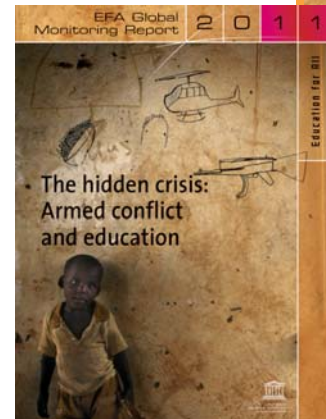
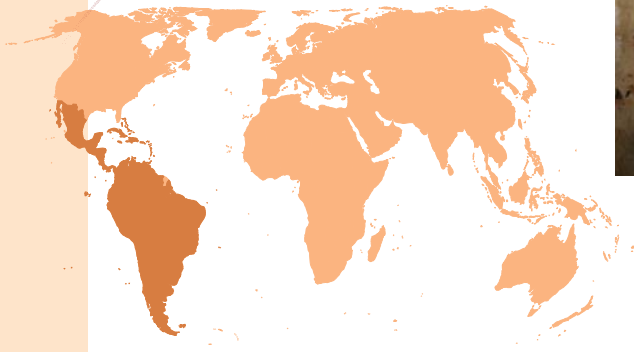


Regional overview: Latin America and the Caribbean

The past decade has seen mixed progress towards Education for All (EFA) in Latin America and the Caribbean.¹ More children are participating in pre-school education, many countries have achieved universal primary education and more students are moving from primary to secondary education. Gender parity has been achieved at the primary level in the majority of countries and adult literacy rates are improving. The region invests a relatively high share of national income in education and external aid to basic education has increased in recent years. However, challenges remain. The Caribbean has seen a decline by nearly one-tenth in primary enrolment ratios and 2.9 million children were not enrolled in school in the region as a whole in 2008. Some 36 million adults are still illiterate and levels of learning achievement are low in many countries.

1. This is according to the EFA classification. See the table at the end for countries in the region and subregions.



The 2011 *EFA Global Monitoring Report* puts the spotlight on armed conflict and one of its most damaging yet least reported consequences: its impact on education. Conflict-affected states have some of the world's worst indicators for education. The Report documents the scale of this hidden crisis in education, looks at its underlying causes and explores the links between armed conflict and education. It also presents recommendations to address identified failures that contribute to the hidden crisis. It calls on governments to demonstrate greater resolve in combating the culture of impunity surrounding attacks on schoolchildren and schools, sets out an agenda for fixing the international aid architecture and identifies strategies for strengthening the role of education in peacebuilding.

Goal 1: Early childhood care and education

Children's education opportunities are shaped long before they enter primary school. The linguistic, cognitive and social skills they develop through early childhood care and education (ECCE) are the foundations for expanded life chances and for lifelong learning. Indicators of child well-being are relatively high for Latin America and the Caribbean, although disparities exist between and within countries.

Decline in child mortality rates continues. Child mortality is a sensitive barometer of progress towards goal 1. Over the past decade, child mortality rates have fallen in all the world's regions, including Latin America and the Caribbean. On average, 28 of every 1,000 children born in the region will not reach age 5. There are, however, huge differences in the under-5 mortality rates across countries, ranging from less than 10‰ in Cuba and Chile to 61‰ in the Plurinational State of Bolivia and 85‰ in Haiti.

Education saves lives. The risk of childhood death is closely linked to household wealth and maternal education. In the Plurinational State of Bolivia, Colombia and Honduras, under-5 mortality rates are about three times as high among children of mothers with no education as among those having mothers with some secondary education. More educated women have better access to reproductive health information, and are more likely to have fewer children and to provide better nutrition to their children, all of which reduce the risk of child mortality.

Malnutrition is a major barrier for achieving EFA. Poor nutrition prevents children from developing healthy bodies and minds. A sharp rise in food prices in 2008 combined with the global recession continues to undermine efforts to combat hunger in several countries in the region. On average, 16% of children under age 5 in Latin America and the Caribbean are affected by moderate or severe stunting (short for their age). The prevalence is particularly high in poorer countries such as Guatemala, where 54% of children suffer from stunting, and Haiti with a rate of 30%.

Participation in pre-primary education is far from universal. In 2008, nearly 21 million children were enrolled in pre-primary education in Latin America and the Caribbean, an increase of 4.4 million since 1999. However, the regional gross enrolment ratio (GER) of 68% indicates that many children in the region were still excluded from pre-primary education in 2008. Levels of participation are particularly low in the Dominican Republic, Guatemala and Paraguay, with pre-primary GERs at 35% or below.

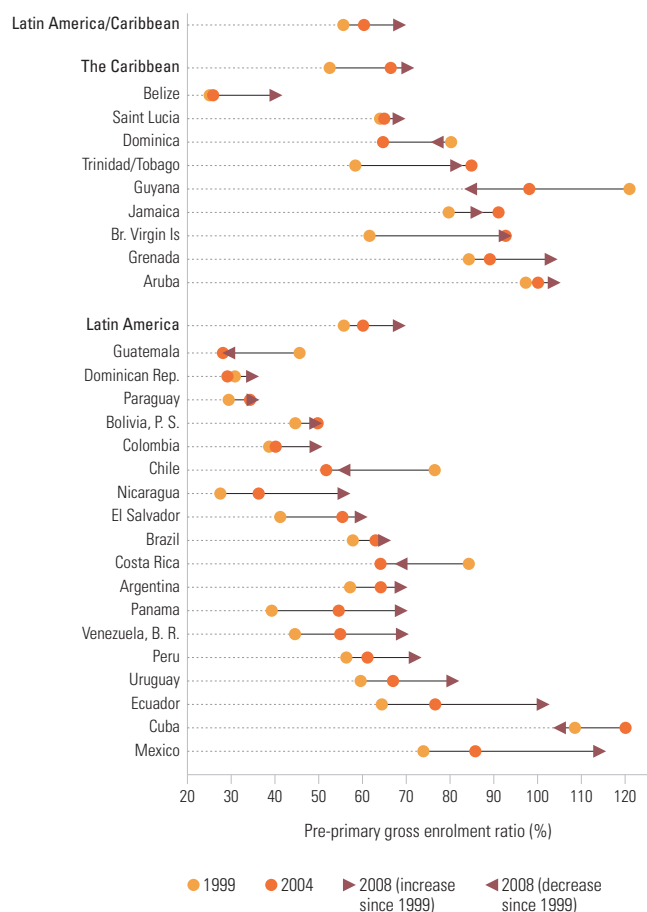
The rate of progress in increasing enrolment in pre-primary education has been uneven. Some countries made initial advances in the first half of the 2000s while others began to progress more recently. For example, pre-primary enrolment ratios grew faster in the first half of the decade in Brazil and El Salvador while progress in Belize, Colombia and Nicaragua after 2004 was more rapid. In countries including Costa Rica, Dominica and Guatemala, the ratios declined significantly from 1999 to 2004 and have increased only slightly since (Figure 1).

Children living with high levels of poverty are in greatest need of ECCE, yet they are the least likely to attend such programmes. In Trinidad and Tobago, attendance rates in pre-school programmes vary from 65% of children in the poorest 20% of households to 89% in the wealthiest 20%. Guyana registers a national attendance rate of 50%, but children from the wealthiest homes are more than twice as likely as poor children to attend pre-primary education.

Investment in ECCE generates high returns. In Argentina, one year of pre-school was estimated to increase the average third-grade test scores in mathematics and Spanish by 8%. In Jamaica, nutrition interventions coupled with home visits to support parents in play and learning techniques produced significantly higher gains in cognitive development scores than nutrition interventions alone. ECCE programmes are among the most cost-effective investments that governments in Latin America and the Caribbean can make.

Figure 1: Pre-primary participation has increased in most countries

Pre-primary gross enrolment ratio, selected countries, 1999, 2004 and 2008



Sources: EFA Global Monitoring Report 2011, Annex, Statistical Table 3B; UIS database.

Goal 2: Universal primary education

Over the past decade, many countries in Latin America and the Caribbean have made important advances towards the goal of universal primary education (UPE). But the pace of advance has been uneven, with some countries registering increases in the number of children not enrolled in school.

The region is close to achieving UPE. The region has increased the primary adjusted net enrolment ratio (ANER)² slightly since 1999, to reach an average primary ANER of 95% in 2008. Nearly 40% of countries in the region with data have achieved UPE, and 20% are close to doing so. Progress towards UPE was particularly impressive in Belize, Guatemala and Nicaragua, with primary ANERs increasing by ten to thirteen percentage points between 1999 and 2008. Despite the overall positive trend, the situation remains critical in several countries, including Dominica, the Dominican Republic and Jamaica, with participation levels ranging from 76% to 82% (Figure 2).

