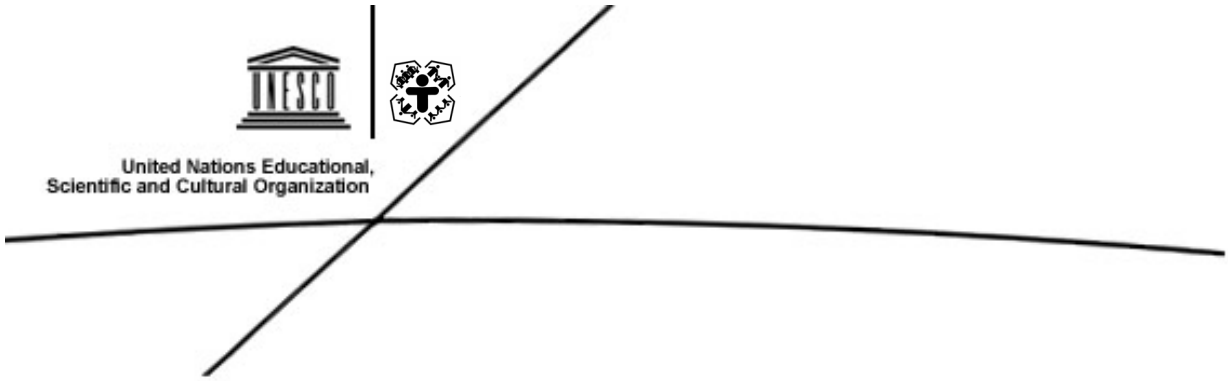

Early Childhood and Family Policy Series

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Policy Review Report: Early Childhood Care and Education in Brazil

The Division for the Promotion of Basic Education
UNESCO Education Sector

UNESCO/OECD Early Childhood Policy Review Project

Policy Review Report:
Early Childhood Care and Education in Brazil

Presented by

Division for the Promotion of Basic Education, Education Sector
UNESCO, Paris

July 2006

Approved by

Ministry of Education
Federative Republic of Brazil

August 2006

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Technical notes

Age	A child who has passed his/her first birthday and is in his/her second year is described in this report as a 1^+-year-old or a child aged 1^+ year. Thus, 3^+-year-olds are children who have passed their third birthday and are in their fourth year. The age group 0 to 6^+ includes 6^+-year-olds.
Attendance ratio	'Attendance ratio' is the term used by the IBGE's PNAD (National Household Sample Survey) to refer to net enrolment, while INEP's School Census uses the terms 'net enrolment' and 'gross enrolment'. Enrolment rates reported by the School Census tend to be lower than those of the IBGE surveys because the School Census surveys only registered services, and most early childhood services are not registered. Thus, IBGE data, where available, provide a more comprehensive picture. However, as the School Census uses the terms 'day care centre' and 'pre-school' without distinction, regardless of the age groups associated with each by law, caution is required in interpreting these data in terms of reference to age groups (also see 'schooling rate', below).
Background Report of Brazil	A local team of experts prepared the Background Report of Brazil (see footnote 3), with coordination by the Ministry of Education and the UNESCO Brasilia Office, for the review team's visit to the country. It is available at www.unesco.org/education/earlychildhood
Currency	As of June 2006, 1 Brazilian real (R$) equalled approximately US$2.23.
Data	Most data provided in this Report come from the annual PNAD and decadal Demographic Census carried out by IBGE and the annual School Census conducted by INEP.
Day care centre	The term used in Brazil to refer specifically to a service catering for children aged 0-3^+ years is 'day care centre' – one of two types of service in early childhood education. (The other is 'pre-school'; see below.)
Early childhood education	In the 1996 National Education Guidelines and Framework Law, the term 'early childhood education' refers to both care and education services catering for children aged 0 to 6^+. Early childhood education is delivered through two age-specific services: day care centres for children aged 0-3^+ and pre-schools for ages 4^+ to 6^+.
Early childhood services	The term refers in this Report to day care centres and pre-schools.
Enrolment	Unless otherwise specified, in this Report enrolment refers to gross enrolment (total enrolment in a specific level of education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the population in the official age group corresponding to this level of education).
FUNDEB	The Fundo de Manutenção e Desenvolvimento da Educação Básica e de Valorização dos Profissionais da Educação (Fund for the Development and Maintenance of Basic Education) is a government bill that would establish minimum per-student expenditure for all three levels of basic education in Brazil – early childhood, elementary and secondary. A

	revision of FUNDEF (see below), FUNDEB aims to reserve 20% of state and municipal tax revenue for basic education. When this Report was being drafted in October 2005, the bill, whose main focus is on secondary and vocational education, did not include 0- to 3^+-year-olds as beneficiaries, and merely suggested lowering the entry age for primary education from 7^+ to 6^+ years. By the time this Report went to press in 2006, the bill had been amended to include day care centres, and the suggestion of lowering the primary school entry age was confirmed so that early childhood will cover only ages 0^+ to 5^+. At publication, the bill was awaiting final approval in Congress. (See general note at the end of the technical notes.)
FUNDEF	The Fundo de Desenvolvimento do Ensino Fundamental e de Valorizção do Magistério (Fund for the Development of Elementary Education and Teacher Development) was passed in 1996 and implemented in 1998. It obliged states and municipalities to set aside 25% of their tax revenue for education, with 60% (i.e. 15% of total revenue) being spent on elementary education (the rest of the municipal education budget is spent on early childhood education). FUNDEB (above) expands FUNDEF to include secondary and early childhood education, the other two components of basic education, which were not included in FUNDEF.
IBGE	Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística (Brazilian Institute of Geography and Statistics), under the Ministry of Planning and Budgeting.
INEP	Instituto Nacional de Estudos e Pesquisas Educacionais Anísio Teixeira (National Institute for Educational Studies and Research), under the Ministry of Education.
IPEA	Instituto de Pesquisa Econômica Aplicada (Institute for Applied Economic Research), under the Ministry of Planning and Budgeting.
Literacy class	This early childhood service, though not recognized by the 1996 education law, is included in the annual School Census. Some schools, insisting that children must be able to read and write before being admitted to primary education, set up extra-legal literacy classes. School-aged children who have not passed literacy tests are often found in these classes. The number of literacy classes is declining, but as of 2003 about 600,000 school-aged children, predominantly 6^+- and 7^+-year-olds, were still attending them.
MEC	Ministério da Educação (Ministry of Education of the Federative Republic of Brazil).
Minimum wage	Under Article 76 of the Consolidated Labour Acts, a minimum wage of 300 R$ is due every worker monthly, paid directly by the employer to cover basic needs: food, housing, clothing, hygiene and transport.
National Curricular Guidelines for Early Childhood Education (Diretrizes Curriculares Nacionais para a Educação Infantil)	The National Council of Education announced guidelines on the national curriculum for early childhood education in 1999. All early childhood education services are required to follow the guidelines.

PNAD	Pesquisa Nacional por Amostra de Domicílios (National Household Sample Survey), conducted annually by IBGE.
Pre-school	Under the 1996 education law, the term 'pre-school' refers to services catering for children aged 4^+ to 6^+. Pre-schools are one of two services in early childhood education (day care centres are the other).
Primary education vs. elementary education	In this Report, 'primary education' refers to the first four years of formal schooling. FUNDEB (see above) changes the period to five years, including one year of pre-school education. 'Elementary education' is used here exclusively to mean basic education: four years of primary education and four years of lower secondary education. Approval of FUNDEB will extend the period of elementary education to nine years.
Private services	Private services include those provided by communities, non-government organizations (NGOs), enterprises and individuals. They include both for-profit and non-profit services. In this Report, wherever the original data are identified in Portuguese as referring to *particular*, the English term 'for-profit service' is used, to distinguish this category from private services (*privada*), or all non-public services.
Schooling rate	The term used in this Report refers to the combined net attendance rate for day care centres, pre-schools, literacy classes and grade 1 of primary school.
2001 National Education Plan (Plano Nacional de Educação)	Prepared in accordance with the recommendations of the 1996 education law, the ten-year National Education Plan was announced in 2001. It aims to increase the gross enrolment rate of 0- to 3^+-year-olds in day care centres to 50% by 2006 and that of 4^+- to 6^+-year-olds in pre-schools to 80% by 2011.
1996 education law	The National Education Guidelines and Framework Law, often shortened in Brazil to LDP (Lei de Diretrizes e Bases da Educaçao National), is often referred to in this Report as the 1996 education law. It recognized early childhood education, for the first time in Brazilian law, as a comprehensive concept concerning children aged 0 to 6^+. (The previous law dealt with early childhood education only in terms of pre-school education for ages 4^+ to 6^+.)
1988 Federal Constitution	The Constitution of Brazil provides for the organization and operation of education systems to be a collaborative effort involving the federal government, states (including the federal district, Brasilia) and municipalities.

Note: Drafting of this Report was completed in October 2005, but the Brazilian Government's final approval was not received until August 2006. Major changes occurring in the interval are noted in footnotes; the main text refers to the situation up to October 2005.

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The review visit

Within the framework of the UNESCO/OECD Early Childhood Policy Review Project, a team of four experts visited Brazil from 2 to 13 May 2005 to review the country's early childhood policy. This Report is a result of that visit.

Access

Enrolment in municipal pre-schools is increasing, particularly in disadvantaged regions, but municipal day care centre enrolment is declining, especially in advantaged regions. Enrolment in for-profit services is increasing in both rich and poor regions, although the quality of services varies among regions. Disparities in access are far more pronounced among younger children. Children in rural areas are less likely to attend early childhood services, and for-profit services are more likely to be attended by children from affluent families. Social assistance programmes have helped 4^+- to 6^+-year-olds in poor regions gain access to pre-schools, but with a trade-off in quality – pre-schools in disadvantaged regions are less likely to be staffed with qualified teachers, less likely to be equipped with proper support materials and more likely to run short hours.

Quality

Laws and guidelines on pedagogy for early childhood education are in place, but implementation remains a problem. The gap has to do with the fact that not all early childhood services have yet been integrated into the education sector and recognized as educational institutions. Qualification levels of teachers are improving, but early childhood teachers lack specialized training and education. Inequities are evident in quality as well. Public early childhood services attended by the poor tend to be of lower quality, especially with regard to facilities and pedagogical environment, and private services of good quality are available mostly among the rich. Quality problems are more urgent and pronounced in day care centres. The challenge has mainly to do with the process of transforming them into educational institutions, which has stalled. Sectoral conflicts, limits to municipal capacity and lack of funding are noted as contributing factors.

Investment

Expenditure on early childhood education in Brazil has declined lately relative to other levels of education. The country is in increasing need of more investment in early childhood education to meet the targets of the 2001 National Education Plan and to tackle inequity issues. There is scarce room for increased efficiency, and the expansion of contributions from the private sector needs to be viewed with caution for its negative impact on inequity. Increased allocations from the federal government are deemed essential to tackle these funding problems.

Recommendations

The 0^+ to 3^+ age group deserves urgent attention, to address, at the very least, poverty and social inequity issues. Integration of day care centres into the education sector should allow for diversity and flexibility in service types and stress a pedagogical link to pre-school education. The funds from the social sector could either be transferred to the education sector or remain in the social sector to provide family support for early childhood education. The federal government should increase its funding for early childhood education. Training and education of early childhood workers should become more specialized.

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. About the project

1.1.1. **Context**: The world community, assembled in Dakar, Senegal, in 2000 for the 10th anniversary of Education for All (EFA), reaffirmed its commitment to early childhood care and education and set the development of this area as the first of the six Dakar goals for EFA. Yet, in most developing countries, early childhood care and education has not been part of public policy, and governments have limited capacity for developing the necessary policies and systems. Particularly lacking is knowledge of policy options and strategies for promoting children's holistic development with limited resources.

1.1.2. In this context, as part of UNESCO's 2004–2005 planning, the Organization launched the UNESCO/OECD Early Childhood Policy Review Project (hereafter called the Project), aimed at providing selected countries with an opportunity to review their early childhood policies and identify concrete options and strategies for improvement. Four countries were selected on the basis of their expressed interest – Brazil, Indonesia, Kazakhstan and Kenya.[1] The review of Brazil was conducted as part of its participation in the Project, which was implemented in collaboration with the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD).

1.1.3. **Activity**: Each country review involves the preparation of a Background Report, containing baseline information on the country's situation regarding early childhood care and education; a review visit conducted by a review team, and a Review Report containing policy recommendations. The Review Report is presented to national authorities and stakeholders for discussion and follow-up. The UNESCO Field Office concerned may organize satellite activities for capacity building or for wider dissemination of the review results. The results of the four countries' review processes are being published as a Summary Report, which will serve at global level as policy reference material for early childhood care and education planning in other countries.

1.1.4. **Implementation structure**: The overall planning and coordination of the Project was the responsibility of a Project Secretariat set up at UNESCO Headquarters. For implementation at national level, a Country Task Force was set up in the education ministry, which signed a Memorandum of Understanding with UNESCO. The Country Task Force, joined and assisted by the concerned UNESCO Field Office, was responsible for the Background Report, and was the national authority to which the Review Report was submitted.[2]

1.1.5. **Review framework**: The Project addresses five broad categories of policy issues: access, quality, resources, government coordination and data/research development. On the assumption that policy issues manifest themselves differently in individual countries, consideration is also given to country-specific issues; highlights of the review vary depending on the country's situation and needs. Formal, non-formal and informal early childhood services catering for children from birth to the age of entry into primary school are reviewed. Services for parents and teacher training institutions are also included.

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1 The Background Reports and Review Reports of Indonesia, Kazakhstan and Kenya are available online:
Background Report of Indonesia – http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0013/001388/138849e.pdf
Review Report of Indonesia – http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0013/001385/138522e.pdf
Background Report of Kazakhstan – http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0013/001390/139025e.pdf
Review Report of Kazakhstan - http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0013/001390/139750e.pdf
Background Report of Kenya – http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0013/001390/139027e.pdf
Review Report of Kenya – http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0013/001390/139026e.pdf

2 For details, see the Implementation Guidelines for the UNESCO/OECD Early Childhood Policy Review Project, available at http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0013/001389/138973E.pdf. A print copy can be obtained from UNESCO Headquarters (sh.choi@unesco.org).

1.2. Review visit

1.2.1. **Preparation**: Ahead of the review visit, the Background Report of Brazil[3] was prepared by two working groups, the Coordination Group and the Consultation Group,[4] set up in the Ministry of Education. In selecting sites for the visit, differences in socio-economic strata, regional balance, age groups, service types and policy implications were taken into account.

1.2.2. **Schedule:** The review visit took place from 2 to 13 May 2005, in Brasilia, Recife, Sobral, Blumenau, Rio de Janeiro and São Gonçalo. Sites included day care centres and pre-schools, as well as non-formal early childhood services and teacher training institutions.[5]

1.2.3. The review team met with various government authorities responsible for the planning and implementation of early childhood policies, such as representatives of the Ministry of Education, other concerned ministries and municipal government. Meetings were also held with other national stakeholders, such as academics, professionals and representatives of NGOs and community organizations.

1.2.4. **Review team:** The review team consisted of one national consultant and three international experts with various areas of specialization: Maria Malta Campos (Senior Researcher, Fundação Carlos Chagas, Brazil), Sheila Kamerman (Professor, Columbia University, USA), Abrar Hasan (OECD, Paris) and Soo-Hyang Choi (UNESCO, Paris). The team was accompanied and assisted by members of the Coordination and Consultation Groups, personnel from the UNESCO Field Office in Brasilia and Hye-Jin Park of UNESCO, Paris.[6]

1.3. The Report

1.3.1. **Preparation:** The Review Report is based on review team observation notes and the Background Report. Efforts were made to highlight key issues that deserve the government's immediate attention, rather than inventorying all observations. Detailed analyses were made on some critical issues for which relevant data were available. Recommendations centre on global policy and specific priority tasks.

1.3.2. **Guiding assumptions:** Three assumptions guided the review process and the formulation of the recommendations. First, the ultimate purpose of early childhood care and education is the child's holistic development. The child's preparation for formal schooling is viewed as an integral part of holistic development, not as an isolated objective. Second, government policy on early childhood should be affirmatively pro-poor, addressing the issue of inequity as a priority. Third, early childhood care and education lays the foundation for lifelong learning, and the transitions from home to early childhood services and from early childhood services to school must be as smooth as possible.

1.3.3. **Limitations:** Although efforts were made to take geographical and socio-economic representation into consideration in selecting the visit sites, time limitations made this difficult. One neglected region was the North, which has a large indigenous population. Also, many important policy developments concerning FUNDEB took place after the review visit and could not be fully captured in this Report.

3 *Background Report of Brazil for the UNESCO/OECD Early Childhood Policy Review Project* (2005), referred to as Background Report of Brazil throughout this Report, may be obtained in hard copy by writing to earlychildhood@unesco.org and is available online at www.unesco.org/education/earlychildhood.

4 The Coordination Group was composed of representatives from the Secretariat of Basic Education, INEP and the UNESCO Brasilia Office. The Consultation Group was made up of Brazilian ECCE experts and researchers.

5 See Annex 1 for details.

6 See Annex 2 for details.

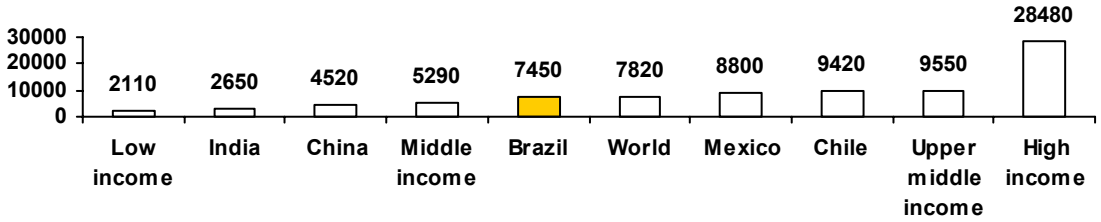
2. Country profile

2.1. Socio-economic profile[7]

2.1.1. **Demography:**[8] Brazil is one of the world's most populous countries with about 184 million people (2005). The population aged 0 to 14^+ accounted for about 28% of the total in 2002. The number of children aged 0 to 6^+ years was 23.6 million in 2003. In 2002, about 82% of the population was concentrated in urban areas. Population growth has slowed: the growth rate projected for 2002-15 is just 1.1%. The fertility rate also dropped sharply, by 46%, between 1980 and 2002.

