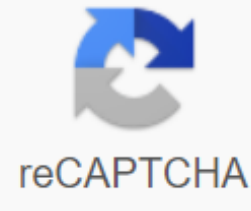




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Capital of bolivia sucre

Inland in South America This article is about the South American country. For more uses, see Bolivia (Disambiguation). Coordinates: 16°42′43″S 64°39′58″W﻿ / ﻿16.712°S 64.666°W﻿ / -16.712; -64.666 Plurinational State BoliviaEstado Plurinacional de Bolivia (Spanish)Teté Hetévoregua Mborivia (Guarani)Wuliwya Suyu (Aymara)Puliwya Mamallaqta (Quechua) Coat of Arms Coat of Arms Motto: La Unión es la Fuerza (Spanish)Unity is Strength[1]Hymn : Himno Nacional de Bolivia (Spanish)Location of Bolivia (dark green)in South America (grey)CapitalSucre (constitutional and legal)La Paz (executive and legislative)Largest citySanta Cruz de la Sierra17°48′S 63°10′W﻿ / ﻿17.800°S 63.167°W﻿ / -17.800; -63.167Official languages[2]SpanishGuaraniand 33 othersEthnic groups (2018[3])68% Mestizo (mixed Native and White)20% Native Bolivian5% White Bolivian1% Afro-Bolivian4% Other2% UnspecifiedReligion (2018)[4]88.9% Christianity—70.0% Roman Catholic—17.2% Protestant—1.7% Other Christian9.3% No religion1.2% Other religions0.6% No answerDemonym(s)BolivianGovernmentUnitary presidential constitutional republic• President Jeanine Áñez• Vice President Vacant LegislaturePlurinational Legislative Assembly• Upper houseChamber of Senators• Lower houseChamber of DeputiesIndependence from Spain• Declared 6 August 1825• Recognized 21 July 1847• Admitted to the United Nations 14 November 1945• Current constitution 7 February 2009 Area • Total1,098,581 km2 (424,164 sq mi) (27th)• Water (%)1.29Population• 2019[5] estimate11,428,245 (83rd)• Density10.4/km2 (26.9/sq mi) (224th)GDP (PPP)2019 estimate• Total\$89.018 billion[6] (88th)• Per capita\$7,790[6] (123rd)GDP (nominal)2019 estimate• Total\$40.687 billion[6] (90th)• Per capita\$3,823[6] (117th)Gini (2018) 42.2[7]mediumHDI (2018) 0.703[8]high · 114thCurrencyBoliviano (BOB)Time zoneUTC−4 (BOT)Driving siderightCalling code+591ISO 3166 codeBOInternet TLD.bo ^ While Sucre is the La Paz is the seat of the government and the executive capital. See below. Bolivia[9] () (listen) Spanish pronunciation: [bo.ˈli.ˈ(plurinasjoˈnal)][10][11] is a landlocked country in Western Central South America, based in the City of Bolivia. The constitutional capital is Sucre, while the seat of the government and executive capital is La Paz. The largest city and most important industrial e.a. is Santa Cruz de la Sierra on the Llanos Orientales (tropical lowlands), a predominantly flat region in the east of the country. The sovereign state of Bolivia is a constitutionally unified state divided into nine departments. Its geography varies from the peaks of the Andes in the west, in the eastern lowlands, in the Amazon basin. It borders Brazil to the north and east, Paraguay to the southeast, Argentina to the south, Chile to the southwest, and Peru to the northwest. A third of the country is within the Andean chain. With an area of 1,098,581 km2, Bolivia is after Brazil, Argentina, Peru and Colombia (and besides Paraguay, one of the only two landlocked countries in America), the 27th largest country in the world, the largest landlocked country in the southern hemisphere and the seventh largest landlocked country in the world after Kazakhstan, Mongolia, Chad. , Niger, Mali and Ethiopia.



The country's population, estimated at 11 million, is multi-ethnic, including Amer Indians, Mestizos, Europeans, Asians and Africans. Spanish is the official and predominant language, although 36 indigenous languages also have official status, the most commonly spoken Guarani, Aymara and Quechua languages. Before the Spanish colonization, the Andean region of Bolivia was part of the Inca Empire, while the northern and eastern lowlands were inhabited by independent tribes. Spanish conquistadors from Cuzco and Asuncion took control of the region in the 16th century. During the Spanish colonial period, Bolivia was administered by the Royal Audiencia of Charcas. Spain built its empire largely on the silver extracted from Bolivia's mines. After the first call for independence in 1809, 16 years of war followed before the Republic, named after Simen Bolvar, passed. During the 19th and early 20th centuries, Bolivia lost control of several peripheral areas to neighboring countries, including Chile's conquest of its coast in 1879. Bolivia remained relatively politically stable until 1971, when Hugo Banzer led a CIA-backed coup that replaced the socialist government of Juan José Torres with a Banzer-led military dictatorship; Torres was assassinated by a right-wing death squad in Buenos Aires in 1976. Banzer's regime cracked down on leftist and socialist opposition and other forms of dissent, leading to the torture and death of a number of Bolivian citizens. Banzer was deposed in 1978 and later returned as Bolivia's democratically elected president from 1997 to 2001. Modern Bolivia is a founding member of the UNITED Nations, the IMF, the NAM, the OAS, the ACTO, the Bank of the South, alba and USAN. Bolivia is still the second poorest country in South America. [12] It is a developing country with a high ranking in the Human Development Index. Its main economic sectors include agriculture, forestry, fisheries, mining and manufactured goods such as textiles, clothing, refined metals and refined petroleum. Bolivia is very minerals, including tin, silver, lithium and The etymology bolivia is named after the Venezuelan leader in the Spanish-American Wars of Independence. [13] The Venezuelan head of state Antonio José de Sucre had been given the opportunity by Bolvar to either unite Charcas (now Bolivia) with the newly formed Republic of Peru, to unite with the United Provinces of Rio de la Plata, or to officially declare his independence from Spain as a completely independent state. Sucre chose a brand new state and named it on August 6, 1825, with local support in honor of Simen Bolvar. [14] The original name was The Republic of Bolvar. A few days later, Congressman Manuel Martin Cruz proposed: If from Romulus, Rome, then from Bolvar, Bolivia (Spanish: Si de Rémulo, Roma; de Bolévar, Bolivia). The name was approved by the Republic on October 3, 1825. [15] In 2009, a new constitution changed the country's official name to Plurinational State of Bolivia in recognition of the country's multi-ethnic nature and the improved position of Bolivia's indigenous peoples under the new constitution. [15] History Main article: History of Bolivia pre-colonial Puerta del Sol, Archaeological Zone of Tiwanaku, Bolivia Tiwanaku in its largest territorial extent. 950 A.D. (borders shown today). The region, now known as Bolivia, was occupied for more than 2,500 years when the Aymara arrived. Today's Aymara, however, connects with the ancient tivanaku civilization that had its capital in Tiwanaku in western Bolivia. The capital Tiwanaku dates back to 1500 BC, when it was a small, agricultural village. [16] The municipality grew between 600 and 800 AD into an important regional power in the southern Andes. According to initial estimates [when?], the city covered about 6.5 square kilometers in its maximum extent and had between 15,000 and 30,000 inhabitants. [17] In 1996, satellite imaging was used to map the extent of the fossilized Suka collusion (flooded elevated fields) in the three primary valleys of Tiwanaku, reaching population-carrying estimates of 285,000 to 1,482,000 people. [18] Around 400 A.D., Tiwanaku developed from a locally dominant force to a predatory state. Tiwanaku expanded his reach into the Yungas and brought his culture and way of life to many other cultures in Peru, Bolivia and Chile. Tiwanaku was not a violent culture in many ways. To expand his reach, Tiwanaku exercised great political wisdom, created colonies, promoted trade agreements (which made other cultures more dependent) and established state cults. [19] The Empire continued to grow with no end in sight. William H. Isbell explains: Tiahuanaco experienced dramatic change between 600 and 700 A.D., the new monumental standards for state architecture and increase the resident population. [20] Tiwanaku continued to absorb crops rather than eradicate them. Archaeologists note a dramatic image of Tiwanaku pottery in the cultures that became part of the Tiwanaku Empire. Tiwanaku's power was further strengthened by the trade she carried out between cities within her empire. [19] Tiwanaku's elites attained their status through the excess food they controlled, collected from rioting regions, and then distributed it to the general population. Moreover, control of this elite over llama herds became a powerful control mechanism, as llamas were essential for the transportation of goods between the Civic Center and the periphery. These herds also symbolized class differences between the simple and the elites. Through this control and manipulation of surplus resources, the power of the elite continued to grow until about 950 A.D. At that time, there was a dramatic shift in the climate,[21][[Page required], causing a significant decrease in rainfall in the Titicaca Basin, which archaeologists believed was on the scale of a major drought. As rainfall receded, many of the cities further away from Lake Titicaca began selling less food to the elites. As the surplus of food declined, and the crowd was available to bolder their power, elite control began to falter. The capital became the last place viable for food production due to the resilience of the increased field method of agriculture. Tiwanaku disappeared around 1000 A.D. because food production, the main source of elite power, dried up. The area remained uninhabited for centuries. [21] Inca expansion (1438-1533) Between 1438 and 1527, the Inca empire expanded from its capital Cuzco, Peru. It gained control of much of what is now Andean Bolivia and extended its control to the edges of the Amazon basin. Colonial times The Spanish conquest of the Inca Empire began in 1524 and was largely completed in 1533. The area, now called Bolivia, was known as Charcas and was under the authority of the Viceroy of Lima. The local administration came from the Audiencia de Charcas in Chuquisaca (La Plata – modern Sucre). Founded in 1545 as a mining town, Potosa soon produced fabulous wealth and became the largest city in the New World with a population of more than 150,000 people. [22] At the end of the 16th century, Bolivian silver was an important source of income for the Spanish Empire. [23] A steady stream of natives served as labour under the brutal slave conditions of the Spanish version of the pre-Columbian mita. [24] Charcas was transferred to the Viceroyalty of the Rio de la Plata in 1776, and the people of Buenos Aires, the capital of the Viceroyalty, coined the term Upper Peru (Spanish: Alto Pera) as a popular allusion to the Royal Audiencia of Charcas. Tépac Katari led the Rebellion that besieged La Paz in March 1781.