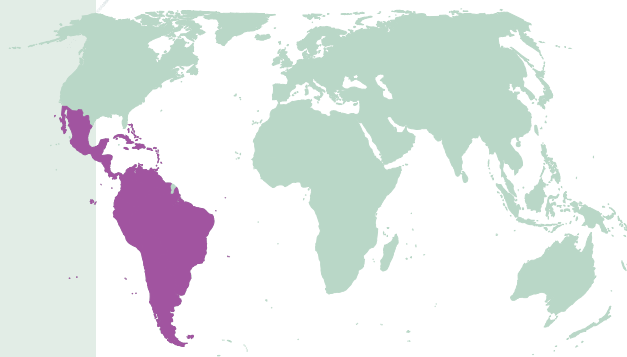


# Regional overview: Latin America and the Caribbean



*Latin America and the Caribbean<sup>1</sup> stands ahead of other developing regions in Education for All. Most countries in the region have achieved universal primary education (UPE) and are witnessing a rapid expansion of both pre-primary education, and secondary and tertiary education. However, learning achievement levels remain low by international standards. Moreover, while there is little evidence of gender disparities at primary level, massive underparticipation of boys exists in secondary and tertiary education.*

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

## Persistent inequalities hinder progress towards EFA

### Early childhood care and education

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

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

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

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

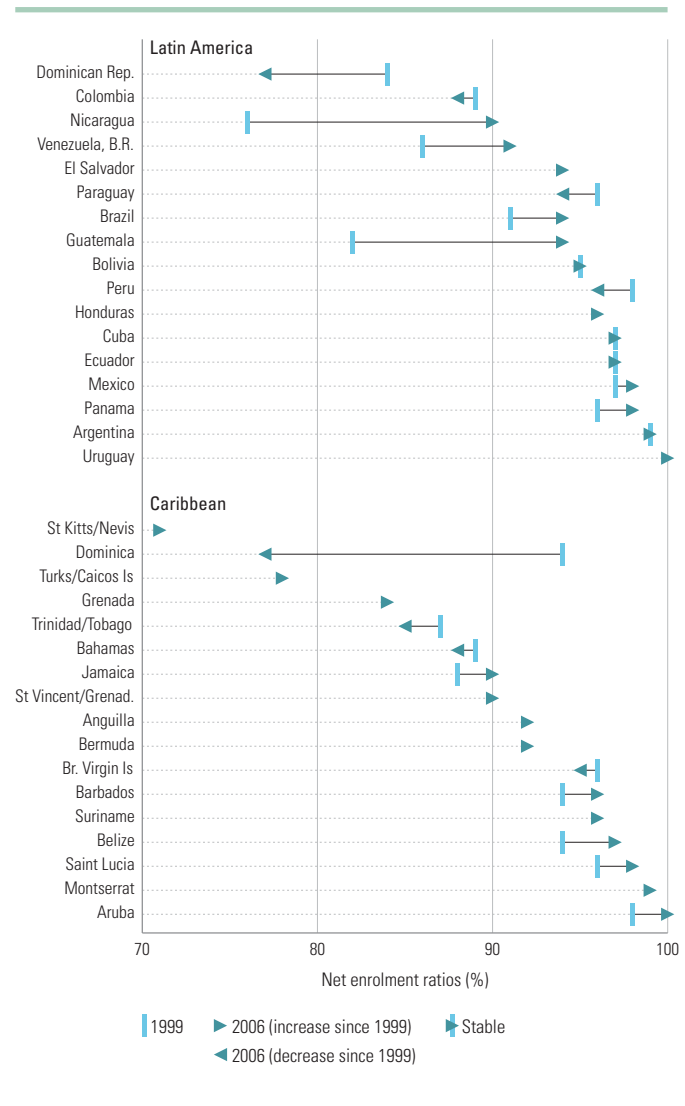


## Universal primary education

Free education is legally guaranteed in most countries (major exceptions being Colombia, Haiti and Jamaica) and the region as a whole is close to achieving UPE.

