of US$73.5 dollars monthly per business or $52.5 per worker. Outside work paid nearly twice as well but was less dependable, less satisfying, and often involved travel time and related costs.

From the point of view of the customers of the stores and restaurants, the ubiquity of the enterprises meant that the possibility of a purchase, meal, snack, or drink was nearby. Customers thus saved time and often money for other productive use, necessities, or pleasures. The consumers' benefit from access to these establishments was not essentially different from benefits due to other goods and services. Like those enterprises offering manufactured products, the store-cafes had to provide enough convenience, pleasure, and perhaps status to buyers or business could not continue. No one was forced to patronize these stores and restaurants, and quite a few closed. The survivors provided good value for money.

In our sample, a few of the businesses had a negligible monthly income of US$5 or less because they were just starting, about to give up, or in transition. Others earned over US$500 monthly, and one reported US$2,500. These enterprises sometimes employed as many as half a dozen workers, and one had eight. Such enterprises are not only expanding but may relocate on other nearby premises. Alternatively, it is the household that may move out.

In one case a woman inherited a large, old, rundown dwelling with a store at a good location. She refurbished the house and converted the shop to a small cafeteria which flourished so well that a second room was shifted to the enterprise. Income during the first year was about $3,000. It became a popular restaurant. Eventually the woman, her husband, and children decided to move out of this house; she planned to convert the newly vacated rooms to a bakery. Books began to be kept formally by an accountant, and bank loans were being taken out and repaid. The case suggests once again that what matters is entrepreneurship, sensitivity to markets, and capital accumulation in general, not their particular incarnation in manufacturing instead of services, or vice versa.

Conclusion

In summary, the survey showed that home-based stores and restaurants were generally not very different from other home businesses on such criteria as space used, employment generated, and net income produced. Variations in profitability within the store-cafe category were also due to the same factors that caued variations elsewhere. Specifically, enterprises were less profitable if they were at inferior locations and operated by women. Regression analysis showed that, all other things being equal, a store or restaurant earned $10 more per worker than home-based manufacturing

of wood, leather, metal, textile, clothing, or food products. But other things were not equal, and income per worker actually turned out to average only about the same amount. The a priori advantage was lost because the greater proportion of stores and restaurants were located inconveniently, sold mainly to neighbors, and were operated by women.

Some ways to offset inconvenient location are the provision of water, sewers, lighting, and good access roads. All of these are likely to bring competition in, but at the same time they allow those with the most potential to expand and to compete elsewhere. Either way, workers have the opportunity to find more productive employment in better enterprises, whether operated from dwellings or not.

The lower productivity of female-operated enterprises is, of course, not inevitable. Some women in the sample, like some men, probably preferred a convenient part-time or flexible activity that could blend with household responsibilities. Lower earnings were the trade-off for that convenience. Other women had a different perspective and earned less only because of less education, difficult access to credit, legal disabilities, and other types of discrimination. Those who overcame these handicaps were often widows who took over husband's business or daughters who were especially favored with education and inheritance. The woman cited above who turned an inherited house into a restaurant is a good example. Few development policies have more potential than giving talented people access to training and credit.

Finally, a paradox of development is that the more home-based stores and restaurants with potential are encouraged, the faster will they be displaced by more productive, large-scale enterprises. Needless to say, that principle applies equally to other types of home business, to most small scale enterprises, and to the bulk of the informal sector. Whatever raises incomes, savings, and the tax base encourages capital formation and sooner or later, mass production. But that process takes decades. Meanwhile, the special benefit of home-based enterprises is that they promote better housing, allow that part of the capital stock to be used more intensively, and hearten those who like working close to their families. Commuting is the cost of progress.

APPENDIX

The Survey of 1980 and 1983

For both the 1980 and 1983 surveys, households were selected from those in 203 clusters with over a hundred houses that had previously been selected as a general sampling frame by the Directorate of Employment and Migration Studies (DEEM, formerly the Technical Office of Manpower Studies), General Bureau of Employment, Ministry of Labor and Social Progress of Peru. The 1980 survey was carried out from June 10 to July 3, 1980. To obtain a final sample of close to 1,200 households, 1,380 addresses were initially selected at random. Added later were 53 households next to those selected when these represented increased density of settlement and rising population growth. Of the initial selection, 266 interviews did not materialize because dwellings had been demolished, were unoccupied, were used entirely for non-residential purposes, or had occupants that refused to be interviewed or that could not be located even after four return visits. The number of houeholds finally interviewed was 1,167. Interviewing began early on Saturdays and Sundays and after 2 p.m. on week-days. Only the head of the household or other competent adults were questioned. Repeat visits were made to some households if information later appeared to be incomplete or contradictory.