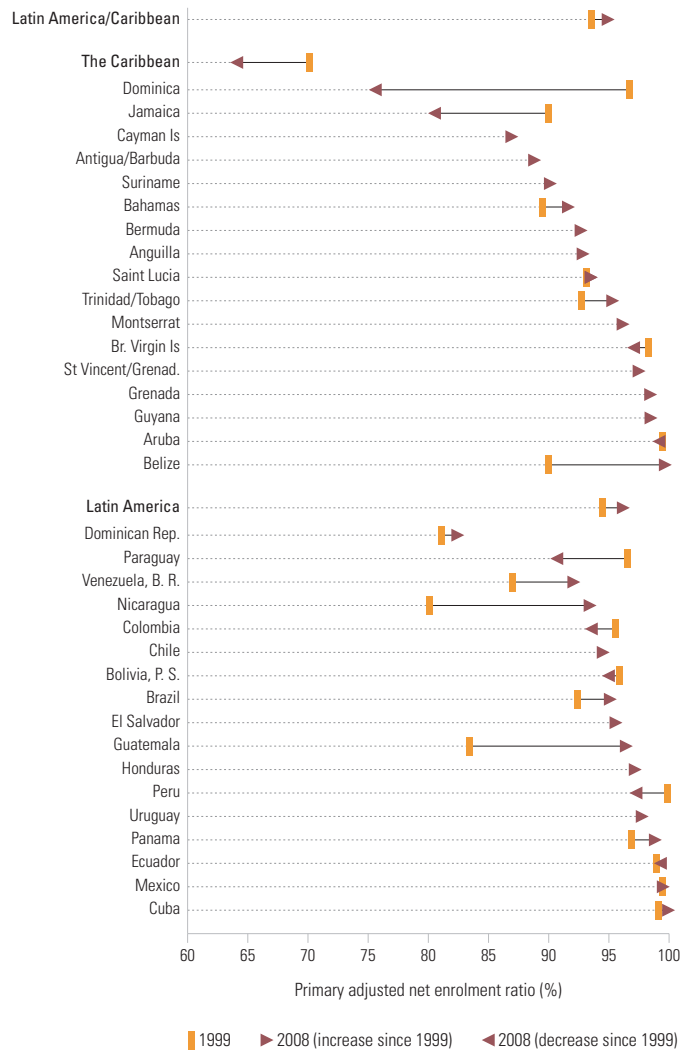
Numbers of children out of school are declining, but at varying speeds. Latin America and the Caribbean is home to just over 4% of the world's out-of-school children, with 2.9 million children of primary school age not enrolled in school in 2008. However, while the number of children out of school in the region declined by an average of 181,000 a year from 1999 to 2004, it has increased by 33,000 a year since. Several countries with large out-of-school populations have registered a slippage in the rate of progress over time, including Brazil and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela. In Brazil, out-of-school numbers fell by 94,000 a year from 1999 to 2004 but rose by over 30,000 annually from 2004 to 2008. By contrast, progress has recently accelerated in some countries, including Colombia and the Dominican Republic.

Many children in the region will remain out of school in 2015. Trend analysis provide insights into plausible scenarios for the numbers of children out of school in 2015. In the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, for example, a continuation to 2015 of the trend from 1999 to 2009 would see the country's out-of-school number fall by 46%, to 143,000. Brazil would see a decline by one-third but would still have 452,000 out-of-school children in 2015. However, a continuation to 2015 of the shorter trend for 2004–2009 would lead to a dramatic increase in Brazil's out-of-school number, to just over 1 million in 2015.

Just over two-thirds of children starting school are of the right age. Getting children into primary school at the right age, ensuring that they progress smoothly and facilitating completion are key elements to advance towards UPE. Many countries in Latin America and the Caribbean are struggling to get children into primary school at the official starting age. In 2008, only 67% of children starting school in the region

Figure 2: Many countries are close to, or have achieved, universal primary education

Primary education adjusted net enrolment ratio, selected countries, 1999 and 2008



Source: EFA Global Monitoring Report 2011, Annex, Statistical Table 5 (website).

were of official primary school age, and the figure went as low as 48% in Montserrat. However, rapid change is possible. In Nicaragua, the share of children starting school at the official age increased from 39% in 1999 to 67% in 2008.

Progress in survival to the last grade of primary school is mixed. Once children are enrolled at the right age, the challenge is to get them through school. On average, 86% of children starting primary school in Latin America and the Caribbean survived to the last grade in 2007. Country-level data point to a mixed record of progress in improving survival rates. Most countries with data improved their rates between 1999 and 2007, with increases of thirteen percentage points or more in Belize, Colombia, El Salvador and Guatemala. On the other hand, several countries, including Aruba, Chile,

2. The primary ANER measures the proportion of children of primary school age who are enrolled either in primary or secondary school.

the Dominican Republic, Panama and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, have seen their survival rates decline since 1999.

Prospects for entry, progression and completion of primary school are closely linked to household circumstances. Children who are poor, rural or from ethnic or linguistic minorities face higher risks of dropping out. In Colombia, the completion rate for the richest 20% of the population is 98%, compared with 72% for the poorest 20%.

Tackling school dropout requires action on several fronts.

The scale of the dropout problem is not widely recognized. Dropout profiles vary enormously across countries. In the Dominican Republic, with a dropout rate of 14% in the first grade, and Nicaragua with a rate of 18%, children have great trouble negotiating their way through the early grades. High dropout rates in the last grade, in countries such as Saint Kitts and Nevis and Suriname, partly reflect the effects of school examination failure. Evidence from many countries shows that the risk of primary school dropout also increases with age, though the strength of the association varies.

Lowering the risk of dropout requires a broad set of policies aimed at reducing underlying vulnerabilities, including poverty-related factors and problems linked to the quality of education. Mexico's conditional cash transfer programme has been associated with improvement in enrolment and gains in average years of schooling achieved. The Rural Education Project in Colombia, designed to improve the quality and relevance of education, covered about 6,500 rural schools by 2006 and has significantly reduced dropout rates in rural areas. Working through municipal authorities, the project assessed the needs of each school. Teachers were given specialized training in flexible educational models targeting disadvantaged students.

Goal 3: Youth and adult learning

The skills developed through education are vital not just for the well-being of young people and adults, but also for employment and economic prosperity. Notwithstanding an increase in secondary school enrolment in recent years, most countries in Latin America and the Caribbean struggle to expand appropriate learning and life skills programmes.

Secondary school access continues to expand. Total secondary school enrolment in the region has increased by 13% since 1999, although just over 2 million adolescents were still outside the education system in 2008. On average, nearly nine out of ten children in the region participated in secondary education in 2008. However, participation levels remain relatively low in some countries, with secondary GERs below 70% in El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua and Paraguay. On the other hand, eight countries, mostly in the Caribbean, had ratios at or above 95% in 2008.

Secondary school attendance and completion are strongly influenced by poverty, location and gender. Among people aged 23 to 27 in the Dominican Republic, those from the wealthiest 20% of households have secondary completion rates of 62%, compared with 12% for those from the poorest 20%. In Colombia, the urban poor are nearly three times as likely to complete secondary school as the rural poor.

Second-chance programmes can provide a skills development lifeline to youth and adults who missed out on earlier opportunities, but the availability of such programmes remains scarce in the region. Their record is mixed; in some cases, graduates gain few employable skills. However, experience shows that when courses are properly resourced and designed to generate skills that employers need, much can be achieved. The Jóvenes programmes, which target low-income families in several countries of Latin America, combine the teaching of basic life skills with technical training, internship and further support services. Evaluations suggest that these programmes have significantly improved participants' employment opportunities and earnings.

Progress in access to tertiary education has been rapid.

In an increasingly knowledge-based global economy, higher education systems play a vital role in skills development. In Latin America and the Caribbean, nearly 20 million students were enrolled in tertiary education in 2008, nearly twice as many as in 1999. The region as a whole has registered one of the world's most rapid increases in the tertiary GER, which rose from 21% in 1999 to 38% in 2008.

Goal 4: Adult literacy

Literacy opens doors to better livelihoods, improved health and expanded opportunity. It empowers people to take an active role in their communities and to build more secure futures for their families. Decisive action by many governments in Latin America and the Caribbean is needed to reach the literacy target set for 2015.

Literacy rates are improving. In 2008, some 36 million adults were illiterate in Latin America and the Caribbean, 9% of the adult population. The average adult literacy rate in the region increased from 84% in 1985–1994 to 91% in 2005–2008 as the absolute number of adults lacking basic literacy and numeracy skills fell by 22%. However, regional averages mask significant disparities between countries. Less than eight out of ten adults in Guatemala and Nicaragua are literate, while eight countries in the region have achieved universal adult literacy. With nearly 14 million illiterate adults in 2007, Brazil accounted for 39% of the region's adult illiterate population.

Several countries are unlikely to achieve the literacy goal. Projections based on demographic and school participation data suggest that Ecuador and Nicaragua, among other countries, will fall far short of achieving the goal by 2015. The Plurinational State of Bolivia and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, on the other hand, are on track to achieve the goal of halving adult illiteracy levels. The recent experience of the Plurinational State of Bolivia and Colombia show that literacy policy can be effective: both countries have increased their adult literacy rates by over ten percentage points in the past fifteen to twenty years.

Effective and affordable policies and programmes exist. Effective literacy programmes tend to combine strong leadership with clear targets backed by financial commitments, and teach relevant skills using appropriate methods and language of instruction. Since the late 1990s, adult literacy programmes in Latin America and the Caribbean have benefited from renewed political momentum, reflected in the Plan Iberoamericano de Alfabetización y Educación Básica de Personas Jóvenes y Adultas. Launched in 2007, the plan aims to achieve universal literacy by 2015 by providing a three-year course in basic education to 34 million illiterate adults. By 2008, the Yo, sí puedo (Yes, I can) programme, launched by the Cuban government in 2003, was operating in twelve countries in Latin America. It is part of wider strategies for achieving universal adult literacy in the Plurinational State of Bolivia, Ecuador, Nicaragua, Panama and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela. In Mexico, the Modelo Educativo para la Vida y el Trabajo (Educational Model for Life and Work) targets those over 15 who have not completed basic education; about 120,000 people complete the Spanish module every year. The programme receives 1% of the education budget and by 2007 had about 77,000 facilitators.

Goal 5: Gender parity and equality

Latin America and the Caribbean is edging towards gender parity in school enrolment, but gender disparities still exist in many countries in the region.