[25] in which 20,000 people died. [26] As the royal authority of Spain declined during the Napoleonic wars, the mood against colonial rule grew. Independence and subsequent wars Main article: History of Bolivia (1809-1920) The struggle for independence began in the city of Sucre on May 25, 1809 and the Chuquisaca Revolution (Chuquisaca was then the name of the city) is known as the first cry of freedom in Latin America. This revolution was followed by the revolution of La Paz on 16 July 1809. The La Paz Revolution marked a complete split with the Spanish government, while the Chuquisaca Revolution established a local independent junta on behalf of the Spanish king deposed by Napoleon Bonaparte. Both revolutions were short-lived by the Spanish authorities in the Viceroyalty of Rio de La Plata and were defeated, but the following year the Spanish-American wars of independence raged across the continent. Bolivia was captured and recaptured several times by the royalists and patriots during the war. Buenos Aires sent three military campaigns, all defeated, and eventually limited itself to protecting national borders in Salta. Bolivia was eventually liberated from royal rule by Marshal Antonio José de Sucre, with a military campaign coming from the north in support of Simen Bolvar's campaign. After 16 years of war, the Republic was proclaimed on 6 August 1825. The first coat of arms of Bolivia, formerly known as the Republic of Bolvar in honour of Simen Bolvar, was invaded in Peru in 1836 under the rule of Marshal Andrés de Santa Cruz to reinstall the deposed president, General Luis José de Orbegoso. Peru and Bolivia formed the Peru-Bolivian Confederation with de Santa Cruz as Supreme Protector. After tensions between the Confederacy and Chile, Chile declared war on December 28, 1836. Argentina declared war separately on 9 May 1837. The Peruvian-Bolivian troops won several major victories during the Confederate War: the defeat of the Argentine expedition and the defeat of the first Chilean expedition in the fields of Paucarpata near the city of Arequipa. The Chilean army and its Peruvian rebel allies surrendered unconditionally and signed the Paucarpata Treaty. The treaty stipulated that Chile would withdraw from Peru-Bolivia, return Chile to captured Confederate ships, normalize economic relations, and pay the Confederacy Peruvian debt to Chile. However, the Chilean government and the public rejected the peace treaty. Chile organised a second attack on Confederate and defeated them at the Battle of Yungay. After this defeat, Santa Cruz resigned and went into exile in Ecuador and then Paris, and the Peruvian-Bolivian Confederation was dissolved. Following Peru's renewed independence, the Peruvian President Gamarra invaded Bolivia. The Battle of Ingavi took place on November 1, 1841, when the Bolivian army defeated the Peruvian troops of Gamarra. After the victory, Bolivia invaded Peru on several fronts. The expulsion of Bolivian troops from southern Peru would be achieved through the increased availability of Peru's material and human resources; the Bolivian army did not have enough troops to maintain an occupation. In the District of Lumbamba – Tacna, a column of Peruvian soldiers and peasants defeated a Bolivian regiment in the so-called Battle of Los Altos de Chipe (Lumbamba). In the district of Sama and in Arica, the Peruvian Colonel José María Lavayén organized a force that managed to defeat the Bolivian troops of Colonel Rodríguez Magaríos and threaten the port of Arica. At the Battle of Tarapaca on January 7, 1842, Peruvian militias formed by commander Juan Buenda defeated a division led by Bolivian Colonel José María García, who was killed in the confrontation. In February 1842, the Bolivian troops left Tacna, Arica and Tarapaca and retreated towards Moquegua and Puno. [27] The battles of Motoni and Orullillo forced the withdrawal of Bolivian troops occupying Peruvian territory and put Bolivia at risk of a counter-invasion. The Treaty of Puno was signed on 7 June 1842 and ended the war. However, the climate of tension between Lima and La Paz remained in place until 1847, when the signing of a peace and trade agreement came into force. The estimated population of the three most important cities in 1843 was La Paz 300,000, Cochabamba 250,000 and Potosi 200,000. [28] A period of political and economic instability in the early to mid-19th century weakened Bolivia. During the Pacific War (1879-1883), Chile occupied vast areas rich in natural resources southwest of Bolivia, including the Bolivian coast. Chile took control of what is now the Chucicomata area, the adjacent rich Salitre fields (Salpeter) and the port of Antofagasta among other Bolivian territories. Since independence, Bolivia has lost more than half of its territory to neighboring countries. [29] Through diplomatic channels, it lost the Basin of the Madre de Dios River and the Purus Area in the Amazon in 1909, bringing Peru 250,000 km2 to its side. [30] It also lost the state of acre, in the Acre War, important because this region was known for its production of rubber. The peasants and the Bolivian army fought briefly, but after some victories and in view of the prospect of a total war against Brazil, it was forced to renounce in 1903. of Petrópolis, where Bolivia lost this rich territory. The popular myth is that Bolivian President Mariano Melgarejo (1864–1871) swapped the country for what he called a great white horse, and Acre was then inundated by Brazilians, eventually leading to confrontation and fear of war. In the late 19th century, an increase in the world price of silver brought Bolivia relative prosperity and political stability. At the beginning of the 20th century main article: History of Bolivia (1920-64) Bolivia's territorial losses (1867-1938) In the early 20th century, tin replaced silver as the most important source of the country's wealth. A series of governments controlled by the economic and social elite followed a laissez-faire-capitalist policy in the first 30 years of the 20th century. [31] The living conditions of the indigenous people, who make up the majority of the population, remained deplorable. Because the opportunities for work were limited to primitive conditions in the mines and in large goods, they had no access to education, economic opportunities and political participation. Bolivia's defeat to Paraguay in the Chaco War (1932–35), where Bolivia lost much of the Gran Chaco region in contention, marked a turning point. [33] [33] The Revolutionary Nationalist Movement (MNR), the most historical political party, emerged as a broad party. The MNR, which denied its victory in the 1951 presidential election, led a successful revolution in 1952. Under President Paz Estenssoro, under strong popular pressure, the MNR introduced universal suffrage to its political platform and implemented comprehensive land reform that promoted rural education and the nationalization of the country's largest tin mines. At the end of the 20th century main article: History of Bolivia (1964–1982) 1971 Hugo Banzer Suárez, supported by the CIA, violently overthrew President Torres in a coup d'état. Twelve years of turbulent rule left the MNR divided. In 1964, a military junta overthrew President Estenssoro at the beginning of his third term. The death of René Barrientos Ortúeo, a former member of the junta and president of the junta in 1966, led to a series of weak governments in 1966. Alarmed by the rising Popular Assembly and the growing popularity of President Juan José Torres, the military, the MNR and others installed colonel (later general) Hugo Banzer Suárez as president in 1971. He returned to the presidency from 1997 to 2001. Juan José Torres, who had fled Bolivia, was kidnapped and assassinated in 1976 as part of Operation Condor, the US-backed campaign of political repression by South American right-wing dictators. [35] The United States Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) funded and trained the Bolivian military dictatorship in the 1960s. The revolutionary leader Che Guevara was killed on 9 October 1967 in Bolivia by a team of CIA officers and members of the Bolivian army. Félix Rodríguez was a CIA officer in the the Bolivian army, which captured Guevara and shot him. [36] Rodríguez said that after receiving a Bolivian execution order, he pulled the soldier who pulled the trigger. In keeping with the history of the Bolivian government, che was killed in a clash with the Bolivian army. Rodríguez said the U.S. government wanted Che in Panama, and I could have tried to falsify the command to the troops and brought it to Panama, as the U.S. government said they wanted, but he decided to let the story run its course, as Bolivia wanted. [37] The 1979 and 1981 elections were inconclusive and fraud-ridden. There have been coups, counter-coups and transitional governments. In 1980, General Luis García Meza Tejada led a reckless and violent coup that was not supported by the population. He pacified the people by promising to remain in power for only one year. At the end of the year, he held an ltmv rally to claim popular support and announced: Bueno, me quedo or All right; I remain [in office]. [38] After a military rebellion that forced Meza out of the country in 1981, three other military governments struggled with Bolivia's growing problems in 14 months. The unrest forced the military to convene the Congress elected in 1980 and allow it to