Regional overview: Latin America and the Caribbean





Latin America and the Caribbean¹ stands ahead of other developing regions in Education for All. Most countries in the region have achieved universal primary education (UPE) and are witnessing a rapid expansion of both pre-primary education, and secondary and tertiary education. However, learning achievement levels remain low by international standards. Moreover, while there is little evidence of gender disparities at primary level, massive underparticipation of boys exists in secondary and tertiary education.

The EFA Global Monitoring Report 2009 finds that disparities based on wealth, location, gender and disability deny millions of children a goodquality education. Focusing on those being left behind, the Report explores current approaches to education governance reform. It finds that, all too often, these approaches fail the poor and disadvantaged.

Persistent inequalities hinder progress towards EFA

Early childhood care and education

The path towards EFA starts long before primary school. Adequate nutrition, good health and an emotionally secure, language-rich home environment during the earliest years are vital for later success in education and life. Rapid progress towards UPE cannot be sustained while progress in tackling child health problems remains slow. High levels of child mortality and malnutrition – a formidable development challenge in their own right – are also symptomatic of wider problems directly affecting education.

Indicators of child well-being are much better for Latin America and the Caribbean than for other developing regions, although strong disparities exist between and within countries.

- Estimates for 2005–2010 put the under-5 mortality rate at 27‰, a third of the developing-country average (81‰). If the decline observed between 1990 and 2006 continues, the region will meet the Millennium Development Goal pertaining to child mortality. Cuba and Chile have already reduced under-5 mortality to levels similar to those observed in developed countries. Other countries are lagging behind, including Bolivia (61‰), Haiti (72‰) and other Caribbean countries. Child mortality disproportionately affects the poor. For instance, in Bolivia and Nicaragua, child death rates are twice as high among the poorest 20% of households as they are among the wealthiest 20%.
- Undernutrition is relatively infrequent in the region. Among children under 5, 7% are underweight, 2% suffer from wasting and 16% from stunting. However, undernutrition remains an issue in several countries. In Bolivia, Ecuador, Haiti, Honduras and Peru, the rate of moderate and severe stunting is well above 20%, and in Guatemala it is 49%. Early stunting is associated with deficits in literacy, numeracy and educational attainment at age 18.

^{1.} This is according to the EFA classification. See Table 3 for countries in the region.

In Latin America and the Caribbean, care programmes for children below age 3 exist in most countries.

- Day care centres are widely used to deliver nutritional support to vulnerable households. In addition several governments have expanded social protection programmes with early childhood components. Sometimes these provide conditional cash transfers: eligible households receive payments if they meet conditions such as presenting their children for growth monitoring and vaccinations, and assuring their attendance in school. The largest such programme, Oportunidades in Mexico, had a budget of US\$3.7 billion in 2007 and reached 5 million families. Other social protection programmes provide unconditional cash transfers. An example is Ecuador's Bono de Desarrollo Humano, which provides cash transfers to women in difficult circumstances.
- Research points to high returns on investment in good-quality early childhood care and education (ECCE).
 Evaluations of the Bono de Desarrollo Humano programme have identified a range of positive effects on fine motor control, long-term memory and physical well-being.
 Children of participants in the poorest quartile measure 25% higher in cognitive outcomes than the average for a control group. For the poorest half of these families, the transfer – amounting to US\$15 per month – increases school enrolment from 75% to 85% and reduces child labour by seventeen percentage points. These benefits have long-term cumulative effects, as they facilitate further school participation and learning.

Pre-primary education has developed rapidly over the past decade (Figure 1).

- Between 1999 and 2006, the number of children enrolled in pre-primary schools increased from 16.4 million to 20.3 million; the gross enrolment ratio (GER) correspondingly rose from 56% to 65%. The ratio increased by more than twenty-five percentage points in Ecuador, Mexico, Panama, and Trinidad and Tobago.
- Pre-primary school participation is now nearly universal in Mexico, Cuba and several Caribbean island states, but remains underdeveloped in Bolivia, Chile and Colombia (GER below 60%), and particularly in Central America (Guatemala 29%, Honduras 38%), as well as in Belize (34%), the Dominican Republic (32%) and Paraguay (34%).
- Provision of pre-primary education can be constrained by insufficient resources in low-income countries, but government commitment, or a lack thereof, plays a major part. In 2006, despite being having much lower per capita income, Bolivia had a higher pre-school GER than Colombia (50% vs 40%). Within countries, vulnerable children from poor households are the least likely to have access to early childhood programmes, yet international evidence indicates that they would benefit most from them. In Brazil,





the average enrolment rate in pre-school is 29% among children belonging to the poorest 20% of households, but above 50% for the wealthiest 20%, whose children also attend better-resourced, often private facilities.

Research has shown that participating in ECCE helps equip children with cognitive, behavioural and social skills that improve access, retention and learning outcomes in primary education. In Argentina, pre-school attendance from ages 3 to 5 was found to increase grade 3 performance in language and mathematics (by 0.23 to 0.33 standard deviation). The effect was twice as large for students from poorer backgrounds. In Uruguay, pre-school attendance was found to have a positive effect on completed years of schooling, repetition rates and age-grade distortion. By age 10, children who had attended pre-school had an advantage of about a third of a year over other children. By age 16 they had accumulated 1.1 additional years of schooling and were 27% more likely to have remained in school. Free education is legally guaranteed in most countries (major exceptions being Colombia, Haiti and Jamaica) and the region as a whole is close to achieving UPE.

- Some 68.6 million children were enrolled in primary education in 2006; the GER was 118%. The net enrolment ratio (NER) was 94%, well above the developing country average (85%) (Figure 2). Two countries with lower enrolment ratios in 1999, Guatemala and Nicaragua, had caught up with the rest of the region by 2006 with GERs that had increased by more than twelve percentage points. The situation in the Caribbean is more problematic: in Dominica and the Dominican Republic enrolment ratios have significantly declined since Dakar.
- With 2.6 million children of primary school-going age not enrolled in 2006, Latin America and the Caribbean accounted for 3.5% of the world's out-of-school children. Brazil, the only country with more than 500,000 out-ofschool children in 2006, is nonetheless on track to achieve UPE by 2015. There is evidence that a majority of the region's out-of-school children (57%) will enrol late; 21% drop out early and the same percentage is unlikely to enrol without specific incentives. This suggests that tackling the out-of-school problem requires policy responses that address particular structures of disadvantage.
- School life expectancy is higher than the developing country average and has increased by a year since 1999 to thirteen years for males and fourteen for females. However, it is unevenly distributed, both between countries (from ten years in Guatemala to between thirteen and fifteen years in large countries such as Argentina, Brazil and Mexico, with a high of seventeen in the British Virgin Islands) and within countries: in 1999, 17- to 22-year-olds belonging to the poorest 20% of households in Guatemala had received only 1.9 years of education on average, as opposed to 8.3 years for those belonging to the richest 20% of households. Corresponding figures were 2.5 and 9.2 years in Nicaragua in 2001, and 6.5 and 11.1 years in Peru in 2000. Inequalities in attendance at the primary school level contribute to those disparities (Table 1).
- Income-based disparities interact with wider inequalities and markers for disadvantage related to gender, location, language and other factors. For example, rural children are less likely to attend school and more likely to drop out than their urban counterparts. Living in slums also carries a marked handicap in terms of school attendance. In Guatemala, attendance rates for children in slums were lower even than average rates in rural areas. Cultural factors such as religion and ethnicity can affect both the demand for schooling and the supply. There are large differences in school attendance and completion among linguistic groups in some countries in Central America. Overall, reaching UPE will require policies



targeting the poor and marginalized. This means targeting hard-to-reach households in remote rural areas and slums that face multiple disadvantages, including chronic poverty, high mortality, and poor health and nutrition.

Child labour, ill health and disability are barriers to UPE.