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

**Figure 2: Changes in primary education net enrolment ratios between 1999 and 2006**



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

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

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

**Table 1: Primary net attendance rate by wealth quintile in six Latin American countries**

Country	Survey year	Net attendance rate (%)	% of primary school-age group not attending	Distribution of those not attending primary school (%)				
				Q1 poorest quintile	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5 richest quintile
Peru	2000	95	5	43	28	16	8	5
Colombia	2005	94	6	42	21	15	13	10
Dominican Rep.	2002	91	9	37	23	17	13	10
Guatemala	1999	82	18	41	26	20	9	4
Haiti	2005	80	20	47	27	16	6	4
Nicaragua	2001	80	20	50	26	13	8	3

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

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

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

## Secondary education and beyond

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

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

- The transition rate from primary to lower secondary education was quite high for the region as a whole (median of 93% in 2005), although it remained problematically low in a number of countries, notably including Honduras (71%), Ecuador (78%), Brazil (81%) and Uruguay (81%).
- Latin America and the Caribbean had 59.0 million secondary students in 2006 and a GER of 89%, up from 80% in 1999. In Costa Rica, Guatemala, Guyana and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, the secondary GER increased by more than twenty percentage points over the period. A significant exception to this trend was Argentina, where the ratio declined from 94% to 84%.
- The discrepancy between the regional GER of 89% and the NER of 70% in 2006 points to internal efficiency issues. NERs remain low in some countries of South America (Colombia 65%, Ecuador 57%), in the Caribbean states (40% for the subregion) and in Central America (Guatemala 38%, Nicaragua 43%).
- The transition from lower to upper secondary education is another key concern: the GER for lower secondary education was as high as 102% for the region as a whole in 2006, but for upper secondary education it reached only 74%.

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

Tertiary education has expanded rapidly during the 2000s.

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

## Learning needs of young people and adults

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

- Millions of youth either never attended school or dropped out before acquiring basic skills and nearly 37 million adults in the region are illiterate. Given the pressure to extend basic

education cycles beyond primary schooling and to expand secondary education systems, non-formal education is likely to continue to be neglected by government.

- Indeed, many governments give little priority to the learning needs of youth and adults in their education strategies and policies. Inadequate public funding hampers provision and weak monitoring obscures learning deficits among adults. The fact that no quantitative targets were established at Dakar, apart from the main literacy target, contributes to a perceived lack of urgency.
- Adult learning programmes are found in a myriad of formal, informal and non-formal settings. Many large-scale literacy programmes, often extending to life skills (e.g. in health or civic rights), livelihoods (income generation, farming) and/or equivalency education, are supported by international non-government organizations, and bilateral and multilateral agencies. For example, in Mexico non-formal provision is seen principally in terms of adult education.
- There is a strong case for clarifying the purpose of lifelong learning provision, improving data flows and, especially, strengthening political commitment in this area. As a first step towards more effective monitoring, improved information is needed about how different stakeholders define adult learning needs, which groups are targeted, what types of skills are taught, how programmes are implemented and if they are sustainable given current funding sources.

## Adult literacy

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

- In 2000–2006 there were still some 36.9 million adult illiterates in the region, a reduction of about 7% as compared with 1985–1999 (39.6 million). The figure is projected to continue to decline to 31.2 million by 2015. Owing to the size of its population, Brazil alone accounts for more than a third of the region's illiterates (14.2 million), followed by Mexico (6.0 million).
- The regional adult literacy rate went up from 87% in 1985–1994 to 91% in 2000–2006 and is projected to reach 93% by 2015. Quicker progress occurred in Bolivia, Colombia, Guatemala and El Salvador, where adult literacy rates increased by more than eight percentage points over the period.
- While universal adult literacy has been achieved in countries including Argentina, Cuba and Uruguay, adult literacy rates remain low (below 90%) in several Central American

countries (as low as 72% in Guatemala). The situation in the Caribbean is especially difficult: the adult literacy rate was 74% and the number of adult illiterates was 2.8 million in 2000–2006, with projections showing it as unlikely to decline by 2015.