elect a new chief executive. In October 1982, 22 years after the end of his first term (1956-1960), he became president again. Democratic Transition Main Article: History of Bolivia (1982–present) 1993. Gonzalo S  nchez de Lozada was elected president in alliance with the Revolutionary Liberation Movement Tupac Katari, which inspired indigenous sensitive and multiculturally conscious pollics. [39] The government pursued an aggressive agenda for economic and social reforms. The most dramatic reform was privatisation under the capitalization program, in which investors, usually foreign ones, acquired 50% of ownership and management control over public companies in exchange for agreed capital investments. [40] [41] In 1993, Sanchez de Lozada introduced the Plan de Todos, which led to the decentralisation of government, the introduction of intercultural bilingual education, the implementation of agricultural legislation and the privatisation of state-owned enterprises. The plan explicitly stated that Bolivian citizens would own at least 51% of the companies; Under the plan, most state-owned enterprises (SOEs), though not mines, were sold. [42] This privatization of the SOEs led to neoliberal structuring. [43] Reforms and economic restructuring were strongly opposed by certain parts of society, leading to frequent and sometimes violent protests from 1994 to 1996, particularly in La Paz and the Chapare coca-growing region. The indigenous population of the could not benefit from the government's reforms. [44] During this time, Bolivia's umbrella organization, the Central Obrera Boliviana (COB), became increasingly unable to effectively challenge government policy. A teachers' strike in 1995 was defeated because the COB COB the support of many of its members, including construction and factory workers, not to march. In the 1997 elections, General Hugo Banzer, leader of the Nationalist Democratic Action Party (ADN) and former dictator (1971-1978), won 22% of the vote, while the MNR candidate received 18% of the vote. At the beginning of his government, President Banzer launched a policy of deploying special police units to physically eradicate the illegal coca of the Chapare region. The MIR of Jaime Paz Zamora remained a coalition partner in the entire Banz government and supported this policy (the so-called dignity plan). [45] The Banzer government basically continued the market and privatization policies of its predecessor. Relatively robust economic growth in the mid-1990s continued into about the third year of his term. Subsequently, regional, global and domestic factors contributed to a decline in economic growth. Financial crises in Argentina and Brazil, lower world prices for export raw materials and less employment in the coca sector depressed the Bolivian economy. The public also saw a significant amount of corruption in the public sector. These factors contributed to growing social protests in the second half of Banzer's tenure. Between January 1999 and April 2000, large-scale protests took place in Cochabamba, Bolivia's third largest city, in response to the privatisation of water resources by foreign companies and a subsequent doubling of water prices. On 6 August 2001, Banzer resigned from his post after being diagnosed with cancer. He died less than a year later. Vice-President Jorge Fernando Quiroga Ram  rez ended the last year of his term. In the June 2002 parliamentary elections, former President Gonzalo S  nchez de Lozada (MNR) came first with 22.5% of the vote, followed by coca supporter and local peasant leader Evo Morales (Movement for Socialism, MAS) with 20.9%. An agreement between the MNR and the fourth-placed MIR, which was again led by former President Jaime Paz Zamora in the election, effectively secured the election of Sanchez de Lozada in the run-off in Congress, and on 6 August he was sworn in for the second time. The MNR platform had three overarching objectives: economic reactivation (and job creation), anti-corruption and social inclusion. Former President Evo Morales In 2003, the Bolivian gas conflict broke out. On 12 October 2003, the government in El Alto imposed martial law after 16 people were shot dead by police and several dozen were injured in violent clashes. Faced with the option of resigning or further bloodshed, he offered his in a letter to an emergency session of Congress. After accepting his resignation and investing his vice-president Carlos Mesa, he left a commercially planned flight for the States. The internal situation of the country has become unfavourable for such political action on the international stage. After a resurgence of gas protests in 2005, Carlos Mesa tried to resign in January 2005, but his offer was rejected by Congress. On March 22, 2005, after weeks of new street protests by organizations accusing Mesa of bowing to the interests of U.S. companies, Mesa again offered to resign from Congress, which was approved on June 10. The Supreme Court's chief justice, Eduardo Rodr  guez, was sworn in as interim president in place of the outgoing Carlos Mesa. 2005-2019 Morales Presidency The neutrality of this section is disputed. Relevant discussions can be found on the conversation page. Please do not remove this message until the conditions are met. (September 2020) (Learn how and when to remove this template message) The inauguration of Evo Morales as President Evo Morales won the 2005 presidential election with 53.7% of the vote in the Bolivian elections. [46] On May 1, 2006, Morales announced his intention to renationalize Bolivia's hydrocarbon assets after protests calling for this action. [47] When Morales fulfilled a campaign promise on August 6, 2006, Morales opened the Bolivian Constituent Assembly to begin drafting a new constitution to give more power to the indigenous majority. [48] In August 2007, a conflict arose in Sucre, which became known as The Calancha Case. [Unreasonable weight? - discuss] Local citizens called for an official discussion of the seat of government to be included on the agenda of the entire body of the Bolivian Constituent Assembly. The people of Sucre wanted to make Sucre the full capital of the country, including the return of the executive and legislative departments to the city, but the government rejected the demand as impractical. Three people died in the conflict and up to 500 were injured. [49] The result of the conflict was the inscription of a text in the constitution stating that the capital of Bolivia is officially Sucre while he leaves the executive and legislative branches in La Paz. In May 2008, Evo Morales became a signatory to the UNASUR Constituent Treaty of the Union of South American Nations. In 2009, a new constitution was created and the country was renamed the Pluri national state of Bolivia. The previous constitution did not allow a re-election of a president in succession, but the new constitution only allowed re-election, which would spark the controversy if Evo Morales could run for a second term, arguing that he was after the last have been elected. This also triggered a new election in which Evo Morales was re-elected with 61.36% of the vote. His party, the Movement for Socialism, also won a two-thirds majority in both houses of the National Congress. [50] After his re-election under the new constitution in 2013, Evo Morales and his party are seeking a third term as President of the The opposition argued that a third term would be unconstitutional, but the Bolivian Constitutional Court ruled that Morales' first term under the previous constitution was not counted against his term limit. [51] This enabled Evo Morales to run for a third term in 2014 and was re-elected with 64.22% of the vote. [52] On October 17, 2015, Morales surpassed the nine years, eight months and 24 days in office of Andr  s de Santa Cruz and became Bolivia's longest-serving president. [53] During his third term, Evo Morales began planning a fourth, and the 2016 Bolivian constitutional referendum called on voters to repeal the constitution and allow Evo Morales to serve another term. Morales narrowly lost the referendum,[54] but in 2017 his party applied to the Bolivian Constitutional Court to repeal the Constitution on the grounds that the American Convention on Human Rights provided for the limitation of human rights as a violation of human rights. [55] The Inter-American Court of Human Rights ruled that the 2018 deadlines do not constitute a violation of human rights[56][57], but the Bolivian Constitutional Court again ruled that Morales has permission to run for a fourth term in the 2019 elections, and the permit has not been revoked. [...] The country's highest court overturned the constitution and abolished the deadlines for each office altogether. Morales can now run for a fourth term in 2019 - and then for every election, according to a 2017 article in the Guardian. [58] Interim Government 2019-present See also: Parliamentary Elections 2019 in Bolivia and Political Crisis in Bolivia 2019 The neutrality of this article is disputed. Relevant discussions can be found on the conversation page. Please do not remove this message until the conditions are met. (October 2020) (Learn how and when to remove this template message) During the 2019 elections, the transfer of the unofficial rapid counting process was interrupted; Morales had a 46.86 percent lead at Mesa's 36.72 after counting 95.63 percent of the count. [59] The Transmis  n de Resultados Electorales Preliminares (TREP) is a rapid counting process used in Latin America as a transparency measure in electoral processes to deliver a preliminary result on election day, and its closure without further explanation caused consternation among opposition politicians and certain election observers. [60] [61] Two days after the interruption, the official count showed that Morales was fractionally adjusted for the 10-point margin he needed to avoid a runoff, with the final official count being 47.08 Mesas 36.51 percent. Amid accusations that Morales rigged Bolivia's 2019 parliamentary elections, after three weeks of widespread protests organized to contest the election, and after the country's military chief Morales resigned