Among developing regions, Latin America and the Caribbean has witnessed the most rapid decli+ne in the incidence of child labour since 2000. However, household survey data show that in countries including Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua and Panama, working children face an attendance disadvantage of at least 30%. Practical measures are needed to reduce the pressures that force poor households to augment their income or labour supply through child work as well as to strengthen incentives for sending children to school.

laple	1:	Primary	/ net	attend	lance	rate	by '	wealth	quintile	in	six	Latin	Amer	ican	count	ries
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			% of primary	Distribution of those not attending primary school (%)							
Country	Survey year	Net attendance rate (%)	school-age group not attending	Q1 poorest quintile	02	Ω3	Q4	Q5 richest quintile			
Peru	2000	95	5	43	28	16	8	5			
Colombia	2005	94	6	42	21	15	13	10			
Dominican Rep.	2002	91	9	37	23	17	13	10			
Guatemala	1999	82	18	41	26	20	9	4			
Haiti	2005	80	20	47	27	16	6	4			
Nicaragua	2001	80	20	50	26	13	8	3			

- Inadequate nutrition and poor health continue to undermine educational opportunity once children are in school, trapping them in a vicious cycle of cumulative disadvantage.
 Reversing this cycle requires public health interventions, some of which can be initiated through schools.
- Children with disabilities are among the most marginalized and least likely to go to school. Evidence from household surveys indicates that among children aged 6 to 11 the difference in primary school attendance rates between those with and those without disabilities ranges from twenty-eight percentage points in Jamaica to thirty-six in Colombia and fifty-seven in Bolivia. Speeding up progress towards UPE will require a far stronger focus on public policies facilitating access, and on political leadership to change attitudes.

There is scope for improving the internal efficiency of the primary school system.

- While for the region as a whole the median survival rate to the last primary grade reaches 85%, dropout remains a major issue in some countries, including the Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Guatemala and Nicaragua, where the survival rate was below 70% in 2005 (and only 50% in Nicaragua). The end of grade 1 is a critical point in those countries as well as in Colombia and Ecuador, where more than 10% of students do not enrol in grade 2. Over-age students are particularly prone to drop out, especially in the higher grades: data from household surveys collected in Colombia and Peru show that being two years over age more than halves the chances of survival.
- Grade repetition is another issue. In 2006, the median percentage of primary school students who were repeating grades was 4.1% for Latin America and the Caribbean as whole (2.9% for the Caribbean and 6.4% for Latin America). The incidence of grade repetition is highest in Suriname (20.3%) and Brazil (18.7%). Grade repetition is inequitable: it increases the direct and opportunity costs of schooling, a burden that is heaviest for the poorest households and may lead to dropout. It is also inefficient: governments in the region spend an estimated US\$12 billion annually as a result of grade repetition, as they have to provide for additional school places.

Secondary education and beyond

Increasing participation in secondary and tertiary education is an explicit part of the Dakar commitment to EFA and of the Millennium Development Goal on gender parity and equality. It also provides further incentives for children to complete primary schooling, expands the supply of qualified teachers, and improves knowledge and skills for the labour market.

As most Latin American and Caribbean countries have achieved UPE, expanding secondary and tertiary education has become a key policy concern for the region, especially in terms of equity. Indeed, the returns to primary education have decreased as national skill deficits have shifted to higher levels of education, and the transitions to lower and upper secondary education and to tertiary education feature marked disparities, in particular linked to wealth and ethnicity.

- The transition rate from primary to lower secondary education was quite high for the region as a whole (median of 93% in 2005), although it remained problematically low in a number of countries, notably including Honduras (71%), Ecuador (78%), Brazil (81%) and Uruguay (81%).
- Latin America and the Caribbean had 59.0 million secondary students in 2006 and a GER of 89%, up from 80% in 1999. In Costa Rica, Guatemala, Guyana and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, the secondary GER increased by more than twenty percentage points over the period. In Argentina, the reported GER decreased from 94% in 1999 to 84% in 2005. However, this decline is a result of the exclusion of adult education from the secondary total enrolment statistics after 2003. The secondary NER increased slightly during the period, from 76% to 78%.
- The discrepancy between the regional GER of 89% and the NER of 70% in 2006 points to internal efficiency issues. NERs remain low in some countries of South America (Colombia 65%, Ecuador 57%), in the Caribbean states (40% for the subregion) and in Central America (Guatemala 38%, Nicaragua 43%).
- The transition from lower to upper secondary education is another key concern: the GER for lower secondary

education was as high as 102% for the region as a whole in 2006, but for upper secondary education it reached only 74%.

- Within-country inequalities are greater in secondary education than in primary. Recent household surveys show that the attendance rate of children belonging to the wealthiest 20% of households is much higher than the rate for the poorest 20% – by 1.2 to 1.3 times in Colombia, Haiti and Peru, and 2.4 in Nicaragua.
- Speaking an indigenous or non-official language remains another core marker for disadvantage. For example, in Bolivia, 68% of Spanish speakers aged 16 to 49 have completed some secondary education, compared with onethird or fewer of Aymara, Guarani and Quechua speakers.
- Household surveys between 2000 and 2005 showed a steady increase in the percentage of students being promoted at the appropriate age in both primary and secondary education. The overall percentage of students aged 15 to 19 having achieved timely promotion at the primary level increased from 43% to 66%. Advances for the cohort aged 10 to 14 were proportionately more beneficial for low-income students, with the rich-poor gap narrowing. Convergence was much less evident at the secondary level. In 2005, some 88% of children in the richest decile moved steadily through school without interruption, compared with 44% of the poorest decile.

Tertiary education has expanded rapidly during the 2000s.

- Latin America and the Caribbean had 16.2 million tertiary students in 2006, thus accounting for more than one in nine of the world's university-level students. The average tertiary GER went up from 21% in 1999 to 31% in 2006, but it varies greatly, from 3% in Belize to 88% in Cuba. Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Mexico and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela account for the bulk of students in the region.
- At the entry point to tertiary education, the compound effects of inequalities in access to and completion of basic education, and progression through secondary education, become most visible. The university participation rate for black Brazilians aged 19 to 24 is 6%, compared with 19% for white Brazilians. In other words, being born with black skin in Brazil reduces your chance of reaching university by a factor of three. This is the culmination of disadvantage rooted in poverty, social discrimination and the filtering effect of inequality at lower levels of the education system.

Learning needs of young people and adults

Many countries in Latin America and the Caribbean have yet to address the third EFA goal: meeting the learning needs of young people and adults through lifelong learning programmes and skills acquisition.

- Millions of youth either never attended school or dropped out before acquiring basic skills and nearly 37 million adults in the region are illiterate. Given the pressure to extend basic education cycles beyond primary schooling and to expand secondary education systems, non-formal education is likely to continue to be neglected by government.
- Indeed, many governments give little priority to the learning needs of youth and adults in their education strategies and policies. Inadequate public funding hampers provision and weak monitoring obscures learning deficits among adults. The fact that no quantitative targets were established at Dakar, apart from the main literacy target, contributes to a perceived lack of urgency.
- Adult learning programmes are found in a myriad of formal, informal and non-formal settings. Many large-scale literacy programmes, often extending to life skills (e.g. in health or civic rights), livelihoods (income generation, farming) and/or equivalency education, are supported by international non-government organizations, and bilateral and multilateral agencies. For example, in Mexico non-formal provision is seen principally in terms of adult education.
- There is a strong case for clarifying the purpose of lifelong learning provision, improving data flows and, especially, strengthening political commitment in this area. As a first step towards more effective monitoring, improved information is needed about how different stakeholders define adult learning needs, which groups are targeted, what types of skills are taught, how programmes are implemented and if they are sustainable given current funding sources.

Adult literacy

Literacy expands people's choices, gives them more control over their lives, increases their ability to participate in society and enhances self-esteem. Adult literacy has long been much more prevalent in Latin American and the Caribbean than in other developing regions, but it is now progressing more slowly.

- In 2000–2006 there were still some 36.9 million adult illiterates in the region, a reduction of about 7% as compared with 1985–1999 (39.6 million). The figure is projected to continue to decline to 31.2 million by 2015. Owing to the size of its population, Brazil alone accounts for more than a third of the region's illiterates (14.2 million), followed by Mexico (6.0 million).
- The regional adult literacy rate went up from 87% in 1985–1994 to 91% in 2000–2006 and is projected to reach 93% by 2015. Quicker progress occurred in Bolivia, Colombia, Guatemala and El Salvador, where adult literacy rates increased by more than eight percentage points over the period.