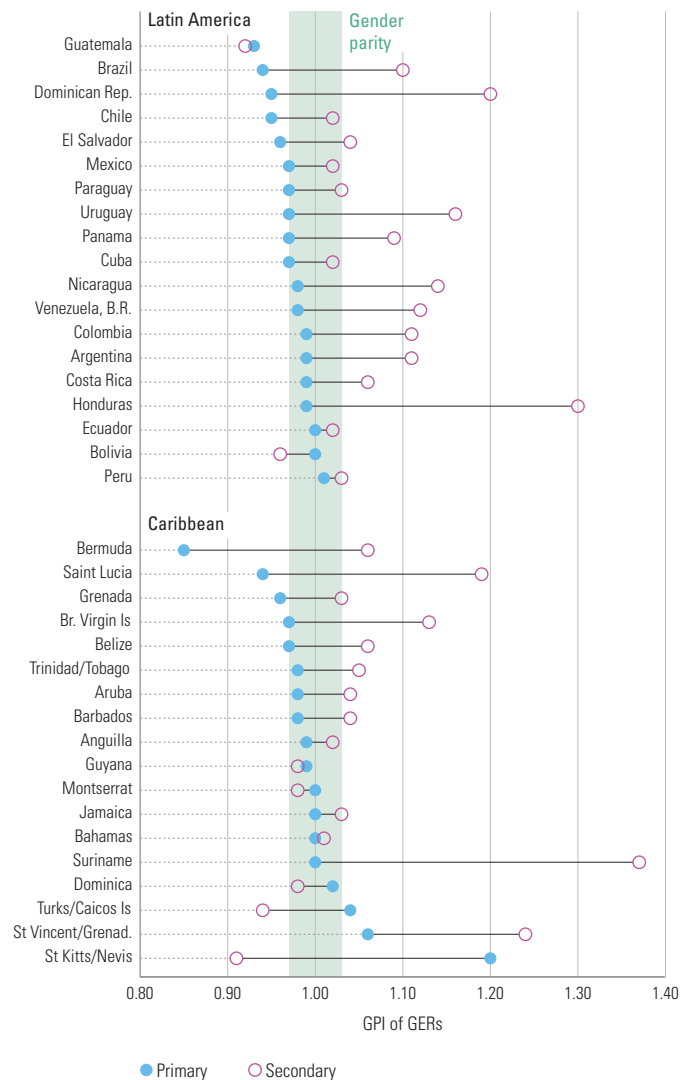
- The near achievement of UPE implies that youth literacy is spreading very quickly. The youth literacy rate is 97%, and the number of youth illiterates should decline from its present level of 3.3 million to 2.2 million by 2015.
- With such exceptions as Guatemala, where 61% of 1.9 million adult illiterates are women, the gender gap in literacy is moderate in Latin America and the Caribbean (women represent 55% of all adult illiterates).
- In addition to gender, disparities in adult literacy revolve around other markers of disadvantage: poverty, place of residence, ethnicity, language and age. The national literacy rate in Ecuador, for example, was 91% in 2001 but that of indigenous groups was 72%. Achieving the EFA adult literacy goal implies paying sustained attention to inequalities. It also means developing the literate environment – promoting the availability and use of multilingual written materials and new technology, which encourage literacy acquisition, a reading culture, improved literacy retention and access to information.

## Gender parity and gender equality

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

- The gender parity index (GPI) of the primary GER was 0.97 in 2006, unchanged from 1999, indicating that almost as many girls as boys were enrolled. Some gender disparities at the expense of girls existed in some countries, including Brazil and Guatemala, while more girls than boys were enrolled primary schools in a few Caribbean states, including Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, and Turks and Caicos. The situation of girls has improved substantially since 1999 in Dominica and Guatemala. On a less positive note, some countries were moving in the wrong direction. For example, the Dominican Republic and Saint Lucia registered gender parity in primary education in 1999 but not in 2006 (Figure 3).
- At primary level, in all countries for which data are available, girls are less likely to repeat grades, have a greater chance of reaching the final grade and are more likely to complete the cycle. Guatemala, where slightly fewer girls (62%) than boys (65%) reached the last grade of primary education in 2005, is an exception.