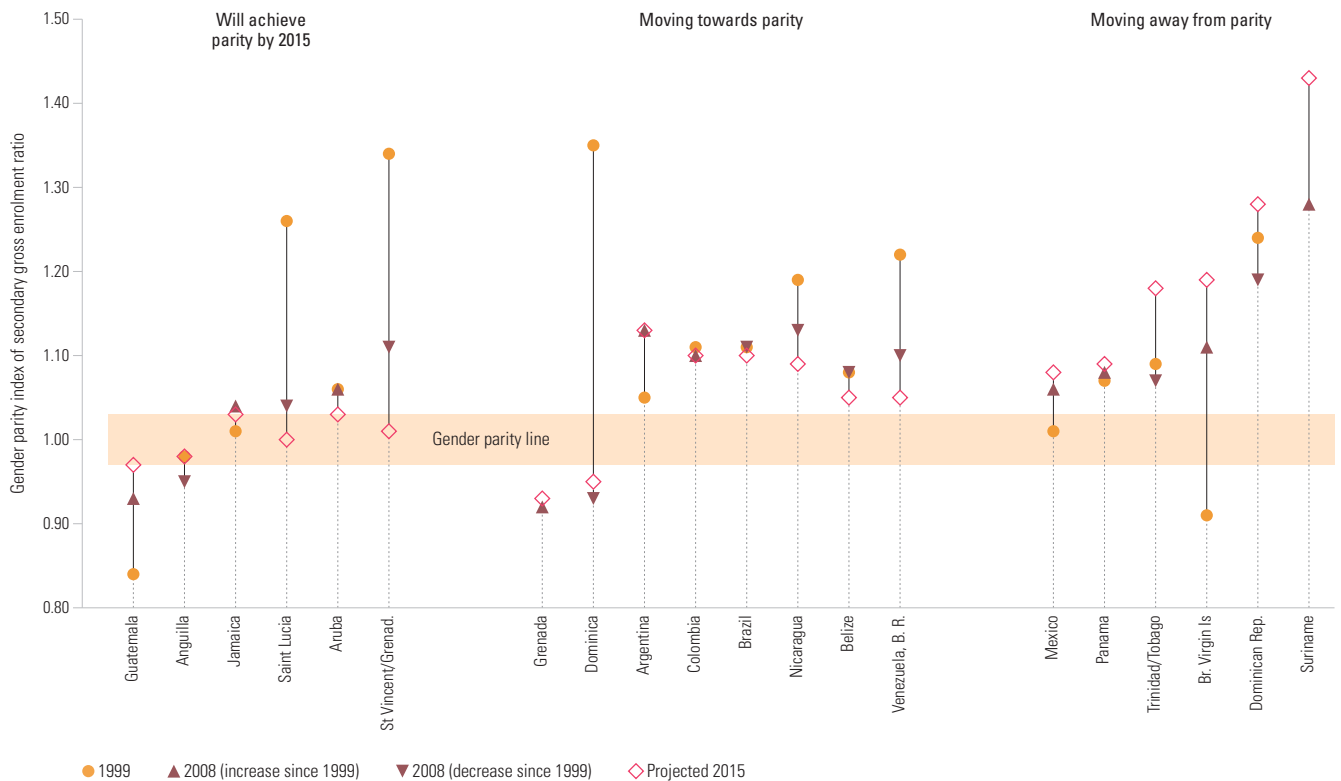
Gender parity in primary education has been achieved in a majority of countries. In 2008, gender parity had been achieved in twenty-two of the thirty-six countries in the region with data. The regional ratio of girls to boys – that is, the gender parity index (GPI) – for the primary GER is 0.97, unchanged since 1999. Of the eleven countries in the region that had enough data for a projection to 2015 and had yet to achieve gender parity in primary education in 2008, only five are moving in the right direction; of those, Grenada and Montserrat are expected to reach the target. Most of the off-track countries – including, most notably, Dominica and the Netherlands Antilles – are moving away from gender parity, at the expense of boys.

Girls have high primary education survival rates. Once girls are in primary school, they tend to progress as well as or even better than boys. In no country with data for 2007 were survival rates to the last grade of primary school significantly lower for girls than for boys. And in about half the countries, girls' survival rates were at least three percentage points higher. In the Dominican Republic, where the gender gap in primary enrolment is still marked with a GPI of 0.93, girls' survival rate to the last grade of primary school was 74%, compared to 64% with boys.

Prospects for gender parity are less promising in secondary education. At secondary school level, existing gender disparities are at the expense of boys and the situation is worsening. Latin America and the Caribbean has moved slightly farther away from gender parity, reporting a regional secondary GPI of 1.08 in 2008, compared with 1.07 in 1999. Gender disparities to the advantage of girls are most marked in Argentina, the Dominican Republic, Honduras, Nicaragua and Suriname, with GPIs between 1.13 and 1.28 in 2008. Eleven countries, out of thirty-six with data, had achieved gender parity at the secondary level. Of the twenty countries still needing to achieve gender parity in secondary education and having the necessary data, projections suggest that only Anguilla, Aruba, Guatemala, Jamaica, Saint Lucia, and Saint Vincent and the Grenadines will do so by 2015 (Figure 3).

Figure 3: Prospects for achieving gender parity in secondary education by 2015 are low for many countries

Gender parity index of secondary gross enrolment ratio, selected countries, 1999, 2008 and projected values for 2015



Notes: Only countries that did not achieve gender parity in 2008 are included. Determination of progress towards gender parity is based on the difference and the direction between observed 2008 and projected 2015 values. For Anguilla and for Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, 1999 data are unavailable so 2000 data are used. Sources: EFA Global Monitoring Report 2011, Annex, Statistical Table 7; UIS database.

Goal 6: The quality of education

Getting children into school is a necessary but insufficient condition for achieving Education for All. What children learn in the classroom is what ultimately counts. Levels of learning achievement are low in many countries in Latin America and the Caribbean, pointing to the major challenge of improving the quality of education.

The number of new teachers is steadily increasing. Progress in education quality depends on having sufficient teachers and ensuring that they are properly trained and supported. In 2008, the region had around 2.9 million primary school teachers, an increase of 8% since 1999. Teacher recruitment and decreases in primary enrolment resulted in a regional pupil/teacher ratio of 23:1 in 2008. The average pupil/teacher ratio in secondary education was 17:1 in 2008, down from 19:1 in 1999.

Learning achievements vary across and within countries. Learning assessments have highlighted large differences in achievements between countries in the region and deep inequalities within them. Regional surveys of mathematics achievement in primary school demonstrate both types of

disparity. In 2006, one-third of grade 3 students in Chile were assessed at level 3 or 4, compared with only 13% in El Salvador.³ In several countries, high levels of inequality go hand in hand with concentrations of low performance. About 10% of third graders in Argentina performed below level 1 on the mathematics performance scale, while a similar proportion performed at level 4, the highest level. Over half of grade 3 students in Cuba performed at level 4 – more than triple the share in Argentina or Chile. Cuba registered by far the largest proportion of students scoring at the highest benchmark and smallest proportion scoring at level 1 or below.

Narrowing learning gaps requires concerted efforts.

To reduce learning disparities, three main messages emerge for education policy-making.

- **Schools matter.** To ensure that learning inequalities do not widen, fairer distribution of teachers and learning materials is vital. One recent study, looking at six Latin American

3. Level 1 students can interpret tables and graphs, recognize the relationship between numbers and geometric shapes, and locate relative positions of an object in space. Level 4 students can identify a numerical sequence rule, solve multiplication problems with one unknown and use the properties of squares and rectangles to solve problems.

countries participating in the 2006 round of the OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), showed that differences in school characteristics were a significant source of wealth and gender inequalities in learning. Similarly, research in the Plurinational State of Bolivia and Chile traced a large proportion of differences in learning achievement between indigenous and non-indigenous students to school characteristics.

- Equal treatment may not be enough. To counteract the disadvantages that marginalized children bring with them into the classroom, additional support is needed. In Chile, the Programa de las 900 Escuelas provide the poorest-performing schools with additional resources to improve learning. The programme has raised grade 4 learning levels and narrowed learning gaps.
- Assessments are vital. National learning assessments are an essential component of efforts to improve quality and design strategies to target children at risk. Many countries in the region use sample-based assessments to understand learning achievements and collect information on student backgrounds and school environment that will inform policy choices.

Financing education

Public spending on education is a vital investment in national prosperity and has a crucial bearing on progress towards the Education for All goals in Latin America and the Caribbean. Several countries in the region have backed up stronger economic growth between 1999 and 2008 with increased commitments to education, but the recent financial crisis has had an impact on government spending on education in some countries. Plans to reduce fiscal deficits among donor and national governments in coming years also threaten future increases in education spending required to achieve the EFA goals in the poorest countries of the region.

National financing

Some governments are investing more in education. Over the last decade, Latin America and the Caribbean as a whole has not registered any radical change in the commitment to education, with the share of national income invested in education at 5.0% in 2008.⁴ Half the countries with data increased their education financing effort over the decade, and in Cuba, and Saint Kitts and Nevis the rise was more than five percentage points. By contrast, Peru saw a decline from 3.4% in 1999 to 2.9% in 2008.

That period was marked by relatively high economic growth. The rate at which growth is converted into increased education spending depends on wider public spending decisions. In nine of the nineteen countries with available data in the region, real growth in education spending was higher than economic growth. However, some countries converted a smaller share of the growth premium into education financing. In Paraguay, real spending on education decreased by 0.8% annually while the economy grew, on average, by 2.5% a year between 1999 and 2008.

The commitment to education varies considerably. Just above 40% of countries in the region with data spent more than 5.0% of GNP on education in 2008. But there were large variations across countries, with percentages ranging from 1.2% in Bermuda to 13.8% in Cuba. Countries with similar per capita income allocate highly variable shares of national income to education. For example, Uruguay invests 2.9% of national income in education, compared with Mexico's 4.9%.