Sample selection and interviewing proceeded in a similar manner for the 1,706 households with home businesses in the survey carried out from October 27 to December 10, 1983. To identify these households, however, 15,107 dwellings had to be surveyed first to determine the presence or absence of a home business, including the renting of rooms. Since 193 households had two businesses and 7 households had three businesses, the total number found was 1,913. To reduce the cost of search for home businesses, two strata of higher income districts were undersampled, so that 242 observations had to be weighted upward. Lower income districts were oversampled somewhat, and 1,464 observations had to be weighted downwards.

Where observations from subsamples have to be weighted, the standard errors of means cannot be calculated in the usual manner. Instead, one has to estimate the standard errors for the means of each subsample separately and then take their average, weighted in accordance with the known or assumed distribution of the population among the strata from which the subsamples come. For this insight, I am indebted to Professor James H. Stapleton, Department of Statistics, Michigan State University.

Sample selection and interviewing in Lima were under the direction of Abel Centurion and Jorge Bernedo of the DEEM, Ministry of Labor. Their contribution and that of their associates is gratefully acknowledged. The accuracy of their work can be seen from the following comparisons with the 1981 National Census of Population and Housing.

		1980 Household Survey	1981 Census
1.	Number of observations	1,167	906,367
2.	Occupants per dwelling	5.53	5.40
3.	Walls made of inferior materials (adobe, straw, etc.), percentage of dwellings	25.8	26.4
4.	Sewer system connection and piped water, percentage of dwellings	62.5	61.1
5.	Renters, percentage of households	29.2	29.8

NOTES

1. This study is the result of a cooperative effort between Michigan State University and the Directorate of Employment and Migration Studies, General Bureau of Employment, Ministry of Labor of Peru. Financial support came from the Small Enterprise Approaches to Employment Project of the Bureau for Science and Technology, U.S. Agency for International Development.

2. Thanks are due to Chris Gerry, Alan Gilbert, Michael Lipton, Donald Mead, Michael Shepperdson, Peter Ward, and E.J. Wells for helpful comments. Remaining errors and shortcomings are my responsibility.

3. See Appendix.

Table 1. Income Characteristics of Home-based Stores and Restaurants in Lima, Peru, 1983

	(1) Number in sample[a/] (percentage)	(2) Monthly home business income (standard error)	(3) Home business workers	(4) Monthly income per home worker $	(5) Total monthly household income $	(6) Share of home business income in total - %	(7) Median business income (minimum)
Stores, retail trade							
A. Female operated							
1. Neighborhood market	585 (64.4)	48.4 (2.6)	1.3	38.3	158.4	30.6	35.0 (0.0)
2. City-wide market	90 (9.9)	118.1 (28.9)	1.5	66.6	215.7	54.8	45.0 (6.0)
B. Male operated							
3. Neighborhood market	116 (12.8)	96.0 (8.6)	1.6	65.4	169.9	56.5	75.0 (2.5)
4. City-wide market	26 (2.9)	325.4 (202.3)	1.7	191.7	379.1	85.8	123.6 (5.0)
C. Female or Male operated							
5. Sell to businesses	10 (1.1)	90.9 (16.5)	1.8	58.3	155.4	58.5	73.9 (5.0)
Restaurants, cafes, bars, etc.							
A. Female operated							
6.1. Neighborhood market	42 (4.6)	64.8 (8.5)	1.7	41.7	147.2	44.0	49.8 (4.0)
7.2. City-wide market	25 (2.8)	87.6 (20.3)	1.2	70.1	183.5	47.7	60.2 (15.0)
B. Male operated							
8. Neighborhood market	11 (1.2)	168.2 (56.7)	2.0	73.0	248.9	67.6	81.3 (2.5)
9. City-wide market	3 (0.3)	175.0 (34.9)	3.3	63.1	215.0	81.4	150.0 (75.0)
Totals							
10. All stores, etc.	827 (91.1)	71.9 (10.8)	1.4	51.4	173.2	41.5	44.8 (0)
11. All restaurants, etc.	81 (8.9)	89.6 (10.4)	1.6	54.6	174.2	51.4	60.1 (2.5)
Home businesses							
12. All types (including stores and restaurants)	1706	70.3 (3.9)	1.4	50.2	176.1	39.9	44.9 (0)

ce: *Survey of 1,706 home businesses, October 27 - December 10, 1983.*

te: [a/] Percentage of 908 store-cafes.