**Figure 3: Gender disparities in primary and secondary gross enrolment ratios, 2006**



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

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

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

- Girls continue to outperform boys in reading literacy and language arts. The 2006 Segundo Estudio Regional Comparativo y Explicativo (SERCE) assessment, conducted in Latin America, found that girls did significantly better than boys in reading achievement in grades 3 and 6 in half of the sixteen participating countries.
- Girls are catching up with boys in mathematics at all grades in both primary and secondary education. In SERCE, eight countries<sup>2</sup> revealed gender differences in mathematics, most of them small, in favour of boys in grade 3.
- While boys tend to maintain an advantage, the science gap is often small. In SERCE, sixth-grade boys outperformed girls in science in Colombia, El Salvador and Peru. In the remaining countries (Argentina, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Panama, Paraguay and Uruguay) gender differences were mixed and not statistically significant.
- Girls and boys favour different subjects in tertiary education. Despite the increase in female participation in tertiary education, some subject areas remain male domains. In Latin America and the Caribbean, the median share of females enrolled in science was 45% in 2006, falling to 25% in engineering. By contrast, women are much more represented in fields long considered 'feminine', such as education (71%), humanities and arts (65%). Recent studies

indicate that complex socialization processes influence gender differences in choice of subject areas. They include poor career counselling, lack of role models, negative family attitudes, fear of mathematics and fear of being in the minority.

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

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

## Quality of education

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

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

- PTRs are below developing-country averages and close to world averages. In recent years, student cohort size has declined while the number of teachers has increased. In 2006 the average PTR was 21:1 at pre-primary level (968,000 pre-primary teachers for the whole region), 23:1 in primary schools (3.0 million teachers) and 16:1 in secondary schools (3.6 million teachers). There are 1.2 million teachers in tertiary education. Overall shortages of primary school teachers still exist in some countries: for example, El Salvador, Guatemala and Nicaragua have PTRs above 30:1.

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







## Raising quality and strengthening equity: why governance matters

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

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

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

### Financing education for equity

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

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

Technical efficiency provides an indicator of the cost associated with turning finance into quantitative and qualitative outcomes. In many countries, *corruption* is

a major source of inefficiency and inequity – the former because it means more public money provides fewer inputs and the latter because the costs of corruption invariably fall most heavily on the poor:

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

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

Public spending on education has the potential to redress inequalities but often reinforces them instead. Governments have developed various approaches aimed at making spending more equitable, such as *school grants and formula funding* linked to need. However, outcomes have been mixed.

The decentralization of education from federal to provincial governments was an important feature of institutional reform in Latin America and the Caribbean during the 1990s. Yet *financial decentralization* can exacerbate the gaps between rich and poor areas. Central governments need to retain a strong role in redistributing financial resources from richer to poorer areas, or financing gaps in education are likely to widen:

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

## Choice, competition and voice: school governance reform and EFA

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

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

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



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

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

## An integrated approach to education and poverty reduction

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

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

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

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



### Acronyms

EDI: EFA Development Index

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

EFA: Education for All

EIIIG: EFA Inequality Index for Income Groups

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

GEI: Gender-specific EFA index

GER: gross enrolment ratio

GPI: Gender parity index

NER: net enrolment ratio

PISA: Programme for International Student Assessment (OECD)