on November 10, 2019. [64] The interim government was strongly protested by Morales' supporters, whose protest against Anez was met with deadly violence and accusations of a massacre of indigenous pro-Morales demonstrators. [65] The heated rift and chain of events began after the official results were announced, when the Organization of American States (OAS), as well as some local investigators and analysts, had alleged irregularities and fraud,[66][67][68], but these results were quickly hotly contested. [69] The Center for Economic and Policy Research (CEPR) concluded that it is highly likely that Morales won the required 10 percentage point lead to win in the first round on October 20, 2019. [70] David Rosnick, an economist for CEPR, showed that a fundamental coding error was detected in the OAS data, and that explained OAS's non-reproducible findings because OAS had missed its own data when it ordered the timestamps on the counter sheets alphabetically and not chronologically. [71] However, the OAS stood by its findings, arguing that [...] The researchers' work did not address many of the allegations made in the OAS report, including allegations that Bolivian officials maintained hidden servers that could have allowed the results to be changed,[72][73]In addition, European Union observers published a report with similar findings and conclusions to the OAS. [74] [75] But Ethical Hacking, the audit firm that was mostly featured in the OAS report, had examined the hidden servers and reported that no data had been altered or tampered with, but these results were omitted from the OAS final report. [76] [77] The tech security firm commissioned by the TSE (under Morales) to investigate the elections also stated that there had been several irregularities and procedural violations, and that our function as an auditing firm is to explain everything that was found, and much of what was found supports the conclusion that the electoral process was declared null and void. [78] The New York Times reported on June 7, 2020, that the OAS analysis was flawed immediately after the October 20 election, but fueled a chain of events that changed the history of the South American nation. [89] [80] [81] Morales flew to Mexico and was granted asylum there, along with his vice president and several other members of his government. [82] [83] After the constitutional succession after the president, vice-president and head of the Senate, Jeanine Eez was declared the acting president of Bolivia. It was as interim president, who declared her successor constitutional and automatic. [84] [85] Morales, his supporters, the governments of Mexico and Nicaragua, and other figures argue the event as a coup d'etat. International politicians, scholars and journalists are divided between the description of the as a coup or spontaneous social uprising against an unconstitutional fourth term. [86] [88] [88] [89] [90] [91] [92] The protests to restore Morales as president continued and were confronted by security forces with violence against Morales' indigenous followers after he freed the police and military from criminal responsibility in operations to restore order and public stability. [93] [94] Since the election was annulled, previously elected members of the House of Representatives and the Senate retained their seats. As a result, Morales' MAS party still had a majority in both chambers. [95] New elections were scheduled for 3 May 2020. [96] In response to the coronavirus pandemic, the Bolivian electoral body TSE announced a postponement of the election. Morales' MAS party reluctantly agreed only to the initial delay. A date for the new elections was postponed twice, in the face of massive protests and violence[97][98][99] The final election date was 18 October. [100] Official observers of the 2020 election, the OAS, UNIORE and the UN all reported that they had not found any fraudulent activity in the 2020 elections. [101] The election on 18 October 2020 had a record turnout of 88.4% and ended with a landslide victory for Morales' party, which won 55.1% of the vote with a 26.3% lead over centrist former President Carlos Mesa, who had 28.8% of the vote. Both Carlos Mesa and Anez conceded defeat. I congratulate the winners and ask them to govern thinking in Bolivia and in our democracy, he wrote on Twitter. [102] [103] Geography Main Article: Geography of Bolivia  s This section requires additional quotes for review. Please help to improve this article by adding quotes to reliable sources. Non-pag-ed material can be challenged and removed. (July 2015) (Learn how and when to remove this template message) Copacabana, on the Bolivian side of Lake Titicaca. Satellite image of Bolivian Altiplano. Sol de Maana (morning sun in Spanish), a geothermal field in the Eduardo Avaroa Andean Fauna National Reserve, Potosi Department, southwest of Bolivia. The area, which is characterized by intense volcanic activity with sulfur spring fields and mud lakes, does not in fact have geysers, but holes that emit pressure vapour up to 50 metres high. Amazon River Basin in the Pando Department in northern Bolivia. Bolivia is located in the central zone of South America between 57  26'-69  38'W and 9  38'-22  53'S. With an area of 1,098,581 square kilometers, Bolivia is the 28th largest country in the world and the fifth largest country in South America[104]. Central Andes stretches over part of the Gran Chaco, Pantanal to the Amazon. The geographical center of the country is the so-called Puerto Estrella (star spot) on the Rio Grande, in the province Cruz Department. The geography of the country has a wide variety of terrain and climate. Bolivia has a high level of biodiversity, considered one of the largest in the world, as well as several eco-regions with ecological sub-units such as Altiplano, tropical rainforests (including amazon rainforest), dry valleys and the Chiquitania, a tropical savannah. These areas have enormous differences in altitude, from an altitude of 6,542 meters above sea level in Nevado Sajama to almost 70 meters along the Paraguay River. Although Bolivia is a country with great geographical diversity, it has remained a landlocked country since the Pacific War. The Bolivian Pantanal is home to Puerto Su  rez, San Mataas and Puerto Quijarro. Bolivia can be divided into three physiographical regions: the Andean region in the southwest covers 28% of the territory and covers 307,603 square kilometers. This area is located above 3,000 m above sea level and lies between two large Andean chains, the Cordillera Occidental (Western Range) and the Cordillera Central (Central Range), with some of the highest spots in America such as the Nevado Sajama with a height of 6,542 meters and the Illimani at 6,462 meters. Also in the Cordillera Central is Lake Titicaca, the highest commercially navigable lake in the world and the largest lake in South America; [105] The lake is shared with Peru. Also in this region are the Altiplano and the Salar de Uyuni, the largest salt plain in the world and an important lithium spring. The sub-Andean region in the centre and south of the country is an intermediate region between the Altiplano and the eastern Llanos (plain); This region covers 13% of Bolivia's territory, covers 142,815 km2 and includes the Bolivian valleys and the Yungas region. It is characterized by its agricultural activity and its temperate climate. The Llanos region in the northeast covers 59% of the territory with 648,163 km2. It is located north of the Cordillera Central and extends from the Andean foreland to the Paraguay River. It is a region with flat land and small plateaus, all covered by vast rainforests with enormous biodiversity. The region is less than 400 metres above sea level. Bolivia has three catchment areas: the first is the Amazon Basin, also called the Northern Basin (724,000 km2(280,000 sq mi)/66% of the territory). The rivers of this basin usually have large meanders that form lakes like Murillo Lake in the Pando Department. The main Bolivian tributary of the Amazon Basin is the Mamor   River with a length of 2,000 km to the north to the confluence with the Beni River, 1,113 km long and the second important river of the country. The Beni River, together with the Madeira River, forms the main tributary of the Amazon. From east to west, the basin consists of other major rivers such as the Madre de Dios River, the Orthon River, the Abuna River, the Yata River, and the Guapor   River. The main lakes are Lake Rogaguado, Lake Rogagua and Lake Jara. The second is the Basin of Rio de la Plata, also called the South Basin (229,500 km2). The tributaries in this basin are generally less plentiful than those that make up the Amazon basin. The rio de la Plata Basin is formed mainly by the Paraguay River, the Pilcomayo River and the Bermejo River. The most important lakes are Lake Ueberaba and Lake Mandior  , both in the Bolivian marshland. The third basin is the Central Basin, an endorheic basin (145,081 square kilometers) (56,016 square)/13% of the territory). The Altiplano has a large number of lakes and rivers that do not run in any ocean because they are surrounded by the Andes mountains. The main river is the Desaguadero River with a length of 436 km, the longest river of the Altiplano; It starts in Lake Titicaca and then runs southeast to Lake Poopa. The basin is then formed by Lake Titicaca, Lake Poopa, the Desaguadero River and large salt flats, including Salar de Uyuni and Lake Coipasa. Geology Average annual rainfall inbolivia[106] Bolivia map of the K  ppen Climate Classification. [107] Bolivia's geology encompasses a variety of lithologies as well as tectonic and sedimentary environments. On a synoptic scale, geological units coincide with topographical units. Most elementally, the country is divided into a mountainous western area affected by the subduction processes in the Pacific, and into an eastern lowland of stable platforms and shields. Climate Chacaltaya Ski Resort, La Paz Department Bolivia's climate varies drastically from one ecoregion to another, from the tropics in eastern Llanos to a polar climate in the western Andes. The summers are warm, humid in the east