- While universal adult literacy has been achieved in countries including Argentina, Cuba and Uruguay, adult literacy rates remain low (below 90%) in several Central American countries (as low as 72% in Guatemala). The situation in the Caribbean is especially difficult: the adult literacy rate was 74% and the number of adult illiterates was 2.8 million in 2000–2006, with projections showing it as unlikely to decline by 2015.
- The near achievement of UPE implies that youth literacy is spreading very quickly. The youth literacy rate is 97%, and the number of youth illiterates should decline from its present level of 3.3 million to 2.2 million by 2015.
- With such exceptions as Guatemala, where 61% of 1.9 million adult illiterates are women, the gender gap in literacy is moderate in Latin America and the Caribbean (women represent 55% of all adult illiterates).
- In addition to gender, disparities in adult literacy revolve around other markers of disadvantage: poverty, place of residence, ethnicity, language and age. The national literacy rate in Ecuador, for example, was 91% in 2001 but that of indigenous groups was 72%. Achieving the EFA adult literacy goal implies paying sustained attention to inequalities. It also means developing the literate environment – promoting the availability and use of multilingual written materials and new technology, which encourage literacy acquisition, a reading culture, improved literacy retention and access to information.

Gender parity and gender equality

In stark contrast with other developing regions, the major gender issue in Latin America and the Caribbean is not a gender gap at the expense of girls in participation in primary education, but rather underparticipation of boys at the secondary and tertiary levels.

- The gender parity index (GPI) of the primary GER was 0.97 in 2006, unchanged from 1999, indicating that almost as many girls as boys were enrolled. Some gender disparities at the expense of girls existed in some countries, including Brazil and Guatemala, while more girls than boys were enrolled primary schools in a few Caribbean states, including Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, and Turks and Caicos. The situation of girls has improved substantially since 1999 in Dominica and Guatemala. On a less positive note, some countries were moving in the wrong direction. For example, the Dominican Republic and Saint Lucia registered gender parity in primary education in 1999 but not in 2006 (Figure 3).
- At primary level, in all countries for which data are available, girls are less likely to repeat grades, have a greater chance of reaching the final grade and are more





likely to complete the cycle. Guatemala, where slightly fewer girls (62%) than boys (65%) reached the last grade of primary education in 2005, is an exception.

- Gender disparities at the expense of boys are a major issue in secondary and tertiary education. The GPI of the secondary GER was 1.07 in 2006; the index for tertiary education reached 1.15 in Latin America and 1.69 in the Caribbean. Socio-economic context, occupational practices and gender identity in school all appear to play a role in keeping boys away. Particularly among disadvantaged and excluded groups, boys are more likely to leave school early to earn a living, opting for shorter and less academic secondary education programmes that do not offer the chance to continue to the tertiary level.
- Gender gaps in favour of women are more marked in tertiary education, with higher rates of women's

participation especially in the Caribbean, where the GPI of the tertiary GER was 1.69 in 2006, compared with 1.15 in Latin America.

Within countries there is a strong association between poverty and gender inequalities in education. These disparities are inversely related to wealth: they rise for girls born into the poorest households, for example in Bolivia, with the disadvantage being greater in secondary than in primary education. Poverty often interacts with other markers of disadvantage, such as being born into a group that is indigenous, a linguistic minority or geographically isolated, and thus magnifies gender disparities. For example, indigenous girls in Guatemala are less likely to be enrolled than other demographic groups. At age 7, only 54% of indigenous girls are in school, compared with 71% of indigenous boys and 75% of non-indigenous girls. By age 16, only a quarter of indigenous girls are enrolled, compared with 45% of boys. Poverty has a magnifying effect, with only 4% of 'extremely poor' indigenous girls aged 16 attending school, compared with 45% of their 'non-poor' counterparts.

Reducing gender disparities in formal education does not automatically translate into gender equality in educational opportunities and outcomes. Girls and boys achieve different outcomes not just in overall performance, but also by subject. Differences in education systems and classroom practices partly explain this, but such school-based factors interact with wider social, cultural and economic forces that also influence expectations, aspirations and performances along gender lines. Four distinctive themes emerge from a compilation of recent research and assessments:

- Girls continue to outperform boys in reading literacy and language arts. The 2006 Segundo Estudio Regional Comparativo y Explicativo (SERCE) assessment, conducted in Latin America, found that girls did significantly better than boys in reading achievement in grades 3 and 6 in half of the sixteen participating countries.
- Girls are catching up with boys in mathematics at all grades in both primary and secondary education. In SERCE, eight countries² revealed gender differences in mathematics, most of them small, in favour of boys in grade 3.
- While boys tend to maintain an advantage, the science gap is often small. In SERCE, sixth-grade boys outperformed girls in science in Colombia, El Salvador and Peru. In the remaining countries (Argentina, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Panama, Paraguay and Uruguay) gender differences were mixed and not statistically significant.
- Girls and boys favour different subjects in tertiary education.
 Despite the increase in female participation in tertiary education, some subject areas remain male domains.
 In Latin America and the Caribbean, the median share

of females enrolled in science was 45% in 2006, falling to 25% in engineering. By contrast, women are much more represented in fields long considered 'feminine', such as education (71%), humanities and arts (65%). Recent studies indicate that complex socialization processes influence gender differences in choice of subject areas. They include poor career counselling, lack of role models, negative family attitudes, fear of mathematics and fear of being in the minority.

Recent research underlines a strong association between the degree of gender equality in society at large and the size of gender gaps in mathematics achievement. Teacher attitudes and practices that translate into different treatments of boys and girls can also affect cognitive development and reinforce gender stereotyping. So can gender biases in textbooks.

Female teachers can serve as role models for young girls, potentially countering gender stereotypes. In Latin America and the Caribbean, as elsewhere, female teachers tend to be more represented in lower levels of education while the reverse is true at higher levels. They also tend to be clustered in urban schools. A recent survey in eleven middle-income countries shows that pupils in rural primary schools are more likely than urban pupils to be taught by male teachers. This is particularly the case in Paraguay and Peru. Rural girls thus have less chance of contact with female role models who might raise their expectations and self-confidence.

Quality of education

Getting all children through a full basic education cycle is an important goal, but the ultimate purpose of schooling is to provide children with an education that equips them with the skills, knowledge and wider perspectives they need to participate fully in the social, economic and political life of their countries. Delivery of good-quality education is ultimately contingent on what happens in the classroom, and teachers are on the front line. The profile of teachers, and the governance systems through which they are recruited, trained and deployed, have a critical bearing on learning outcomes and on equity.

Improving the quality of education constitutes a major challenge for school systems in Latin America and the Caribbean. First, while pupil/teacher ratios (PTRs) are not very high, many schools suffer from a lack of equipment.

PTRs are below developing-country averages and close to world averages. In recent years, student cohort size has declined while the number of teachers has increased. In 2006 the average PTR was 21:1 at pre-primary level (968,000 pre-primary teachers for the whole region), 23:1 in primary schools (3.0 million teachers) and 16:1 in secondary schools (3.6 million teachers). There are 1.2 million teachers in tertiary education. Overall shortages

^{2.} Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Nicaragua and Peru.

of primary school teachers still exist in some countries: for example, El Salvador, Guatemala and Nicaragua have PTRs above 30:1.

- Teacher training remains insufficient. The median shares of trained teachers are 64% in pre-primary education, 80% in primary education and 66% in secondary education. The shortage of trained teachers is particularly acute in several Caribbean states, where fewer than 70% of primary school teachers received pedagogical training.
- The deployment of teachers is influenced by location, wealth and type of school. PTRs tend to be higher in urban than in rural areas, but untrained teachers are often concentrated in poor rural areas. For example, in Bolivia, teachers hired on contracts who are not required to have a teaching degree or teaching experience *(interinos)* make up 19% of the total teaching force but 56% of teachers in rural areas.
- Shortages of trained teachers are one part of the problem. Other factors affecting the quality of teaching and learning include teacher absenteeism³ and low teacher morale related to poor salaries and working conditions. In Argentina, Brazil, Peru and Uruguay, for example, less than a third of fourth graders had teachers who thought their pay was adequate. Motivation tends to be lower among teachers with large classes and in schools that are poorly resourced or attended by disadvantaged pupils. Such negative factors need to be offset and teacher governance reforms are an integral part of the solution.
- School equipment is insufficient in a number of countries in the region and represents a serious constraint on the quality of education. Ecuador, Guatemala, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay and Peru have many primary schools lacking several or all of the following: sufficient toilets, potable water, libraries, books and computer rooms. Poorly equipped schools tend to be attended by children from poorer households, exacerbating underlying inequalities in opportunity.