PTR: pupil/teacher ratio

SERCE: Segundo Estudio Regional Comparativo y Explicativo

TIMSS: Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study

UPE: universal primary education

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

Country or territory	Total population (000)	Compulsory education (age group)	EFA Development Index (EDI)	Adult literacy rate (15 and over)				Early childhood care and education			
				1985–1994 <sup>1</sup>		2000–2006 <sup>1</sup>		Child survival and well-being		Pre-primary education	
				Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Under-5 mortality rate (‰)	Moderate and severe stunting (%)	GER	
										2005–2010	1996–2006 <sup>1</sup>
Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	Total (%)						
<b>The Caribbean</b>											
Anguilla	12	5-17	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	103
Antigua and Barbuda	84	5-16	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Aruba	104	6-16	0.981	...	...	98	1.00	20	...	99	99
Bahamas	327	5-16	0.921	...	...	...	...	17	...	12	...
Barbados	293	5-16	0.943	...	...	...	...	11	...	74	94
Belize	282	5-14	0.913	70	1.00	...	...	20	18	27	34
Bermuda	64	5-16	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
British Virgin Islands	22	5-16	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	62	93
Cayman Islands	46	5-16	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Dominica	68	5-16	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	80	<b>77</b>
Grenada	106	5-16	...	...	...	...	...	41	...	93	<b>81</b>
Guyana <sup>4</sup>	739	6-15	...	...	...	...	...	57	11	124	99
Haiti	9 446	6-11	...	...	...	...	...	72	24	...	...
Jamaica	2 699	6-11	...	...	...	85	1.13	17	3	78	<b>92</b>
Montserrat	6	5-16	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	91
Netherlands Antilles	189	6-15	...	95	1.00	96	1.00	17	...	111	...
Saint Kitts and Nevis	50	5-16	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	<b>99</b>
Saint Lucia	163	5-15	0.942	...	...	...	...	16	...	70	69
St Vincent/Grenad.	120	5-15	0.901	...	...	...	...	28	...	...	<b>88</b>
Suriname	455	6-12	...	...	...	90	0.95	35	10	...	84
Trinidad and Tobago	1 328	5-11	0.941	97	0.98	99	0.99	18	4	58	<b>85</b>
Turks and Caicos Islands	25	4-16	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	<b>118</b>
<b>Latin America</b>											
Argentina	39 134	5-14	0.956	96	1.00	98	1.00	16	4	57	<b>66</b>
Bolivia	9 354	6-13	0.915	80	0.82	90	0.89	61	27	45	50
Brazil	189 323	7-14	0.901	...	...	90	1.01	29	11	58	<b>69</b>
Chile	16 465	6-13	...	94	0.99	96	1.00	9	1	77	55
Colombia	45 558	5-14	0.905	81	1.00	92	1.00	26	12	37	40
Costa Rica	4 399	6-15	...	...	...	96	1.00	11	6	84	70
Cuba	11 267	6-14	0.981	...	...	100	1.00	7	5	109	113
Dominican Republic	9 615	5-13	0.824	...	...	89	1.01	33	7	32	32
Ecuador	13 202	5-14	0.919	88	0.95	92	0.98	26	23	64	90
El Salvador	6 762	7-15	0.867	74	0.92	84	0.93	29	19	43	51
Guatemala	13 029	7-15	0.819	64	0.80	72	0.86	39	49	46	29
Honduras <sup>4</sup>	6 969	6-11	0.887	...	...	83	1.01	42	25	...	38
Mexico	105 342	6-15	0.956	88	0.94	92	0.96	20	13	74	106
Nicaragua <sup>4</sup>	5 532	6-12	0.799	...	...	80	1.02	26	20	27	52
Panama	3 288	6-11	0.941	89	0.99	93	0.99	24	18	39	67
Paraguay	6 016	6-14	0.935	90	0.96	94	0.98	38	14	29	<b>34</b>
Peru	27 589	6-16	0.931	87	0.88	89	0.89	29	24	55	68
Uruguay	3 331	6-15	0.963	95	1.01	98	1.01	16	11	60	79
Venezuela, B. R.	27 191	6-15	0.934	90	0.98	93	0.99	22	13	45	60
	<b>Sum</b>			<b>Weighted average</b>				<b>Weighted average</b>		<b>Weighted average</b>	
Latin America/Caribbean	559 994	...	...	87	0.98	91	0.98	27	16	56	65
Caribbean	16 628	...	...	66	1.02	74	1.05	56	...	65	79
Latin America	543 365	...	...	87	0.97	91	0.98	26	...	55	64
Developing countries	5 284 165	...	...	68	0.77	79	0.85	81	32	27	36
World	6 578 149	...	...	76	0.85	84	0.89	74	31	33	41