2.1.2. **Economy:**[9] Brazil ranks as a middle income country, with gross national income per capita (in purchasing power parity terms) of US$7,450 (Figure 1) and a GDP growth rate of 1.5% (2002).

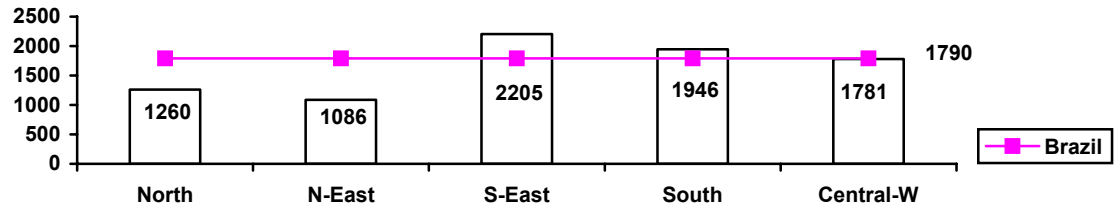
Figure 1: Gross national income, PPP US$ per capita, 2002



Source: World Bank (2004).

2.1.3. As in most countries, the service sector is the largest contributor to GDP. Brazil's economy is characterized by wide disparity in income distribution and consumption, with one of the world's highest Gini indexes[10] (nearly 60 in 2003). The country's richest 10% share or consume about 47% of the national income, while the lowest 10% share or consume less than 1% (1998). In 2001, about 34% of the population was living below the poverty line. The North-east region is the poorest, and the South-east the richest (Figure 2).

Figure 2: Monthly family income (monetary+non-monetary), by region, 2002-03 (R$)



Source: IBGE database, 'Pesquisa de orcamentos familiares 2002–2003'.

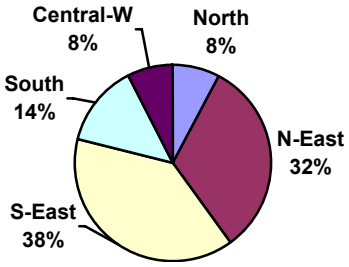
2.1.4. **Development of women and children:**[11] In 2002, 47% of women aged 15^+ to 64^+ were in the labour force. The adult literacy rate among women was 88% in 2004. Despite the female population's active participation in education and the labour force, however, the country's gender-related development index (GDI) ranking in 2003 was relatively low at 60 out of 144.

7 See Annex 3 for a more detailed profile in comparison with other countries.
8 See Table 1 in Annex 3.
9 See Tables 2 and 3 in Annex 3.
10 An index that measures the extent to which the distribution of income among individuals or households within a country deviates from a perfectly equal distribution.
11 See Tables 4, 5, 6, and 14 in Annex 3.

2.1.5. Some 86% of pregnant women in Brazil receive prenatal care, and 88% of births are attended by skilled health staff. Yet, the maternal mortality ratio (260 per 100,000 live births) is relatively high. The under-5 mortality rate (37 per 1,000 live births) is low by global standards, but high by regional ones.

2.1.6. About 38% of children aged 0 to 6^+ live in the South-east region and 32% in the North-east. The two regions account for 70% of this age group in the country (Figure 3).

Figure 3: Regional distribution of child population aged 0-6+, 2003



Source: IBGE (2003: Table 1.2).

2.2. Education profile[12]

2.2.1. **Education system**: The education system is divided into basic education and higher education. Basic education consists of six years of non-compulsory early childhood education (0 to 6^+ years), eight years of compulsory elementary education (7^+ to 14^+ years)[13] and three years of non-compulsory secondary education (15^+ to 17^+ years). Elementary and secondary education is free in public schools and fee-paying in private schools. Elementary education lasts nine years in some states, which have chosen, under the 1996 National Education Guidelines and Framework Law, to permit 6^+-year-olds to enrol in primary school.

2.2.2. **Literacy:**[14] The literacy rates for males and females aged 15 and older are 86% and 87%, respectively, compared with world averages of 84% and 71% (2002). The regional disparity is considerable, however: the North-east, for example, has the highest level of adult illiteracy, more than twice that of the South, which has the lowest illiteracy rate.

2.2.3. **Participation in education**: The IBGE's National Household Sample Survey (PNAD) gives national attendance ratios[15] of 11.7% for children aged 0 to 3^+ in day care centres and 68.4% for ages 4^+ to 6^+ in pre-schools (2003). The attendance ratio for elementary education was 97%, while those for secondary education and higher education stood at 82% and 34%, respectively.

2.2.4. Internal efficiency in elementary and secondary education is a major challenge in Brazil. The completion rate in elementary education is only 82%, and repetition is extremely high at 21.5%. Once pupils complete elementary education, 84% go on to secondary education, but the repetition rate in secondary education is also very high at 18%.[16]

12 See Annex 3 for a more detailed profile in comparison with other countries.
13 Elementary education (*educação fundamental*) comprises four years of primary education and four years of lower-secondary education. This Report uses 'primary' for the first four years and 'elementary education' for the eight years of compulsory education. Congressional approval of FUNDEB extends the period of compulsory education to nine years, including a year of pre-school education for 6^+-year-olds.
14 See Table 9 in Annex 3.
15 See technical notes.
16 See Table 10 in Annex 3.

2.2.5. **Education financing:** Under the 1988 Federal Constitution, financial responsibility for education is divided among the government levels (federal, state, municipal). Fixed amounts of tax revenue are earmarked for education and constitute the education fund.

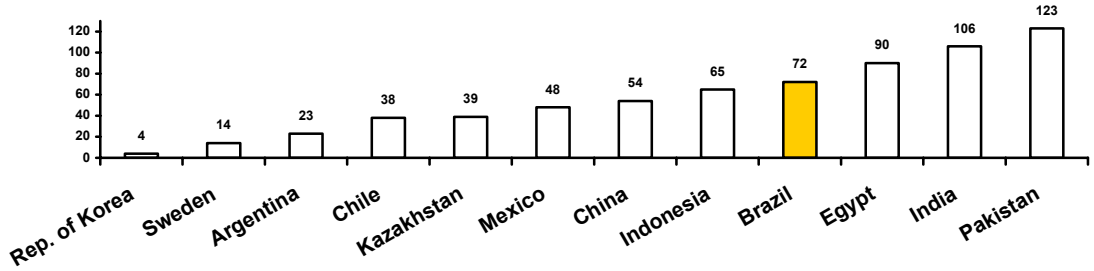
2.2.6. That fund, approved in 1996 and effective since 1998, is FUNDEF (Fundo de Desenvolvimento do Ensino Fundamental e de Valorização do Magistério), the Fund for the Development of Elementary Education and Teacher Development. It obliges states and municipalities to each set aside 25% of their tax revenue for education and to spend 60% of this amount (that is, 15% of tax revenue) on elementary education. The remainder covers other expenses, including early childhood education. Under FUNDEB, a proposed revision of FUNDEF that would extend coverage to secondary and early childhood education, the states and municipalities would devote about 20%, not 15%, of their total tax revenue to supporting the three components of basic education – early childhood, elementary and secondary.

2.2.7. The federal government is to distribute and complement resources to assure minimum quality standards and the equalization of educational opportunities. It will also provide technical and financial assistance to the state and municipal governments.

2.2.8. Brazil's public expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP stood at 4% in 2002. States and municipalities were the greatest contributors to the education fund, accounting for about 39% and 45% of the total, respectively (1999). Elementary and secondary education account for about 33% and 36% of the total education budget, respectively, while expenditure on pre-primary education amounts to only 9% (2001).[17]

2.2.9. **Achievement of EFA goals**: On the EFA Development Index (EDI), Brazil's score as of 2001 was 0.899.[18] It ranked 72nd among 127 countries, as Figure 4 shows. On the four individual EDI constituents, Brazil's rankings were 32 for the primary school net enrolment ratio (with a value of 0.965), 67 for the adult literacy rate (0.882), 66 for the gender-specific EFA index (0.951, with gender disparity at the expense of males) and 87 for survival rate to grade 5 (0.799). Thus, the weakest constituent of the EDI is the net enrolment rate in primary, which is directly linked to the provision of early childhood care and education.

Figure 4: EFA Development Index rankings of selected countries, 2001



Source: UNESCO (2004*b*).

2.3. Early childhood profile

2.3.1. **Legislative status**: Early childhood education for children under age 6^{+} is a constitutional right in Brazil. The Constitution gives municipalities responsibility for providing education for young children.

17 See Tables 7 and 8 in Annex 3.

18 The EDI is the arithmetic mean of values for four indicators: primary net enrolment ratio, adult literacy rate, gender-specific EFA index and survival rate to grade 5. The EDI value falls between 0 and 1. The closer to 1 a country's EDI is, the nearer it is to achieving EFA overall.

2.3.2. The 1996 education law defined early childhood education as the first stage of basic education, catering for children aged 0-6^{+}. The law recognized day care centres as services for 0- to 3^{+}-year-olds and pre-schools as provision for 4^{+}- to 6^{+}-year-olds and stated that, although these were non-mandatory, they should both be recognized as educational institutions. The law stipulated that all early childhood services should be integrated into the education system and that policy development for care and education services should be coordinated under the leadership of the education sector.

2.3.3. **Service structure**: Early childhood education, as the law specifies, is divided into day care centres for ages 0 to 3^{+} and pre-schools for ages 4^{+} to 6^{+}.

Table 1: Profile of key early childhood services

	Day care centres	Pre-schools
Age group	0-3^{+}	4^{+}- 6^{+} [19]
Purpose	Care and education[20]	Education
Opening hours	Mostly full-time, five days per week	Mostly half-time, five days per week
Required qualification level of teachers	(Minimum) secondary education teaching certificate	(Minimum) secondary education teaching certificate
Responsible government sector	Education	Education
Funding	Municipalities (and states)	Municipalities (and states)

2.3.4. **Ministerial auspices**: Although the 1996 education law gave government sector responsibility for early childhood education to the Ministry of Education, battles continue between the education sector and the social assistance sector over the management and funding of pre-schools and day care centres.

2.3.5. The Early Childhood Education Coordination office in the Ministry of Education is the federal administrative focal point for development of early childhood education. Each state and municipality has its own education secretariat. Education councils at all three levels of government develop educational guidelines and regulations.

2.3.6. **Decentralization policy**: As the Constitution is based on democratic and decentralization principles, responsibility for education is shared among the three levels of government, and each can set up its own education system, in collaboration with the others.

2.3.7. Provision of early childhood education is the responsibility of the municipalities, which act autonomously. Thus, any municipality can set up, manage and supervise its own early childhood (and primary) education system, or opt to follow the state system. States are not involved in the provision of early childhood services, but they are responsible for regulating and supervising whatever early childhood services exist where municipalities have not set up their own systems. States are also responsible for offering training programmes for early childhood teachers.

2.3.8. **Funding**: With the establishment of FUNDEF, early childhood education is provided at the municipal level with the remaining funds not earmarked for elementary education.

19 4^{+}-5^{+} in municipalities where entry into primary school is at age 6^{+}. Passage of FUNDEB will limit pre-school education to ages 4^{+} and 5^{+}, with 6^{+}-year-olds being in grade 1 nationwide.

20 The 1996 education law specifies that day care centres are to incorporate educational components.

2.3.9. A bill has been drafted to amend the Constitution and establish a new fund for basic education: FUNDEB (Fundo de Manutenção e Desenvolvimento da Educação Básica e de Valorização dos Profissionais da Educação) or Fund for the Development and Maintenance of Basic Education. This new fund would establish minimum per-student expenditures for all three levels of basic education, including early childhood education (except the 0 to 3^+ age group).[21] This bill, prepared by the government, was submitted to Congress on 14 July 2005.

2.3.10. **National Education Plan:** Prepared in accordance with the recommendations of the 1996 education law, the ten-year National Education Plan was announced in 2001, setting the following goals:

(1) Increase the net enrolment of children aged 0 to 3^+ in day care centres to 30% by 2006.
(2) Increase the net enrolment of children aged 4^+ to 6^+ in pre-schools to 60% by 2006.
(3) Increase the net enrolment of children aged 0 to 3^+ in day care centres to 50% by 2011.
(4) Increase the net enrolment of children aged 4^+ to 6^+ in pre-schools to 80%, with 100% net enrolment of 6^+-year-olds, by 2011.
(5) Prepare minimum infrastructure standards for all day care centres and pre-schools by 2006.
(6) Ensure that basic education teachers meet minimum qualifications of secondary education by 2006.
(7) Ensure that basic education teachers meet minimum qualifications of higher education by 2011.
(8) Set up a supervisory structure for early childhood education in all municipalities by 2004.
(9) Provide school meals to all children enrolled in early childhood education.
(10) Gradually make early childhood services full time (no specific time frame is set).

3. REVIEW RESULTS

3.1. Access

3.1.1. **Review direction**: Expanding access is one matter; expanding it in the policy direction set by the country is another. In Brazil, two policy issues deserve consideration in relation to access:

- Since 1998, provision of early childhood services has been the responsibility of the municipalities. Are municipalities fulfilling this responsibility?

- The socio-economic gaps in access to early childhood services among regions in the country are deep-seated and chronic. Are the regional gaps being reduced, and if so, are there any trade-offs?

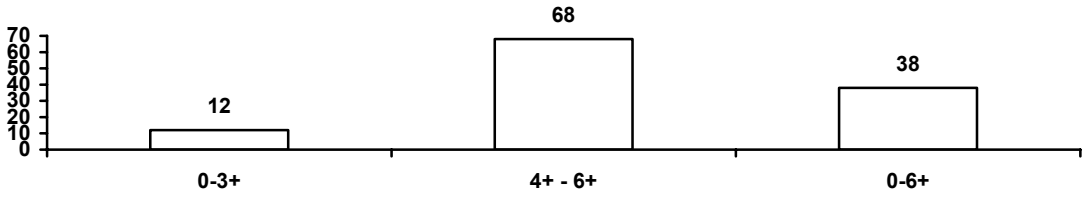
3.1.2. The following discussion explores these two issues. But first, a few observations are in order concerning Brazil's status vis-à-vis other countries in the provision of early childhood services.

3.1.3. **The current status**: In 2003 the schooling rate[22] of 0- to 6^+-year-olds overall was 38% (Figure 5). However, while the schooling rate was 68% for 4^+- to 6^+-year-olds, it was 12% for 0- to 3^+-year-olds – a substantial gap between the two age groups. For the most part, early childhood education in Brazil actually starts at age 4^+, not at birth.

21 As noted earlier, the bill was revised after the review visit to include the youngest age group.

22 The combined net attendance rate for day care centres, pre-schools, literacy classes for young children and grade 1 primary classes.

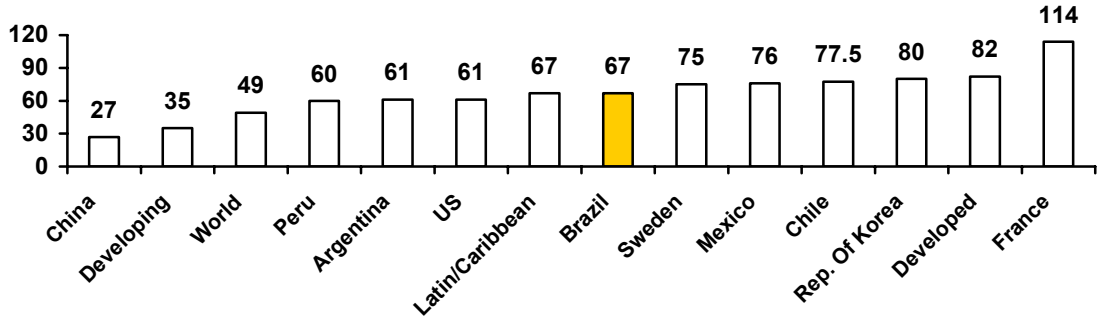
Figure 5: Schooling rate of young children in Brazil, by age, 2003



Source: IBGE (2004: Tables 2.6 and Table 11.4).

3.1.4. Measured in terms of gross enrolment ratio in pre-primary education (ISCED-0) for children 3^+ and over, Brazil falls between developed and developing countries (Figure 6). In 2001, the rate for Brazil stood at 67%,[23] higher than the averages of most other developing countries (35%) and the world average (49%), but below that of developed countries (82%). At regional level, Brazil had an average score, with Mexico (76%) and Chile (77.5%) ahead of it.

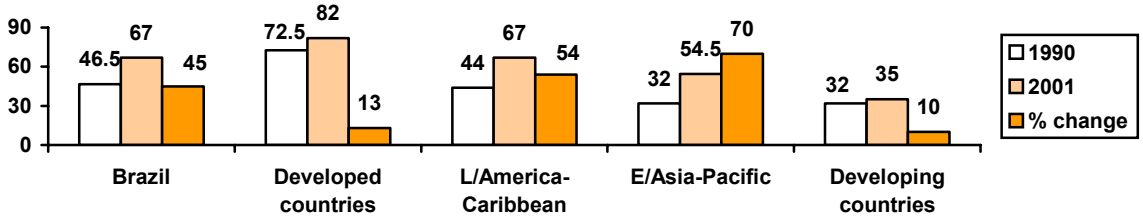
Figure 6: Gross enrolment ratio in pre-primary education, 2001



Source: UNESCO (2004*b*).