and dry in the west, with rains that often change temperatures, humidity, wind, air pressure and evaporation and create very different climates in different areas. When the climatological phenomenon known as El Ni  o takes place[108][109], it causes major changes in the weather. Winters are very cold in the west, and it snows in the mountain ranges, while in the western regions windy days are more frequent. In the non-tropical regions, autumn is dry. Llanos. A humid tropical climate with an average temperature of 25   C. The wind from the Amazon rainforest causes significant rainfall. In May there are only Precipitation due to dry winds, and most days have clear skies. Nevertheless, winds from the south, called Surazos, Surazos, cooler temperatures of several days. Altiplano. Desert polar climate with strong and cold winds. The average annual temperature is between 15 and 20   C. At night, temperatures drop drastically to slightly above 0   C, while during the day the weather is dry and the sunlight is high. Drought frosts occur every month, and snow is common. Valleys and Yungas. Moderate climate. The humid north-east winds are pushed into the mountains, which makes this region very humid and rainy. Temperatures are cooler at higher altitudes. Snow occurs at altitudes of 2,000 meters. Chaco. Subtropical semiarides climate. Rain and humid in January and the rest of the year, with warm days and cold nights. Problems with climate change Bolivia is particularly vulnerable to the negative consequences of climate change. Twenty percent of the world's tropical glaciers are located within the country[110] and are more sensitive to temperature fluctuations due to the tropical climate in which they are located. Temperatures in the Andes rose by 0.1   C per decade between 1939 and 1998, and more recently the rate of increase has tripled (to 0.33   C per decade from 1980 to 2005),[111] which led to glaciers declining at an accelerated rate and leading to unforeseen water shortages in the andean land towns of the Andes. Farmers have taken temporary jobs in the city when there is a low yield on their crops, while others have begun to leave the agricultural sector permanently and are moving to nearby towns for other forms of work; [112] Some consider these migrants to be the first generation of climate refugees. [113] Cities facing the challenge of providing services to the influx of new migrants, such as El Alto; Since there is no alternative water source, the city's water source is now constricted. Bolivia's government and other authorities have acknowledged the need to develop new strategies to combat the effects of climate change. The World Bank has provided funding through the Climate Investment Funds (CIF) and is using the Climate Resilience Pilot Programme (PPCR II) to build new irrigation systems, protect river banks and basins, and work with indigenous communities to build water resources. [114] Bolivia has also implemented the Bolivian climate change strategy, which is based on measures in these four areas: promoting clean development in Bolivia through the introduction of technological changes in agriculture, forestry and industry, with the aim of reducing greenhouse gas emissions with positive effects on development. contribution to carbon management in forests, wetlands and managed natural ecosystems. Increase the effectiveness of energy supply and use to reduce the impact of greenhouse gas emissions and the risk of contingencies. focus on increased and efficient observations and understanding of environmental changes in Bolivia in order to timely answers. [115] Biodiversity Bolivia with an enormous diversity of organisms and ecosystems is part of the Like-Minded Megadiverse Countries. [116] Bolivia's variable altitudes of 90 to 6,542 meters above sea level allow for great biodiversity. The bolivian region comprises four species of biomes, 32 ecological regions and 199 ecosystems. Within this geographical area there are several natural parks and reserves such as Noel Kempff Mercado National Park, Madidi National Park, Tunari National Park, Eduardo Avaroa Andean Fauna National Reserve and Kaa-Iya del Gran Chaco National Park and The Integrated Administrative Area. Bolivia has more than 17,000 species of seed plants, including over 1,200 fern species, 1,500 species of marchantiophyta and moss, and at least 800 fungal species. In addition, there are more than 3,000 species of medicinal plants. Bolivia is considered to be the place of origin for species such as peppers and chillies, peanuts, the beans, yucca and several palm species. Bolivia, of course, also produces over 4,000 potato varieties. Bolivia has more than 2,900 species, including 398 mammals, over 1,400 birds (about 14% of the world's most known birds, the sixth most diverse country in terms of bird species)[117][[unreliable source?]. 204 amphibians, 277 reptiles and 635 fish, all freshwater fish as Bolivia a landlocked. In addition, there are more than 3,000 butterfly species and more than 60 pets. Bolivia has gained worldwide attention through its Law of Mother Earth's Rights, which humanrights to nature. [118] View from the mountain in El Sauce with a view of Samapaita, Bolivia's government and politics Main article: Politics of Bolivia and Foreign Policy Of Bolivia The government building of the National Congress of Bolivia in the Plaza Murillo in the center of La Paz Bolivia has been governed since 1982 by democratically elected governments; Previously, it was ruled by various dictatorships. Presidents Hern  n Siles Zu  r   (1982–85) and V  ctor Paz Estenssoro (1985–89) began a tradition of peaceful cedes of power, which has continued, although two presidents have resigned in the face of popular protests: Gonzalo S  nchez de Lozada in 2003 and Carlos Mesa in 2005. Bolivia's multi-party democracy has seen a variety of parties in the presidency and in parliament, although the Revolutionary Nationalist Movement, the Nationalist Democratic Action, and the Revolutionary Left Movement dominated from 1985 to 2005. On 11 November 2019, all senior government posts were vacated following the resignation of Evo Morales and his government. On 13 November 2019, Jeanine Ez, a former senator from Beni, declared herself the acting President of Bolivia. It is currently the President of Bolivia. The Constitution, drawn up in 2006/07 and adopted in 2009, provides for balanced executive, legislative, judicial and electoral powers, as well as several levels of autonomy. The traditionally strong executive branch tends to overshadow Congress, whose role is generally limited to debate and approval of laws initiated by the executive branch. The judiciary, consisting of the Supreme Court and the departmental and lower courts, has long been littered with corruption and inefficiency. Through constitutional changes in 1994 and subsequent laws, the government has embarked on potentially far-reaching reforms to the justice system and strengthened devolution powers for departments, communities, and indigenous areas. The executive is headed by a President and a Vice-President and consists of a variable number (currently 20) of ministries. The President is elected by referendum for a five-year term and is governed by the Presidential Palace (popularly burnt palace, Palacio Quemado) in La Paz. In the event that no candidate receives an absolute majority of the votes or more than 40% of the votes with a lead of more than 10% over the runner-up, a run-off should be held among the two most frequently elected candidates. [119] The Asamblea Legislativa Plurinacional (Plurinational Legislative Assembly or National Congress) has two chambers. The Chamber of Deputies of C  mara de Diputados has 130 members elected for a five-year term, seventy from one-member districts (district criminal offices), sixty by proportional representation and seven from the indigenous minorities from seven departments. The Chamber of Senators (C  mara de Senadores) has 36 members (four per department). The members of the Assembly are elected for a term of five years. The board is based in The Plaza Murillo in La Paz, but also holds honorary events elsewhere in Bolivia. The Vice-President shall act as titular leader of the combined assembly. The building of the Supreme Court in the capital of Bolivia, Sucre The judiciary consists of the Supreme Court, the PluriNational Constitutional Court, the Judiciary Council, the Agricultural and Environmental Court as well as the District (Department) and the Lower Courts. In October 2011, Bolivia held the first judicial elections to elect the members of the national courts by referendum, a reform initiated by Evo Morales. The Plurinational Electoral Body is an independent branch of the government that replaced the National Electoral Court in 2010. The branch consists of the Supreme Electoral Court, the nine Departmental Electoral Court, the electoral judges, the anonymously selected juries at election tables and electoral notaries. [120] Wilfredo Ovando the seven-member Supreme Electoral Court. Its activities are prescribed by the Constitution and by which the Law (Law 026, adopted 2010). The first elections of the institution were the first court elections of the country in October 2011 and five local elections in 2011. The capital of Bolivia has its constitutionally recognized capital in Sucre, while La Paz is the seat of the government. La Plata (now Sucre) was declared the provisional capital of the newly independent Alto Pera (later Bolivia) on 1 July 1826. [121] On July 12, 1839, President Jos   Miguel de Velasco proclaimed a law that declared the city the capital of Bolivia and renames it in honor of the revolutionary leader Antonio Jos   de Sucre. [121] The Bolivian seat of government moved to La Paz at the beginning of the 20th century, as a result of Sree's relative remoteness from economic activity after the decline of Potos  and and its silver industry and the Liberal Party in the War of 1899. The 2009 Constitution assigns Sucre the role of national capital without referring to La Paz in the text. [119] The Supreme Court of Bolivia is not only the constitutional capital, but also in Sucre, making it the capital of the judiciary. Nevertheless, the Palacio Quemado (the presidential palace and seat of the Bolivian executive power) is located in La Paz, as is the National Congress and the Plurinational Electoral Body. La Paz thus remains the seat of government. Law and crime Main article: Crime in Bolivia There are 54 prisons in Bolivia, which in 2010 imprisoned about 8,700 people[update]. The prisons are administered by the Directorate for Rigid Regimes (Spanish: Direcci  n de R  gimen Penitenciario). There are 17 prisons in departmental capitals and 36 provincial prisons. [122] Foreign Policy Main Article: The foreign policy of bolivian presidents of Bolivia, Cuba, Cuba and El Salvador welcomes Nicols Maduro at Maduro's second inauguration in