Fiscal pressure is a concern for education financing in some countries. Although the impact of the recession and higher food prices on education financing varies, some poor countries have been badly damaged. A recent survey of actual 2009 and planned 2010 spending in twenty-eight low and lower middle income countries shows some clear warning signs for a deepening crisis in education financing. However, Guyana and Nicaragua, the only Latin American and Caribbean countries included in the survey, increased their education spending in 2009 – Guyana by 9% and Nicaragua by 11%, although budget allocations for 2010 in Nicaragua were lower than for 2009.

International aid financing

The level of aid to education has increased. National policies and financing have been the main source of progress towards the EFA goals. Yet international aid has a key supplementary role, particularly among the poorest countries. Averaged over 2007 and 2008, international aid for education to the region amounted to US\$832 million, a 48% increase from 2002–2003. In 2007–2008, the largest recipients of aid to education in the region were Brazil (US\$85 million), the Plurinational State of Bolivia (US\$72 million) and Nicaragua (US\$71 million).

Aid to basic education continues to expand. Aid disbursements for basic education in Latin America and the Caribbean increased from an average of US\$213 million in 2002–2003 to US\$326 million in 2007–2008. This translates into US\$6 per primary school age child in 2007–2008, up from US\$4 in 2002–2003. Just below 40% of all aid to education in the region was allocated to basic education in 2007–2008.

Levels of aid vary widely among countries. Aid allocations for basic education to countries in the region varied considerably, ranging from US\$2 or less per primary school age child in middle income countries such as Argentina, Brazil and Mexico to US\$120 or more in several small Caribbean countries.

4. All global and regional values are medians. Only countries that have data for 1999 and 2008 (or closest available year) are used to calculate regional group medians, which therefore differ from median figures reported in the annex table.

The hidden crisis – armed conflict and education

The impact of armed conflict on education has been widely neglected. This hidden crisis is reinforcing poverty, undermining economic growth and holding back the progress of nations. The 2011 *EFA Global Monitoring Report* documents the scale of the crisis, traces its underlying causes and sets out an agenda for change.

Armed conflict is a major barrier to the Education for All goals

Poor countries affected by conflict are heavily concentrated among the states farthest from reaching the EFA All goals. Violent conflict also exacerbates disparities within countries linked to wealth and gender. And conflict-affected areas often lag far behind the rest of a country.

Guatemala provides a stark example of the impact of conflict on inequality in education. From the beginning of the war in 1965 to the start of peace talks in 1991, indigenous people in areas not affected by conflict gained 3.1 years in education, albeit from a very low base; at the end of the civil war they averaged around the same years in school as non-indigenous people had in the mid-1960s. For indigenous people in conflict-affected areas, however, the civil war marked the start of a decade of stagnation followed by a decade of interrupted progress (1979–1988) and a far slower rate of catch-up. The education gap between indigenous people in conflict-affected areas and the rest of the indigenous population increased from 0.4 years to 1.7 years over the conflict period.

Children, civilians and schools are on the front line

Today's armed conflicts are fought overwhelmingly within countries, rather than across borders, and many involve protracted violence. Although the intensity, scale and geographic extent of the violence vary, protracted armed conflicts are common. Colombia's armed conflict is one of the world's longest running, at forty-five years.

Most fatalities associated with armed conflict occur away from battle zones, and result from disease and malnutrition. Conflict-related sickness and hunger have had debilitating consequences for education.

Indiscriminate use of force and the deliberate targeting of civilians are hallmarks of violent conflict in the early twenty-first century, with direct and indirect effects on education:

- Children and schools are on the front line of armed conflicts, with classrooms, teachers and pupils seen as legitimate targets.

- Physical injury, psychological trauma and stigmatization faced by children are sources of profound and lasting disadvantage in education.
- The use of child soldiers is reported in twenty-four countries in the world. The recruitment of child soldiers from schools is common. In Colombia, armed groups routinely recruit children as soldiers and as workers in the illegal narcotics trade, and schools are often the sites of this forced recruitment. One study found that the average age of recruitment was just under 13. Fear of forced recruitment has been identified as a major cause of displacement in at least five departments.
- Rape and other sexual violence are widely used as a war tactic around the world. Insecurity and fear associated with sexual violence keep young girls, in particular, out of school. Many countries that have emerged from violent conflict, including Guatemala, continue to report elevated levels of rape and sexual violence, suggesting that practices that emerge during violent conflict become socially ingrained in gender relations.

For marginalized and vulnerable households, armed conflict can block the path to more secure and prosperous livelihoods. One symptom is an increase in child labour. Armed conflict also undermines economic growth, reinforces poverty and diverts national resources from productive investment in classrooms into unproductive military spending – a point made by former President Oscar Arias Sánchez of Costa Rica (see special contribution). Many of the poorest countries spend significantly more on arms than on basic education.

Diversion of national resources to the military and loss of government revenue mean that armed conflict shifts responsibility for education financing from governments to households. National governments and aid donors should urgently review the potential for converting unproductive spending on weapons into productive investment in schools, books and children.

Displaced populations are among the least visible

Displacement exposes people to the risk of extreme disadvantage in education. The world's second largest population of internally displaced people (IDPs) is in Colombia: more than 3 million people out of a population of 42 million. Over half of the displaced are under 18. Just 51% of IDP youth attend secondary school in Colombia, compared with 63% of non-IDP youth. The proportion of displaced youth still in primary school at ages 12 to 15 is nearly twice the share for the non-displaced, pointing to delayed entry and more repetition and dropout. Afro-Colombians and indigenous people are disproportionately affected by displacement, a fact that magnifies national education disparities.

Special contribution: Swords into ploughshares – bombs into books

When I was President of Costa Rica I was often asked whether the absence of a military budget might undermine our people's security. It struck me then as a curious question – and it still does. The insecurity, destruction, and vast waste of human potential that come with high levels of spending on armaments make their own case for converting swords into ploughshares. Nowhere is that case more evident than in education.

Consider first the basic financial arithmetic for universal primary education. Getting all of the world's children into school would require another US\$16 billion in aid annually. That figure represents but a fraction of the military spending by the OECD countries.

I am convinced that the increased hope, economic growth and shared prosperity that would come with universal education would act as a much more powerful force for peace and stability than the weapons that would be purchased with those funds.

Of course, it's not only rich countries that have to reassess their priorities. Many of the world's poorest countries are spending as much – or more – on armaments as they spend on basic education. I struggle to name a less productive use of public finance. An investment today in the education of a child is a source of economic growth, improved public health, and greater

social mobility in the future. By contrast, an investment in imported military hardware is a source of regional friction and lost opportunity.

Every government has to make an assessment of national security challenges. But political leaders also need to remember that poverty is a formidable source of national insecurity – and that war, military budgets and the arms trade are causes of poverty. That is why my Foundation for Peace and Progress will continue to argue for more stringent controls over the export of weapons. And it's why I endorse UNESCO's call for governments around the world to invest less in bombs and bullets, and more in books, teachers, and schools.

Ethics and economics dictate that we act now. The billions of dollars that each year are spent on arms and other military expenditure are depriving the poorest people of the world of the possibility of satisfying their basic needs and their fundamental human rights. The real question is not whether we can afford universal primary education. It's whether we can afford to continue with misplaced priorities and to delay converting bombs into books.

Oscar Arias Sánchez
Nobel Peace Prize Laureate 1987

Many refugees live in urban settings. Countries often do not allow these refugees access to public education and basic services. More generally, restrictions on refugees' employment reinforce poverty, which in turn dampens prospects for education.

The reverse cycle – education's influence on violent conflict

Education is seldom a primary cause of conflict. Yet it is often an underlying element in the political dynamic pushing countries towards violence. Intra-state armed conflict is often associated with grievances and perceived injustices linked to identity, faith, ethnicity and region. Education can make a difference in all these areas, tipping the balance in favour of peace – or conflict.

Limited or poor quality provision leads to unemployment and poverty. When large numbers of young people are denied access to decent quality basic education, the resulting poverty, unemployment and sense of hopelessness can act as forceful recruiting agents for armed militia. The Sendero Luminoso (Shining Path) rebels in Peru exploited high levels of poverty and unemployment to recruit indigenous youth with low levels of education.

A 'youth bulge' adds to the urgency of building a bridge from education to employment. And unemployed educated youth also figure prominently in some armed conflicts.

Unequal access generates grievances and a sense of injustice. Inequalities in education, interacting with wider disparities, heighten the risk of conflict.

Inappropriate use of school systems reinforces prejudice and intolerance. In several armed conflicts, education has been actively used to reinforce political domination, the subordination of marginalized groups, and ethnic and linguistic segregation. Guatemala's imposition of Spanish in schools was seen by indigenous people as part of a broader pattern of social discrimination.

Violence in schools can become part of a cycle of conflict. In Colombia, children and adolescents living in municipalities and neighbourhoods with high levels of violent conflict and homicides demonstrate higher levels of aggression and school-based bullying. Surveys in Bogotá schools in 2006 and 2007 suggested that this had negative effects on interpersonal relationships, with rivalry and violence common and with power disputes and competition for popularity associated with the possession of money, drugs and weapons. Recognizing that schools can help create a culture of peace, the Colombian government has introduced initiatives to address school-based violence, with some positive effects.

Aid to conflict-affected countries

Aid can break the vicious circle of warfare and low human development in which many countries are trapped, and support a transition to lasting peace. Several problems, however, have weakened the effectiveness of the international aid effort.

The skewing of aid towards a small group of countries identified as national security priorities has led to the relative neglect of many of the world's poorest countries. Aid volatility is another concern.

The blurring of lines between development assistance and wider foreign policy or strategic goals has prompted concerns that development goals – including in education – have been subordinated to wider strategies such as winning over the ‘hearts and minds’ of local populations. The growing profile of the military in delivering aid has fuelled these concerns.