3.1.5. Brazil has made good progress in expanding access to early childhood education, increasing the gross enrolment ratio in pre-primary education by 45%, from 46.5% in 1990 to 67% in 2001 (Figure 7). But during the same period the Latin America and Caribbean region experienced an overall growth rate of 54%. Brazil should have made at least as much progress as its own region, whose average in 1990 (44%) was similar to Brazil's (46.5%).

Figure 7: Gross enrolment ratio in pre-primary education, by region, 1990 and 2001, with percentage change



Note: Data for 'Developing countries' are for 1998 and 2001.
Source: UNESCO (2004*b*).

23 The pre-primary gross enrolment ratio was less than the schooling rate for 4^+- to 6^+-year-olds chiefly because the latter is based on the national household survey, which took non-registered services into account in addition to registered ones, and the former included 3^+-year-olds, whose much lower rate of enrolment lowers the overall ratio.

3.1.6. Two key aspects of Brazil's early childhood education system distinguish it from those of other countries in the region. First, early childhood education is not compulsory in Brazil,[24] unlike in some other countries in the region (Table 2). Second, Brazil has eight years of compulsory schooling, whereas in most other countries in the region, mandatory schooling lasts for ten to twelve years. Children in Brazil start primary education at age 7^+,[25] while 6^+ years is more or less standard elsewhere.

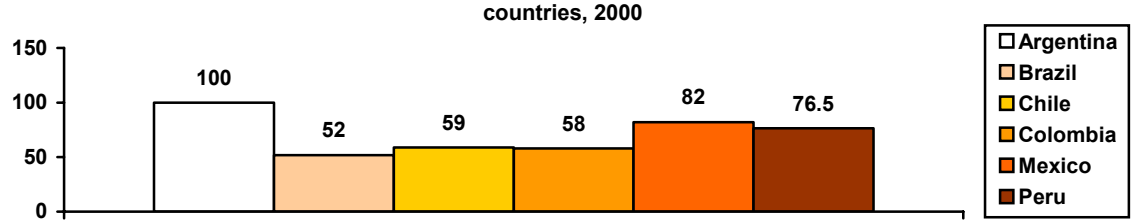
Table 2: Years of compulsory schooling in Latin America

Country	Pre-primary	Primary	Lower secondary	Upper secondary	Total	Age of entry into primary
Argentina	1	6	3		10	6
Brazil		**4**	**4**		**8**	**7**
Colombia	1	5	4		10	6
Costa Rica	1	6	3	1	11	6
Dominican Rep.	1	6	2		9	6
Ecuador	1	6	3		10	6
El Salvador	3	6	3		12	7
Mexico	3	6	3		12	6
Panama	2	6	3		11	6
Peru	1	6	3	2	12	6
Uruguay	1	6	3		10	6
Venezuela	1	6	3	1	11	6

Source: UNESCO (2003*b*).

3.1.7. The relatively high entry age for primary school may help explain why Brazil's enrolment rate for 5^+-year-olds is lower than those of other countries in the region to which it may wish to compare itself (Figure 8). Late entry into primary education can retard the overall schooling process in the preceding years.

Figure 8: Gross enrolment ratio for 5+-year-olds in pre-primary education in selected countries, 2000



Source: UNESCO (2003*b*).

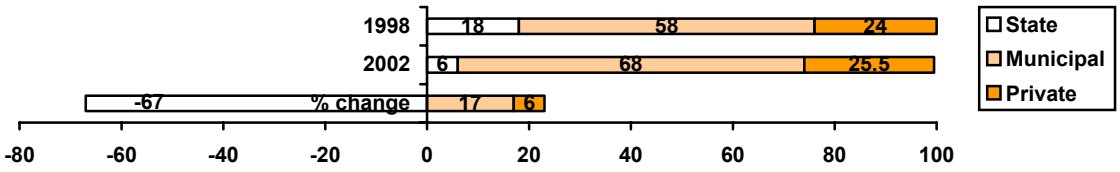
3.1.8. **Expansion of municipal services**: In 1998, municipal services accounted for about 58% of pre-school enrolments; by 2002, the municipal share had increased by 17% to 68%, while the states' share of pre-school enrolments had fallen by 67%, from 18% to 6%. At the same time, the share of private pre-school services changed relatively little, rising by 6%, which would suggest a link between the growth of the municipal share and the reduction in the state share (Figure 9).[26]

24 Passage of FUNDEB will make age 6^+ the starting age for compulsory primary education, so compulsory elementary education will last nine years.

25 In some municipalities, 6^+-year-olds can enrol in primary school.

26 'Private services' means both non-profit and for-profit services; see technical notes.

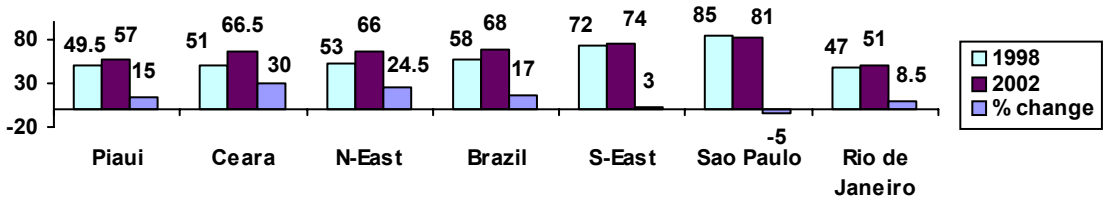
Figure 9: Distribution of pre-school enrolment, by service type, 1998 and 2002, with percentage change



Source: MEC-INEP (2004*a*: Table 5, p. 96).

3.1.9. The growth of the municipal share of pre-school enrolments was especially pronounced in disadvantaged areas (Figure 10). In the North-east region, for instance, the municipal share rose by 24.5% from 1998 to 2002, with Ceará, one of the region's poorest states, recording growth of 30%. By contrast, in the South-east region the municipal share rose by only 3%.[27]

Figure 10: Municipal pre-school enrolment in selected regions and states, 1998 and 2002, with percentage change

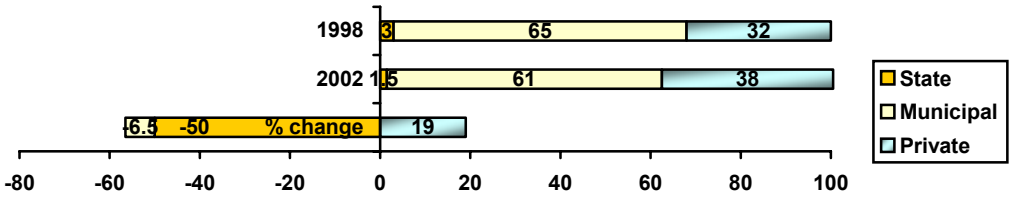


Source: MEC-INEP (2004*a*: Tables 4 and 5, p. 96).

3.1.10. The expansion of municipal pre-schools in the North-east is due in part to social assistance programmes concentrated there that led to the creation of low-cost community pre-schools. But the differences in regional trends also reflect the differing levels of revenue that poor and rich states and municipalities devoted to education under FUNDEF.

3.1.11. The trend for day care centres was different. The municipal share of enrolments declined by 6.5%, from 65% in 1998 to 61% in 2002, while the share of enrolments in private services increased by 19%, from 32% to 38% (Figure 11).

Figure 11: Distribution of enrolment in day care centres, by service type, 1998 and 2002, with percentage change

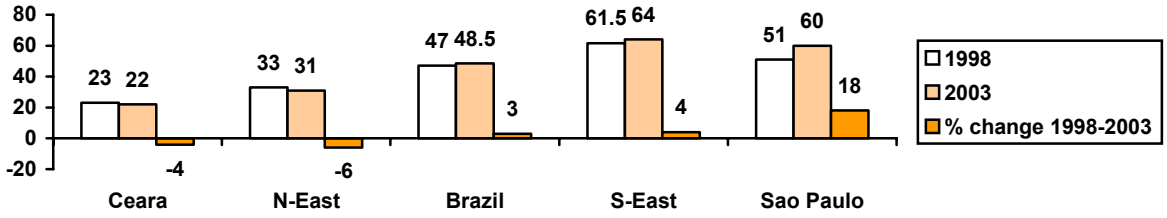


Source: MEC-INEP (2004*a*: Table 4, p. 96).

27 The relatively small growth in the South-east may have been due in part to the region's already high enrolment rate, which left less room for growth. Yet, in Rio de Janeiro, another rich region, the enrolment rate in 1998 (47%) was closer to that of the North-east (53%), but despite this potential for growth, its municipal share rose just 8% while that in the North-east increased by 24.5%.

3.1.12. The share of for-profit day care centres is growing faster in advantaged regions (Figure 12). In the city of São Paulo, for example, the for-profit share grew by 18% between 1998 and 2003, far beyond the national growth rate of 3%, while in the North-east region and its Ceará state, the share shrank by 6% and 4%, respectively. Given that for-profit centres already accounted for a relatively large share of day care in São Paulo, the 18% growth rate there reflects rapid and widespread expansion.

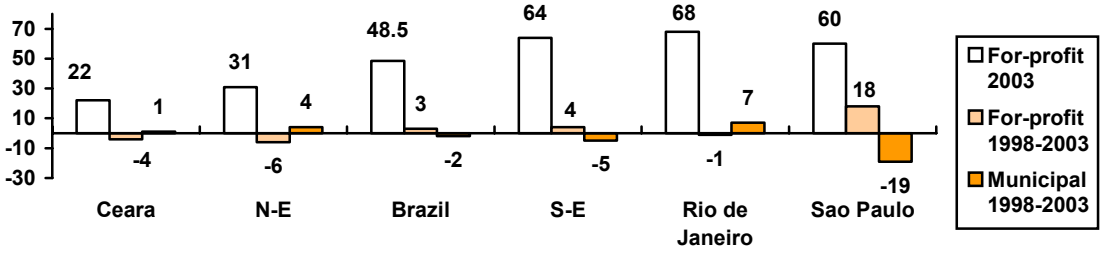
Figure 12: Share of for-profit centres in day care enrolment, 1998 and 2003, with percentage change



Source: MEC-INEP (1999: Table 3.6 and 2004*b:* Table 3.5).

3.1.13 However, in Rio de Janeiro, another rich municipality, the share of for-profit day care centres decreased by 19% (Figure 13) while that of municipal day care centres grew by 18%. In fact, in all cases presented in the figure below, growth in the share of for-profit day care centres is accompanied by reduction in that of municipal day care centres, or vice versa. Thus, the rapid growth of the share of private day care centres in São Paulo must be related to the equally rapid decrease of the share of public day care centres.

Figure 13: Share of for-profit centres in day care enrolment, 2003, and percentage change in for-profit and municipal shares, 1998-2003

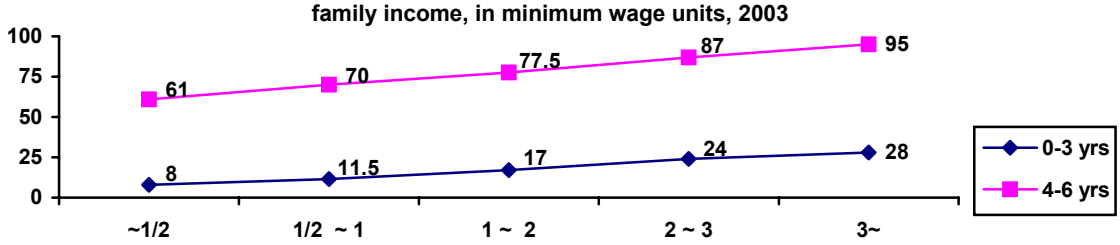


Source: MEC-INEP (1999: Table 3.6 and 2004*b*: Table 3.5).

3.1.14. The expansion of for-profit services is a phenomenon that does not seem to be found only in rich areas, though accurate data are not available. In Rocinha, a slum in Rio de Janeiro, for example, the review team heard that forty for-profit day care centres were operating in the community, which had only two public day care centres. In São Gonçalo, a poor municipality near Rio, the local authorities estimated that hundreds of small-scale for-profit services were operating. While it is difficult to confirm these anecdotal observations, they imply that it would be hasty to conclude that for-profit services are for the rich only. A great number of low-quality for-profit services may be catering for poor working parents' desperate need for child care while public day care centres are not expanding fast enough to meet demand.

3.1.15. **Disparities**: Brazil is no exception when it comes to socio-economic disparities in access to early childhood services. Children from poor families are less likely to participate in such services. There is a linear correlation between family income and enrolment (Figure 14). The gap between the richest and the poorest is greater for 0- to 3^+-year-olds, where the richest are 2.5 times more likely to enrol their children in early childhood services than the poorest, as opposed to 0.5 times among 4^+ - to 6^+-year-olds. Enrolment rates are more sensitive to family income in services for younger children.

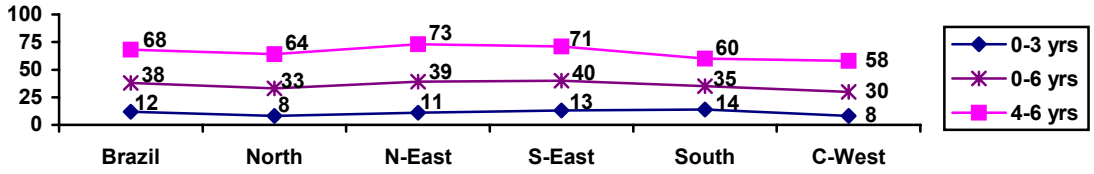
Figure 14: Schooling rate of children aged 0-6+, by monthly average per-capita family income, in minimum wage units, 2003



Source: IBGE (2004: Graph 7.2, p. 211).

3.1.16. Unlike in other countries, however, Brazil's poorest region, North-east, is doing an excellent job of enrolling children in early childhood services (Figure 15). The region has Brazil's highest schooling rate for 4^+ - to 6^+-year-olds, and it is second only to the richest region, South-east, in the overall schooling rate for ages 0 to 6^+.

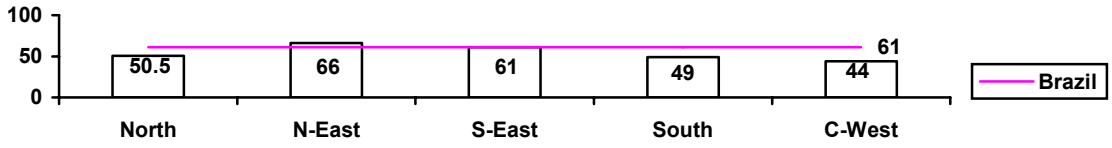
Figure 15: Schooling rate of children aged 0-6+, by age group and region, 2003



Source: IBGE (2004: Table 2.6, p. 69).

3.1.17. The superior performance of the North-east, well known in Brazil, is attributed to social assistance programmes in the region, focusing on poverty reduction, which created many low-cost early childhood services for poor families. That the poorest 4^+- to 6^+-year-olds in the North-east are far more likely to be in pre-school than those in other regions (Figure 16) reflects the impact of these programmes, which are widespread in the region.

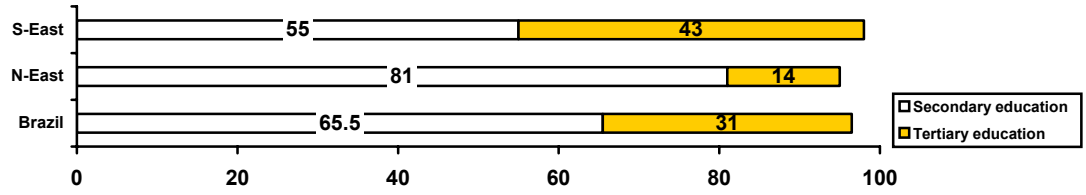
Figure 16: Average net enrolment of children aged 4+ - 6+ from families with monthly average per-capita income below 1/2 minimum wage, by region, 2003



Source: IBGE (2004: Graph 7.3, p.212).

3.1.18. However, the expansion of early childhood services in the North-east, especially for children of pre-school age, seems to have involved something of a trade-off between access and quality. For example, pre-school teachers in the North-east are less qualified than those in the South-east and in Brazil as a whole. Pre-school teachers with secondary education account for 81% of the cohort in the North-east and 55% in the South-east, while the respective percentages of those with tertiary education are 14% and 43% (Figure 17).

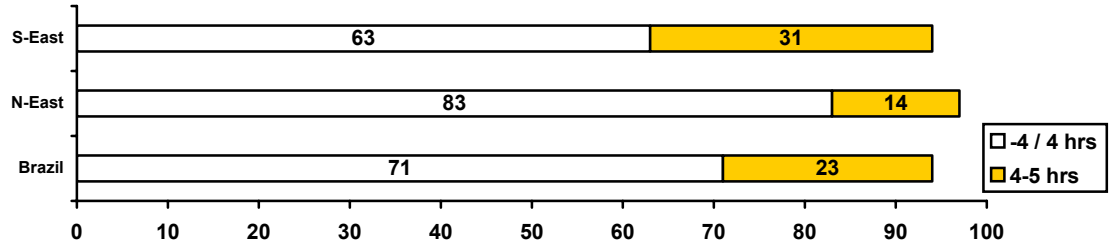
Figure 17: Percentage of pre-school teachers with secondary or tertiary education, 2003



Source: MEC-INEP (2004*b*: Table 2.5, p. 121).

3.1.19. In addition, fewer hours of pre-school are provided in the North-east than in the South-east or Brazil as a whole. About 83% of public pre-schools in the North-east run for four hours a day or less, compared with 63% in the South-east (Figure 18). In the South-east, about 31% of public pre-schools run up to five hours a day, compared with 14% in the North-east and 23% in the country as a whole.

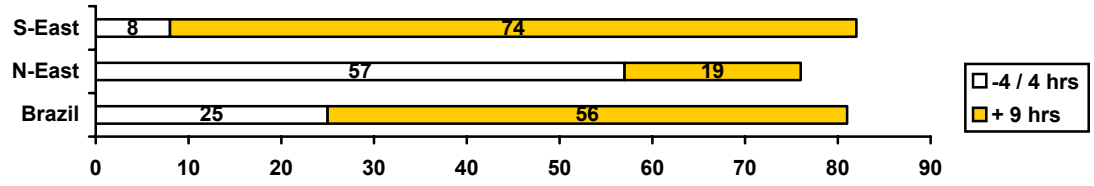
Figure 18: Percentage of public pre-schools, by hours of service, 2003



Sources: MEC-INEP (2004*b)*; Background Report of Brazil.