Caracas on January 10, 2019, despite the loss of its sea coast, the so-called Litoral Department, Bolivia has historically maintained a maritime claim to this part of Chile as a maritime claim after the Pacific War; the demand calls for sovereign access to the Pacific Ocean and its maritime space. The issue was also submitted to the Organization of American States; In 1979, the OAS adopted the 426 resolution[123], which stated that the Bolivian problem was a hemispheric problem. On April 4, 1884, a truce was signed with Chile, in which Chile granted access to Bolivian products through Antofagasta and released the payment of export rights in the port of Arica. In October 1904, the Peace and Friendship Treaty was signed, and Chile agreed to build a railway line between Arica and La Paz to allow access to the ports of Bolivian products. The Special Economic Zone for Bolivia in Ilo (ZEEBI) is a special economic area with a length of 5 km of sea coast and a total area of 358 hectares, called Mar Bolivia (Sea where Bolivia can maintain a free port near Ilo, Peru under its administration and operation[124][unreliable source?] for a period of 99 years from 1992; as soon as this time is over, all construction and areas will return to the Peruvian government. Since 1964, Bolivia has had its own port facilities in the Bolivian free port in Rosario, Argentina. This port is located on the Paraná River, which is directly connected to the Atlantic Ocean. The dispute with Chile was taken to the International Court of Justice. The court ruled in support of the Chilean position, saying that while Chile may have had talks on a Bolivian corridor to the sea, the country was not obliged to actually negotiate a corridor or give up its territory. [125] Military The Bolivian military consists of three branches: Ejército (Army), Marine (Marine) and Fuerza Aérea (Air Force). The legal age for voluntary admissions is 18 years; however, if the figures are low, the government has in the past recruited people aged 14. [3] The mission usually lasts 12 months. The Bolivian army has about 31,500 men. There are six military regions (Regional Militares – RMs) in the army. The army is organized in ten divisions. Although it is landlocked Bolivia holds a navy. The Bolivian Navy (Spanish: Fuerza Naval Boliviana) is a naval force with a strength of about 5,000 men in 2008. [126] The Bolivian Air Force (Fuerza Aérea Boliviana or FAB) has nine air bases in La Paz, Cochabamba, Santa Cruz, Puerto Suárez, Tarija, Villamontes, Cobija, Riberalta and Roboré. In 2018, Bolivia signed the UN Treaty on the Prohibition of Nuclear Weapons. [127] [128] The Bolivian government spends 130 million dollars annually on defense. [129] Administrative units Main articles: Departments of Bolivia, Provinces of Bolivia, Municipalities of Bolivia, Cantons of Bolivia and Native American municipalities of Bolivia consists of nine departments: Pando, La Paz, Beni, Oruro, Cochabamba, Santa Cruz, Potosé, Chuquisaca, Tarija. According to what is laid down in the Bolivian political constitution, the law of autonomy and decentralization regulates the procedure for the drafting of autonomy statutes, the transfer and distribution of direct responsibilities between the central government and the autonomous units. [130] There are four levels of decentralization: the departmental government, which is formed by the departmental assembly, with rights over the departmental legislation. The Governor is elected by universal suffrage. Municipal administration, formed by a municipal council, with rights to the legislation of the municipality. The mayor is elected by universal suffrage, formed from several provinces or municipalities with geographical continuity within a department. It is formed by a regional assembly. Original Indigenous Government, Self-Government of Indigenous Peoples the old areas in which they live. No. Department Capital Territorial division of Bolivia 1 Pando Cobija 2 La Paz La Paz 3 Beni Trinidad 4 Oruro Oruro 5 Cochabamba Cochabamba Cochabamba Cochabamba 6 Santa Cruz Santa Cruz de la Sierra 7 Potosé Potosé 8 Chuquisaca Sucre 9 Tarija Tarija Economy Main article: Economy Bolivia's Graphic representation of Bolivian product exports in 28 colour-coded categories La Paz, Bolivia's estimated gross domestic product (GDP) in 2012 was USD 27.43 billion at the official exchange rate and USD 56.14 billion in purchasing power parity. Despite a series of mostly political setbacks, the Morales administration drove growth at a higher rate than at any time in the previous 30 years between 2006 and 2009. Growth has been linked to a moderate decline in inequality. [131] By 2012, a surplus budget of 1.7% (GDP) had been achieved, and the state has surpluses, as the Morales administration reflects prudent economic management. [Quote Required] A major blow to the Bolivian economy came with a sharp fall in prices in the early 1980s, which affected one of Bolivia's main sources of income and one of its most important mining industries. [132] Since 1985, the Bolivian government has implemented a far-reaching programme of macroeconomic stabilisation and structural reforms aimed at maintaining price stability, creating conditions for sustainable growth and alleviating scarcity. A comprehensive reform of the customs service has significantly improved transparency in this area. Parallel legislative reforms have blocked market-liberal policies, particularly in the hydrocarbon and telecommunications sectors, that have encouraged private investment. Foreign investors are granted equal treatment and treatment. [133] In April 2000, Hugo Banzer, the former president of Bolivia, signed a contract with Aguas del Tunari, a private consortium, to operate and improve water supply in Bolivia's third-largest city, Cochabamba. Soon after, the company tripled water prices in the city, an action that led to protests and riots among those who could no longer afford clean water. [134] In the midst of Bolivia's national economic collapse and growing national unrest over the state of the economy, the Bolivian government was forced to withdraw the water treaty. Bolivia has the second largest natural gas reserves in South America. [136] The government has a long-term purchase agreement to sell natural gas to Brazil by 2019. The government held a binding referendum on the Hydrocarbons Act in 2005. The U.S. Service estimates that Bolivia has 5.4 million cubic tons of lithium, equivalent to 50 to 70% of the world's reserves. For me, however, it would mean disrupting the country's salt plains (called Salar de Uyuni), an important natural feature that boosts tourism in the region. The government wants to unique natural landscape to meet the growing global demand for lithium. [137] On the other hand, the government is trying to produce lithium sustainably. This project is carried out by the public company Recursos Evaporéticos de COMIBOL. Bolivia is thought to be geopolitically strengthened due to the importance of lithium for batteries for electric vehicles and the stabilisation of electricity grids with a large share of intermittent renewable energy in the electricity mix. But this perspective has also been criticized for underestimating the power of economic incentives for expanded production in other parts of the world. [138] Bolivia's government once relied heavily on foreign aid to finance development projects and pay for public staff. At the end of 2002, the government owed its foreign creditors USD 4.5 billion, with USD 1.6 billion owed to other governments, and most of the budget shortfall owed to multilateral development banks. Most payments to other governments have been postponed several times since 1987 through the Paris Club Mechanism. External creditors were willing to do so because the Bolivian government has generally met the monetary and fiscal goals set by IMF programs since 1987, even though Bolivia's economic crises have usually undermined good balance sheets. Until 2013, however, foreign aid accounted for only a fraction of the state budget, as tax collection is mainly from profitable natural gas exports to Brazil and Argentina. Foreign exchange reserves The amount in reserve currencies and gold of the Bolivian Central Bank rose from 1.085 billion U.S. dollars in 2000 under the government of Hugo Banzer Suarez to 15.282 billion U.S. dollars in 2014 under the government of Evo Morales. Foreign exchange reserves 2000-2014 (MM US dollar) [139] Fuente: Banco Central de Bolivia, Gráfica elaborada por: Wikipedia. Main tourism: Tourism in Bolivia Salar de Uyuni, one of the most visited attractions in Bolivia. [140] Tourism revenues are becoming increasingly important. Bolivia's tourism industry has valued the appeal of ethnic diversity. [141] The most visited places are Nevado Sajama, Torotoro National Park, Madiidi National Park, Tiwanaku and the city of La Paz. The most famous of the country's various festivals is the Carnaval de Oruro, which was one of the first 19 masterpieces of the oral and intangible heritage of mankind, as unesco announced in May 2001. [142] Transport Roads of Bolivia's Yungas Road was considered the most dangerous by the Inter-American Development Bank (El Camino de la Muerte) in Spanish. in the world. [143] The northern part of the road, which was largely unpaved and without guardrails, was cut into the Cordillera Oriental Mountain in the 1930s. The fall from the narrow 3.7 m path