Responding to failures of protection

Over the past fifteen years, the United Nations has established a monitoring and reporting mechanism (MRM) that identifies grave human rights violations against children in six key areas. Colombia is one of the countries that voluntarily provide extensive documentation to the United Nations reporting system.

Several UN Security Council resolutions have been passed aimed at strengthening protection against rape and other sexual violence in conflict-affected countries. Yet human rights provisions and Security Council resolutions offer limited protection where they are most needed, in the lives of the children and civilians on the front line. Weak coordination among UN agencies and under-resourcing contribute to the problem. Within the MRM system, reporting of attacks against schools is limited, with many incidents going unreported. Problems of under-reporting are even more evident in the area of rape and other sexual violence. There is evidence that monitoring and the identification of groups and individuals can play a role in protecting children. The application of hard law has also made a difference.

Working through the UN system, governments should strengthen the systems that monitor human rights violations affecting education, support national plans aimed at stopping those violations, and impose sanctions on egregious and repeat offenders. An International Commission on Rape and Sexual Violence should be created, with the International Criminal Court directly involved in assessing the case for prosecution of state and non-state actors. UNESCO should take the lead in monitoring and reporting on attacks on education systems.

Failures of provision – fixing the humanitarian aid system

Humanitarian aid is intended to save lives, meet basic needs and restore human dignity. Humanitarian aid to education, however, is underfinanced, unpredictable and governed by short-termism, partly because many humanitarian workers do not view education as ‘life-saving’. The result is that communities struggling against the odds to maintain opportunities for education are getting little support.

Shortfalls in funding requests for education are just part of the problem. The requests themselves appear to be disconnected from any credible assessment of need or demand on the part of affected populations. The vagaries of annual budgeting compound the problems of education financing during emergencies. This is especially true in situations of long-term displacement.

One reason that education has limited visibility in humanitarian aid for conflict-affected countries is that donors sometimes question the possibility of maintaining provision. Yet international agencies can play an important role in keeping education going even in some of the most insecure environments.

When lack of security prevents non-government organizations and United Nations agencies from having a presence in a country, there are alternatives, such as distance education. UN peacekeeping forces can also help promote a more secure environment for children to attend school.

Forced displacement is a direct threat to education. Refugees have well-defined legal entitlements to basic education. In practice, though, those entitlements are often difficult to claim. IDPs have fewer rights to formal protection than refugees. No UN agency is directly mandated to advance their interests. The level of protection and strength of legal entitlements enjoyed by IDPs ultimately depend on national laws and their implementation. In Colombia, most IDPs resettle in informal urban settlements with poor access to education, health care, nutrition and water. Following a ruling by the Constitutional Court in 2004, successive governments have been required to address the problems facing displaced people in education and other areas. Policies aimed at overcoming disparities between IDPs and the general population have been enshrined in legislation, with some impressive results. Ministry of Education data show a steady increase in the proportion of IDPs aged 5 to 17 attending school, from 48% in 2007 to 86% in 2010. While problems remain, the Colombian case demonstrates that legal provision can play a role in extending opportunity and empowering IDPs.

There is an urgent need to strengthen current systems for assessing the education needs of conflict-affected communities. Governance arrangements for refugees and IDPs should be reformed to facilitate improved access to

education. Approaches such as that taken in Colombia's 1997 Law on Internal Displacement and the subsequent actions by the Constitutional Court should be considered for early adoption by all countries with significant IDP populations.

Reconstructing education – seizing the peace premium

Post-conflict reconstruction in education poses immense challenges. Yet success in education can help build government legitimacy and set societies on course for a more peaceful future.

People whose lives have been shattered by armed conflict emerge from the violence with hope and ambition for a better future. A range of education strategies can be identified that can deliver early results.

- *Withdraw user fees:* Many post-conflict countries have abolished primary school fees, generating significant benefits.
- *Build on community initiatives:* In many conflict-affected countries, communities have stepped into the vacuum created by the failure of governments to maintain education. Supporting community efforts can deliver quick results for education and demonstrate that government is starting to work. During the civil war in El Salvador, at least 500 community-run schools operated in conflict-affected areas in the 1980s. When the country emerged from war, the new Ministry of Education launched Education with Community Participation (EDUCO), a programme that gave these schools official recognition and financial support. Within two years, enrolment in rural areas had increased from 76% to 83% and community schools had been integrated into a highly decentralized governance structure.
- *Rehabilitate schools and classrooms:* In some post-conflict environments, children are kept out of school because buildings are damaged or dilapidated. Early investment in rehabilitation can help remove this bottleneck and deliver early benefits, especially when donors support the efforts of national governments and local communities.
- *Recognize returnees' educational attainment:* Many displaced children learn a different curriculum, often in another language. Establishing systems for the certification of education obtained in other countries can ensure that the qualifications of returning refugees are recognized. Another approach is to develop cross-border examinations.
- *Provide accelerated learning programmes:* Peace offers children who have missed out on schooling a chance to make up for lost time. Accelerated programmes can help them build the basic literacy and numeracy skills they need to return to primary school or make the transition to secondary school.
- *Strengthen education and skills training in disarmament, demobilization and reintegration (DDR) programmes:* Ex-combatants, including children and young people, often lack basic literacy and other skills, and so may face limited prospects for employment and are at risk of re-recruitment. Skills training within DDR programmes can make a difference.
- *Provide psychosocial support:* Many children and young people caught up in armed conflict will have been traumatized as a result of experiencing or witnessing acts of violence, and are at increased risk of mental health problems. Reintegration programmes for ex-combatants, including child soldiers, sometimes include psychosocial support along with skills training. There are strong grounds for extending the provision of such programmes beyond ex-combatants to other vulnerable young people.
- *Recruit teachers:* After conflict, the supply of teachers – especially trained teachers – is unlikely to keep pace with the demand. Teacher recruitment, training and deployment require long-term planning. But governments and donors can develop transitional strategies.

Some post-conflict states are among the strongest-performing countries in terms of progress towards goals such as UPE, and progress in education has in turn helped underpin wider post-conflict reconstruction. Countries that have made the transition from conflict into longer-term recovery have forged partnerships with donors aimed at developing and implementing inclusive education sector strategies that set clear targets, backed by secure financing commitments. Some of the successful ingredients of this transition are:

- *Strengthened national planning:* As countries move along the planning continuum, the challenge is to develop policy instruments that link goals to the provision of inputs, the development of institutions and national financing strategies. In Guatemala, post-accord education reforms set out detailed strategies for strengthening decentralized school management through expansion of the National Self-Management Programme for Educational Development (PRONADE), and for extending intercultural and bilingual education. The expanded PRONADE had reached 465,000 children by 2008, most of them in poor areas with majority indigenous populations. However, the schools suffered from underfinancing and high teacher turnover. One reason for the funding shortfall was the failure of successive governments to increase revenue and make public spending more progressive.
- *Development of information systems:* Educational management information systems (EMIS) give governments a tool to track resource allocation, identify areas of need and oversee teacher remuneration (the single biggest item in the education budget).

- *Financial commitments:* Strong post-conflict performers have invariably increased public spending on education, albeit often from a low base. Strengthening the national revenue collection effort can provide a powerful impetus for increased education spending.
- *Inclusive education:* Strongly performing post-conflict countries have attached considerable weight to developing more inclusive education systems that target groups and regions badly affected by conflict.

Predictable and sustained donor support is crucial to facilitating the transition from peace to reconstruction in education. Aid effectiveness in this area has been severely compromised by a divide between humanitarian aid and development assistance.

Given that donor perception of risk is one of the barriers reinforcing the humanitarian-development divide, an obvious response is to share risk. Pooling resources and working cooperatively enables donors to spread risk and secure wider efficiency gains in areas such as fiduciary risk management, start-up costs and coordination. National pooled funds demonstrate the potential benefits of cooperation.

Global pooled funding could also play a far greater role in conflict-affected states. Ongoing reforms to the EFA Fast Track Initiative (FTI) are addressing long-standing concerns in areas such as disbursement and governance. Several conflict-affected countries are developing national plans and may seek FTI funding. If the FTI reforms were carried through and deepened, the FTI could become the fulcrum of a multilateral financing system capable of addressing the pressing needs of conflict-affected states.

Making education a force for peace

Conflict-sensitive planning in education is about recognizing that any policy decision will have consequences for peacebuilding – and for the prospect of averting a return to violence. There are many channels through which education can influence prospects for peace, including:

- *Language of instruction:* In some contexts the use of a single national language as the medium of instruction in schools has helped foster a sense of shared identity. In others it has helped fuel violence. In Guatemala, armed groups representing indigenous people included the demand for bilingual and intercultural education in their conditions for a political settlement. Under the 1996 peace accords, goals were set for education reform, including the strengthening of intercultural and bilingual education. The Commission for Education Reform was established in 1997, bringing education to the centre of the post-conflict dialogue on peacebuilding. While implementation has often

been weak, and old inequalities have proved hard to break down, the institutional arrangements have made it possible to transform a source of violent conflict into a subject for dialogue.

- *The curriculum:* Curriculum development and teacher training have been priorities for several education ministries in recent post-conflict settings. The teaching of subjects such as history and religion can play a role in reorienting conflict-affected societies in a peaceful direction. Dealing with issues of ethnic and religious identity confronts education reformers with tough choices and takes time. Yet experience demonstrates how education can gradually erode deeply entrenched divisions by getting students to reflect on their multiple identities and on what unites rather than divides them. Some evidence supports the case for well-designed peace education interventions.
- *Devolution of education governance:* Decentralization and devolution are often seen as an automatic route to greater accountability, as well as to peacebuilding. That assessment is overstated. In some countries, devolution of authority to local government and schools can strengthen the voice of local communities. This appears to have happened to varying degrees in post-conflict El Salvador, Guatemala and Nicaragua. Devolution worked where community-based systems were well developed and accompanied by support for capacity-building. But in situations where community structures were weaker, school management became highly politicized.
- *Making schools non-violent environments.* This strategy is unequivocally good for education, for children and for peacebuilding. Some countries in Latin America, including Brazil, Colombia and Peru, have established explicit national policies, laws and initiatives intended to confront school-based violence more broadly by promoting peacebuilding values. Colombia's National Programme of Citizenship Competencies aims to equip teachers, students and education managers with skills and attitudes that might reduce violence. The Classrooms in Peace initiative, part of the programme, combines a classroom curriculum reaching all grade 2 to grade 5 students with targeted workshops and home visits for those with the highest aggression scores in teacher or peer surveys. Initial evaluations point to impressive results, including a sharp reduction in aggressive and anti-social behaviour.