3.1.20. The gap in service hours is still greater for day care centres (Figure 19): 74% of public day care centres in the South-east operate more than nine hours a day, as opposed to 19% in the North-east, where 57% of day care centres run four hours a day or less. Thus, while the attendance rates for ages 0 to 3^+ are similar in the North-east (11%), the South-east (13%) and Brazil overall (12%) (Figure 15), children in the North-east may attend for far fewer hours.

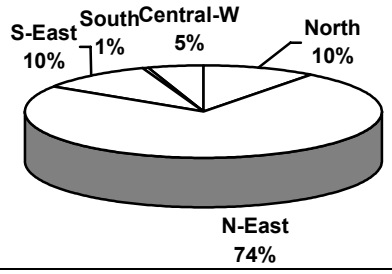
Figure 19: Percentage of public day care centres, by hours of service, 2003



Sources: MEC-INEP (2004*b)*; Background Report of Brazil.

3.1.21. In relation to the quality trade-off in the North-east, it is worth noting that this region accounts for 74% of the literacy classes for young children in Brazil (Figure 20). The region's high schooling rate for 4^+-to 6^+-year-olds may in part reflect the extensive presence of this extra-legal form of early childhood service.

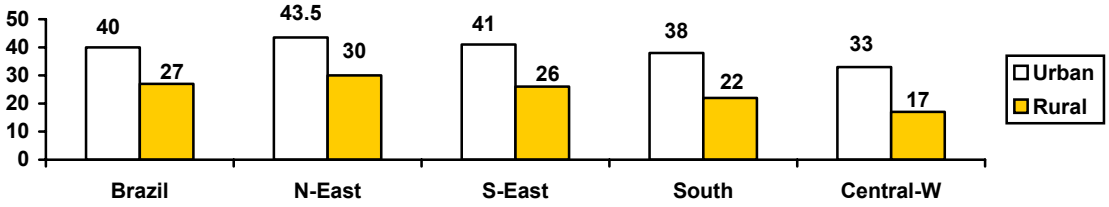
Figure 20: Distribution of literacy classes, by region, 2003



Source: MEC-INEP (2004*b*).

3.1.22. As in any country, children in rural Brazil have more limited access to early childhood services than their urban counterparts. The schooling rate for ages 0 to 6^{+} in rural areas was 27% in 2003, compared with 40% in urban areas (Figure 21).

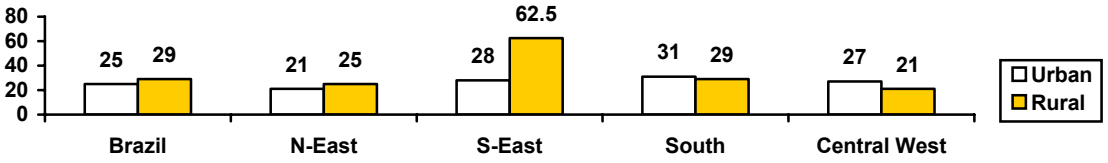
Figure 21: Schooling rates for urban and rural children aged 0-6+, by region, 2003



Note: The Brazil data do not include rural population for the states of Acre, Amapá, Amazonas, Rondônia, Roraima or Pará, which, with Tocantins, make up the North region. Thus, essentially only the urban population of this relatively sparsely populated region is represented.
Source: IBGE (2004: Table 2.3).

3.1.23. The urban-rural gap does not seem to be diminishing significantly. From 1997 to 2003, rural areas increased the schooling rate of 0- to 6^{+}-year-olds by 29%, as opposed to 25% in urban areas, but this result is mainly due to the South-east, where rural areas showed a far greater enrolment increase than urban areas. In the South and Central West, the urban growth rate exceeded that of rural areas.

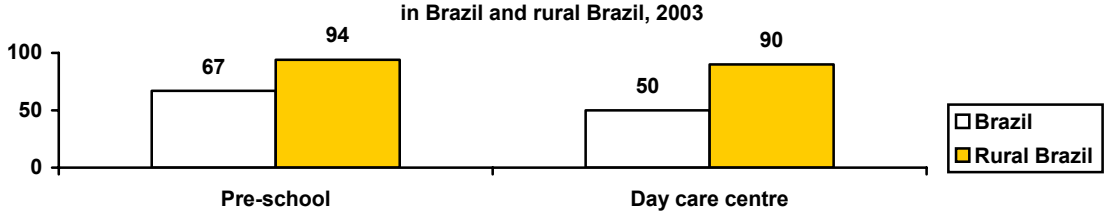
Figure 22: Percentage changes in schooling rates for urban and rural children aged 0-6+, by region, 1997-2003



Source: IBGE (2004: Table 2.3); World Bank (2001: Figure 3.5).

3.1.24 For pre-schools and day care centres combined, the percentage of municipal services is far greater in rural Brazil than in the country overall (Figure 23).

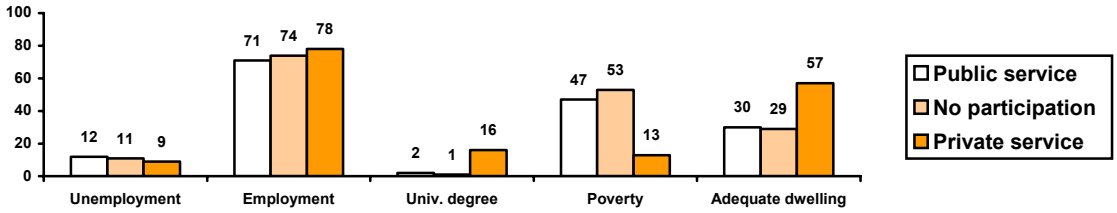
Figure 23: Percentage of municipal pre-schools and day care centres in Brazil and rural Brazil, 2003



Source: MEC-INEP (2004*b*: Table 3.5, p 148–9).

3.1.25. Socio-economic disparities in access to early childhood services are also seen in the types of services favoured. Private services are far more likely to be sought by families with greater participation in the labour force, lower unemployment rates, more schooling, a lower incidence of poverty and more adequate lodging (Figure 24).

Figure 24: Socio-economic conditions of families, by service type, as a percentage of each group, 2002



Source: PNAD/IBGE, in Castro and Duarte (2002).

3.2. Quality

3.2.1. **Achievements**: While the challenges are many and daunting, Brazil has made strenuous efforts to improve the quality of early childhood education. The OECD (2001) singled out sectoral integration of care and education as a vital determinant of quality in early childhood services. From this point of view, Brazil's decision in 1996 to integrate day care centres and pre-schools into the education system has been a key factor in efforts to improve quality.

3.2.2. Another noteworthy achievement is the establishment of quality standards. In 1998, the Ministry of Education announced the non-mandatory National Curricular Reference for Early Childhood Education (Referencial Curricular Nacional para a Educação Infantil), the first curriculum framework for the entire 0–6^+ age group. The mandatory National Curricular Guidelines (Diretrizes Curriculares Nacionais para a Educação Infantil) and accompanying National Operational Guidelines (Diretrizes Operacionais para a Educação Infantil), established by the National Education Council in 1999 for the integration of day care centres and pre-schools into the education system, were further important initiatives that helped upgrade the quality standards of day care centres, among other improvements.

3.2.3. Still another praiseworthy development is the ministry's current effort to elaborate national quality standards for early childhood services. This initiative was prompted by the lack of a clear and consistent definition of quality and the difficulty of establishing specific indicators of quality that can be quantified, measured, enforced and monitored. The initiative reflects government awareness of a problem with enforcement of related legislation. Standards with measurable parameters will help facilitate monitoring of existing norms.

3.2.4. These achievements by Brazil at the systemic and legislative levels to improve the quality of early childhood education are of great importance. Many countries have made similar attempts, but few have succeeded. Now the challenge for Brazil is implementation.

3.2.5. **The problem of enforcement:** Despite the advances in standards, much of what is prescribed for quality has not yet been put into practice. The problem is most pronounced as regards supervision. Supervisory responsibility, even for public services, has been taken up sparsely or superficially. The problem is attributed to lack of personnel and/or insufficient technical capacity.

3.2.6. Another important gap is in the curriculum. A majority of services do not seem to have adopted the aforementioned curricular and operational guidelines and reference. Although legislation grants services autonomy in elaborating their pedagogical plans, it is mandatory for all services, both day care centres and pre-schools, to consider aspects defined in the national guidelines. But in reality very little attention seems to be paid to them. The review team did not find consistent use in daily activities of the curricular reference by the services it visited.

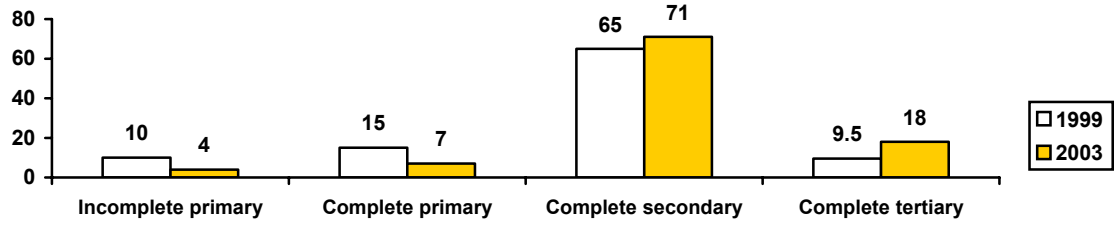
3.2.7. The implementation gap is more serious at the policy level. The policy goals for early childhood education established in the National Education Plan are not necessarily reflected in municipal governments' policy planning on early childhood education. An obligation for private enterprises to provide day care centres and pre-schools for their employees[28] is another area in which government regulation has thus far had little influence. Fulfilling this obligation could be one way of expanding access to day care centres.

3.2.8. Some of these problems, especially those related to supervision and curriculum, stem partly from perceptions that early childhood education, despite the 1996 education law, does not require a solid framework of pedagogical and administrative systems. Early childhood activities delivered by assorted actors, without much administrative rigour, predate the emergence of early childhood education systems. Tradition seems to have a lingering impact, so that activities override systems. What is needed is full integration – the registration of all early childhood services, both pre-schools and day care centres, as municipal educational institutions in accordance with the relevant regulations.

3.2.9. Integration alone will not solve the problem, but it is a prerequisite for other measures to take effect. For example, for individual services to reflect the national curricular guidelines in practice, teachers and directors need proper training. Unless the services they work in are recognized within the municipal or state education system, they will not necessarily be required to have the training, or be given the opportunity to receive it. Similarly, while the supervision problem may affect the whole education sector, it will be particularly salient for any services not recognized as part of the sector.

3.2.10. **Training of day care teachers**: In 2003, 71% of teachers in day care centres covered by the School Census[29] had the required secondary education certificate. Moreover, the percentage of day care centre teachers with a tertiary education degree nearly doubled from 9.5% in 1999 to 18% in 2003 (Figure 25).

Figure 25: Percentage of day care centre teachers, by qualification, 1999 and 2003



Sources: MEC-INEP (1999, 2004*b*: Table 2.3).

28 Private enterprises are required by law to provide these services out of their own budgets. As for public enterprises or institutions, each state has its own regulations.

29 That is, centres registered as part of a municipal education system.

3.2.11. Although these figures are encouraging, there are two reasons to view them with caution.

3.2.12. First, the current training system does not give future day care teachers an opportunity to learn about developmental and learning specific to 0- to 3^+-year-olds, which differ from those of older children. Many secondary schools for teachers, for instance, offer no practicum on 0- to 3^+-year-olds. The schools cited difficulty in finding day care services willing to allow secondary school trainees to look after infants – an observation the review team could not verify.

3.2.13. Even at university level, no specialization in 0- to 3^+-year-olds exists. Thus, the fact that 71% of teachers in registered day care centres had the required secondary level teaching certificate in 2003 should not be cause for complacency. Even teachers with tertiary education may lack experience with children aged 3 and under, or knowledge about their developmental and educational needs: $0\text{-}3^+$ is a missing link in the training system.

3.2.14. Second, most day care centres are not registered with a municipal system and hence are not captured in the School Census. Many of these non-public day care centres hire assistants with only primary education and use them as teachers. They receive no systematic in-service training, so the chances of their improving their professional skills on the job are slim. This reality is not apparent in official Ministry of Education statistics.

3.2.15. **Pre-primary education vs early primary education**: Preparedness for formal schooling is an important outcome of early childhood education. Children need to acquire not so much specific learning skills in reading and arithmetic as a conceptual understanding of these skills. Good pre-schools may emphasize reading and telling stories to children, but do not subject them to dictation drills. Pre-primary education helps children lay the psychological foundation needed later for the abstract learning process. Early primary education teaches them learning skills requiring abstraction. The former is part of early childhood education; the latter is not.

3.2.16. A good pre-primary education programme promotes preparedness for formal schooling as part of holistic development. Emphasis should be placed on well-balanced development not only in the cognitive domain but also in the social, emotional, communicative and physical domains. Success at school depends not only on ability to read, write and count, but also, and more importantly, on willingness to learn and ability to communicate and adapt to the social settings of school life. If early childhood education lays the foundation for lifelong learning, it is not through helping children acquire specific learning skills, but through helping them become whole persons. In early childhood programmes, playing and interaction are more important than studying and instruction.

3.2.17. Viewed from this perspective, pre-school education in Brazil for 4^+- to 6^+-year-olds seems closer to early primary education than to pre-primary education. Public municipal services, in particular, typically feature classrooms with rows of chairs and desks, where children face a teacher standing at a blackboard. Even though the curriculum emphasizes interactive methodologies, teachers tend to teach things to children rather than interact with them in a constructive learning process. In most services the review team visited, except some upscale for-profit services, children were sitting at desks working on numeracy and literacy drill sheets. Such early primary education situations were especially common for literacy classes and for pre-school classes set up in primary schools.

3.2.18. This orientation may stem from a combination of many factors. The view of care and education as separate entities has prevailed in Brazil, and could certainly be a key factor. Parental pressure may be another. But given that the issue has more to do with the daily pedagogical processes, the issue of teacher specialization cannot be overlooked. In this regard, two observations deserve attention.

3.2.19. First, the current requirement for early childhood teachers – a secondary level teacher certificate – needs to be reviewed. Secondary school students have limitations in acquiring specialized skills while pursuing their own basic education. This is one reason most countries, both developed and developing,

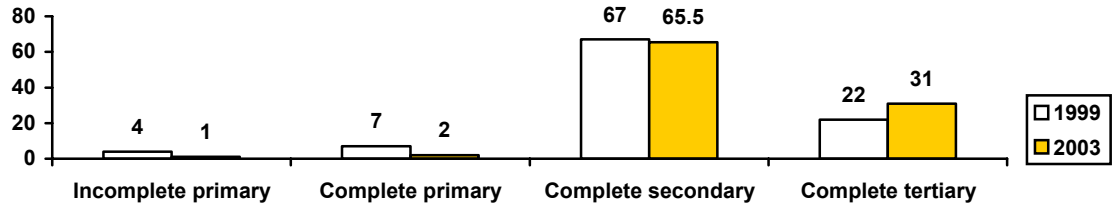
require early childhood education teachers to have tertiary education (Table 3).

Table 3: Minimum requirement for pre-school teachers in selected countries

Belgium, Denmark, Germany, France, Greece, Ireland, Luxembourg, Portugal, Finland	At least 3 years of post-secondary education
Spain, Estonia	Master's degree
Egypt, Mexico	4-year college degree
Kazakhstan	3-year in pedagogical college
India	1 year of tertiary education
Bangladesh, Pakistan, **Brazil**	Secondary education

3.2.20. Brazil is one of the few countries where the minimum requirement for early childhood teachers is limited to secondary education. It is true that the real challenge, in many countries, is not so much setting a high requirement as fulfilling it. But in Brazil, about 66% of pre-school teachers already meet the requirement, and the percentage of teachers with tertiary education is increasing rapidly (Figure 26), so it would not be premature to explore the idea of upgrading the requirement, not necessarily to follow the global trend, but to increase teachers' professional skills, which will eventually help solve such pedagogical problems as the leaning towards early primary education.

Figure 26: Percentage of pre-school teachers, by qualification, 1999 and 2003



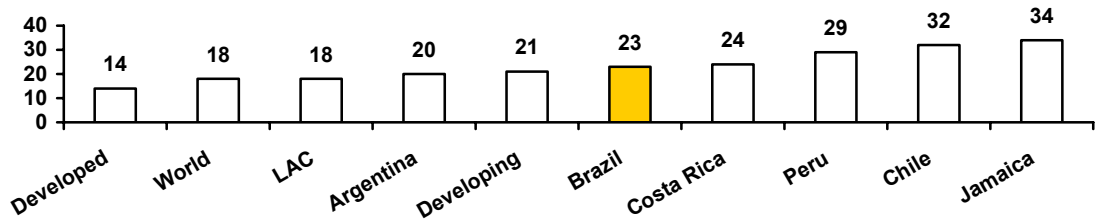
Source: MEC-INEP (1999, 2004*b*: Table 2.3).

3.2.21. Second, training at university level needs to focus more on issue specific to early childhood. Few if any of the eight semesters in university-level teacher training are devoted to early childhood education,[30] and internships in early childhood are not obligatory. The extension of schooling pedagogy down to the younger ages cannot be handled properly by generalists who do not fully understand the developmental needs of young children or, more importantly, how young children learn and develop. Early childhood education is a specialized discipline that requires a specialized workforce.