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



Primary education										Country or territory
NER, total (%)		GPI of GER (F/M)		Out-of-school children <sup>2</sup> 2006 (000)	Survival rate to last grade, total (%)		% of trained teachers 2006	Pupil/teacher ratio <sup>3</sup>		
1999	2006	1999	2006		1999	2005		1999	2006	
<b>The Caribbean</b>										
...	92	...	0.99	0.1	...	93	64	22	17	Anguilla
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Antigua and Barbuda
98	100	0.99	0.98	0.04	97	96	99	19	18	Aruba
89	88	0.98	1.00	4	...	81	89	14	15	Bahamas
94	96	0.98	0.98	0.8	94	97	<b>73</b>	18	15	Barbados
94	97	0.97	0.97	0.4	77	92	39	24	23	Belize
...	92	...	0.85	0.3	...	86	100	...	8	Bermuda
96	95	0.97	0.97	0.1	...	...	74	18	15	British Virgin Islands
...	...	...	...	...	...	78	97	15	12	Cayman Islands
94	77	0.95	1.02	1.9	...	88	64	20	17	Dominica
...	<b>84</b>	...	<b>0.96</b>	<b>2</b>	...	...	<b>67</b>	...	<b>18</b>	Grenada
...	...	0.98	<b>0.99</b>	...	93	...	<b>57</b>	27	<b>28</b>	Guyana <sup>4</sup>
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Haiti
88	<b>90</b>	1.00	<b>1.00</b>	<b>31</b>	...	...	...	...	<b>28</b>	Jamaica
...	99	...	1.00	0.0	...	...	77	21	17	Montserrat
...	...	0.95	...	...	84	...	...	20	...	Netherlands Antilles
...	<b>71</b>	...	<b>1.20</b>	<b>2</b>	...	...	<b>64</b>	...	<b>15</b>	Saint Kitts and Nevis
96	98	0.98	0.94	0.2	...	96	80	22	24	Saint Lucia
...	<b>90</b>	...	<b>1.06</b>	<b>1.2</b>	...	...	<b>74</b>	...	<b>18</b>	St Vincent/Grenad.
...	96	...	1.00	1.9	...	...	...	...	16	Suriname
87	<b>85</b>	1.00	<b>0.98</b>	<b>15</b>	...	84	81	21	<b>17</b>	Trinidad and Tobago
...	<b>78</b>	...	<b>1.04</b>	<b>0.5</b>	...	...	<b>82</b>	18	<b>15</b>	Turks and Caicos Islands
<b>Latin America</b>										
99	<b>99</b>	1.00	<b>0.99</b>	<b>36</b>	89	87	...	22	<b>17</b>	Argentina
95	95	0.98	1.00	52	80	82	...	25	24	Bolivia
91	<b>94</b>	0.94	<b>0.94</b>	<b>597</b>	...	80	...	26	<b>21</b>	Brazil
...	...	0.97	0.95	...	100	98	...	32	26	Chile
89	88	1.00	0.99	367	67	82	...	24	28	Colombia
...	...	0.98	0.99	...	88	90	88	27	20	Costa Rica
97	97	0.97	0.97	27	93	97	100	12	10	Cuba
84	77	0.98	0.95	255	71	61	88	...	23	Dominican Republic
97	97	1.00	1.00	11	75	76	71	27	23	Ecuador
...	94	0.96	0.96	39	62	67	94	...	40	El Salvador
82	94	0.87	0.93	82	52	63	...	38	31	Guatemala
...	96	...	0.99	33	...	81	87	...	28	Honduras <sup>4</sup>
97	98	0.98	0.97	73	87	92	...	27	28	Mexico
76	90	1.01	0.98	72	46	50	74	34	33	Nicaragua <sup>4</sup>
96	98	0.97	0.97	3.7	90	85	91	26	25	Panama
96	<b>94</b>	0.96	<b>0.97</b>	<b>43</b>	73	84	...	...	28	Paraguay
98	96	0.99	1.01	33	83	85	...	...	22	Peru
...	100	0.99	0.97	0.1	...	92	...	20	20	Uruguay
86	91	0.98	0.98	226	88	90	<b>84</b>	...	<b>19</b>	Venezuela, B. R.
<b>Weighted average</b>		<b>Weighted average</b>		<b>Sum</b>	<b>Median</b>		<b>Weighted average</b>			
92	94	0.97	0.97	2 631	84	85	80	26	23	Latin America/Caribbean
75	72	0.98	0.99	617	...	...	74	24	22	Caribbean
93	95	0.97	0.97	2 014	81	84	88	26	23	Latin America
81	85	0.91	0.94	71 911	...	81	85	27	28	Developing countries
82	86	0.92	0.95	75 177	...	88	...	25	25	World

Data underlined are for 2003.  
Data in italics are for 2004.  
Data in bold italics are for 2005.  
Data in bold are for 2007 or 2006 for survival rate to last grade.