is up to 2,000 feet in some places and due to the wet weather of the Amazon, there are often poor conditions such as mudslides and falling rocks. [144] Every year, more than 25,000 bikers cycle on the 64 km long road. In 2018, an Israeli woman was killed while cycling in the street from a falling rock. [145] The Apolo road runs deep into La Paz. Roads in this area were originally built to provide access to mines near Charazani. Other notable roads lead to Coroico, Sorata, the Zongo Valley (Ilimani Mountain) and along the Cochabamba Motorway (carretera). [146] According to researchers from the Center for International Forestry Research (CIFOR), Bolivia's road network was still underdeveloped from 2014. In Bolivia's lowlands, there are less than 2,000 kilometers (2,000,000 m) of paved road. There has been some recent investment; Animal husbandry has expanded in Guayarameron, possibly due to a new road linking Guayarameron with Trinidad. [147] Air transport See also: List of airlines of Bolivia and list of airports in Bolivia Boliviana de Aviación (BoA) is a state-owned company and the largest airline in the country. Two BoA Boeing 737-300 s park at Jorge Wilstermann International Airport. The Directorate-General for Civil Aviation (Dirección General de Aeron-utica Civil—DGAC), formerly part of the FAB, manages a civil aviation school called the National Institute of Civil Aeronautics (Instituto Nacional de Aeron-utica Civil—INAC) and two commercial air services TAM and TAB. TAM – Transporte Aéreo Militar (Bolivian military airline) was an airline based in La Paz. It was the civilian wing of the Fuerza Aérea Boliviana (the Bolivian Air Force) that operated passenger services to remote towns and cities in the north and northeast of Bolivia. TAM (also TAM Group 71) has been part of the FAB since 1945. The airline has ceased operations since 23 September 2019. [148] Bolivian airline Boliviana de Aviación is the airline of Bolivia. [149] A private airline serving regional destinations is Lénea Aérea Amaszonas.[150] with services, including some international destinations. Although TAB – Transportes Aéreos Bolivianos was founded in 1977 as a subsidiary of FAB, the civil transport airline TAB – Transportes Aéreos Bolivianos was founded. It is subordinate dissenting to the aviation management (Gerencia de Transportes Aéreos) and is managed by a FAB general. TAB, a charter heavy cargo airline, connects Bolivia with most western hemisphere countries; its inventory includes a fleet of Hercules C130 aircraft. TAB has its headquarters next to the El Alto Airport. TAB flies to Miami and Houston, with a stopover in Panama. The three largest and most important international airports in Bolivia are El Alto International Airport in La Paz, Viru Viru International International in Santa Cruz and Jorge Wilstermann International Airport in Cochabamba. There are regional airports in other cities that connect these three hubs. [151] Railways See also: Rail transport in Bolivia Railways in Bolivia (interactive map) — routes with passenger transport — routes in usable condition Unusable or dismantled lines Bolivia has an extensive but aged rail system, which consists of all with a gauge of 1000 mm and consists of two separate networks. Technology Bolivia owns a communications satellite that has been pre-stored/outourced and launched by China, called Tépac Katari 1. [152] In 2015, it was announced that advances in power supply include a planned 300 million dollar nuclear reactor of the Russian nuclear company Rosatom. [153] Water supply and sanitation main article: Water supply and sanitation in Bolivia Bolivia's drinking water and sanitation supply has improved significantly since 1990 due to a significant increase in sectoral investment. However, the country has the lowest coverage levels of the continent and services are of low quality. Political and institutional instability have contributed to the weakening of the sector's institutions at national and local level. Two concessions to foreign private companies in two of the three largest cities – Cochabamba and La Paz/El Alto – were terminated prematurely in 2000 and 2006 respectively. The country's second-largest city, Santa Cruz de la Sierra, manages its own water and sewerage system relatively successfully through cooperatives. The government of Evo Morales intends to strengthen citizen participation in this sector. Increasing coverage requires a significant increase in investment financing. According to the government, the main problems in this sector are the lack of access to sanitation throughout the country; low access to water in rural areas; insufficient and ineffective investment; low visibility of municipal service providers; lack of respect for local customs; technical and institutional difficulties in the design and implementation of projects; lack of capacity for the operation and maintenance of the infrastructure; an institutional framework that is incompatible with political change in the country; ambiguities in social participation systems; reducing the amount and quality of water due to climate change; pollution and lack of integrated water resource management; and the lack of directives and programmes for the reuse of waste water. [154] Only 27% of the population have access to improved sanitation and 80 to 88% have access to improved water sources. Coverage in urban areas is greater than in rural areas. [155] Demographics Main article: Demographics of the Bolivian population[156][157] Year Million 1950 3.1 2000 8.3 2018 11.4 People in the city center of La Paz According to the last two censuses of the Bolivian National Statistics Statistics (Instituto Nacional de Estadística, INE) increased the population from 8,274,325 (of which 4,123,850 men and 4,150,475 women) in 2001 to 10,059,856 in 2012. [158] In the last fifty years, the Bolivian population has tripled to a population growth rate of 2.25%. Population growth in the intermediate census periods (1950-1976 and 1976-1992) was about 2.05%, compared with 2.74% per annum between 1992 and 2001. Some 67.49% of Bolivians live in urban areas, with the remaining 32.51% living in rural areas. Most of the population (70%) focuses on the departments of La Paz, Santa Cruz and Cochabamba. In the Andean Altiplano region, the departments of La Paz and Oruro hold the largest percentage of the population, in the valley region the largest percentage is held by the departments of Cochabamba and Chuquisaca, while in the llanos region of Santa Cruz and Beni. At national level, the population density is 8.49, with variations ranging from 0.8 (Pando Division) to 26.2 (Cochabamba Department). The largest population centre is located in the so-called central axis and in the llanos region. Bolivia has a young population. According to the 2011 census, 59% of the population is between 15 and 59 years old, and 39% are less than 15 years old. Almost 60% of the population is under the age of 25. Genetics According to a genetic study of Bolivians, the average sequentialities of Native American, European and African ancestry are 86%, 12.5% and 1.5%, in people from La Paz and 76.8%, 21.4% and 1.8% in people from Chuquisaca; Ethnic and racial classifications Danza de los macheteros, typical dance from San Ignacio de Moxos, Bolivia Aymara Mann, near Lake Titicaca. Bolivia The vast majority of Bolivians are Mestizo (with the indigenous component higher than the European one), although the government did not include the cultural self-identification mestizo in the november 2001 census. [160] There are about three dozen indigenous groups that make up about half of the Bolivian population – the largest proportion of the indigenous population in Latin America. The exact figures vary according to the wording of the ethnic question and the available answers. For example, the 2001 census did not mention the racial category Of Mestizo as the answer, which resulted in a much higher proportion of respondents identifying as a member of one of the available indigenous ethnic groups. Mestizos are distributed throughout the country and make up 26% of the Bolivian population. Most people assume their mestizo identity and identify with one or more indigenous cultures at the same time. An estimate of the racial classification in 2018, Mestizo (mixed white and Amerindian) put it at 68%, Indigenous at 20%, white at 5%, cholo at 2%, black at 1%, others at 4%, 4%, 2% were not specified; 44% attributed themselves to an indigenous group, especially the linguistic categories of Quechuas or Aymaras. [3] Whites made up about 14% of the population in 2006 and tend to focus on the largest cities: La Paz, Santa Cruz de la Sierra and Cochabamba, but also in some smaller cities such as Tarija and Sucre. The lineage of the whites and the white ancestry of Mestizos lies within the continents of Europe and the Middle East, especially Spain, Italy, Germany, Croatia, Lebanon and Syria. In the Santa Cruz Department there are several dozen colonies of German-speaking Mennonites from Russia with a total population of around 40,000 (as of 2012[Update]). [161] Afro-Bolivians, descendants of African slaves who arrived at the time of the Spanish Empire, inhabit the La Paz Department and are mainly located in the provinces of Nor Yungas and Sud Yungas. Slavery was abolished in Bolivia in 1831. [162] There are also important communities of Japanese (14,000[163]) and Lebanese (12,900[164]). Indigenous peoples, also called Originarios (native or original) and rare Amer Indians, could be categorized by geographical areas such as the Andes, such as the Aymaras and Quechuas (which formed the ancient Inca Empire), which are concentrated in the western departments of La Paz, Potosé, Oruro, Cochabamba and Chuquisaca. There are also ethnic populations in the east, consisting of the Chiquitano, Chané, Guarané and Moxos, among others, who inhabit the departments of Santa Cruz, Beni, Tarija and Pando. There are a small number of European citizens from Germany, France, Italy and Portugal, as well as from other countries in America, such as Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Cuba, Ecuador, the United States, Paraguay, Peru, Mexico