Second, assessment tests point to low and unequal achievement:

- SERCE 2006 assessed reading and mathematics in grade 3, and reading, mathematics and science in grade 6.
 Overall, countries fell into four categories:
 - 1) Cuba, whose students outperformed those from other countries in almost all subjects and grade levels.
 - 2) A small group of other consistently high-performing countries, including Chile, Costa Rica and Uruguay.
 - 3) A large group of relatively poor-performing countries that included the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay and Peru.
 - 4) Countries in the middle, notably Argentina, Brazil, Colombia and Mexico, where pupil achievements varied by subject and grade. For the last three groups, withincountry differences in achievement by location and gender were often marked. For example, among poor-performing countries, rural-urban differences were considerably more pronounced in El Salvador, Guatemala and Peru than in the Dominican Republic, Nicaragua and Panama.
- In the Dominican Republic, Ecuador and Guatemala, half or more of grade 3 students were found to have very low reading levels: they could not recognize the addressee of a family letter or decipher the meaning of a simple text in Spanish.
- A recent assessment in Peru found that as few as 30% of children in grade 1 and only about half in grade 2 could read simple passages from a grade 1 textbook.
- The median PISA 2001 scores of Brazilian and Peruvian students, placed on a scale alongside those of students from Denmark, France and the United States, were situated in the lowest 20% of the latter countries' distribution. PISA 2006 science results showed students from developing countries being much more likely to figure in the lowest achievement levels. Over 60% of students from Brazil, but fewer than 10% in Canada and Finland, scored at or below level 1, the lowest level in the PISA science ranking.

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3. In Peru the economic costs of teacher absenteeism represent 10% of current expenditure in primary education.
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The EFA Development Index

The EFA Development Index (EDI) is a composite measure that captures overall progress. Ideally, it should include all six EFA goals, but due to data constraints, it currently focuses only on the four most easily quantified goals, attaching equal weight to each: UPE (goal 2), adult literacy (goal 4), gender parity and equality (goal 5), and quality (goal 6), each proxied by a relevant indicator.⁴

For the school year ending in 2006, the EDI could be computed for twenty-four countries in Latin America and the Caribbean.

- Two countries have achieved EFA as a whole and three are close to achieving it. These countries have made balanced progress on the four goals included in the EDI.
- Consistent with other statistics situating the region between developed and other developing regions, eighteen countries are in an intermediate position, with EDI values between 0.80 and 0.94. Participation in primary education is often high, with deficits in other areas such as education quality as measured by survival rate to grade 5. This is particularly the case of the Dominican Republic, Ecuador and El Salvador. As regards Guatemala, low adult literacy and survival rates contribute to pull down the EDI.
- Only Nicaragua is really far from the four quantifiable goals, with an EDI value of 0.799, driven down by a low survival rate to grade 5 (54%).

EDI values could be computed for both 1999 and 2006 for thirteen countries. The index has improved in ten of them, especially Guatemala (+12%) and Nicaragua (+7%), driven by increases in school enrolment and retention. On the other hand, the index decreased significantly in the Dominican Republic (Table 2).

The EDI provides a snapshot based on national averages. But progress towards EFA, as the word 'all' implies, should be shared equally across the whole of society. One drawback of the standard EDI is that it does not capture variation based on wealth and others indicators of disadvantage.

Table 2: Mean distance from the four EFA goals included in the EDI, 2006

EFA achieved (EDI between 0.97 and 1.00)	Close to EFA (EDI between 0.95 and 0.96)
Aruba, Cuba	Argentina, Mexico, Uruguay
[2]	(3)
Intermediate position (EDI between 0.80 and 0.94)	Far from EFA (EDI below 0.80)
Bahamas, Barbados, Belize, Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Saint Lucia, Trinidad and Tobago, Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela. Saint Vincent and	Nicaragua
the Grenadines (18)	(1)

To address this shortcoming, an EFA Inequality Index for Income Groups (EIIIG) was constructed for thirty-five developing countries, including six Latin American and Caribbean countries (Bolivia, Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Haiti, Nicaragua and Peru), using household survey data. The EIIIG illustrates the strong disparities that persist in the region between wealth quintiles and between urban and rural areas.⁵

- The EIIIG shows large disparities in overall EFA achievement between wealth groups in most countries. Wealth disparities are greater in Bolivia, Haiti and Nicaragua than in the three other countries, which also have higher overall EFA achievement.
- Overall EFA achievement is greater in urban than in rural areas, whatever the income group. However, poor rural residents are particularly disadvantaged in Haiti and Nicaragua, with the EIIIG ratio of richest to poorest close to 2 in rural areas.

^{4.} UPE is proxied by the total primary NER (the ratio of the number of children of primary school-going age enrolled in either primary or secondary education to the total number of children of primary school-going age); adult literacy by the literacy rate of persons aged 15 and above; gender parity and equality by a gender-specific EFA index (GEI), an average of the GPIs for primary and secondary GERs and for the adult literacy rate; and education quality by the survival rate to grade 5. The EDI value for a given country is an arithmetic mean of these four indicators. It falls between 0 and 1, with 1 representing achievement of EFA.

^{5.} The EIIIG uses a different set of indicators to provide a measure similar to the EDI, showing distribution of overall EFA achievement within countries by wealth and by rural/urban location. The EIIIG differs from the EDI in three main ways. The total primary net attendance rate is used rather than the total primary NER. As many household surveys do not include literacy rates, this EIIIG component is based on the proportion of 15- to 25-year-olds with five or more years of education. Finally, the survival rate for the EIIIG is defined as the proportion of 17- to 27-year-olds who report having at least five years of education.

Raising quality and strengthening equity: why governance matters

Education governance is not an abstract concept. It is about ensuring that children have access to well-resourced schools that are responsive to local needs. It is also concerned with ensuring that teachers are trained and motivated, and that teachers and schools are accountable to parents and communities for raising learning outcomes. Education governance is about how policies are formulated, priorities identified, resources allocated and reforms implemented and monitored.

Governance reform is a prominent part of the EFA agenda. The Dakar Framework for Action set out broad principles, which include creating responsive, accountable and participatory education systems. The widely held conviction is that moving decision-making away from remote government agencies and making the process more local and transparent will make education service providers more responsive to the needs and concerns of the poor. However, experience in both the developed and developing world point to highly variable results. Two key findings emerge. First, there is no blueprint for good governance: each country has to develop its own national and local solutions to governance problems. Second, governments across the world have attached insufficient weight to equity in the design of governance reforms. There is an urgent need to ensure that the interests of the poor, marginalized and vulnerable are placed firmly at the centre of the governance agenda.

The Report focuses on four areas that highlight some of the most important currents in governance reform. Latin American and Caribbean countries show great inequality in socio-economic and educational conditions. Yet they have also experimented with many reforms in each of the four areas, submitting these to more rigorous evaluations than in many other countries.

Financing education for equity

Additional funding is needed if the world is to achieve the Dakar goals. But increasing funding is part of a broader set of education policy challenges. Countries also need to improve efficiency and develop strategies addressing inequalities in education finance if EFA is to be achieved.

Increased public spending is not guaranteed to improve access, equity or learning outcomes. But chronic and sustained underfinancing is a sure route to limited, poor-quality provision.