3.2.22. Besides teacher qualifications and specialization, early childhood education that respects the principle of holistic development requires a certain amount of contextual support. Among the most important measures of such support is the pupil/teacher ratio. Brazil had a relatively high pupil/teacher ratio in pre-primary education of 23:1 in 2001. The global average was 18:1 (equal to the regional average for Latin American and the Caribbean) and the developed countries average 14:1. The ratio prescribed by Brazilian law for classes of 4^{+}- to 6^{+}-year-olds is 20:1. Although there is room for improvement, the review team recommends caution against any rush to reduce the ratio, for three reasons.

30 Each university or college decides how much time to dedicate to early childhood education in the curriculum. Some offer more than one semester, others less than a full semester.

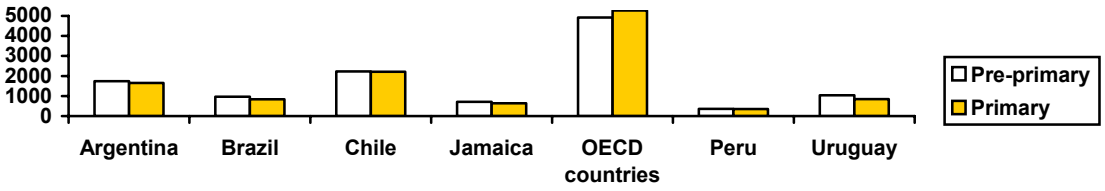
Figure 27: Pupil/teacher ratio in pre-primary education, 2001



Source: UNESCO (2004*b*).

3.2.23. First, although the pupil/teacher ratio is an important indicator of quality, no ideal ratio has been agreed. Second, the gap in Brazil is not too serious. Third and most important, a reduced ratio would certainly increase per-child expenditure. As Brazil's per-child expenditure on pre-primary education is higher than that on primary education (Figure 28), cost-effectiveness needs to be considered. Planners may find better uses for human resources than lowering the pupil/teacher ratio. In some services visited, the review team noticed two teachers working in the same class. It would be more effective pedagogically to divide the class in two, with fewer children and one teacher in each. This would assure more intimate interaction between teacher and children.

Figure 28: Annual expenditure on educational institutions per student, 2002 (PPP US$)

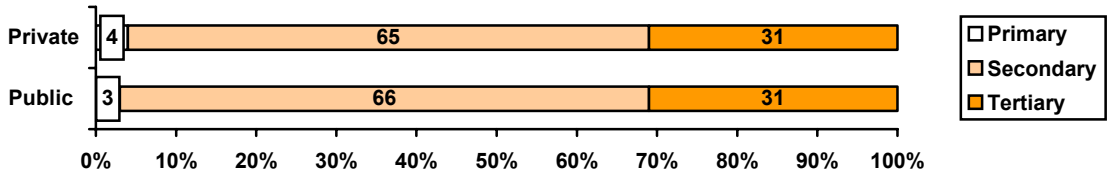


Notes: Brazil – public institutions only; year of reference 2001. Chile – year of reference 2003. Peru and Uruguay – public institutions only.
Source: OECD (2005).

3.2.24. **Inequity in quality**: In addition to inequities between poor and rich regions, quality differences exist between different types of service. Public services, for example, tend to fare less well than private services on some measures of quality.

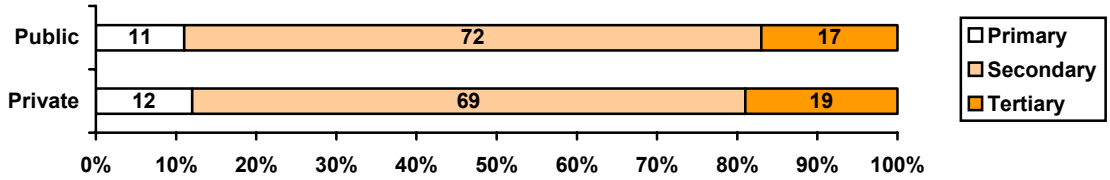
3.2.25. One measure on which no significant difference is found is that of teacher qualifications. For pre-schools, in both private and public services, about 65% are secondary school graduates and 31% are university graduates (Figure 29). The variation is hardly more significant for day care centres (Figure 30).

Figure 29: Distribution of public and private pre-school teachers, by education level, 2003



Source: MEC-INEP (2004*b*).

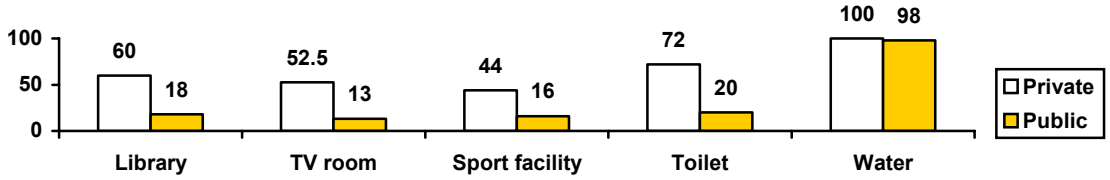
Figure 30: Distribution of public and private day care centre teachers, by education level, 2003



Source: MEC-INEP (2004*b*).

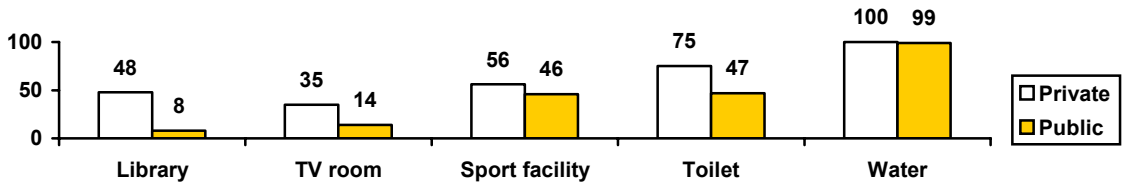
3.2.27. Public and private services do tend, however, to show more prominent differences in equipment and facilities. Private services are far better equipped, with facilities conducive to holistic development (Figure 31). The situation in day care centres is similar (Figure 32).

Figure 31: Pre-schools with proper facilities, as a percentage of each total, by type, 2003



Source: MEC-INEP (2004*b*).

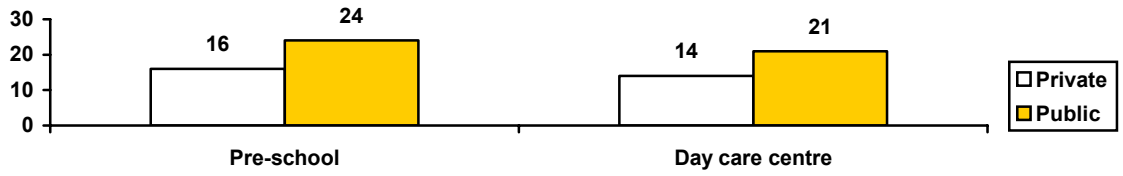
Figure 32: Day care centres with proper facilities, as a percentage of each total, by type, 2003



Source: MEC-INEP (2004*b*).

3.2.29. As regards the child-teacher ratio, however, in both pre-schools and day care centres, private services tend to have a lower ratio (Figure 33).

Figure 33: Pupil/teacher ratio in Brazilian pre-schools and day care centres, by type, 2003



Source: MEC-INEP (2004*b*).

3.2.30. In short, public services tend to fare worse than private services in facilities and pedagogical environment. This situation is partly due to the fact that private services charge fees, but one cannot rule out another possibility: in the private domain, the services with good facilities and pedagogical environment may be more likely to be registered and surveyed in the School Census, source of the data in this subsection. There may be many private services that are of lower quality than the public services but are not captured in the statistics. Still, the overall observation that public services of lower quality are more widespread among the poor, and that the surveyed private services of good quality are likely to be attended by the rich, is a matter of concern.

3.3. Coordination

3.3.1. **Introduction**: In 1996 the government integrated the administrative responsibility for pre-schools and day care centres into the education sector, aiming to end the long divided and duplicated involvement of the education and social sectors in early childhood education. Full integration, however, remains to be accomplished. The integration of day care centres has been a stumbling block.

3.3.2. Until recently, day care centres have survived with subsidies from the federal social sector, while the municipal education authorities have not been able to mobilize funds to upgrade day care centres into educational institutions. While Even though the transfer of funding for day care centres from the social to the education sector remains unlikely, the education sector's initial FUNDEB proposal excluded day care centres.[31] This section discusses the plight of the day care centres, caught in a sectoral conflict.

3.3.3. **The history**: The situation before 1996 can be best characterized as one of confusion and fragmentation. Children under age 7^+ attended two types of early childhood service – pre-schools and day care centres – catering for different but overlapping age groups and overseen by different sectors of the government. Pre-schools, for 4^+- to 6^+-year-olds, came under the education sector. Day care centres, which could be attended from birth to age 6^+, were supported by the government's social, health and labour sectors as part of their respective programmes for disadvantaged populations.

3.3.4. Started by philanthropic groups, day care centres sought to survive and expand through partnerships with various government sectors. Similar services sprang up, with little coordination. The social and health sectors, seeking to target poor populations with various assistance programmes, found it easier to channel them to day care centres than to pre-schools, for which the education sector had clear and sole sectoral responsibility. Some government-supported day care centres eventually also offered pre-school education,[32] so that a system of pre-schools interfacing with day care centres coexisted with the pre-school system run by the education sector.

3.3.5. Meanwhile, early in the 20th century when Brazil's industrialization took off, enterprises had built day care centres for female employees. Provision of day care in workplaces was made obligatory for

31 The revised proposal, awaiting the approval of Congress, includes the day care age group, 0 to 3^+ years.

32 For example, the 'cocoon day care centres' (crèches casulo), developed by the aid agency Legião Brasileira de Assistência (and the model for the current programme supported by the State Social Work Secretariat), offered pre-school education for ages $4^+$to 6^+.

enterprises as early as the 1930s, though enterprises found ways to get around the law (e.g. by contracting with a day care centre nearby). In the 1970s, however, some big companies began to take the obligation more seriously and built their own centres – which, however, had little relation to the social or education sectors but came under the auspices of the labour and health sectors.

3.3.6. The bifurcation between care and education and the fragmented provision of similar and duplicated services early childhood had long been pointed out as obstacles to the development of early childhood education in Brazil. The '1982 State Council of the women's conditions of São Paulo,' for example, noted that, with services provided by different sectors, only an integrated policy for 0- to 6^{+}-year-olds would ensure a minimum of coherence. It also pointed out that duplicating provision wasted resources. At societal level, there was growing awareness that the divided care and education systems perpetuated the divide between rich and poor.

3.3.7. Voices were raised for a more efficient, effective and democratic system of early childhood education. Integration was viewed as essential for a smooth and continuous experience of early childhood. The 1988 Constitution reorganized day care centres and pre-schools to serve ages 0 to 6^{+}. The 1996 education law made clear that day care and pre-school were sequential, and designated education as the lead sector for the integrated system.

3.3.8. **The 1996 education law**: The first and foremost contribution of the 1996 education law was to differentiate day care centres and pre-schools by age group – day care for ages 0 to 3^{+} and pre-school for ages 4^{+} to 6^{+}. The law eliminated the age overlap between the two services and highlighted the continuity and interdependence between them.

3.3.9. Another important change was that the law recognized early childhood education as part of basic education, along with eight years of elementary education and three years of secondary education. This was especially important for day care centres, which had not been part of the education system. The end of 1999 was set as the deadline for integrating all day care centres into the education system. In 2000, day care centres were surveyed for the first time in the School Census.

3.3.10. The Constitution and the 1996 education law affirmed that provision of early childhood education was the responsibility of the municipalities, but called for cooperation among the three levels of government. In Clause VI, Article 30, the Constitution stipulated that the municipalities would carry out their responsibility 'with technical and financial cooperation of the Union or the federal government and the states'. Under the Constitution and the 1996 law, municipalities that had been part of the state system were given the option to leave that system and establish their own systems.

3.3.11. **Obstacles**

3.3.12. *Sectoral conflict*: Despite the 1996 education law, the federal social sector continued to provide subsidies to day care centres for children from poor families. This support amounts to R$245 million per year,[33] and the issue of whether it is to be transferred to the education sector is the source of tension between the education and social sectors.

3.3.13. At federal level, officials of the Ministries of Education and of Social Development told the review team that processes were in place to discuss the transfer of these funds to the education sector to help the integration of day care centres in this sector. The team also learned that an interministerial committee was examining the services that received support from the social sector and drafting a resolution that would define the conditions of the transfer of funds.

33 The subsidies are distributed to public day care centres (which are part of the social sector) or non-public day care centres operating under agreement with municipalities. They receive R$14 a month for each child in full-time attendance and R$8 per half-time attendee. To be eligible, a family's income per capita must be less than half the minimum wage.

3.3.14. The transfer, however, was not very evident on the ground. The municipal officials whom the review team met all mentioned a federal government plan to discontinue the day care centre funding and reroute it to a new programme for families. In fact, in several municipalities, the review team witnessed the discontinuation of the 2005 funding and the closure of a host of community-based services that had depended on it. Some local authorities were instructed to assess the feasibility of a family programme to which the funding will be rerouted.

3.3.15. In contrast to the conflict at government level, the providers of day care centres, many of which are NGOs and community groups that have partnered with the social sector, all said that they backed the decision to move day care centres to education and that they wanted to belong to the education sector. They cited quality improvement and financial stability as the main benefits of the change. Their aspiration to become legitimate and qualified providers of early childhood services has been deflated by the stalled integration process.

3.3.16. *The weak municipal link*: When the decision to integrate day care centres into the education sector was made in 1996, municipalities were already overburdened by functions and obligations for early childhood education and primary education arising from education reforms made earlier in the 1990s. They had limited willingness to spare attention for day care centres.

3.3.17. The municipalities should have received technical and financial assistance from the states, as the Constitution prescribes, but none arrived; the states were accelerating their disengagement from early childhood education and directing their attention mainly to secondary and higher education. The daunting task of turning day care centres into educational institutions was left to the municipalities, which lacked the capacity on their own and received no cooperation or assistance from other levels of government.

3.3.18. The situation was worse for municipalities that had not yet developed their own education systems and had to rely on state education systems, whose engagement in early childhood education was waning. In those municipalities, supervision and other administrative activities for day care centres and pre-schools had to be carried out by the state education council. In many cases, the necessary regulatory work was not done, or was more a bureaucratic exercise than an effort to bring about pedagogical and systemic improvements.

3.3.19. The states' disengagement from early childhood further constrained the integration process. While municipalities are responsible for the provision of early childhood services, the training of early childhood education teachers, including those working in day care centres, is the responsibility of the states. As they were no longer responsible for early childhood education, let alone day care centres, the states made little effort to tailor early childhood training offered in secondary schools and universities to the needs of young children in day care centres, which had never concerned them. Most training courses for early childhood education do not even include the $0\text{-}3^{+}$ age group in their curricula.

3.3.20. *The issue of funding*: A lack of funds for early childhood also contributed to the failure to fully integrate day care centres. Most municipalities in Brazil do not levy taxes. To transform day care centres into educational institutions, they need transfers from other government levels. But no government funding is obligatorily earmarked even for pre-schools, let alone day care centres, except as recommended under FUNDEF. And those recommendations have not been fulfilled at municipal or state level.

3.3.21. FUNDEF requires at least 25% of net state tax revenue to be spent on education, and 60% of this state education budget (three-fifths of the 25%) to be contributed to FUNDEF for elementary education, provided by the municipalities and the states. The remaining 40% (two-fifths of the 25%) is reserved for secondary education. The same division of funds applies to whatever municipal tax revenue exists: 25% of net revenue is to be spent on education and 60% of this municipal education budget goes to FUNDEF, to be combined with state contributions.[34] The remaining 40% is to be spent on early childhood education,

34 The state and municipal contributions are pooled and redistributed to the municipalities in proportion to the number of students

whose provision is a municipal responsibility.

3.3.22. However, the municipalities tend to devote far more than 60% to primary education, leaving little for early childhood education. Part of their education budget also goes to adult literacy and youth programmes, both at the primary education level.[35] Even where resources are available for early childhood education, pre-schools take priority, and virtually no education funds are available for day care centres. Moreover, the original FUNDEB bill excluded day care centres,[36] and a bill to require enterprises to provide pre-schools as well as day care centres for employees is unlikely to pass.

3.3.23. While few funds have been made available for day care centres within the municipal education sector, the municipal social sector has continued to support day care centres with transfers from the federal government.[37] This has helped sustain day care centres, but has perpetuated the divide between pre-schools and day care centres. With the discontinuation of social funds for day care from the federal government, the very survival of day care centres is at risk, making any discourse on integration rather irrelevant.

3.3.24. **Overcoming the impasse**: In any country, shifting administrative responsibility for early childhood education from one sector to another is an enormous task that is bound to involve lessons and challenges. Brazil's difficulties in implementing the relevant provision of the 1996 education law are neither unique nor insurmountable. The following paragraph contains some suggestions that could help resolve the impasse.

3.3.25. Municipalities need technical assistance, and the states should be the primary lifeline. In particular, if a municipality does not have its own education system it must depend on the state regulation and supervision systems. If the state has limited resources for early childhood education, it should place priority on training. Reinforcing the day care centre component in the training of early childhood educators at secondary and tertiary level would not only upgrade teachers' professional knowledge but also boost public perception of the day care centre as the focus of a serious educational discipline. This would in turn spur municipal education officials to pay more attention to day care centres. Perception spawns action.

3.4. Investment

3.4.1. This section addresses two central questions regarding investment for early childhood education in Brazil: What are the needs, and how can the necessary resources be found?

3.4.2. **Current levels of investment**: Brazil's overall public expenditure on education was 4% of GDP in 2002, compared with an OECD country mean of 5.1%. The Brazilian expenditure level is also below those of some other developing countries, including Jamaica (6.1%), Paraguay (4.5%), Tunisia (6.4%) and Zimbabwe (5.6%) (Figure 34). No comparable data are available on private sector contributions.