and Venezuela, among others. There are important Peruvian colonies in La Paz, El Alto and Santa Cruz de la Sierra. In Bolivia there are about 140,000 Mennonites of Frisian, Flemish and German ethnic origin. [165] Indigenous peoples The indigenous peoples of Bolivia can be divided into two categories of ethnic groups: the Andes, which are located in the Andean Altiplano and the valley region; and the lowland groups that inhabit the warm regions of central and eastern Bolivia, including the valleys of the Cochabamba Department, the Amazon basins of the northern La Paz department and the lowland departments of Beni, Pando, Santa Cruz and Tarija (including the Gran Chaco region in the south-east of the country). A large number of Andean peoples have also emigrated to Quechua, Aymara and intercultural communities in the lowlands. Andean Ethnic Aymara people. They live on the high plateau of the departments of La Paz, Oruro and Potosa, as well as some small regions near the tropical lowlands. Quechua. They inhabit the valleys in Cochabamba and Chuquisaca. They also inhabit some regions in Potosé and Oruro. They are divided into various Quechua nations, such as the Tarabucos, Usumaris, Chalchas, Chaquies, Yralipes, Tirinas, among others. Uru People Ethnicities of the Eastern Lowlands Guaranées: consisting of Guarayos, Pausernas, Siriones, Chiriguanoos, Wicha, Chulipis, Taipetes, Tobas and Yuquís. Tacanas: consisting of Lecos, Chimanes, Araonas and Maropas. Panos: consisting of Cacbobos, Caripunás, Sinabos, Capuibos and Guacananaguas. Aruacos: consisting of Apolistas, Baures, Moxos, Chané, Movimas, Cayabayas, Caracabas and Paiconecas (Paucanacas). Chapacuras: consisting of Itenez (More), Chapacuras, Sansonionianos, Canichanas, Itonamas, Yuracarés, Guatoses and Chiquitanos. Botocudos: consisting of Bororos and Otuguís. Zamucos: consisting of Ayoreos. Languages in Bolivia Languages Percentage Spanish 61.7% Quechua 18.8% Aymara 11.3% Portuguese 5.9% German 1.1% Guaran- 0.6% Other Indigenous 0.5% Chimén 0.1% English 0.1% Other foreign word 0.1% Main article: Bolivian languages Geographical distribution of Bolivia's indigenous languages has a great linguistic diversity due to its multiculturalism. In addition to Spanish, the Constitution of Bolivia recognizes 36 official languages: Aymara, Araona, Baure, Bésiro, Canichana, Cavinéeo, Cayubaba, Chécobo, Chimén, Ese Ejja, Guarané, Guarasu'we, Guarayu, Itonama, Leco, Machajuyai-Kallawaya, Machineri, Maropa, Mojeóo-Ignaciano, Moje-o-Trinitario, Moré, Mosetén, Movima, Pacawara, Puquina, Quechua, Siriona, Tacana, Tapieté, Toromona, Uru-Chipaya, Weenhayek, Yaminawa, Yuki, Yuracaré and Zamuco. [2] Spanish is the most widely spoken official language in the country, according to the 2001 census; as two-thirds of the population is said to be. All legal and official documents issued by the state, including the Constitution, the main private and public institutions, the media and commercial activities, are in Spanish. The main indigenous languages are: Quechua (21.2% of the population at the 2001 census), Aymara (14.6%), Guarani (0.6%) and others (0.4%) including the Moxos in the Beni department. [3] Plautdietsch, a German dialect, is spoken by about 70,000 Mennonites in Santa Cruz. Portuguese is spoken mainly near Brazil. Bilingual education was introduced in Bolivia under the leadership of President Evo Morales. His programme focused on the expansion of indigenous languages in the country's education systems. [167] Religion Main article: Religion in Bolivia Religion in Bolivia (2014)[168] Catholic (77%) Protestant (16%) Other (3%) Irreligious (4%) Bolivia is a constitutionally secular state that guarantees religious freedom and the government's independence from religion. [169] According to the 2001 Census, carried out by the National Institute Statistics of Bolivia, 78% of the population were Roman Catholic, followed by 19% who are Protestant, as well as a small number of Bolivians who are Orthodox and 3% non-religious. [170] [171] The Association of Religion Data Archives (citing the World Christian Database) reports that in 2010 92.5% of Bolivians were identified as Christians (each denomination), 3.1% were identified with indigenous religion, 2.2% identified as Bahai, 1.9% identified as agnostic, and all other groups accounted for 0.1% or less. [172] A large part of the indigenous population adheres to various traditional beliefs, which are characterized by inculturation or syncretism with Christianity. The cult of Pachamama,[173] or Mother Earth, is remarkable. The veneration of the Virgin of Copacabana, Virgin of Urkupa and Virgin of Socavén, is also an important feature of the Christian pilgrimage. There are also important Aymaran congregations near Lake Titicaca, which adhere sticking strongly to James the Apostle. [174] Gothic deities include Ekeko, the Aymaran god of abundance and prosperity, whose day is celebrated every January 24, and Tupa, a god of the Guarana people. Largest cities and municipalities About 67% of Bolivians live in urban areas[175] and are among the lowest in South America. Nevertheless, the urbanisation rate is steadily increasing, at around 2.5% per year. According to the 2012 census, there are a total of 3,158,691 households in Bolivia – an increase of 887,960 compared to 2001. [158] In 2009, 75.4% of houses were classified as houses, huts or pahuichi; 3.3% were dwellings; 21.1% were rental apartments; and 0.1% were mobile homes. [176] Most of the country's largest cities are located in the highlands of the western and central regions. ve Largest Cities in BoliviaCensus2Census 2012, INE Rank Name Department Pop. Rank Name Department Pop. Santa Cruz de la SierraEl Alto 1 Santa Cruz de la Sierra Santa Cruz 1,453,549 11 Montero Santa Cruz 109,518 1a La PazCochabamba 2 El Alto La Paz 848,840 12 Trinidad Beni 106,422 3 La Paz La Paz 764,617 13 Warnes Santa Cruz 96,406 4 Cochabamba Cochabamba 60,358 14 Yacu-ba Tarija 91,998 5 Oruro Oruro 264,683 15 La Guardia Santa Cruz 89,080 6 Sucre Chuquisaca 259,388 16 Riberalta Beni 89,003 7 Tarija Tarija 205,346 17 Viacha La Paz 80,388 8 Potosé Potosé 189,652 18 Villa Tunari Cochabamba 72,623 9 Sacaba Cochabamba 169,494 19 Cobija Pando 55,692 10 Quillacollo Cochabamba 137,029 20 Tipiquaya Cochabamba 53,062 17[77] Culture Main article: Bolivian culture See also: Music of Bolivia and holidays in Bolivia Bolivian children who played Tarka, the Quechua, and the popular cultures of Latinu America as a whole. Cultural development is divided into three different periods: pre-Columbian, colonial and Republican. archaeological ruins, gold and silver ornaments, stone monuments, ceramics and weaving weaving mills important pre-Columbian cultures. The main ruins include Tiwanaku, El Fuerte de Samaipata, Inkallaqta and Iskanawayta. The country is rich in other places that are difficult to reach and have seen little archaeological exploration. [178] The Diablada, Tanzurval, typical and main head of the Carnival of Oruro a masterpiece of the oral and immaterial heritage of mankind since 2001 in Bolivia (Acts: Fraternidad Artística y Cultural La Diablada) The Spaniards brought their own tradition of religious art, which in the hands of local local and Mestizo builders and craftsmen, developed into a rich and unmistakable style of architecture , painting and sculpture known as Mestizo Baroque. The colonial period produced not only the paintings of Pérez de Holguén, Flores, Bitti and others, but also the works of experienced but unknown stonemasons, woodcarvers, goldsmiths and silversmiths. An important body of the native baroque religious music of the colonial era has been restored and has been performed internationally with great applause since 1994. [178] Bolivian artists of stature in the 20th century include María Luisa Pacheco, Roberto Mamani Mamani, Alejandro Mario Yllanes, Alfredo Da Silva and Marina Néez del Prado. Bolivia has a rich folklore. The regional folk music is unmistakable and varied. The devil dances at the annual Oruro Carnival are among the great folkloric events in South America, as is the lesser-known carnival in Tarabuco. [178] Education Main article: Education in Bolivia In 2008 Bolivia was declared illiterate according to UNESCO standards, making it the fourth country in South America to achieve this status. [179] Bolivia has public and private universities. Among them: Universidad Mayor, Real y Pontificia de San Francisco Xavier de Chuquisaca USFX – Sucre, founded in 1624; Universidad Mayor de San Andrés UMSA – La Paz, founded in 1830; Universidad Mayor de San Simon UMSS – Cochabamba, founded in 1832; Universidad Autónoma Gabriel René Moreno UAGRM – Santa Cruz de la Sierra, founded in 1880; Universidad Técnica de Oruro UTU - Oruro, founded in 1892; and Universidad Autónoma Tomsa Fres UATF – Potosí, founded in 1892. Main health article: Health in Bolivia See also: Refresh Bolivia Based on 2013 estimates of the World Factbook, Bolivia ranks 161st in life expectancy with a figure of 68.2 years. [175] Life expectancy for men is 65.4 and for women 71.1. [175] A study by the United Nations Development Programme and the United Nations International Children's Fund reported that more than 230 babies died every day in Bolivia as a matter of lack of care. [180] The majority of the population has no or no access to healthcare. [181] Demographic and health surveys have carried out five surveys in Bolivia on a wide range of subjects since 1989. [182] Between 2006 and 2016, extreme poverty in Bolivia fell from 38.2% to 16.8%. %. Malnutrition in children under the age of five also decreased by 14% and the infant mortality rate was reduced by more than 50%, according to the World Health Organization. [183] Sports football is popular. The national team is the Bolivianational national football team. Racketball is the second most popular sport in Bolivia, as held for the results in the Odesur 2018 games in Cochabamba. [184] [185] See also Bolivia Portal South America Portal Index of Bolivia-related articles Outlines of Bolivia References Moneda de 10 Centavos [10 Cent Coins] (in Spanish). Central Bank of Bolivia. 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