Unlocking the potential for education to act as a force for peace requires new approaches to post-conflict policy reforms. Education needs to be more prominent in the United Nations Peacebuilding Commission, an intergovernmental advisory committee, and the associated Peacebuilding Fund. And UNESCO and UNICEF should play a more central role in integrating education into wider peacebuilding strategies. ■

Glossary

Early childhood care and education (ECCE).

Programmes that, in addition to providing children with care, offer a structured and purposeful set of learning activities either in a formal institution (pre-primary or ISCED 0) or as part of a non-formal child development programme. ECCE programmes are usually designed for children from age 3 and include organized learning activities that constitute, on average, the equivalent of at least 2 hours per day and 100 days per year.

EFA Development Index (EDI).

Composite index aimed at measuring overall progress towards EFA. At present, the EDI incorporates four of the six EFA goals, each proxied by one indicator: universal primary education, adult literacy, gender parity and equality and education quality. The index value is the arithmetic mean of the four indicators. It ranges from 0 to 1.

Gender parity index (GPI).

Ratio of female to male values (or male to female, in certain cases) of a given indicator. A GPI of 1 indicates parity between sexes; a GPI above or below 1 indicates a disparity in favour of one sex over the other.

Gross enrolment ratio (GER).

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. The GER can exceed 100% because of early or late entry and/or grade repetition.

Gross national product (GNP).

The value of all final goods and services produced in a country in one year (gross domestic product) plus income that residents have received from abroad, minus income claimed by non-residents. Gross national income is the more recent denomination of the same term.

Net enrolment ratio (NER).

Enrolment of the official age group for a given level of education, expressed as a percentage of the population in that age group.

Net intake rate (NIR).

New entrants to the first grade of primary education who are of the official primary school entrance age, expressed as a percentage of the population of that age.

Purchasing power parity (PPP).

An exchange rate adjustment that accounts for price differences between countries, allowing international comparisons of real output and income.

Survival rate by grade.

Percentage of a cohort of students who are enrolled in the first grade of an education cycle in a given school year and are expected to reach a specified grade, regardless of repetition.

Table 1: Latin America and the Caribbean, selected education indicators

| Country or territory | Total population (000) | GNP per capita PPP (US\$) | Compulsory education Age group | EFA Development Index (EDI) | Adult literacy | | | |
|----------------------------------|------------------------|------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------------|------------------------|-----------|-----------|
| | | | | | Adult literacy rate (15 and over) | | | |
| | | | | | Total (%) | GPI (F/M) | Total (%) | GPI (F/M) |
| 2008 | 2008 | 2008 | 2008 | 1985–1994 ¹ | | 2005–2008 ¹ | | |
| The Caribbean | | | | | | | | |
| Anguilla | 15 | ... | 5-17 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| Antigua and Barbuda | 87 | 20 570 | 5-16 | 0.949 | ... | ... | 99 | 1.01 |
| Aruba | 105 | ... | 6-16 | 0.955 | ... | ... | 98 | 1.00 |
| Bahamas | 338 | ... | 5-16 | 0.955 | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| Barbados | 255 | ... | 5-16 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| Belize | 301 | 6 040 | 5-14 | 0.916 | 70 | 1.00 | ... | ... |
| Bermuda | 65 | ... | 5-16 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| British Virgin Islands | 23 | ... | 5-16 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| Cayman Islands | 56 | ... | 5-16 | ... | ... | ... | 99 | 1.00 |
| Dominica | 67 | 8 300 | 5-16 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| Grenada | 104 | 8 060 | 5-16 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| Guyana | 763 | 2 510 | 6-15 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| Haiti | 9 876 | 1 180 | 6-11 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| Jamaica | 2 708 | 7 360 | 6-12 | ... | ... | ... | 86 | 1.13 |
| Montserrat | 6 | ... | 5-16 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| Netherlands Antilles | 195 | ... | 6-15 | ... | 95 | 1.00 | 96 | 1.00 |
| Saint Kitts and Nevis | 51 | 15 170 | 5-16 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| Saint Lucia | 170 | 9 190 | 5-15 | 0.945 | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| St Vincent/Grenadines | 109 | 8 770 | 5-15 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| Suriname | 515 | 7 130 | 7-12 | 0.876 | ... | ... | 91 | 0.95 |
| Trinidad and Tobago | 1 333 | 23 950 | 6-12 | 0.972 | 97 | 0.98 | 99 | 0.99 |
| Turks and Caicos Islands | 33 | ... | 4-16 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| Latin America | | | | | | | | |
| Argentina | 39 883 | 14 020 | 5-15 | 0.972 | 96 | 1.00 | 98 | 1.00 |
| Bolivia, P. S. | 9 694 | 4 140 | 6-13 | 0.911 | 80 | 0.82 | 91 | 0.90 |
| Brazil | 191 972 | 10 070 | 7-14 | 0.887 | ... | ... | 90 | 1.01 |
| Chile | 16 804 | 13 270 | 6-11 | 0.968 | 94 | 0.99 | 99 | 1.00 |
| Colombia | 45 012 | 8 510 | 5-15 | 0.929 | 81 | 1.00 | 93 | 1.00 |
| Costa Rica | 4 519 | 10 950 | 6-15 | ... | ... | ... | 96 | 1.01 |
| Cuba | 11 205 | ... | 6-14 | 0.986 | ... | ... | 100 | 1.00 |
| Dominican Republic | 9 953 | 7 890 | 5-14 | 0.840 | ... | ... | 88 | 1.00 |
| Ecuador | 13 481 | 7 760 | 5-14 | 0.911 | 88 | 0.95 | 84 | 0.94 |
| El Salvador | 6 134 | 6 670 | 7-15 | 0.889 | 74 | 0.92 | 84 | 0.93 |
| Guatemala | 13 686 | 4 690 | 6-15 | 0.830 | 64 | 0.80 | 74 | 0.86 |
| Honduras | 7 319 | 3 870 | 6-13 | 0.878 | ... | ... | 84 | 1.00 |
| Mexico | 108 555 | 14 270 | 6-15 | 0.957 | 88 | 0.94 | 93 | 0.97 |
| Nicaragua | 5 667 | 2 620 | 6-11 | 0.795 | ... | ... | 78 | 1.00 |
| Panama | 3 399 | 11 650 | 6-14 | 0.939 | 89 | 0.99 | 94 | 0.99 |
| Paraguay | 6 238 | 4 820 | 6-14 | 0.914 | 90 | 0.96 | 95 | 0.98 |
| Peru | 28 837 | 7 980 | 6-18 | 0.925 | 87 | 0.88 | 90 | 0.89 |
| Uruguay | 3 349 | 12 540 | 6-15 | 0.972 | 95 | 1.01 | 98 | 1.01 |
| Venezuela, B. R. | 28 121 | 12 830 | 5-14 | 0.919 | 90 | 0.98 | 95 | 1.00 |
| | Sum | Median | | | Weighted average | | | |
| Latin America/Caribbean | 571 002 | 8 180 | ... | ... | 84 | 0.96 | 91 | 0.98 |
| Caribbean | 17 174 | 8 180 | ... | ... | 63 | 0.92 | 71 | 0.95 |
| Latin America | 553 828 | 8 245 | ... | ... | 85 | 0.97 | 92 | 0.98 |
| Developed countries ⁵ | 993 639 | 28 470 | ... | ... | 99 | 0.99 | 99 | 1.00 |
| Developing countries | 5 430 213 | 3 940 | ... | ... | 67 | 0.76 | 79 | 0.86 |
| World | 6 735 143 | 6 290 | ... | ... | 76 | 0.84 | 83 | 0.90 |