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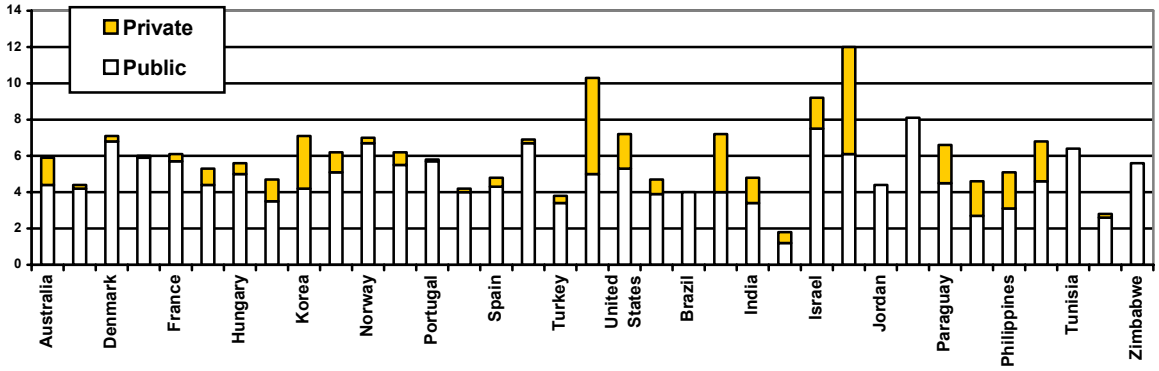
enrolled.

35 Some municipalities are also responsible for provision of secondary and tertiary education, to the further disadvantage of early childhood education.

36 As has been noted, however, the revised bill includes day care centres.

37 According to the official values of the Ministry of Social Assistance, R$17.02 a month per full-time child and R$8.51 per half-time child attending public day care centres or in services having agreements with the municipalities. The children must come from a family whose monthly per-capita income is lower than half the minimum wage.

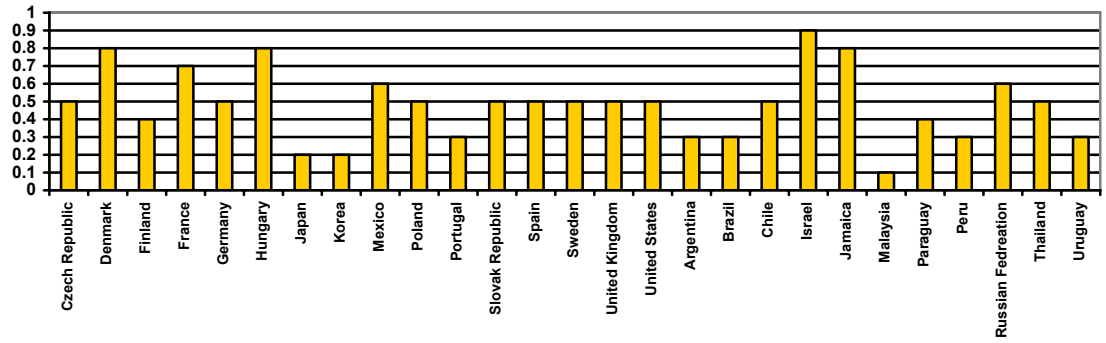
Figure 34: Expenditure on educational institutions, all levels, as a percentage of GDP, 2002



Source: OECD (2005: Table B2.1a).

3.4.3. Total expenditure on early childhood education in Brazil is 0.3% of GDP, also lower than the OECD country mean of 0.5% and levels in some developing countries, such as Chile (0.5%), Jamaica (0.8%), Paraguay (0.4%) and Thailand (0.5%) (Figure 35).

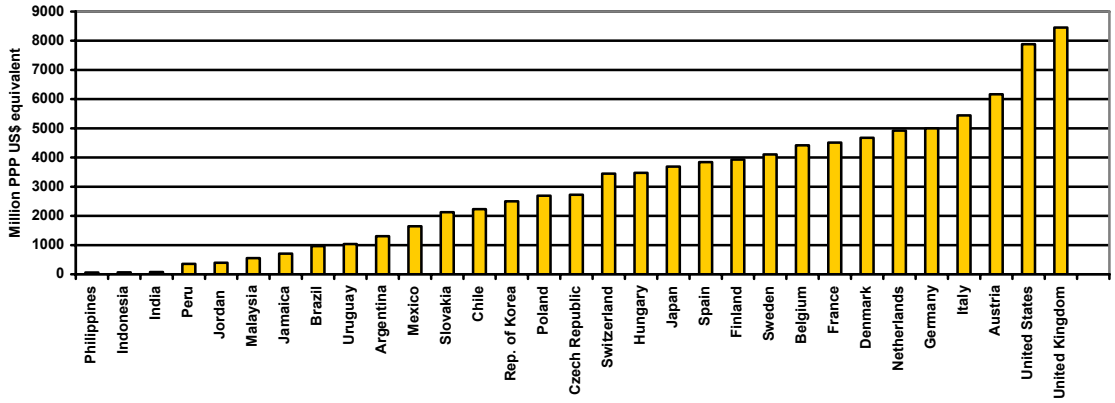
Figure 35: Expenditure on pre-primary educational institutions as a percentage of GDP, 2002



Source: OECD (2005: Table B2.1c).

3.4.4. Annual per-child expenditure for pre-primary education is very low, around US$1,000 (measured at purchasing power parity), less than a quarter of the OECD mean and below the levels in Argentina, Chile, Mexico and Uruguay (Figure 36).

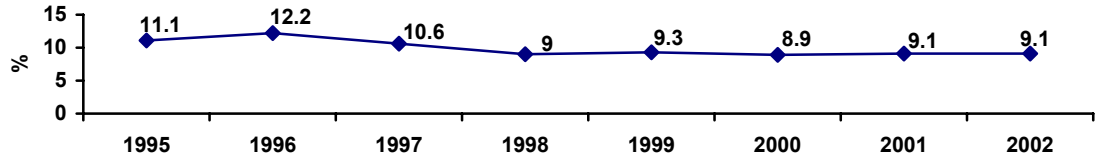
Figure 36: Annual expenditure on pre-primary educational institutions per student, 2002



Source: OECD (2005: Table B1.1).

3.4.5. Brazil's expenditure on early childhood education has declined relative to that for other levels of education, from a high of 12% in 1996 to 9% in 2002 (Figure 37).

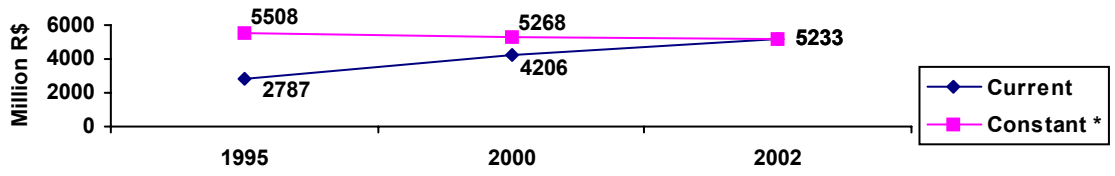
Figure 37: Expenditure on early childhood education as a percentage of total education expenditure, 1995-2002



Source: IPEA-DISOC, MP-IBGE, MEC-INEP, in Castro and Duarte (2002).

3.4.6. While the nominal amounts have increased since 1995, the expenditure on early childhood declined in real terms (constant R$) by some 5% between 1995 and 2002 (Figure 38).

Figure 38: Public expenditure on early childhood education in current and constant R$, 1995-2002



* Values deflated by the average IGP-DI price index for 2002.
Source: IPEA-DISOC, MP-IBGE, MEC-INEP, in Castro and Duarte (2002).

3.4.7. **Investment needs**: The investment needed for provision of early childhood education and care depends on the targets a country wants to meet. One approach is to compare Brazil's attainments with levels in countries with which it wishes to compare itself. Brazil has some way to go in this regard.

3.4.8. First, while its gross enrolment ratio in pre-primary education (67% in 2001) equals the regional

average (Figure 6), Brazil lags behind Argentina, Chile, Colombia, Mexico and Peru in terms of 5^{+}-year-olds' participation in early childhood education (Figure 8). For 0- to 3^{+}-year-olds, the enrolment rate was only 12% in 2003. The 2001 National Education Plan aims to raise this to 50% by 2011 – a target that translates into a 400% increase over six years and clearly implies a large rise in investment.

3.4.9. Quality of provision is another factor in determining investment needs. Section 3.2. documented some of the quality gaps in early childhood provision. Improving training and upgrading the qualifications of the early childhood workforce would require considerable resources, as would upgrading facilities. Brazil's National Action Plan recommends a number of steps to improve the quality of provision. Implementing these recommendations would imply an increase in the marginal cost of expanding provision.

3.4.10. A third factor in shaping investment needs involves social goals regarding equity of provision. Section 3.1. described various aspects of inequity in Brazil that need to be corrected if the country aspires to a more cohesive society. Addressing these aspects would place additional investment burden on the government, since individuals and the private sector cannot meet such needs.

3.4.11. These different types of investment need can be combined in many ways to form an overall picture of investment requirements. Such assessments would necessarily be rough, and would be sensitive to assumptions about the marginal cost of expanding various types of provision. Simulations by Barreto and Castro (2001) result in estimates of R$5.2 billion in 2006 and R$7.74 billion in 2011 to meet the National Education Plan's qualitative and quantitative targets for day care and pre-school. The estimates mean an increase of 60% from the 2001 investment level by 2006 and 140% by 2011.

3.4.12. **Room for economy?** In arguing for more investment, consideration should be given to whether existing resources could be used more efficiently to expand access and improve quality. The review team explored this issue in all the services it visited. While there may be room for expanded enrolment within existing capacity in a few cases, the team came away with a clear impression that the margin for more efficient use of resources is negligible.

3.4.13. This impression was based on several factors. Almost all services the team visited had waiting lists; existing facilities could not accommodate all children wishing to enrol. Most facilities ran double shifts and could not be stretched further. Most child/staff ratios were higher than the prescribed standard, particularly at day care centres. Finally, most services had staff shortages.

3.4.14. These considerations led the team to conclude that the unit cost of an expansion in access would not be lower than the current levels. In fact, as noted above, it would rise if quality improvements were introduced and facilities expanded in more difficult-to-reach areas.

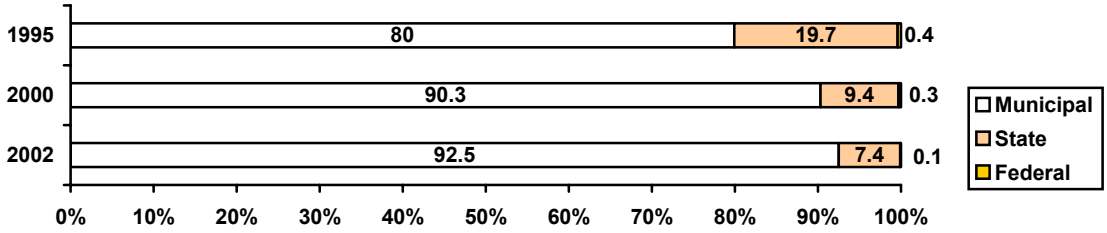
3.4.15. **Who should pay?** What is the appropriate balance of responsibility between the public and private sectors? Enrolments in privately funded day care centres and pre-schools are growing rapidly, but there are compelling reasons for the increased investment needs described above to be met by the public sector and for the federal share to be expanded.

3.4.16. The room for further contributions from the private sector is limited, and further expansion of private services could have negative effects for broader societal goals. First, most privately funded facilities are either at the top of the quality scale or at the very bottom. Expansion at the top would do nothing to address the already wide gap in equity and quality between privately and publicly funded facilities. At one private, top-of-the-scale site, the review team was told that middle and low income children were not admitted, even if their families could pay, because this would drive away high income families. Further expansion of such facilities would only worsen the social divisions that can result from quality differences in privately funded services. At the other end are unregistered poor-quality private services that may do more harm than good to children. The very fact that they are not registered may reflect their poor quality and dubious intentions.

3.4.17. There is, however, one area where private sector involvement could be encouraged. The review team visited several private sites, often run by religious groups, that worked well in rather trying conditions. The government could offer seed money and various forms of support, especially for infrastructure, to help such groups maintain or launch services, on condition that they register and accept standards monitoring. The team was quite impressed that even in very poor neighbourhoods, private groups had mobilized broad parental support for the provision of early childhood services. Even extremely poor families were willing to contribute to keep these services going. The government should be willing to set aside funds to provide incentives to such facilities and help pay for quality improvement. The federal government might also rethink tax exemptions for private schools, which are among the most profitable businesses in the country; the resulting revenue could be diverted to poorer non-profit early childhood services.

3.4.18. It is clear that the bulk of the needed investment must come from the public sector. The shares borne by the three levels of government have been changing in recent years. The municipal share increased from 80% in 1995 to 92.5% in 2002, while those of the states and the federal government decreased (from 19.7% to 7.4% and 0.4 to 0.1%, respectively).

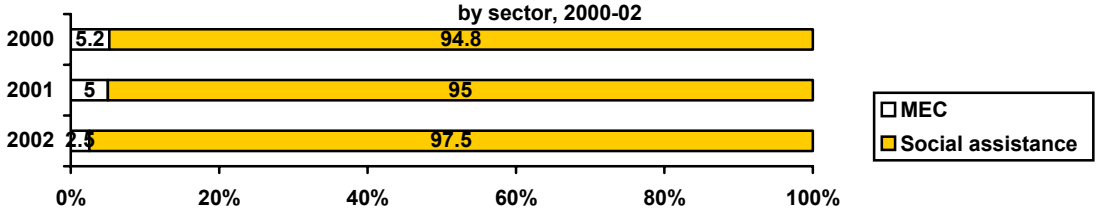
Figure 39: Distribution of public expenditure on early childhood education, by source, 1995-2002



Source: IPEA-DISOC, MP-IBGE, MEC-INEP, in Castro and Duarte (2002).

3.4.19. The proportion of the limited federal contribution that goes to early childhood education through the Ministry of Education was only 2.5% in 2002, having been reduced by more than half from 2000 to 2002; the rest was channelled through the social sector (Figure 40).

Figure 40: Distribution of federal expenditure on early childhood education, by sector, 2000-02



Source: IPEA-DISOC, in Castro and Duarte (2002).

3.4.20. The review team is convinced that the federal government needs to increase its contribution and channel it through education. This position is grounded in two arguments, one related to equity considerations and the other to the total resource base.

3.4.21. A striking feature of early childhood education in Brazil is the wide disparity in quality of services according to family situation, race, income level, municipality and region (Figures 20–24). The federal government alone is in a position to address all these disparities, especially those among regions and municipalities.

3.4.22. The FUNDEF experience has been very encouraging in this regard. By helping eliminate supply constraints to boost access to education, FUNDEF transfers through the federal government were particularly effective in increasing enrolment rates in small municipalities, which now rely more heavily on transfers as a source of revenue. FUNDEB should use the same mechanism to allow the federal government to help minimize regional differences. The federal government can provide supplementary and redistributive funds and technical support, on condition that state and municipal education plans meet certain agreed standards and commitments.

3.4.23. Similarly, with regard to the total resource base, in certain areas only the federal government can act. The federal government can, for example, earmark more tax revenues to education destined to the federal government.[38] Castro and Duarte (2002) estimate that an increase from 18 to 25% of tax-related revenues for education could increase the Ministry of Education revenues dedicated to education by 0.3% of GDP.

3.4.24. Another area for federal action is the ratio of tax revenue to non-tax revenue in the resource base. Resources for education in general have suffered in recent years because of the federal government's increasing reliance on non-tax revenue. The share of taxes as a percentage of GDP was unchanged during the 1990s at 9.0%, while contributions for social security rose to 13.1% of GDP in 2002. The federal government alone can restructure the revenue system in favour of taxes. Such a shift would increase the resource base for education, part of which could be allocated to early childhood education. At the same time, the federal government alone can provide incentives to states and municipalities to step up tax collection. Taxes collected by the states have remained at around 8.50% of GDP since the enactment of the Federal Constitution, while the municipal share rose from 0.85% to 1.11% of GDP.

3.4.25. Finally, the federal government could make early childhood education eligible for funds from other sources that the federal government has used to finance education. For example, a share of employers' social contributions, mainly from those originally destined for social security, has been used for education. The *salário-educação*, a mandatory contribution by companies to public education, is explicitly and exclusively addressed to elementary schools, but the government could make early childhood care and education eligible to draw on these funds. Decree 87043 of 1982 set the level of the *salário-educação* at 2.5% over the payroll, and the 1988 Constitution maintained this. In the 1990s this source represented around 5.5% of the Ministry of Education budget. Another source is the Fund to Combat and Eradicate Poverty, which has been used since 2002 for education. The federal government also has access to credit operations with international agencies.

3.4.26. These arguments are intended to suggest that the role of the federal government, which has declined progressively since 1995, needs to expand to support the increasing responsibility shouldered by municipalities.

4. CONCLUDING REMARKS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

4.1.**The challenge of day care centres:** The overall quantitative improvement of access to early childhood education in Brazil has not been very impressive. The situation may change, at least for 4^+- to 6^+-year olds, when FUNDEB is in place. But even with FUNDEB, the issue of 0- to 3^+-year-olds will remain.[39]

4.2. The target for 0- to 3^+-year-olds – increasing the enrolment rate (12% in 2003) to 50% by 2011 – will be difficult to meet. Despite the 1996 decision to integrate day care services into the education sector, municipal involvement in the expansion of day care centres has been tepid. Also, given the rapid expansion of private services, the public sector may find little reason to intervene when its hands are already full with

38 The Constitution and the education law set out the share of tax revenue that must go to education. Only Congress can change it.

39 It should be borne in mind in reading this section that the revised FUNDEB bill does cover 0- to 3^+-year-olds.

its obligations for 4^+ - to 6^+-year olds.

4.3. There is, however, a compelling reason for the federal government to pay more attention to the plight of day care centres: the risk of widening disparities and deepening poverty. Low income parents have more difficulty than richer ones in enrolling their younger children in early childhood services. Although precise data are not available, it is clear that many poor working parents are paying for for-profit services whose quality is not monitored. Leaving the issue of poor 0- to 3^+-year-olds unaddressed may lead to social injustice and perpetuate poverty.