Technical efficiency provides an indicator of the cost associated with turning finance into quantitative and qualitative outcomes. In many countries, *corruption* is a major source of inefficiency and inequity – the former because it means more public money provides fewer inputs and the latter because the costs of corruption invariably fall most heavily on the poor:

- In Nicaragua, monitoring of six major school upgrade and repair projects undertaken by the education ministry demonstrates how corrupt practices diminish resource flows to education. Comparison of the buildings before and after project completion revealed widespread irregularities. Substandard materials and overpricing contributed to substantial financial losses.
- In Brazil, the otherwise highly effective FUNDEF programme (Fundo de Manutenção e Desenvolvimento do Ensino Fundamental e de Valorização do Magistério) was affected in the past by illegal appropriation of funds meant for teacher salaries and training. On average, around 13% of the total was lost in the course of transfer from the federal budget to municipal bank accounts, rising to 55% for some municipalities. The governance problem was linked to the inability of local councils charged with monitoring the grants to ensure that they were properly received and used.
- In Mexico, every two years the National Survey on Corruption and Good Governance records informal payments by households for thirty-eight public services in all thirty-two federal states, making it possible to quantify what amounts to a tax. Estimates based on the survey indicate that households pay almost US\$10 million in bribes to secure access to public education, which is legally free. In 2003 households paid an average of US\$30 each to meet illegal demands from service providers. In a country where around one-quarter of the population was living on less than US\$2 per day, this is a significant financial burden. There are also indications that informal payments for access to basic services may be charged more frequently to poor households.

Monitoring the use of funds through *public expenditure tracking* can help reduce corruption. However, not all public expenditure tracking has been successful. When corruption is deeply entrenched and political leaders do not create conditions for strengthened accountability, such exercises can deliver limited results. The public expenditure tracking survey on education conducted in Peru in 2002 is an example. Opaque budget planning made it impossible to establish real allocation levels, providing extensive opportunities for corruption. Over 90% of the resources earmarked for education were devoted to payroll, but data lapses on teacher numbers limited the scope for assessing delivery.

Public spending on education has the potential to redress inequalities but often reinforces them instead. Governments have developed various approaches aimed at making spending more equitable, such as *school grants and formula funding* linked to need. However, outcomes have been mixed. The decentralization of education from federal to provincial governments was an important feature of institutional reform in Latin America and the Caribbean during the 1990s. Yet *financial decentralization* can exacerbate the gaps between rich and poor areas. Central governments need to retain a strong role in redistributing financial resources from richer to poorer areas, or financing gaps in education are likely to widen:

- In Argentina, the transfer of responsibility for secondary schools from federal to provincial level was accompanied by a system of federal tax transfers. Detailed evaluations of the decentralization process have identified many benefits. Nationally, decentralization appears to have improved local participation, strengthened monitoring and improved learning standards. However, the results have not been uniform. Test scores point to a widening gap between wealthier provinces with strong government capacity and poorer provinces with low administrative and institutional capacity; the latter performed worse under decentralization. In other words, national efficiency has improved, but at the expense of equity.
- When Brazil devolved authority from a highly centralized system to states and municipalities in the mid-1990s, it created FUNDEF to reduce the large national inequalities in per-student spending. State and municipal governments were required to transfer a proportion of their tax revenue to FUNDEF, which redistributed it to state and municipal governments that could not meet specified minimum levels of per-student expenditure. FUNDEF has not prevented wealthier regions from increasing their overall spending more rapidly than poorer regions, but it has played a highly redistributive role. It has also increased both the absolute level of spending and the predictability of transfers, notably for poor states and municipalities in the north and northeast. There is strong evidence that FUNDEF has been instrumental in reducing class size, improving the supply and guality of teachers, and expanding enrolment. At municipal level, data show that the 20% of municipalities receiving the most funds from FUNDEF were able to double per-pupil expenditure between 1996 and 2002 in real terms.
- In Colombia, decentralization of government finance in the 1990s significantly improved the equity of intergovernment transfers. Before decentralization, transfers from central government were based on historical transfer patterns that favoured wealthier provinces. Under the reforms, historical allocations were replaced by a formula that allocated resources on the basis of population, with adjustments for health and education provision.

Choice, competition and voice: school governance reform and EFA

School governance reforms aim to strengthen the voices of the poor and increase their choices by transferring responsibility to communities, parents and private providers. An overarching lesson from this experience is that such reforms are not a substitute for governments' taking responsibility to ensure that the public education system is of good quality.

School-based management describes a range of reforms aimed at giving teachers, parents and communities more autonomy over decision-making in schools. In some cases these reforms have improved learning achievements and strengthened equity. More often, though, there is limited evidence of improvement in either learning outcomes or teaching practices.

- The most detailed school-based management evaluations come from Latin America. Regional evidence points to some positive effects on attainment. Some studies have found an association between delegation of management functions and reduction of school repetition and dropout. Learning outcomes are more variable, with marked differences among countries. A study of mathematics and language performance among grade 3 students found that EDUCO schools in El Salvador appeared to score lower than traditional schools. However, after controlling for background, the differences disappeared and EDUCO pupils scored slightly higher in language tests, on average. On the other hand, evaluations in Honduras of schools in the Programa Hondureño de Educación Comunitaria (PROHECO) concluded that delegation of decision-making was not associated with significant changes in learning achievement.
- Findings from Latin America show that school-based management reforms can result in improved teacher motivation, as indicated by reduced absenteeism, more time meeting with parents and more hours spent at school. However, evidence from a wide range of country experiences suggests that teaching practices in schools with more autonomy do not differ significantly from those in other schools. This is sometimes because central authorities maintain de facto control over decisions.
- School-based management initiatives are likely to be most successful when they are driven by demand from below. However, community participation can be a double-edged sword from an equity perspective, especially when it involves competition for resources. Schools with committed principals and organized communities are in a stronger position to exploit opportunities than those without. Evidence from Mexico's Programa Escuelas de Calidad (PEC) illustrates the point: voluntary participation by itself resulted in a selection of schools that were neither located in the poorest communities nor among the lowest performers. An important lesson is that voluntary participation has to be supported by measures that strengthen equity.

Encouraging the *participation of parents and communities in decision-making* can make schools more responsive to local needs. However, it does not follow that this will overcome wider inequalities. In reality, local power structures associated with poverty and social inequality can still limit the influence of the poor and marginalized.

Expanding school choice is widely viewed as an incentive for improved school performance. Some governments are using *vouchers* and other instruments to facilitate transfers from public to private providers, or *contracting out the management of government schools* to non-state providers. However, these reforms have not unambiguously raised academic achievement standards. Often, they have widened inequalities.

Chile's case is instructive. Increased competition between schools has been just one element in Chile's extensive education governance reforms. A partial list of wider measures includes devolution to municipal level in many areas of management, increased use of exams and assessment to monitor performance, increased funding (since the return of democracy in 1990), performance-related incentives for teachers and the lengthening of the school day. The reforms have led to large gains in education coverage, especially at secondary level, and they have led to Chile being widely cited as a model for governance reform. Outcomes for learning achievement and equity have been far less impressive, however. Private schools receiving public subsidies do register an advantage over municipal schools on the vardstick provided by fourth-grade standardized tests. However, the findings are reversed when the socio-economic characteristics of schools are taken into account. In other words, there is no equalizing effect. Municipal schools do a better job than private schools of lifting the achievement of students in the lowest group. Only among students in the middle socio-economic group do private subsidized schools have higher associated test scores.

Analysis of international assessment data over time also calls into question Chile's credentials as a governance success story. Governance reforms have certainly done little to close the gap between Chile and the developed world. And Chile retains some of the starkest education disparities in Latin America. While Chile's experience with education governance reform is often held up as a model, Chileans themselves have been more circumspect. The government is embarking on a new wave of reforms with a more explicit focus on equity. Past efforts at reform have not been enthusiastically received by secondary school students, who have responded with street protests over poor quality and highly unequal education provision. After more than fifteen years of education reform under a democratic government and ten years before that under the military government, Chile remains a weak advertisement for the governance reform blueprint favoured by many governments and aid donors.

Low-fee private schools are changing the education landscape in some parts of the world. Their rapid growth is a symptom of failure in the availability or quality of government schools.

They risk widening the gap between those who can and cannot afford to pay, and there are questions about the quality of education they provide.

Strengthening teacher governance and monitoring

Many school systems fail to provide an education that meets even the most basic standards of quality and equity. To address this, attention needs to be paid to teacher recruitment, deployment and motivation, together with effective use of information from learning assessments and school supervision.