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

Table 3 (continued)

Country or territory	Secondary education								Tertiary education	
	GER in lower secondary		GER in upper secondary		GER in total secondary				GER	
	2006		2006		1999		2006		2006	
	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)
<b>The Caribbean</b>										
Anguilla	82	0.98	84	1.10	...	...	83	1.02	5	4.86
Antigua and Barbuda	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	.	.
Aruba	119	0.88	88	1.20	99	1.07	100	1.04	32	1.56
Bahamas	95	0.99	86	1.03	79	0.99	91	1.01	...	...
Barbados	100	0.99	105	1.11	100	1.05	102	1.04	...	...
Belize	87	1.05	61	1.09	64	1.08	79	1.06	3	2.43
Bermuda	91	0.96	79	1.15	...	...	84	1.06	...	...
British Virgin Islands	115	1.10	93	1.18	99	0.91	107	1.13	<b>75</b>	<b>2.28</b>
Cayman Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Dominica	125	0.87	78	1.29	90	1.35	106	0.98	.	.
Grenada	<b>102</b>	<b>0.96</b>	<b>97</b>	<b>1.17</b>	...	...	<b>100</b>	<b>1.03</b>	.	.
Guyana <sup>4</sup>	...	...	68	1.01	82	1.02	105	0.98	12	2.17
Haiti	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Jamaica	<b>93</b>	<b>1.00</b>	<b>77</b>	<b>1.11</b>	88	1.02	<b>87</b>	<b>1.03</b>	...	...
Montserrat	131	0.80	115	1.39	...	...	125	0.98	.	.
Netherlands Antilles	...	...	...	...	92	1.16	...	...	...	...
Saint Kitts and Nevis	...	...	...	...	...	...	<b>105</b>	<b>0.91</b>	.	.
Saint Lucia	94	1.15	78	1.26	71	1.29	87	1.19	10	5.46
St Vincent/Grenad.	<b>90</b>	<b>1.16</b>	<b>54</b>	<b>1.46</b>	...	...	<b>75</b>	<b>1.24</b>	.	.
Suriname	96	1.18	54	1.97	...	...	77	1.37	...	...
Trinidad and Tobago	<b>79</b>	<b>1.03</b>	<b>73</b>	<b>1.07</b>	77	1.10	<b>76</b>	<b>1.05</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>1.28</b>
Turks and Caicos Islands	<b>86</b>	<b>0.95</b>	<b>85</b>	<b>0.92</b>	...	...	<b>86</b>	<b>0.94</b>	.	.
<b>Latin America</b>										
Argentina	<b>102</b>	<b>1.05</b>	<b>67</b>	<b>1.21</b>	94	1.07	<b>84</b>	<b>1.11</b>	<b>64</b>	<b>1.45</b>
Bolivia	93	0.96	77	0.96	78	0.93	82	0.96	41	...
Brazil	<b>114</b>	<b>1.05</b>	<b>95</b>	<b>1.19</b>	99	1.11	<b>105</b>	<b>1.10</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>1.30</b>
Chile	99	0.97	87	1.05	79	1.04	91	1.02	47	1.00
Colombia	90	1.08	66	1.19	70	1.11	82	1.11	31	1.09
Costa Rica	104	1.03	60	1.15	57	1.09	86	1.06	<b>25</b>	<b>1.26</b>
Cuba	96	0.97	91	1.07	77	1.07	94	1.02	88	1.65
Dominican Republic	79	1.13	64	1.25	57	1.24	69	1.20	35	1.59
Ecuador	77	0.98	58	1.07	57	1.03	68	1.02	...	...
El Salvador	80	1.01	48	1.10	52	0.98	65	1.04	21	1.21
Guatemala	58	0.87	46	1.01	33	0.84	53	0.92	9	0.82
Honduras <sup>4</sup>	<b>65</b>	<b>1.18</b>	<b>93</b>	<b>1.45</b>	...	...	<b>76</b>	<b>1.30</b>	17	1.41
Mexico	112	1.04	61	1.00	70	1.01	87	1.02	26	0.93
Nicaragua <sup>4</sup>	73	1.07	54	1.29	52	1.19	66	1.14	...	...
Panama	84	1.03	55	1.17	67	1.07	70	1.09	45	1.61
Paraguay	<b>79</b>	<b>1.01</b>	<b>53</b>	<b>1.05</b>	58	1.04	<b>66</b>	<b>1.03</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>1.13</b>
Peru	109	1.05	72	0.97	84	0.94	94	1.03	35	1.06
Uruguay	109	1.08	93	1.26	92	1.17	101	1.16	46	1.68
Venezuela, B. R.	87	1.08	61	1.23	56	1.22	77	1.12	52	...
<b>Weighted average</b>										
Latin America/Caribbean	102	1.04	74	1.12	80	1.07	89	1.07	31	1.16
Caribbean	72	1.02	43	1.05	53	1.03	57	1.03	6	1.69
Latin America	103	1.05	76	1.13	81	1.07	91	1.07	32	1.15
Developing countries	75	0.94	46	0.93	52	0.89	60	0.94	17	0.93
World	78	0.95	53	0.95	60	0.92	66	0.95	25	1.06