Table 2. Household Characteristics of Those with Stores or Restaurants in Dwellings, Lima, Peru, 1983

	(1) Years of occupation of present dwelling	(2) Age of household head, years	(3) Household Size	(4) Total number of employed household members	(5) Home business workers	(6) Years of education of business operator
I. Stores, retail trade						
A. Female operated						
1. Neighborhood market	11.6	44.5	6.4	2.5	1.3	6.0
2. City-wide market	10.9	44.3	6.2	2.5	1.5	5.3
B. Male operated						
3. Neighborhood market	12.8	48.1	5.8	2.2	1.6	6.8
4. City-wide market	11.8	43.7	5.1	2.0	1.7	6.9
C. Female or male operated						
5. Sell to businesses	15.3	45.6	6.5	2.6	1.8	6.0
II. Restaurants, cafes, bars, etc.						
A. Female operated						
6.1. Neighborhood market	13.2	47.5	6.0	2.5	1.7	5.4
7.2. City-wide market	13.3	47.6	5.9	2.4	1.2	6.9
B. Male operated						
8. Neighborhood market	10.9	53.6	7.8	3.1	2.0	7.7
9. City-wide market	10.3	40.3	7.3	2.5	3.3	7.3
III. Totals						
10. All stores, etc.	11.7	44.9	6.3	2.5	1.4	6.1
11. All restaurants, etc.	12.7	48.0	6.3	2.5	1.6	6.2
IV. Home Businesses						
12. All types	12.7	46.2	6.2	2.4	1.4	6.8

Source: Survey of 1,706 home businesses, October 27 - December 10, 1983.

Table 3. Dwelling Characteristics of Those with a Store or Restaurant on the Premise in Lima, Peru, 1983

	(1) Site area, m^2	(2) Floorspace, m^2	(3) Value, $	(4) Rent per month, $	(5) Interest rate expected to pay, %	(6) Space of home business, m^2
I. Stores, retail trade						
A. Female operated						
1. Neighborhood market	154.4	115.9	4,213	10.2	40.3	25.1
2. City-wide market	125.0	100.5	5,900	3.5	40.6	44.0
B. Male operated						
3. Neighborhood market	151.0	119.4	5,350	25.8	48.8	27.1
4. City-wide market	112.8	124.2	8,300	9.7	68.6	43.3
C. Female or Male operated						
5. Sell to businesses	132.7	115.7	2,719	13.7	59.0	34.7
II. Restaurants, cafes, bars, etc.						
A. Female operated						
6.1. Neighborhood market	139.4	110.9	5,450	15.4	40.7	38.2
7.2. City-wide market	103.5	127.7	2,550	7.5	65.2	40.2
B. Male operated						
8. Neighborhood market	171.5	156.6	1,435	25.0	59.6	31.0
9. City-wide market	322.5	191.3	4,267	---	91.7	137.0
III. Totals						
10. All stores, etc.	149.1	115.0	4,592	11.0	42.7	27.2
11. All restaurants, etc.	143.9	124.8	4,207	13.0	52.0	43.5
IV. Home businesses						
12. All types	148.8	115.6	5,600	10.5	43.2	35.4

Source: Survey of 1,706 home businesses, October 27 - December 10, 1983.

WOMEN AND INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM
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The WID Program at Michigan State University began its *Women in International Development Publication Series* in late 1981 in response to the need to disseminate the rapidly growing body of work that addressed the lives of women in Third World countries undergoing change. The series cross-cuts disciplines and brings together research, critical analyses and proposals for change. Its goals are: (1) to highlight women in development (WID) as an important area of research; (2) to contribute to the development of the field as a scholarly endeavor; and (3) to encourage new approaches to development policy and programming.

The *Working Papers on Women in International Development* series features journal-length articles based on original research or analytical summaries of relevant research, theoretical analyses, and evaluations of development programming and policy.

The *WID Forum* series features short reports that describe research projects and development programs, and reviews current policy issues.

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Manuscripts submitted should be double-spaced, sent in duplicate, on disk or emailed (to wid@pilot.msu.edu) in WordPerfect compatible format and include the following: (1) title page bearing the name, address and institutional affiliation of the author; (2) one-paragraph abstract; (3) text; (4) notes; (5) references cited; and (6) tables and figures. The format of the article must follow the format as depicted in our "Style sheet". Submit manuscripts to Anne Ferguson, Editor, WID Publication Series, Women and International Development Program, 202 International Center, Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI 48824-1035, USA. Style sheets are available upon request.

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