| Adult literacy | | | | Early childhood care and education | | | | Country or territory |
|---------------------------------|------------|------------------------|------------|------------------------------------|----------------------------------|-------------------------|------------|----------------------------------|
| Adult illiterates (15 and over) | | | | Child survival and well-being | | Pre-primary education | | |
| Total (000) | % Female | Total (000) | % Female | Under-5 mortality rate (%) | Moderate severe and stunting (%) | GER | | |
| 1985–1994 ¹ | | 2005–2008 ¹ | | 2005–2010 | 2003–2008 ¹ | 1999 | 2008 | |
| The Caribbean | | | | | | | | |
| ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 95 | Anguilla |
| ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 72 | Antigua and Barbuda |
| ... | ... | 2 | 55 | 18 | ... | 97 | 104 | Aruba |
| ... | ... | ... | ... | 13 | ... | 12 | ... | Bahamas |
| ... | ... | ... | ... | 11 | ... | ... | ... | Barbados |
| 33 | 50 | ... | ... | 21 | 22 | 26 | 40 | Belize |
| ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | Bermuda |
| ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 62 | 93 | British Virgin Islands |
| ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 103 | Cayman Islands |
| ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 80 | 77 | Dominica |
| ... | ... | ... | ... | 15 | ... | 84 | 103 | Grenada |
| ... | ... | ... | ... | 56 | 17 | 121 | 85 | Guyana |
| ... | ... | ... | ... | 85 | 30 | ... | ... | Haiti |
| ... | ... | 268 | 34 | 28 | 4 | 80 | 86 | Jamaica |
| ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 91 | Montserrat |
| 7 | 54 | 6 | 55 | 14 | ... | 111 | ... | Netherlands Antilles |
| ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | Saint Kitts and Nevis |
| ... | ... | ... | ... | 16 | ... | 65 | 68 | Saint Lucia |
| ... | ... | ... | ... | 28 | ... | ... | ... | St Vincent/Grenadines |
| ... | ... | 34 | 63 | 31 | 11 | ... | 81 | Suriname |
| 26 | 70 | 14 | 68 | 33 | 4 | 58 | 82 | Trinidad and Tobago |
| ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | Turks and Caicos Islands |
| Latin America | | | | | | | | |
| 892 | 53 | 699 | 51 | 16 | 8 | 57 | 69 | Argentina |
| 826 | 71 | 542 | 79 | 61 | 22 | 45 | 49 | Bolivia, P. S. |
| ... | ... | 13 915 | 50 | 29 | 7 | 58 | 65 | Brazil |
| 548 | 54 | 174 | 49 | 9 | 1 | 77 | 56 | Chile |
| 4 221 | 52 | 2 100 | 51 | 26 | 15 | 39 | 49 | Colombia |
| ... | ... | 135 | 46 | 11 | 6 | 84 | 69 | Costa Rica |
| ... | ... | 18 | 50 | 8 | 5 | 109 | 105 | Cuba |
| ... | ... | 782 | 50 | 33 | 10 | 31 | 35 | Dominican Republic |
| 732 | 59 | 1 413 | 59 | 26 | 23 | 64 | 101 | Ecuador |
| 855 | 59 | 660 | 63 | 26 | 19 | 41 | 60 | El Salvador |
| 1 916 | 61 | 2 070 | 63 | 39 | 54 | 46 | 29 | Guatemala |
| ... | ... | 722 | 51 | 39 | 29 | ... | 40 | Honduras |
| 6 363 | 62 | 5 407 | 63 | 20 | 16 | 74 | 114 | Mexico |
| ... | ... | 747 | 51 | 26 | 19 | 28 | 56 | Nicaragua |
| 176 | 52 | 157 | 55 | 24 | 22 | 39 | 69 | Panama |
| 256 | 59 | 216 | 60 | 38 | 18 | 29 | 35 | Paraguay |
| 1 856 | 72 | 2 016 | 75 | 33 | 30 | 56 | 72 | Peru |
| 102 | 46 | 47 | 44 | 16 | 14 | 60 | 81 | Uruguay |
| 1 243 | 54 | 931 | 52 | 22 | 12 | 45 | 69 | Venezuela, B. R. |
| Sum | % F | Sum | % F | Weighted average | Median | Weighted average | | |
| 46 142 | 56 | 36 056 | 56 | 28 | 16 | 56 | 68 | Latin America/Caribbean |
| 3 178 | 55 | 3 305 | 54 | 68 | ... | 53 | 70 | Caribbean |
| 42 963 | 56 | 32 751 | 56 | 26 | 16 | 56 | 68 | Latin America |
| 10 050 | 63 | 8 358 | 59 | 7 | ... | 73 | 79 | Developed countries ⁵ |
| 872 565 | 63 | 786 386 | 64 | 79 | 29 | 27 | 39 | Developing countries |
| 886 508 | 63 | 795 805 | 64 | 71 | 26 | 33 | 44 | World |

Table 1 (continued)

| Country or territory | Primary education | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------------------|-------------------|-----------|-------------------------------------|-------------|------------------|-------------|-----------------------------|-----------|----------------------------------|-----------|
| | NER | | Out-of-school children ² | | GPI of GER | | Survival rate to last grade | | Pupil/teacher ratio ³ | |
| | Total (%) | Total (%) | Total (000) | Total (000) | (F/M) | (F/M) | Total (%) | Total (%) | | |
| | 1999 | 2008 | 1999 | 2008 | 1999 | 2008 | 1999 | 2007 | 1999 | 2008 |
| The Caribbean | | | | | | | | | | |
| Anguilla | ... | 93 | ... | 0.1 | ... | 1.00 | ... | ... | 22 | 14 |
| Antigua and Barbuda | ... | 88 | ... | 1.3 | ... | 0.92 | ... | 97 | ... | 17 |
| Aruba | 99 | 99 | 0.05 | 0.07 | 0.97 | 0.96 | 97 | 86 | 19 | 17 |
| Bahamas | 89 | 91 | 4 | 3 | 0.98 | 1.00 | ... | 91 | 14 | 16 |
| Barbados | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 94 | 94 | 18 | 13 |
| Belize | 89 | 98 | 4 | 0.1 | 0.97 | 0.97 | 77 | 90 | 24 | 23 |
| Bermuda | ... | 92 | ... | 0.3 | ... | 0.85 | ... | 86 | ... | 8 |
| British Virgin Islands | 96 | 93 | 0.04 | 0.08 | 0.97 | 0.96 | ... | ... | 18 | 14 |
| Cayman Islands | ... | 85 | ... | 0.5 | ... | 0.84 | ... | ... | 15 | 12 |
| Dominica | 94 | 72 | 0.4 | 3 | 0.95 | 1.06 | ... | 91 | 20 | 17 |
| Grenada | ... | 93 | ... | 0.2 | ... | 0.95 | ... | ... | ... | 23 |
| Guyana | ... | 95 | ... | 1.5 | 0.98 | 0.99 | 93 | ... | 27 | 26 |
| Haiti | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| Jamaica | 89 | 80 | 34 | 66 | 1.00 | 0.97 | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| Montserrat | ... | 92 | ... | 0.02 | ... | 1.12 | ... | ... | 21 | 16 |
| Netherlands Antilles | ... | ... | ... | ... | 0.95 | ... | 84 | ... | 20 | ... |
| Saint Kitts and Nevis | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 68 | ... | 16 |
| Saint Lucia | 92 | 91 | 1.7 | 1.4 | 0.95 | 0.97 | ... | ... | 22 | 21 |
| St Vincent/Grenadines | ... | 95 | ... | 0.4 | ... | 0.92 | ... | ... | ... | 17 |
| Suriname | ... | 90 | ... | 6 | ... | 0.95 | ... | 68 | ... | 16 |
| Trinidad and Tobago | 89 | 92 | 13 | 6 | 0.99 | 0.97 | ... | 96 | 21 | 17 |
| Turks and Caicos Islands | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 18 | ... |
| Latin America | | | | | | | | | | |
| Argentina | ... | ... | ... | ... | 0.99 | 0.99 | 89 | 95 | 21 | 16 |
| Bolivia, P. S. | 95 | 94 | 52 | 70 | 0.98 | 1.00 | 80 | 80 | 25 | 24 |
| Brazil | 91 | 94 | 1 034 | 682 | 0.94 | 0.93 | ... | ... | 26 | 23 |
| Chile | ... | 94 | ... | 87 | 0.97 | 0.95 | 100 | 95 | 32 | 25 |
| Colombia | 93 | 90 | 192 | 285 | 1.00 | 0.99 | 67 | 88 | 24 | 29 |
| Costa Rica | ... | ... | ... | ... | 0.98 | 0.99 | 88 | 94 | 27 | 19 |
| Cuba | 97 | 99 | 9 | 0.4 | 0.97 | 0.98 | 93 | 96 | 12 | 9 |
| Dominican Republic | 80 | 80 | 231 | 220 | 0.98 | 0.93 | 71 | 69 | ... | 20 |
| Ecuador | 97 | 97 | 17 | 12 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 75 | 81 | 27 | 23 |
| El Salvador | ... | 94 | ... | 38 | 0.97 | 0.97 | 62 | 76 | ... | 33 |
| Guatemala | 82 | 95 | 299 | 78 | 0.87 | 0.94 | 52 | 65 | 38 | 29 |
| Honduras | ... | 97 | ... | 31 | ... | 1.00 | ... | 76 | ... | 33 |
| Mexico | 97 | 98 | 71 | 61 | 0.98 | 0.98 | 87 | 92 | 27 | 28 |
| Nicaragua | 76 | 92 | 164 | 53 | 1.01 | 0.98 | 46 | 48 | 34 | 29 |
| Panama | 96 | 98 | 11 | 5 | 0.97 | 0.97 | 90 | 85 | 26 | 24 |
| Paraguay | 96 | 90 | 28 | 79 | 0.96 | 0.97 | 73 | 79 | ... | ... |
| Peru | 98 | 94 | 3 | 97 | 0.99 | 1.00 | 83 | 83 | ... | 21 |
| Uruguay | ... | 98 | ... | 7 | 0.99 | 0.97 | ... | 94 | 20 | 16 |
| Venezuela, B. R. | 86 | 90 | 424 | 264 | 0.98 | 0.97 | 88 | 81 | ... | 16 |
| | Weighted average | | Sum | | Weighted average | | Median | | Weighted average | |
| Latin America/Caribbean | 92 | 94 | 3 719 | 2 946 | 0.97 | 0.97 | 84 | 86 | 26 | 23 |
| Caribbean | 69 | 64 | 664 | 817 | 0.98 | 1.00 | ... | ... | 30 | 33 |
| Latin America | 93 | 95 | 3 055 | 2 129 | 0.97 | 0.97 | 81 | 82 | 26 | 23 |
| Developed countries ⁵ | 97 | 95 | 1 777 | 2 539 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 98 | 98 | 16 | 14 |
| Developing countries | 80 | 87 | 103 180 | 64 117 | 0.91 | 0.96 | ... | 83 | 27 | 28 |
| World | 82 | 88 | 106 269 | 67 483 | 0.92 | 0.97 | 90 | 93 | 25 | 25 |