- From one perspective, *teacher salaries* are viewed as crowding out spending on learning materials and other aspects of education provision. From an alternative perspective, they are seen as too low, even near or below the poverty line in some countries, with obvious implications for teacher motivation and standards. In Latin America, teacher salaries are generally well above the poverty threshold, but compare unfavourably with pay in similar professional and technical occupations.
- Hiring contract teachers can help address teacher shortages at lower cost. However, relying on contract teachers can weaken quality by lowering the standard of the teaching staff or generally reducing teacher morale.
- Teacher deployment is often inequitable within countries, which can exacerbate inequality in learning. Prioritizing training of teachers from under-represented groups, together with *local recruitment*, can make a difference. Some countries in the region have developed national programmes aimed at overcoming disparities in teacher allocation through financing mechanisms to support teacher recruitment in undeserved areas. One particularly striking example comes from Brazil. During the 1990s, high levels of inequality in education attainment and achievement in the country were linked to big disparities in teacher allocation. The FUNDEF programme used national education financing strategies to change the picture. Under FUNDEF, a share of subnational tax revenue was pooled and used to supplement spending per student in poor states. Around 60% of these resources were used to hire and train teachers or to increase teacher salaries. The highest salary increases were in the poorer states of the north-east with the greatest education needs. After FUNDEF began in 1998, the percentage of teachers having completed more than a primary education rose sharply, especially in poor areas.
- Some governments see performance-related pay as a strategy to improve teacher performance, including by reducing teacher absenteeism. But there is little evidence that it produces positive results – and some evidence that it has perverse effects such as encouraging teachers to focus on the best-performing students. In Chile a national

performance-related pay system, the Sistema Nacional de Evaluación del Desempeño, rewards the schools that show the greatest progress in student achievement, giving them a financial bonus for teachers equivalent to about half a month's salary. Schools are stratified within regions by socio-economic status and other external factors that affect school performance. This ensures that competition is among comparable establishments. However, the design has some inherent flaws. It rewards schools that are already doing well rather than those that are improving yet still need to do better. Similar problems have emerged in Mexico. In this case, a long-standing programme, the Carrera Magisterial, allows teachers to move up in pay level based on assessment of a range of criteria, including their students' performance. Unfortunately, the approach has encouraged teachers to focus on the best-performing students. The experience of Chile and Mexico is instructive in other ways, too. While the introduction of performancerelated pay was highly controversial in both countries, the impact of the pay incentives on learning achievement has been minimal. This is partly because only a small minority of teachers has any real likelihood of receiving a reward, whether a bonus in Chile or a promotion in Mexico.

- Using information from *learning assessments to monitor* quality standards and equity is one of the keys to improved learning outcomes. Increasingly, information from learning assessments is being used to identify problems and inform policy, with encouraging results. For instance, Uruguay has managed to improve learning outcomes rapidly in recent years. Its guality improvement efforts have been informed by sample-based assessments aimed at strengthening pedagogical management in schools. By combining the assessments with cluster-based teacher training and support, spread over the whole school year, education authorities have turned information into policy practice. Evidence suggests that learning outcomes in certain grades improved by 30% over six years. Special measures have been taken to improve the functioning of weaker schools. Important moves towards redressing learning disparities have included targeting financial resources primarily on the basis of poverty rather than test results, and using test results to provide targeted support to teachers in weaker schools and districts.
- School supervision is an essential aspect of monitoring, not only to oversee teacher and school performance but also to identify and support needed quality improvements.

An integrated approach to education and poverty reduction

Sustained progress towards EFA depends on the effective integration of education planning into wider poverty reduction strategies, for an obvious reason: poverty, poor nutrition and ill health are formidable barriers to success in education.

Poverty reduction strategy papers (PRSPs) are failing to make the connection between education and poverty reduction because of their weak link to the EFA agenda, limited consideration for equity in target-setting, a disconnect with broader governance reform and poor integration of cross-sectoral approaches.

Social protection programmes are making a strong contribution to education by addressing problems in health, nutrition and child labour. Part of the success of social protection programmes in improving educational outcomes for the poor and disadvantaged comes from their effectiveness in channelling resources to target groups. A recent study on programmes in Brazil (Bolsa Família), Chile (Solidario) and Mexico (Oportunidades) found that about 60% of transfer funds flowed to the poorest 20% of the population. Conditional cash transfers have materially increased equity in the income distribution. The success of social protection programmes is increasingly recognized. Oportunidades even offers a rare example of policy transfer from a developing country to a developed country: New York City, in an effort to help some of its most deprived people escape poverty traps that cross generations, is experimenting with a model based on the Mexican programme.

Political commitment, together with *consultation processes* that provide opportunities for civil society organizations to participate in policy discussions, is crucial. The challenge is to extend participation to make sure the voices of the poor and vulnerable are heard.

Financing education in Latin America and the Caribbean

National financing

- Total public expenditure on education as a share of GNP in the region varies between 1.2% (Bermuda) and 10.8% (Saint Kitts and Nevis), the median being 4.1%, below both the developing country median of 4.4% and the developed country median of 5.3%. The share varies considerably even among the larger countries, between 3.0% in Uruguay and 6.6% in Bolivia and up to 9.3% in Cuba, reflecting both diverse levels of economic development and varying degrees of commitment to education.
- Between 1999 and 2006, the share increased in eleven of the twenty countries with data for both years, including Bolivia, Cuba and Mexico; it declined in nine countries, including Argentina, Paraguay and Peru.
- At US\$614 in 2006 (in constant 2005 dollars on a purchasing power parity basis), median public expenditure per primary pupil in Latin America was much higher than in poorer regions such as sub-Saharan Africa (US\$167), but remained well below that of North America and Western Europe (US\$5,584). The highest figure in the region was US\$1,703 in Argentina, followed by Costa Rica (US\$1,623) and Mexico (US\$1,604). The lowest levels were in poorer countries such as Bolivia (US\$435), Guatemala (US\$390) and Nicaragua (US\$331).
- In 2006, median per-pupil expenditure in secondary education was actually slightly lower, at US\$594 (again in constant 2005 dollars on a PPP basis), as against US\$376 in sub-Saharan Africa and US\$7,753 in North America and Western Europe.
- Latin America and the Caribbean accounts for about 9% of the world's school-age population and 8% of its global educational expenditure, with Brazil alone accounting for 3% (2004 figures).

International aid for education

- In 2006 Latin America and the Caribbean received aid to education worth US\$785 million (in constant 2006 dollars), more than the 2005 figure (US\$703 million) and the 1999–2000 annual average (US\$592 million). This represented 9% of total official development assistance received by the region, up from 6% in 1999–2000.
- US\$280 million, or 36% of total aid to education (down from 45% in 1999–2000), went to basic education in 2006, amounting to US\$5 per primary school-age child.
- Aid for education in the region is targeted to a few countries. In 2006, the five largest recipients received 48% of the total: Nicaragua (US\$113 million, including US\$81 to basic education), the Dominican Republic (US\$88 million, including US\$41 to basic education), Peru (US\$66 million), Brazil (US\$62 million) and Haiti (US\$53 million).
- While Brazil, because of its population size, received only US\$1 of aid to basic education per primary school-aged child in 2006, some of the poorest countries did receive large amounts, notably the Dominican Republic (US\$32), Guyana (US\$52) and Nicaragua (US\$97).