4.4. **Points to consider in integrating day care centres:** The government's efforts to integrate day care centres and upgrade them into educational institutions should not aim to impose a standard form of operation and management. Day care centres have existed in all shapes and sizes. Stressing core quality regulations would be a far more efficient way to integrate them than insisting on a single form of operation and management. Diversity in delivery also offers more room to accommodate the diverse needs of parents, which can in turn enhance accessibility.

4.5. Nor do all day care centres have to become public services provided by municipal education authorities. A variety of non-public actors have long formed the main body of experienced providers. They should be mobilized, not excluded, and, where necessary, guided and regulated for quality. This will require municipal authorities to reinforce their governance, but not necessarily their delivery responsibility. A carefully guided and regulated partnership is the best strategy for expanding access to day care centres.

4.6. Integration of day care centres will not be complete until they are linked pedagogically with pre-schools. Continuity of pedagogical guidelines and teacher training for day care centres and pre-schools is vital. Children's progression through the stages of development should not be interrupted, nor should their intricately interlinked developmental needs be differentiated. Continuity in children's experience of and progression through the stages of early childhood is increasingly recognized as an important aspect of quality.

4.7. **About the debate on the social fund:** The current negotiations concerning the transfer of funds from the social sector to the education sector for day care centres should be viewed within a broad context.

4.8. The funds could be transferred to the education sector to support efforts to integrate and upgrade day care centres. Guidelines should be developed to ensure that the money benefits the poor first. Alternatively, the funds could stay in the social sector to support families (e.g. through child allowances, longer parental leaves) while taking care to avoid creating a new social sector service structure similar to day care or pre-school. In developed countries, governments combine family support with service provision. Allowing parents to take care of children at home should not be ruled out as a viable option for the care and education of 0- to 3^+-year-olds.

4.9. Eventually, the education sector should find funding for day care centres within its own resources. Policy makers must set priorities. From that point of view, the FUNDEB bill focusing on pre-schools rather than day care centres, though disappointing, was not surprising. If day care centres cannot be prioritized together with pre-schools, at least be a phased plan for the future must be included in FUNDEB so that day care centres are part of the country's funding discourse on early childhood. Phasing is a policy strategy; fading out is not.

4.10. **Investment need and the federal government role:** The issue of disparity deserves continuing attention. Although the excellent performance of the North-east region is noteworthy, socio-economic gaps in access to good-quality services still run deep. With the accelerated expansion of public services among disadvantaged population groups, the issue of disparity risks entering a new phase in which low-quality public services are spread among the poor and high-quality private services among the rich.

4.11. Brazil aspires to the economic and social standards of advanced industrial societies. Two key

elements in achieving these standards are a high capacity for participation in the knowledge economy and a high degree of social cohesion. Early childhood education provides a solid base for lifelong learning and the knowledge society. Universal access to early childhood education is a key element in a more cohesive society.

4.12. Brazil needs to invest more in early childhood education. By some estimates, extra investment of the order of R$7.74 billion is needed by 2011. The current financial arrangements cannot meet this need. The public sector must be largely responsible for providing the bulk of the additional investment. Within the public sector, the share of the federal government should be expanded.

4.13. The federal government has at its disposal a number of options to expand its share of the resource commitments, in particular the inclusion of early childhood education in a FUNDEB mechanism that has strong redistributive components to support early childhood education among lower income groups and regions.

4.14. Other options include increasing the percentage of tax revenue dedicated to education and earmarking part of it for early childhood education, or reversing the trend of raising more revenue from non-tax sources; if the share of tax-based revenue were increased, the 25% for education would also amount to more. The federal government could also make early childhood education eligible to draw upon social contributions and other sources not currently available to early childhood education.

4.15. **Improving quality:** Teachers are the most important factor determining quality. Brazil is in better shape than some developing countries in terms of teacher qualifications. A majority of teachers, especially at pre-school level, meet the requirements, though much remains to be done about teachers in unregistered day care centres. Yet, challenges remain even in pre-schools. Pedagogy in pre-schools promotes early primary education rather than early childhood education – a serious problem, which must be addressed in all discourse on quality. Upgrading the required level of qualifications would help, but whether at secondary or tertiary level, training of the early childhood workforce must be made more specific to early childhood, and the importance of a specialized workforce must be recognized.

4.16. To improve training, cooperation with the states is essential. If a state has limited resources for early childhood education, it should place priority on training. Reinforcing the day care component in the training of early childhood educators at secondary and tertiary level is particularly needed, as this would not only upgrade day care teachers' professional knowledge but also boost public perception of the day care centre as the focus of a serious educational discipline. That would in turn spur municipal education officials to pay more attention to day care centres, accelerating the integration process. Perception spawns action.

4.17. Last but not least, the country has enough legislative guidelines for quality. Enforcement remains the challenge. The education sector should consider establishing penalties for non-compliance with the education law. Such a measure could be debated as part of Congress's review of the FUNDEB bill. The Ministry of Health is making a similar effort to see health resources shared among the three levels of government.

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Annex 1: Schedule of review visit

Date	Time	Programme
1 May 2005 Sunday	10:35 am	Arrival in Brasilia
	4:00 pm	Meeting of the review team
2 May 2005 Monday	9:00 am	Meeting at MEC - Mr Francisco das Chagas Fernandes - Secretary of Basic Education - Ms Karina Lopes - Coordinator of Early Childhood Education
	11:00 am	Meeting at Ministry of Social Development (MDA) - Mr Osvaldo Russo de Azevedo - National Secretary of Social Assistance - Ms Aide de Almeida Cançado - Director of Social Assistance
	12:00 pm	Meeting with UNESCO Brasilia
	2:00 pm	Meeting at the National Institute for Educational Studies and Research (INEP) - Mr Eliezer Pacheco - President - Ms Oroslinda Maria Taranto Goulart - Director of Statistics and Information Dissemination - Mr Moisés Domingos Sobrinho - General Coordinator of Special Statistics
	3:00 pm	Meeting with the Consultation Group
	9:40 pm	Travel to Recife
3 May 2005 Tuesday	8:30 am	Visit to a public day care/pre-school - Escola Municipal Josué de Castro
	9:30 am	Visit to a public day care centre - Crèche Mâezinha do Coque
	10:30 am	Visit to a public day care centre supported by a university project - Universidade de Pernombuco
	2:30 pm	Meeting at the Municipal Secretariat of Education - Representative of the Secretary of Education - Ms Valdélia - Coordinator of Early Childhood Education
	4:30 pm	Meeting with NGOs and other organizations related to ECE
4 May 2005 Wednesday	8:30 am	Visit to a community day care centre - Crèche Olga Benarid
	11:50 pm	Travel to Sobral
5 May 2005 Thursday	8:30 am	Visit to a private pre-school - Escola Arco-Iris
	10:30 am	Visit to a community pre-school - Creche Monsenhor Domingos Araíyo
	11:00 am	Visit to a public early childhood centre funded by IAB - Centro de Educação Infantil Jacyra Pimentel Gomes
	11:30 am	Visit to a public early childhood centre funded by IAB - Centro de Educação Infantil Irmá Anisia Rocha
	2:30 pm	Meeting at the Municipal Secretariat of Education - Secretary of Education - Coordinator of Early Childhood Education - Representative from Secretariat of Health - Social assistance foundation
6 May 2005 Friday	8:00 am	Meeting at a teacher training institution (Escola Normal) - Universidade Estadual Vale do Acaraú
	10:00 am	Meeting with parents at an early childhood centre - Centro de Educação Infantil Dolores Lustosa

	11:00 am	Meeting with representatives from the Council for Children and Youth Rights, Council for Social Assistance, Council for Women's Rights
	2:00 pm	Travel to Fortaleza
7 May 2005 Saturday	am/pm	Discussions and work among reviewers
8 May 2005 Sunday	7:00 am	Travel to Blumenau
	pm	Discussions and work among reviewers
9 May 2005 Monday	8:00 am	Visit to a public day care/pre-school - Centro de Educacâo Infantil Walter Rosemann
	10:30 am	Visit to a home day care centre (Mãe-crecheira) - D. Izaltina
	2:00 pm	Visit and meeting at a public day care/pre-school - Centro de Educação Infantil Maria Zimmermann - Mr João Paulo Kleinubing - Mayor of Blumenau
	4:00 pm	Visit to a community day care centre - Amiguinho Feliz
	5:00 pm	Meeting at the Municipal Secretariat of Education - Ms Maria Gonçalves - Secretary of Education - Ms Vera Simão - Chief of Division of Early Childhood Education - Representative from the Municipal Council of Social Assistance
10 May 2005 Tuesday	8:15 am	Travel to Rio de Janeiro
	2:00 pm	Participation in the ECE Forum of Rio de Janeiro - UNIRIO
	5:00 pm	Meeting at the Municipal Secretariat of Education - Ms Vera Lucas - Coordinator of Early Childhood Education
11 May 2005 Wednesday	8:00 am	Visit to a public day care centre - Creche Municipal Otávio Henrique de Oliveira (Rio das Pedras - Jacarepaguá - Rio de Janeiro)
	10:30 am	Visit to a community day care centre - ASPA Creche Communitaria (Rocinha - Rio de Janeiro)
	2:30 pm	Visit to a private pre-school - Garatuja
	4:30 pm	Meeting with a team of professors from public and private teacher training institutions - Dr Sonia Kramer - Pontificia Universidade Católica
12 May 2005 Thursday	8:00 am	Visit to a pre-school integrated with primary school - Escola Municipal Friedenrich
	9:30 am	Visit to a public pre-school - Escola Municipal Raquel de Queiroz
	10:30 am	Visit to a teacher training institution at the secondary education level (Escola Normal - Magistério)
	3:00 pm	Visit to a community day care centre - CAMPO (São Gonçalo)
13 May 2005 Friday	8:00 am	Meeting of the review team
	3:30 pm	Closing meeting at UNESCO Rio de Janeiro - Ms Karina Lopes – Coordinator of Early Childhood Education - MEC - Mr Moisés Domingos Sobrinho - General Coordinator of Special Statistics - INEP - Consultation Group - UNESCO Brasilia

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Annex 3: Comparative Data on Brazil

1. Demography

Table 1: Size, growth, distribution and composition of the population

	Total population, 2002 (million)	Average annual population growth rate (%)		Fertility rate (births/woman)		Urban population (% of total)		Rural population		% of population aged 0-14+, 2002
								% of total	Average annual % growth	
		1980-2002	2002-15	1980	2002	2002	2015	2002	1980-2002	
Brazil	174	1.6	1.1	3.9	2.1	82.4	88.4	18	-1.2	27.9
Project[40]										
Indonesia	212	1.6	1.1	4.3	2.3	44.5	57.8	57	0.2	29.8
Kazakhstan	15	0.0	0.3	2.9	1.8	55.8	58.2	44	-1.2	25.3
Kenya	31	2.9	1.4	7.8	4.2	38.2	51.8	65	1.7	42.6
Reference[41]										
Argentina	36	1.2	1.2	3.3	2.4	89.9	92.2	12	-0.4	27.3
Chile	16	1.5	1.0	2.8	2.2	86.6	90.2	14	0.1	27.4
China	1,280	1.2	0.6	2.5	1.9	37.7	49.5	62	0.1	24.2
India	1,049	1.9	1.2	5.0	2.9	28.1	32.2	72	1.6	32.8
Mexico	101	1.8	1.4	4.7	2.4	75.2	78.8	25	0.5	32.9
Republic of Korea	48	1.0	0.4	2.6	1.5	80.1	83.0	17	-3.2	21.0
Sweden	9	0.3	0.1	1.7	1.6	83.3	84.3	17	0.3	17.7
Global[42]										
Low income	2,495	2.1	1.5	5.5	3.5	31.2	37.5	69	1.6	36.5
Lower middle income	2,408	1.3	0.8	3.1	2.1	52.8	61.0	51	0.2	26.1
Upper middle income	329	1.5	1.1	3.6	2.4	--	--	25	0.1	28.9
High income	966	0.7	0.3	1.9	1.7	77.8	80.9	22	-0.3	18.3
World	6,199	1.5	1.0	3.7	2.6	47.8	53.5	52	0.8	29.2

Sources: World Bank (2004); UNDP (2004).

Brazil is one of the world's most populous countries with 174 million people. Its population growth, however, has slowed. The population growth rate projected for 2002–15 is 1.1%, equal to the upper middle income countries' average. Its fertility rate dropped by 46% from 3.9 in 1980 to 2.1 in 2002, a higher percentage than in any reference country in the region except Mexico. The population aged 0–14+ accounts for about 28% of the total.

40 Countries participating in the UNESCO/OECD Early Childhood Policy Review Project.

41 Countries selected to provide Brazil with a frame of reference or benchmarking.

42 The World Bank's World Development Indicators defined low income countries as those whose GNI per capita was US$735 or less in 2002; lower middle income countries at US$735 to US$2,935; upper middle income countries at US$2,935 to US$9,076; and high income countries at US$9,076 or more. Thus, Indonesia, whose GNI per capita in 2002 was US$710, was classed as a low income country.

The urban population in Brazil is expanding slowly. It is projected to grow by 7% from 82.4% in 2002 to 88.4% in 2015 –the fastest growth rate for any reference country in the region but still lower than the world average of 12% and the middle income countries' average of 16%. Brazil's **demographic profile** is not expanding at a particularly alarming pace.

2. Economy

Table 2: Size and structure of the economy

	Gross national income, PPP US$ per capita, 2002	Unemployment, % of total labour force, 2000–02	GDP, % growth, 2001–02	Structure of GDP, 2002		
				Agriculture % of GDP	Industry % of GDP	Services % of GDP
Brazil	7,450	9.4	1.5	6	21	73
Project						
Indonesia	3,070	6.1	3.7	17	44	38
Kazakhstan	5,630	--	9.8	9	39	53
Kenya	1,010	--	1.0	16	19	65
Reference						
Argentina	10,190	17.8	-10.9	11	32	57
Chile	9,420	7.8	2.1	9	34	57
China	4,520	3.1	8.0	15	51	34
India	2,650	--	4.6	23	16	51
Mexico	8,800	2.4	0.9	4	27	69
Republic of Korea	23,730	15.8	6.3	4	41	55
Sweden	25,820	5.2	1.9	2	28	70
Global						
Low income	2,110	--	4.0	24	30	46
Lower middle income	5,290	4.3	4.9	10	34	56
Upper middle income	9,550	9.0	-1.2	6	34	60
High income	28,480	6.2	1.6	2	27	71
World	7,820	--	1.9	4	29	68

Source: World Bank (2004).

In terms of gross national income per capita on a purchasing power parity basis, Brazil (US$7,450) falls between the lower middle income (US$5,290) and upper middle income (US$9,550) countries. Unemployment in 2000–02 stood at 9.4%, close to the average for upper middle income countries. GDP grew by 1.5% in 2001–02. Although this is similar to the 1.6% growth rate of high income countries, it is relatively **low** compared with the other project and reference countries except Kenya, Mexico and Argentina. In terms of GDP structure, Brazil is similar to the other countries in the region – the service sector is the largest contributor to GDP (73%), which reflects the global trend.

Table 3: Income distribution and poverty

	% share of income or consumption		GINI index,[43] (survey year)	International poverty line				
	Lowest 10%	Highest 10%		Survey year	Population below US$1/day, %	Poverty gap at US$1/day, %	Population below US$2 /day, %	Poverty gap at US$2/day, %
Brazil	0.5	46.7	59.1 (1998)	2001	8.2	2.1	22.4	8.8
Project								
Indonesia	3.6	28.5	34.3 (2002)	2002	7.5	0.9	52.4	15.7
Kazakhstan	3.4	24.2	31.3 (2001)	2001	<2	<0.5	8.5	1.4
Kenya	2.3	36.1	44.5 (1997)	1997	23	6.0	58.6	24.1
Reference								
Argentina	1.0	38.9	52.2 (2001)	2001	3.3	0.5	14.3	4.7
Chile	1.2	47.0	57.1 (2000)	2000	<2	<0.5	9.6	2.5
China	1.8	33.1	44.7 (2001)	2001	16.6	3.9	46.7	18.4
India	3.9	27.4	32.5 (99-00)	99-00	34.7	8.2	79.9	35.3
Mexico	1.0	43.1	54.6 (2000)	2000	9.9	3.7	26.3	10.9
Republic of Korea	2.9	22.5	31.6 (1998)	1998	<2	<0.5	<2	<0.5
Sweden	3.6	22.2	25.0 (2000)	--	--	--	--	--

Source: World Bank (2004).

With one of the highest Gini indexes in the world (nearly 60 in 1998), Brazil has a particularly challenging **disparity in income distribution and consumption**. Its richest 10% share or consume about 47% of the national income, while the lowest 10% share or consume less than 1%.

About 8% of the Brazilian population falls below the international poverty line of US$1 a day. Setting the poverty threshold at US$2 a day, the figure rises to more than 22%, while among the reference countries in the region, only Mexico has a larger population below the line (about 26%). Brazil's poverty gap is US$2 a day (8.8%) which is higher than that of the other reference countries in the region except Mexico.

3. Women and development

Table 4: Employment status of women

	Female labour force participation rate, % aged 15-64		Female employment by economic activity (%) (2000-02)			Women in non-agricultural sector, % of total, 2000-02
	1980	2002	Agriculture	Industry	Services	
Brazil	35.7	47.0	16	10	74	45.7
Project						
Indonesia	45.6	59.1	54 (1980) 42 (95-01)	13 (1980) 16 (95-01)	33 (1980) 42 (95-01)	29.7
Kazakhstan	70.5	68.9	--	--	--	--
Kenya	77.7	76.8	16	10	75	37.8
Reference						
Argentina	32.6	44.1	0	12	87	42.9
Chile	28.7	43.8	5	13	83	36.6
China	75.5	79.5	--	--	--	39.2

43 The Gini Index measures the extent to which the distribution of income among individuals or households within an economy deviates from a perfectly equal distribution. World Bank (2004, p. 63.)