| Secondary education | | | | Education finance | | | | | Country or territory |
|-------------------------|-----------|------------|-------------|---|---|---|--|-------------------------|----------------------------------|
| GER | | | | Total public expenditure on education as % of GNP | Total aid disbursements to education ⁴ (Constant 2008 US\$ millions) | Total aid disbursements to basic education ⁴ (Constant 2008 US\$ millions) | Total aid disbursements to basic education per primary school age child (Constant 2008 US\$) | | |
| Total (%) | GPI (F/M) | Total (%) | GPI (F/M) | | | | | | |
| 1999 | | 2008 | | 1999 | 2008 | 2008 | 2008 | | |
| The Caribbean | | | | | | | | | |
| ... | ... | 80 | 0.95 | ... | 3.4 | 0 | 0 | 0 | Anguilla |
| ... | ... | 114 | 0.93 | 3.4 | ... | 2 | 0.005 | 0.5 | Antigua and Barbuda |
| 104 | 1.06 | 95 | 1.06 | ... | 5.2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | Aruba |
| 78 | 1.00 | 93 | 1.03 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | Bahamas |
| ... | ... | ... | ... | 5.3 | 7.0 | 0.6 | 0.2 | 13 | Barbados |
| 63 | 1.08 | 75 | 1.08 | 5.7 | 5.6 | 0.9 | 0.5 | 11 | Belize |
| ... | ... | <i>84</i> | <i>1.06</i> | ... | <i>1.2</i> | ... | ... | ... | Bermuda |
| 99 | 0.91 | 101 | 1.11 | ... | 3.4 | ... | ... | ... | British Virgin Islands |
| ... | ... | 88 | 1.01 | ... | <i>2.9</i> | ... | ... | ... | Cayman Islands |
| 90 | 1.35 | 105 | 0.93 | 5.5 | 5.0 | 2 | 0.7 | 72 | Dominica |
| ... | ... | 108 | 0.92 | ... | ... | 4 | 3 | 229 | Grenada |
| 80 | 1.02 | 102 | 1.01 | 9.3 | 6.3 | 10 | 9 | 87 | Guyana |
| ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 51 | 28 | 19 | Haiti |
| 88 | 1.01 | 91 | 1.04 | ... | 6.6 | 10 | 8 | 23 | Jamaica |
| ... | ... | 102 | 1.02 | ... | ... | 5 | 2 | 4 992 | Montserrat |
| 92 | 1.16 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | Netherlands Antilles |
| ... | ... | ... | ... | 5.6 | <u>10.9</u> | 4 | 2 | 216 | Saint Kitts and Nevis |
| 72 | 1.26 | 93 | 1.04 | 8.8 | 6.8 | 3 | 2 | 101 | Saint Lucia |
| ... | ... | 108 | 1.11 | 7.2 | 7.3 | 4 | 2 | 114 | St Vincent/Grenadines |
| ... | ... | 75 | 1.28 | ... | ... | 6 | 2 | 37 | Suriname |
| 79 | 1.09 | 89 | 1.07 | 3.9 | ... | 0.8 | 0.0001 | 0.001 | Trinidad and Tobago |
| ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 0 | 0 | ... | Turks and Caicos Islands |
| Latin America | | | | | | | | | |
| 85 | 1.05 | 85 | 1.13 | 4.6 | 5.0 | 34 | 11 | 3 | Argentina |
| 78 | 0.93 | 82 | 0.97 | 5.8 | <i>5.8</i> | 82 | 47 | 34 | Bolivia, P. S. |
| 99 | 1.11 | 101 | 1.11 | 4.0 | 5.3 | 94 | 21 | 1 | Brazil |
| 79 | 1.04 | 91 | 1.03 | 4.0 | 3.8 | 31 | 6 | 4 | Chile |
| 73 | 1.11 | 91 | 1.10 | 4.5 | 4.1 | 58 | 15 | 3 | Colombia |
| 57 | 1.09 | 89 | 1.06 | 5.5 | 5.2 | 10 | 4 | 8 | Costa Rica |
| 77 | 1.07 | 90 | 0.99 | 7.7 | 13.8 | 9 | 2 | 2 | Cuba |
| 55 | 1.24 | 75 | 1.19 | ... | 2.3 | 27 | 11 | 9 | Dominican Republic |
| 57 | 1.03 | 76 | 1.01 | 2.0 | ... | 46 | 23 | 14 | Ecuador |
| 55 | 0.94 | 64 | 1.02 | 2.4 | 3.7 | 27 | 11 | 13 | El Salvador |
| 33 | 0.84 | 57 | 0.93 | ... | 3.2 | 47 | 30 | 14 | Guatemala |
| ... | ... | 65 | 1.27 | ... | ... | 58 | 34 | 31 | Honduras |
| 70 | 1.01 | 90 | 1.06 | 4.5 | 4.9 | 56 | 9 | 0.7 | Mexico |
| 52 | 1.19 | 68 | 1.13 | 4.0 | ... | 68 | 40 | 49 | Nicaragua |
| 67 | 1.07 | 71 | 1.08 | 5.1 | 4.1 | 4 | 0.8 | 2 | Panama |
| 58 | 1.04 | 66 | 1.04 | 5.1 | 3.9 | 15 | 9 | 10 | Paraguay |
| 82 | 0.94 | 89 | 0.99 | 3.4 | 2.9 | 57 | 24 | 7 | Peru |
| 92 | 1.17 | 92 | 0.99 | 2.4 | 2.9 | 8 | 2 | 5 | Uruguay |
| 56 | 1.22 | 81 | 1.10 | ... | 3.6 | 14 | 2 | 1 | Venezuela, B. R. |
| Weighted average | | | | Median | | Sum | | Weighted average | |
| 80 | 1.07 | 89 | 1.08 | 4.9 | 4.9 | 870 | 364 | 6 | Latin America/Caribbean |
| 48 | 1.01 | 56 | 1.00 | ... | 5.6 | 102 | 59 | 27 | Caribbean |
| 81 | 1.07 | 90 | 1.08 | 4.5 | 4.0 | 750 | 303 | 5 | Latin America |
| 100 | 1.01 | 101 | 1.00 | 5.0 | 5.2 | 235 | 40 | ... | Developed countries ⁵ |
| 51 | 0.88 | 62 | 0.95 | 4.5 | 4.2 | 9 030 | 3 889 | 7 | Developing countries |
| 59 | 0.91 | 67 | 0.96 | 4.7 | 4.8 | 11 410 | 4 709 | 8 | World |

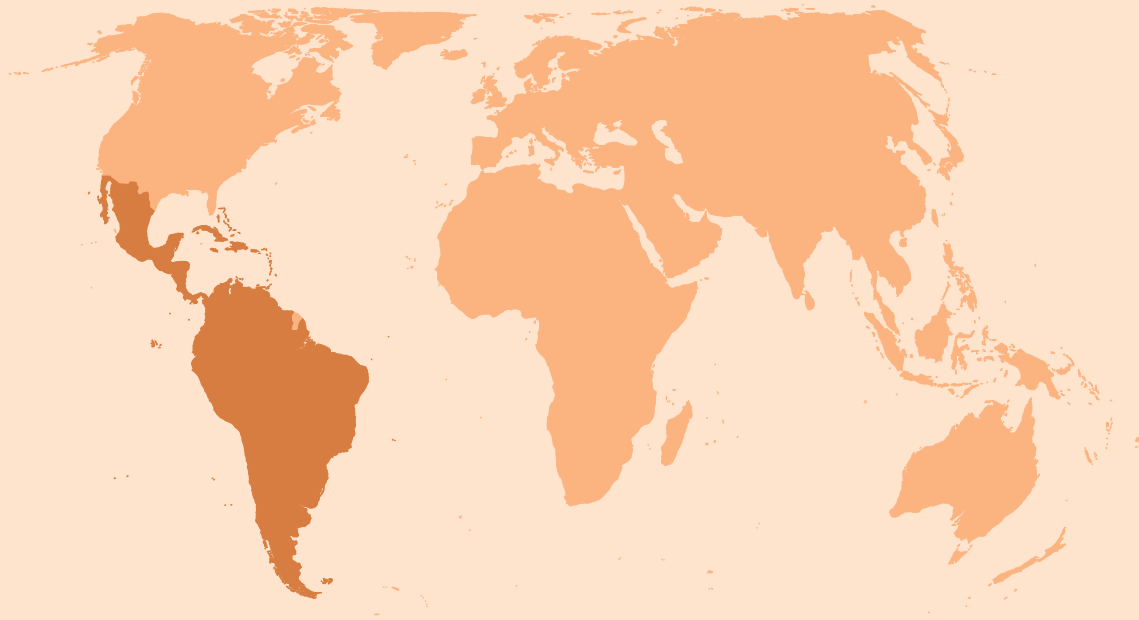
Notes:

- Data underlined are for 2005.
Data in italics are for 2006.
Data in bold italics are for 2007.
Data in bold are for 2009 or 2008 for survival rate to last grade.
- The averages are derived from both published data and broad estimates for countries for which no recent data or reliable publishable data are available.
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 or adjusted net enrolment ratio (ANER) of primary school age children, which measures the proportion of those who are enrolled either in primary or in secondary schools.
 3. Based on headcounts of pupils and teachers.
 4. Values for total aid disbursements to education and to basic education for regional and other country groups do not always sum up to world totals because some aid is not allocated by region or country.
 5. For total aid disbursements, only countries eligible for official development assistance are included.



United Nations
Educational, Scientific and
Cultural Organization

Regional Overview: Latin America and the Caribbean



e-mail: efareport@unesco.org

Tel.: +33 1 45 68 09 52

Fax: +33 1 45 68 56 41

www.efareport.unesco.org