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Acronyms

EDI: EFA Development Index

EDUCO: Educación con la Participación de la Comunidad (El Salvador)

EFA: Education for All

EIIIG: EFA Inequality Index for Income Groups

FUNDEF: Fundo de Manutenção e Desenvolvimento do Ensino Fundamental e de Valorização do Magistério (Brazil)

GEI: Gender-specific EFA index

GER: gross enrolment ratio

GPI: Gender parity index

NER: net enrolment ratio

PISA: Programme for International Student Assessment (OECD)

PTR: pupil/teacher ratio

SERCE: Segundo Estudio Regional Comparativo y Explicativo

TIMSS: Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study

UPE: universal primary education

Table 3: Latin america and the Caribbean, selected education indicators

					Adult lite (15 an	eracy rate d over)		Earl	y childhood care a	nd education	
								Child survival	and well-being	Pre-primar	y education
	Total	Compulsory	EFA Development					Under-5	Moderate and	GI	ER
	population (000)	education (age group)	Index (EDI)	1985-	-1994 ¹	2000-	-2006 ¹	mortality rate (‰)	severe stunting (%)	1999	2006
Country or territory	2006		2006	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	2005–2010	1996–2006 ¹	Total (%)	Total (%)
The Caribbean											
Anguilla	12	5-17									103
Antigua and Barbuda	84	5-16									
Aruba	104	6-16	0.981			98	1.00	20		99	99
Bahamas	327	5-16	0.921					17		12	
Barbados	293	5-16	0.943					11		74	94
Belize	282	5-14	0.913	70	1.00			20	18	27	34
Bermuda	64	5-16									
British Virgin Islands	22	5-16								62	93
Cayman Islands	46	5-16									
Dominica	68	5-16								80	77
Grenada	106	5-16						41		93	81
Guyana ⁴	739	6-15						57	11	124	99
Haiti	9 446	6-11						72	24		
Jamaica	2 699	6-11				85	1.13	17	3	78	92
Montserrat	6	5-16									91
Netherlands Antilles	189	6-15		95	1.00	96	1.00	17		111	
Saint Kitts and Nevis	50	5-16									99
Saint Lucia	163	5-15	0.942					16		70	69
St Vincent/Grenad.	120	5-15	0.901					28			88
Suriname	455	6-12				90	0.95	35	10		84
Trinidad and Tobago	1 328	5-11	0.941	97	0.98	99	0.99	18	4	58	85
Turks and Caicos Islands	25	4-16									118
Latin America											
Argentina ⁵	39 134	5-14	0.956	96	1.00	98	1.00	16	4	57	66
Bolivia	9 354	6-13	0.915	80	0.82	90	0.89	61	27	45	50
Brazil	189 323	7-14	0.901			90	1 01	29	11	58	69
Chile	16 465	6-13		94	0.99	96	1.01	9	1	77	55
Colombia	45 558	5-14	0.905	81	1.00	92	1.00	26	12	37	40
Costa Rica	4 399	6-15				96	1.00	11	6	84	70
Cuba	11 267	6-14	0 981			100	1.00	7	5	109	113
Dominican Benublic	9 615	5-13	0.824			89	1.00	33	7	32	32
Ecuador	13 202	5-14	0.024	88	0.95	92	0.98	26	23	64	90
El Salvador	6 762	7-15	0.867	74	0.00	84	0.00	20	19	43	51
Guatemala	13 029	7-15	0.819	64	0.32	72	0.86	39	49	46	29
Honduras ⁴	6 969	6-11	0.887			83	1.01	42	25		38
Mexico	105 3/2	6-15	0.007	88	0.94	92	0.96	20	13	74	106
Nicaraque4	5 522	6-12	0.330	00	0.34	92 80	1.02	20	20	27	52
Danama	2 200	6 11	0.733	00	0.00	00	0.00	20	10	27	67
Paraguay	5 200	6.14	0.941	09	0.99	95	0.99	24	10	20	2/
Paraguay	27 500	0-14	0.935	90	0.90	94	0.90	30	14	29	34
Felu	2/ 589	0-10	0.931	0/ 0E	1.01	89	0.69	29	24	50	00
	3 331	0-10	0.963	90	1.01	98	1.01	10	10	00	/9
Venezuela, B. K.	27 191	6-15	0.934	90	0.98	93	0.99		13	45	60
	Sum				Weighte	d average		Weighte	d average	Weighted	d average
Latin America/Caribbean	559 994			87	0.98	91	0.98	27	16	56	65
Caribbean	16 628			66	1.02	74	1.05	56		65	79
Latin America	543 365			87	0.97	91	0.98	26		55	64
Developing countries	5 284 165			68	0.77	79	0.85	81	32	27	36
World	6 578 149			76	0.85	84	0.89	74	31	33	41

Source: EFA Global Monitoring Report 2009, statistical tables; UNESCO Institute for Statistics; CRS online database (OECD-DAC, 2008).

					ucation	Primary ed				
	eacher io ³	Pupil/te rat	% of trained teachers	al rate grade tal 6)	Surviv to last tot (%	Out-of-school children ²	PI GER M)	G of ((F/	ER tal %)	N to (S
Country or territory	2006	1999	2006	2005	1999	2006 (000)	2006	1999	2006	1999
The Caribbean										
Δnguilla	17	22	64	93		0.1	N 99		92	
Antique and Barbuda										
Antigua anu Darbuua	10	10	00	00	07	0.04	0.00	0.00	100	00
Aluba	10	13	99	90 01	97	0.04	0.90	0.99	100	30
Danamas	10	14	09 72	01	04	4	1.00	0.90	00	09
Barbados	15	18	/3	97	94	0.8	0.98	0.98	96	94
Belize	23	24	39	92	//	0.4	0.97	0.97	9/	94
Bermuda	8		100	86		0.3	0.85		92	
British Virgin Islands	15	18	74			0.1	0.97	0.97	95	96
Cayman Islands	12	15	97	78						
Dominica	17	20	64	88		1.9	1.02	0.95	77	94
Grenada	18		67			2	0.96		84	
Guyana ⁴	28	27	57		93		0.99	0.98		
Haiti										
Jamaica	28					31	1.00	1.00	90	88
Montserrat	17	21	77			0.0	1 00		99	
Netherlands Antilles		20			84			0.95		
Saint Kitts and Nevis	15	20	6/			2	1 20	0.00	71	
Saint Kitts and Nevis	24	22	00	06		0.2	0.04	0.00	00	06
Sdillt Lucid	24 10	LL	00 74	90		0.2	0.94	0.90	30	90
St Vincent/Grenad.	18		74			1.2	1.00		90	
Suriname	16					1.9	1.00		96	
Trinidad and Tobago	17	21	81	84		15	0.98	1.00	85	87
Turks and Caicos Islands	15	18	82			0.5	1.04		78	
Latin America										
Argentina 5	17	22		87	89	36	0.99	1.00	<i>99</i>	99
Bolivia	24	25		82	80	52	1.00	0.98	95	95
Brazil	21	26		80		597	0.94	0.94	.94	91
Chile	26	32		<u>00</u> QQ	100		0.95	0.01		
Colombia	20	24		<u>90</u> 92	67	267	0.00	1.00	00	80
Cululiud Costa Disa	20	24	00	02	07	307	0.99	0.00	00	09
Custa nica	20	27	00	90	00		0.99	0.90		
Cuba	10	IZ	100	9/	93	27	0.97	0.97	97	9/
Dominican Republic	23		88	61	/1	255	0.95	0.98	11	84
Ecuador	23	27	71	76	75	11	1.00	1.00	97	97
El Salvador	40		94	67	62	39	0.96	0.96	94	
Guatemala	31	38		63	52	82	0.93	0.87	94	82
Honduras 4	28		87	81		33	0.99		96	
Mexico	28	27		92	87	73	0.97	0.98	98	97
Nicaragua 4	33	34	74	50	46	72	0.98	1.01	90	76
Panama	25	26	91	85	90	3.7	0.97	0.97	98	96
Paraquay	28			84	73	43	0.97	0.96	.94	96
Peru	20			85	83	33	1.01	0.00	96	98
Hruguov	20	20		03	00	0.1	0.07	0.00	100	50
Venezuela, B. R.	20 19		84	92	88	226	0.97	0.99	91	86
	average	Weighted		Median		Sum	l average	Weighted	l average	Veighteo
Latin America/Caribbean	23	26	80	85	84	2 631	0.97	0.97	94	92
Caribbean	22	24	74			617	0.99	0.98	72	75
Latin America	22	26	00	04	01	2 014	0.07	0.07	05	02
	23	20	00	04	01	2 014	0.97	0.97	90	30
Developing countries	28	27	85	81		71 911	0.94	0.91	85	81
World	25	25		88		75 177	0.95	0.92	86	82