India	47.8	45.0	--	--	--	17.1
Mexico	31.1	42.7	6	22	72	37.2
Republic of Korea	50.2	59.1	12	19	70	41.5
Sweden	69.3	81.2	1	11	88	50.7
Global						
Low income	53.8	54.4	--	--	--	--
Lower middle income	64.2	67.2	--	--	--	--
Upper middle income	44.3	49.0	8	19	73	--
High income	52.6	63.5	3	15	82	--
World	57.3	60.8	--	--	--	--

Source: World Bank (2004).

In 2002, 47% of women aged 15-64 in Brazil were in the labour force, a rate higher than Argentina's 44%, Chile's 44% and Mexico's 43%. The structure of female employment by economic activity is similar to that in the region and in high or upper middle income countries. Women in the non-agricultural sector in Brazil make up around 46%, which is higher than in any of the project and reference countries cited, except Sweden.

Table 5: Educational status of women

	Female gross intake rate in primary education, % of relevant age group (2001)	Female survival rate to last grade of primary education, % of relevant age group (2000)	Gender parity index (female/male) in net enrolment ratio in primary education (2001)	Gender parity index (female/male) in net enrolment ratio in secondary education (2001)	Female adult literacy, % of age 15 and over	
					1990	2000-04
Brazil	118.8	84.5	0.91	1.08	81.2	88.3
Project						
Indonesia	113.1	88.7	0.95	1.95	72.5	83.4
Kazakhstan	105.9	94.8	0.99	0.97	98.2	99.2
Kenya	101.5	--	0.97	0.97	60.8	78.5
Reference						
Argentina	112.4	93.3	1.00	1.06	95.6	97.0
Chile	95.9	100.0	0.99	1.03	93.6	95.6
China	98.8	95.8	1.01	--	68.9	86.5
India	109.9	63.5	0.83	--	35.9	--
Mexico	109.6	90.1	1.00	1.03	84.3	88.7
Republic of Korea	99.7	--	0.98	1.00	93.4	--
Sweden	98.7	--	1.00	1.01	--	--
Global						
Developed countries	98.4	--	1.00	1.01	97.5	98.6
Developing countries	101.5	79.6	0.97	0.85	57.9	69.3
World	102.0	87.0	1.02	0.89	69.1	76.5

Source: UNESCO (2004*b*).

In Brazil, the female gross intake rate in primary education is over 100%, while the female survival rate to

last grade of primary education is 85%, a level similar to the world median (87%) but low compared with Argentina, Chile and Mexico. There is gender parity in terms of net enrolment ratios in primary and secondary education in Brazil. The female adult literacy rate in 1990 stood at 81%, but during the last decade or so, it increased by 9%, a rate similar to the global increase of 10%.

Table 6: Gender parity, vulnerability and reproductive health status of women

	GDI[44] rank	Female headed households, % of total, (year)	Adolescent fertility rate, birth per 1,000 women, ages 15-19, 2002	Pregnant women receiving prenatal care, %, 1995-2002	Births attended by skilled health staff % of total, 1995-2002	Maternal mortality ratio, per 100,000 live births, modelled estimates 2000
Brazil	60	20 (1996)	68	86	88	260
Project						
Indonesia	90	12 (1997)	52	89	64	230
Kazakhstan	63	33 (1999)	35	91	99	210
Kenya	114	31 (1998)	100	76	44	1,000
Reference						
Argentina	36	--	60	95	98	82
Chile	40	--	43	95	100	31
China	71	--	15	90	76	56
India	103	10 (98/99)	98	60	43	540
Mexico	50	--	62	86	86	83
Republic of Korea	29	--	4	--	100	20
Sweden	2	--	9	--	100	2
Global						
Low income	Norway: 1 Hungary: 35 Morocco: 100 Pakistan: 120 Niger: 144	--	98	--	41	657
Lower middle income		--	33	--	78	112
Upper middle income		--	54	--	92	67
High income		--	24	--	99	13
World		--	63	--	60	403

Sources: World Bank (2004); UNDP (2004).

Brazil's **GDI** ranks relatively low at 60 out of 144, which is lowest among the reference countries in the region.

Meanwhile, female-headed households are not very prevalent in Brazil (20%), compared with countries in transition (e.g. 33% in Kazakhstan) or in regions plagued by epidemics (e.g. 31% in Kenya). The adolescent fertility rate (68) is relatively high compared with countries with a communist past (e.g. China at 15 or Kazakhstan at 35), the reference countries in the region, and the world average of 63, but certainly lower than the low income countries' average of 98.

Eighty-six percent of pregnant women in Brazil receive prenatal care, similar to Mexico (86%) but lower than Argentina and Chile (both 95%). The percentage of births attended by skilled health staff is 88%,

44 The gender-specific development index, which 'adjusts the average achievement to reflect the inequalities between men and women' in life expectancy at birth, adult literacy and school enrolments, and estimated earned income (PPP US$). UNDP (2004: p. 343).

which is also similar to Mexico's 86%, but much lower than Argentina's 98% and Chile's 100%. This must, in part, be a reflection of Brazil's relatively high maternal mortality ratio of 260 for every 100,000 cases, while that in Argentina, Chile and Mexico stand, respectively, at 82, 31 and 83.

4. Education

Table 7: Education financing

	Gross national income, PPP US$ per capita, 2002	Public expenditure on education, % of GDP, 2001-02	Public expenditure on education, % of total gov't expenditure, 2001-02	Public expenditure per student % of GDP per capita		
				Primary 2001-02	Secondary 2001-02	Tertiary 2001-02
Brazil	7,450	4.0	10.4	10.7	10.0	48.5
Project						
Indonesia	3,070	1.3	9.6	3.7	7.3	21.0
Kazakhstan	5,630	4.4	--	--	--	--
Kenya	1,010	6.3	22.5	0.9	2.2	256.7
Reference						
Argentina	10,190	4.6	13.7	12.4	15.8	17.8
Chile	9,420	3.9	17.5	14.3	14.7	19.2
China	4,520	2.2	--	5.4 (1990-1)	12.5 (1990-1)	102.4 (1990-1)
India	2,650	4.1	12.7	13.7	23.0	85.8
Mexico	8,800	4.4	22.6	11.8	13.8	45.2
Republic of Korea	23,730	3.6	17.4	18.4	16.8	7.4
Sweden	25,820	7.7	13.6	24.3	27.8	52.0
Global						
Low income	2,110	3.1	--	--	--	--
Lower middle income	5,290	4.0	--	--	--	--
Upper middle income	9,550	4.4	13.7	12.4	16.9 (1990-1)	30.6
High income	28,480	5.2	11.5	26.2	31.0 (1990-1)	66.5
World	7,820	4.1	--	--	--	--

Source: World Bank (2004).

Brazil's expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP stands at 4%, which is equal to the average of lower middle income countries. This, in turn, is reflected in its relatively small percentages of public expenditure per student of GDP per capita. Brazil spends about 10% of GDP per student on primary education, while in Argentina, Chile and Mexico, the figure is more than 10%; and in high income countries, more than 26%.

The low investment in education in Brazil is also observed in relation to the percentage of public expenditure on education as a percentage of total government expenditure, which stands at 10.4%. This is low compared with 13.7% in Argentina, 17.5% in Chile, and 22.6% in Mexico.

Table 8: Public expenditure on education by education levels, as a % of total, 2000-01

	Pre-primary	Primary	Secondary/ post-secondary	Tertiary	Not allocated
Brazil	9.0	33.3	36.1 / n.a	21.6	0
Argentina	7.7	35.5	36.1 / n.a	18.0	2.8
Bolivia	4.6	43.0	22.4 / --	29.1	--
Chile	8.8	43.5	34.8 / n.a	12.9	0
Indonesia	0.1	39.9	41.1 / n.a	18.9	0
Uruguay	9.2	32.6	37.8 / n.a	20.5	0
Rep. of Korea	1.0	43.5	38.3 / n.a	10.4	6.8
France	11.7	20.2	49.7 / 0.1	17.1	1.3
Germany	7.9	15.2	49.4 / 2.3	23.4	1.7
Spain	9.1	27.2	45.5 / --	18.2	0

Source: UIS (2004).

In Brazil, primary and secondary education takes up about 70% of the education budget. Its **expenditure on pre-primary education** as a percentage of the education budget stands at 9%, which is among the highest in the region after Uruguay.

Table 9: Adult and youth literacy rate

	Adult literacy rate % ages 15 and older				Youth literacy rate % ages 15–24			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
	1990	2002	1990	2002	1990	2002	1990	2002
Brazil	83	86	81	87	91	93	93	96
Project								
Indonesia	87	92	73	83	97	99	93	98
Kazakhstan	99	100	98	99	100	100	100	100
Kenya	81	90	61	79	93	96	87	95
Reference								
Argentina	96	97	96	97	98	98	98	99
Chile	94	96	94	96	98	99	98	99
China	87	95	69	87	97	99	93	99
India	62	--	36	--	73	--	54	--
Mexico	91	93	84	89	96	97	94	96
Global								
Low income	64	72	42	53	75	82	59	70
Lower middle income	87	92	74	82	95	96	91	94
Upper middle income	92	95	88	92	97	98	95	98
World	79	84	63	71	87	89	78	83

Source: World Bank (2004).

The literacy rate among the younger generation (those aged 15-24) in Brazil stands at 93% for men and 96% for women. This is lower than the project and reference countries cited. Adult literacy among females aged 15 and older in Brazil remains relatively low at 87%, but this is far above the world average of 71% and higher than the lower middle income countries' average of 82%, although other countries cited from the region show higher literacy rates.

Table 10: Enrolments and internal efficiency in pre-primary, primary and secondary education

	Enrolment ratios			Internal efficiency			
	Gross enrolment ratio in pre-primary education, 2001-02	Net enrolment ratio in primary education, 2001-02	Net enrolment ratio in secondary education, 2001	Primary completion rate, 2000/01 to 2002/03	Transition to secondary education, 2000	Repeaters in primary school, 2001/02	Repeaters in secondary education, 2001
Brazil	67	97	71.6	82	84.0	21.5	18.0
Project							
Indonesia	20	92	47.4	107	79.5	5.3	0.3
Kazakhstan	13	90	84.1	99	98.8	0.2	0.2
Kenya	44	70	24.0	56	73.1	--	--
Reference							
Argentina	61	100	80.8	100	94.1	6.2	--
Chile	77	89	74.5	96	97.5	2.0	2.7
China	27	93	--	102	--	0.6	--
India	26	83	--	77	88.9	3.7	4.8
Mexico	75	99	60.2	96	91.8	5.5	2.1
Republic of Korea	79	99	88.6	--	99.6	--	--
Sweden	74	100	98.6	--	--	--	--
Global			Median Developed countries: 90.0 Developing countries: 48.5 World: 54.9		Median Developed countries: 98.9 Developing countries: 84.0 World: 90.8		Median Developing countries: 7.4 World: 4.4
Low income	24	80		74		6.7	
Lower middle income	36	91		97		4.7	
Upper middle income	63	93		89		5.2	
High income	90	97		--		--	
World	40	88		--		5.6	

Sources: World Bank (2004); UNESCO (2004*b*).

Gross enrolment ratio in pre-primary education in Brazil was 67% in 2001-02, which is lower than Chile's 77% and Mexico's 75%. Net enrolment ratio in primary education was high at 97%, equal to the high income countries' average. However, the primary education completion rate was only 82% and repetition was extremely high at 21.5%.

Meanwhile, of those who graduate, 84% of primary school pupils continue their education at the secondary level, a rate equal to the developing countries' median. The net enrolment ratio in secondary education reaches 72%, which is higher than the world median of 55%. The repetition rate in secondary education (18%), however, is very high.

Internal efficiency in primary and secondary education seems to be a major problem in Brazil.

Table 11: Repetition rates by grade in primary education, 2000 (%)

	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6
Brazil	31.1	19.1	16.1	14.2	--	--
Project						
Indonesia	10.8	6.6	5.4	4.2	2.9	0.5
Kazakhstan	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.1	--	--
Kenya	7.2	--	--	--	--	--
Reference						
Argentina	10.4	7.3	6.4	5.5	4.7	3.9
Chile	0.9	3.9	0.8	2.5	2.3	1.6
China	1.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	--
India	3.5	2.7	3.9	4.2	4.5	--
Mexico	9.6	8.0	6.4	4.6	3.2	1.1
Developing countries	10.7	7.9	7.7	7.5	6.3	5.8
World	6.5	5.4	5.2	5.3	--	--

Source: UNESCO (2004*b*).

In Brazil, the repetition rate in grade 1 exceeds 30%, which is higher than in any of the other countries or regions cited. Internal efficiency in the transition from early childhood to formal schooling needs attention.

Table 12: Private enrolment as percentage of total enrolment in pre-primary, primary and secondary education, 2001

	Pre-primary	Primary	Secondary
Brazil	28.7	8.1	11.3
Project			
Indonesia	98.8	16.0	42.7
Kazakhstan	11.9	0.6	0.9
Kenya	10.4	5.6	4.2
Reference			
Argentina	28.2	20.0	25.0
Chile	45.7	45.5	49.7
India	3.7	15.5	42.0
Mexico	10.2	7.9	16.0
Republic of Korea	77.5	1.4	38.4
Sweden	13.4	4.6	3.9
Global			
Developed countries	7.8	4.2	7.1
Developing countries	55.5	10.9	14.9
World	40.1	7.2	11.7

Source: UNESCO (2004*b*).

In pre-primary education, Brazil's proportion of private enrolment (28.7%) is similar to Argentina's (28.2%) and lower than the world average rate of 40%. In primary and secondary education, Brazil's percentage of private enrolment (8.1% and 11.3%, respectively) is similar to the world average.

Table 13: Trained teachers and pupil/teacher ratio in pre-primary, primary and secondary education

	Pre-primary			Primary			Secondary		
	Trained teachers, %, 2000	Pupil/teacher ratio		Trained teachers, %, 2000	Pupil/teacher ratio		Trained teachers, %, 2000	Pupil/teacher ratio	
		1998	2001		1998	2001		1998	2001
Brazil	87.0	20	19	91.9	--	23	79.3	--	19
Project									
Indonesia	71.3	--	13	93.5	--	21	53	--	14
Kazakhstan	--	9	5	--	18	19	--	--	12
Kenya	--	27	25	74.2	29	32	--	26	26
Reference									
Argentina	83.2	21	21	67.0	21	20	65.0	14	12
Chile	90.5	--	24	92.5	33	32	87.7	--	29
China	--	27	26	96.8	19	20	--	17	19
India	--	--	40	--	40	40	--	--	32
Mexico	--	22	22	--	27	27	--	--	17
Republic of Korea	--	--	22	--	--	32	--	--	20
Sweden	--	--	10	--	12	12	--	15	13
Developed countries	--	16	14	--	16	15	--	13	12
Developing countries	--	22	21	--	28	28	--	19	20
World	--	19	18	--	24	22	--	17	17

Source: UNESCO (2003*c*, 2004*b*).

About 87% of pre-primary teachers in Brazil are **trained**. The **pupil/teacher ratio** in pre-primary education stood at 19 in 2001, a ratio lower than that of the reference countries cited except Sweden. In primary education, the pupil/teacher ratio stands at 23, which is slightly higher than the world average of 22. The percentage of trained teachers in primary education is 92%. In secondary education Brazil has a pupil/teacher ratio (19 in 2001) – higher than the world median of 17 – and a relatively high percentage of trained teachers (79%).

Table 14: Child development and health environment

	Under-5 mortality rate 2002	Child immunization rate, measles, 2002	Prevalence of child malnutrition, % of under age 5, 1996-2002		Public expenditure on health, % of GDP, 2001	Private health expenditure, % of total 2001	Access to improved water source, % of population	Access to improved sanitation facilities, % of population	
			Weight for age	Height for age			2000	1990	2000
Brazil	37	93	6	11	3.2	58.4	87	71	76
Project									
Indonesia	43	76	25	--	0.6	74.9	78	47	55
Kazakhstan	99	95	4	10	1.9	39.6	91	--	99
Kenya	122	78	22	33	1.7	78.6	57	80	87

Reference									
Argentina	19	97	5	12	5.1	46.6	--	82	--
Chile	12	95	1	2	3.1	56.0	93	97	96
China	38	65	10	14	2.0	62.8	75	29	40
India	90	67	47	45	0.9	82.1	84	16	28
Mexico	29	96	8	18	2.7	55.7	88	70	74
Republic of Korea	5	97	--	--	2.6	55.6	92	--	63
Sweden	3	94	--	--	7.4	14.8	100	100	100
Global									
Low income	121	65	42	--	1.1	73.7	76	30	43
Lower middle income	40	78	9	17	2.7	52.8	81	45	58
Upper middle income	22	94	--	--	3.7	42.3	--	--	--
High income	7	90	--	--	6.3	37.9	--	--	--
World	81	72	--	--	5.6	40.8	81	45	55

Source: World Bank (2004).

The under-5 mortality rate in Brazil (37) is much lower than the world's average of 81 and the low income countries' average of 121. It is close to the lower middle income countries' average of 40. Yet, viewed within the region, Brazil has no room for complacency: all the regional reference countries exhibit a much lower rate than Brazil.

The child immunization rate for measles in Brazil stands at 93%, close to the upper middle income countries' average of 94%. The percentage of malnourished children is below the average rate for lower middle income countries.

Brazil's public expenditure on health as a percentage of GDP (2001) is 3.2%, similar to the upper middle income countries' average of 3.7%. Its private health expenditure is 59%, among the highest in the region.

Around 87% of the Brazilian population has access to improved water sources, and the percentage with access to improved sanitation facilities reached 76% in 2000, a 7% improvement from 71% in 1990.