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

Education finance				Country or territory
Total public expenditure on education as % of GNP		Total aid to basic education (constant 2006 US\$ millions)	Total aid to basic education per primary school-age child (constant 2006 US\$)	
1999	2006	2005–2006 annual average	2005–2006 annual average	
<b>The Caribbean</b>				
...	<b>4.0</b>	0	0	Anguilla
3.5	...	0	0	Antigua and Barbuda
...	<b>5.1</b>	0	0	Aruba
...	...	...	...	Bahamas
5.3	<b>7.2</b>	0.0	0.4	Barbados
5.7	<i>5.8</i>	0.4	9	Belize
...	1.2	...	...	Bermuda
...	4.0	...	...	British Virgin Islands
...	2.9	...	...	Cayman Islands
5.5	...	0.1	8	Dominica
...	<u>6.0</u>	6	346	Grenada
9.3	8.6	3	27	Guyana <sup>4</sup>
...	...	17	12	Haiti
...	<b>5.6</b>	5	13	Jamaica
...	...	0	0.0	Montserrat
...	...	...	...	Netherlands Antilles
5.6	<b>10.8</b>	0	0.0	Saint Kitts and Nevis
8.0	7.1	0.5	24	Saint Lucia
7.2	<b>8.8</b>	0.1	9	St Vincent/Grenad.
...	...	3	60	Suriname
3.9	...	0.0	0.1	Trinidad and Tobago
...	...	0.9	149	Turks and Caicos Islands
<b>Latin America</b>				
4.6	<i>4.0</i>	9	2	Argentina
5.8	<u>6.6</u>	28	20	Bolivia
4.0	<i>4.1</i>	10	0.7	Brazil
4.0	3.6	2	1	Chile
4.5	4.9	7	1	Colombia
5.5	4.9	1	2	Costa Rica
7.7	9.3	0.5	0.6	Cuba
...	3.9	23	19	Dominican Republic
2.0	...	8	4	Ecuador
2.4	3.2	7	8	El Salvador
...	2.6	20	10	Guatemala
...	...	30	27	Honduras <sup>4</sup>
4.5	<b>5.6</b>	4	0.3	Mexico
4.0	<u>3.3</u>	58	69	Nicaragua <sup>4</sup>
5.1	<i>4.1</i>	0.5	1	Panama
5.1	<i>4.1</i>	6	7	Paraguay
3.4	2.7	12	3	Peru
2.8	3.0	0.6	2	Uruguay
...	3.7	0.7	0.2	Venezuela, B. R.
<b>Median</b>		<b>Sum</b>	<b>Weighted average</b>	
4.9	4.1	279	5	Latin America/Caribbean
...	5.8	...	...	Caribbean
4.5	4.0	...	...	Latin America
4.5	4.4	3 595	6	Developing countries
4.5	4.9	4 376	8	World

Data underlined are for 2003.  
Data in italics are for 2004.  
Data in bold italics are for 2005.  
Data in bold are for 2007 or 2006 for survival rate to last grade.

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

## Regional overview: Latin America and the Caribbean



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