Data underlined are for 2003. Data in italics are for 2004. Data in bold italics are for 2005. Data in bold are for 2007 or 2006 for survival rate to last grade. 1. Data are for the most recent year available during the period specified. 2. Data reflect the actual number of children not enrolled at all, derived from the age-specific enrolment ratios of primary school age children, which measure the proportion of those who are enrolled in either primary or secondary school (total primary NER). 3. Based on headcounts of pupils

and teachers. 4. Fast Track Initiative (FTI): countries with endorsed sector plans. 5. The apparent decrease in total secondary education enrolment between 1999 and 2005 is essentially due to a change in data reporting. Since 2003, programmes designed for people beyond the regular school age (e.g. adult education) have been excluded from the figures for secondary enrolment, leading to a reported decline in the GER. The secondary NER has increased over the period in question. δ

Table 3 (continued)

				Secondary	education				Ter educ	tiary ation
	GER ir seco	n lower ndary	GER ir seco	n upper ndary		GER in tota	l secondary		G	ER
	20	006	20	006	19	999	20	006	20	006
Country or territory	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)
The Caribbean										
Anguilla	82	0.98	84	1.10			83	1.02	5	4.86
Antigua and Barbuda										
Aruba	119	0.88	88	1.20	99	1.07	100	1.04	32	1.56
Bahamas	95	0.99	86	1.03	79	0.99	91	1.01		
Barbados	100	0.99	105	1.11	100	1.05	102	1.04		
Belize	87	1.05	61	1.09	64	1.08	79	1.06	3	2.43
Bermuda	91	0.96	79	1.15			84	1.06		
British Virgin Islands	115	1.10	93	1.18	99	0.91	107	1.13	75	2.28
Cayman Islands										
Dominica	125	0.87	78	1.29	90	1.35	106	0.98		•
Grenada	102	0.96	97	1.17			100	1.03	•	
Guyana ⁴			68	1.01	82	1.02	105	0.98	12	2.17
Haiti										
Jamaica	93	1.00	77	1.11	88	1.02	87	1.03		
Montserrat	131	0.80	115	1.39			125	0.98	•	•
Netherlands Antilles					92	1.16				
Saint Kitts and Nevis							105	0.91		•
Saint Lucia	94	1.15	78	1.26	71	1.29	87	1.19	10	5.46
St Vincent/Grenad.	90	1.16	54	1.46			75	1.24	•	•
Suriname	96	1.18	54	1.97			77	1.37		
Trinidad and Tobago	79	1.03	73	1.07	77	1.10	76	1.05	11	1.28
Turks and Caicos Islands	86	0.95	85	0.92			86	0.94	•	•
Latin America										
Argentina ⁵	102	1.05	67	1.21	94	1.07	84	1.11	64	1.45
Bolivia	93	0.96	77	0.96	78	0.93	82	0.96	41	
Brazil	114	1.05	95	1.19	99	1.11	105	1.10	25	1.30
Chile	99	0.97	87	1.05	79	1.04	91	1.02	47	1.00
Colombia	90	1.08	66	1.19	70	1.11	82	1.11	31	1.09
Costa Rica	104	1.03	60	1.15	57	1.09	86	1.06	25	1.26
Cuba	96	0.97	91	1.07	77	1.07	94	1.02	88	1.65
Dominican Republic	79	1.13	64	1.25	57	1.24	69	1.20	35	1.59
Ecuador	77	0.98	58	1.07	57	1.03	68	1.02		
El Salvador	80	1.01	48	1.10	52	0.98	65	1.04	21	1.21
Guatemala	58	0.87	46	1.01	33	0.84	53	0.92	9	0.82
Honduras ⁴	65	1.18	93	1.45			76	1.30	17	1.41
Mexico	112	1.04	61	1.00	70	1.01	87	1.02	26	0.93
Nicaragua ⁴	73	1.07	54	1.29	52	1.19	66	1.14		
Panama	84	1.03	55	1.17	67	1.07	70	1.09	45	1.61
Paraguay	79	1.01	53	1.05	58	1.04	66	1.03	26	1.13
Peru	109	1.05	72	0.97	84	0.94	94	1.03	35	1.06
Uruguay	109	1.08	93	1.26	92	1.17	101	1.16	46	1.68
Venezuela, B. R.	87	1.08	61	1.23	56	1.22	77	1.12	52	
		Weighted	average			Weighted	d average		Weighte	d average
Latin America/Caribbean	102	1 04	74	1 12	80	1.07	89	1 07	31	1 16
Caribboan	72	1.07	12	1.05	52	1.07	57	1.02	e e	1.00
Latin America	103	1.02	43	1.05	81	1.03	91	1.03	32	1.09
Developing countries	75	0.94	46	0.93	52	0.89	60	0.94	17	0.93
World	78	0.04	52	0.00	60	0.00	66	0.04	25	1.06
world	/0	0.90	00	0.90	00	0.92	00	0.90	20	1.00

Source: EFA Global Monitoring Report 2009, statistical tables; UNESCO Institute for Statistics; CRS online database (OECD-DAC, 2008).

		Education finance		
	Total aid to basic education per primary school-age child (constant 2006 US\$)	Total aid to basic education (constant 2006 US\$ millions)	expenditure tion as % iNP	Total public on educa of G
Country or territory	2005–2006 annual average	2005–2006 annual average	2006	1999
The Caribbean				
Anguilla	0	0	4.0	
Antiqua and Barbuda	0	0		3.5
Aruba	0	0	5.1	
Bahamas				
Barbados	0.4	0.0	7.2	5.3
Belize	9	0.4	5.8	5.7
Bermuda			1.2	
British Virgin Islands			4.0	
Cavman Islands			2.9	
Dominica	8	0.1		5.5
Grenada	346	6	6.0	
Guvana	27	3	8.6	9.3
Haiti	12	17		
lamaica	12	5	56	
Montserrat	0.0	0		
Notherlands Antilles	0.0			
Spint Kitte and Novie	0.0	0	10.9	5.6
Saint Kitts and Nevis	0.0	0.5	7.1	0.0
Sallit Lucia	24	0.5	7.1	0.0
St Vincent/Grenad.	g	0.1	8.8	1.Z
Suriname	60	3		
Irinidad and Tobago	0.1	0.0		3.9
Turks and Calcos Islands	149	0.9		
Latin America				
Argentina	2	9	4.0	4.6
Bolivia	20	28	<u>6.6</u>	5.8
Brazil	0.7	10	4.1	4.0
Chile	1	2	3.6	4.0
Colombia	1	7	4.9	4.5
Costa Rica	2	1	4.9	5.5
Cuba	0.6	0.5	9.3	7.7
Dominican Republic	19	23	3.9	
Ecuador	4	8		2.0
El Salvador	8	7	3.2	2.4
Guatemala	10	20	2.6	
Honduras	27	30		
Mexico	0.3	4	5.6	4.5
Nicaraqua	6.9	58	3.3	4.0
Panama	1	0.5	4.1	5.1
Paraguay	7	6	4.1	5.1
Poru	3	12	27	3.4
Iruguay	2	0.6	3.0	2.8
Venezuela R R	0.2	0.7	3.7	2.0
Venezuelu, D. H.	0.2	0.7	5.7	
	Weighted average	Sum	lian	Med
Latin America/Caribbean	5	279	4.1	4.9
Caribbean			5.8	
Latin America			4.0	4.5
Developing countries	6	3 595	4.4	4.5
M/a-1-1	0	4 276	4.0	4.5
vvorid	0	4 3/0	4.9	4.0

Data underlined are for 2003. Data in italics are for 2004. Data in bold italics are for 2005. Data in bold are for 2007 or 2006 for survival rate to last grade. 1. Data are for the most recent year available during the period specified. 2. Data reflect the actual number of children not enrolled at all, derived from the age-specific enrolment ratios of primary school age children, which measure the proportion of those who are enrolled in either primary or secondary school (total primary NER). 3. Based on headcounts of pupils and teachers. 4. Fast Track Initiative (FTI): countries with endorsed sector plans.

countries with endorsed sector plans. 5. The apparent decrease in total secondary education enrolment between 1999 and 2005 is essentially due to a change in data reporting. Since 2003, programmes designed for people beyond the regular school age (e.g. adult education) have been excluded from the figures for secondary enrolment, leading to a reported decline in the GER. The secondary NER has increased over the period in question. δ



Regional overview: Latin America and the Caribbean





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