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# Quantity without Quality

A REPORT CARD ON  
EDUCATION IN LATIN AMERICA

A Report  
of the  
PREAL  
Advisory  
Board



Partnership for Educational  
Revitalization in the Americas





2006

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## MISSION

Since 1998, PREAL's Task Force on Education, Equity, and Economic Competitiveness in the Americas has endorsed two critical PREAL reports: *The Future at Stake* (1998) and *Lagging Behind* (2001). The latter—the region's first report card on education—was designed to provide leaders both within and outside the education sector with independent, reliable information on how their schools are doing on aspects of education crucial to improving learning, using the familiar format of student report cards.

The Task Force concluded its work cycle in 2003 and was succeeded by PREAL's Advisory Board. Like the Task Force, the Advisory Board is an independent nongovernmental group composed of distinguished individuals committed to better public education. However, in contrast to the Task Force, the Board also provides advice and insights that help guide PREAL activities, as do PREAL's Central American Task Force and Central American Coordinating Committee.

*Quantity without Quality* is a follow-up to the first two PREAL regional reports. Like its predecessors, this second regional report card takes a new look at the challenges for Latin American education and examines progress in implementing the four policy recommendations made in *The Future at Stake*. The report is divided into three sections. The first two monitor changes in key outcomes and policies. The third looks at two areas that need more attention and offers specific recommendations for improvement.

We continue to believe that regular and sustained monitoring of key education outcomes is crucial to improving education quality and accountability. Parents, students, and employers have a right to know how schools are organized, how much they cost, and what they produce. We recognize that Latin America's diversity makes generalizing about educational progress difficult. Some countries are well ahead of others, and not all face the same challenges. Even at the country level, aggregate measures often mask large internal disparities. Nonetheless, we have been surprised at how often particular problems and progress turn out to be common throughout the region. Inequality, inefficiency, and low levels of learning continue to plague almost every education system. We are confident that the generalizations contained in this document provide a useful approximation of the region as a whole. For more country-specific information, we invite you to see PREAL's national education report cards available at [www.preal.org](http://www.preal.org).

This report reflects the consensus of the members of PREAL's Advisory Board. Not every member agrees fully with every phrase in the text, but each of the signers endorses the report's overall content and tone and supports its principal recommendations. All subscribe as individuals; institutional affiliations are for purposes of identification only.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This report draws on the contributions and knowledge of public officials, experts, and business and educational leaders from throughout the region, as well as on quantitative and qualitative data from research and recent publications. Data are for the most recent year available as of July 2005 and are drawn primarily from international sources, complemented by information from PREAL's national education report cards.

The report reflects the combined efforts of the members of the Advisory Board and PREAL staff at the Corporation for Development Research (CINDE) in Santiago, Chile, and the Inter-American Dialogue in Washington, D.C. Many people contributed to the process. Tamara Ortega Goodspeed, in particular, played a lead role in the report's design, research, analysis, and production. Laurence Wolff prepared an initial and several revised drafts. Marcela Gajardo and Jeffrey Puryear supplied important editorial comment.

We also thank PREAL's national report card partners in Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama, and Peru, and working group coordinators Patricia Arregui (Standards and Evaluation), Margarita Peña (Decentralization and School Autonomy), and Denise Vaillant (Teaching Profession), whose input on the various drafts has been invaluable in making the final document

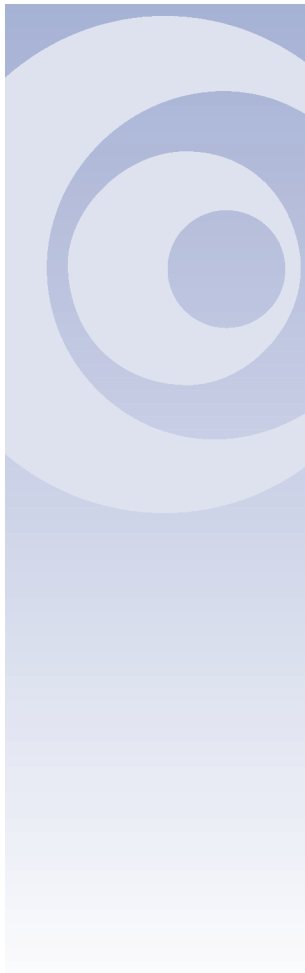
stronger. PREAL staff members Nelson Martinez, Rebeca Sanchez de Tagle, Jill Reifsteck, Chris Chambers-Ju, and Kristin Saucier and intern Janine Kiel also provided key support throughout the draft preparation and publication process. The report card draws on the analysis and data of many institutions, including UNESCO, the World Bank, the Inter-American Development Bank, and the United Nations Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean, whose commitment to providing high-quality information on education is an important asset in promoting better schools.

Many people at other institutions and offices were also instrumental. Maritza Blajtrach Roldán provided translation in Spanish. Nita Congress provided final copyediting for the English version. Karin Shipman and the staff at Studio Grafik helped immensely with design and publication details.

This report would not have been possible without the generous support of the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), the Inter-American Development Bank (IDB), the AVINA Foundation, the Tinker Foundation, the World Bank, the GE Foundation, and others. These institutions have demonstrated a sustained commitment to education reform in Latin America. Their continuous and flexible support for PREAL has been crucial in developing the informational and institutional networks necessary for bringing the project to fruition.



# A REPORT CARD ON LATIN AMERICAN EDUCATION



Latin America is working hard to improve its schools, and is making clear progress in at least a few areas. Most governments have taken important steps over the several years since our last report—increasing investment, establishing and consolidating national testing systems, working toward standards, and delegating authority and responsibility to municipal governments and local communities. As a result, more children are going to school than ever before, and the stock of education in the labor force is gradually rising.

But on key measures of success—quality, equity, and efficiency—levels remain low, and progress is scarce or nonexistent. Low levels of learning, lack of

performance-based systems, weak accountability, and a teaching profession in crisis conspire to deprive the majority of Latin American children of the knowledge and skills needed for success in modern societies. For these reasons, the region’s report card on education remains unsatisfactory.

The table below provides a snapshot of the state of education in the region, using a scale of “A” (excellent) to “F” (very poor). Arrows indicate where progress is being made, where things are getting worse or where things have not changed. The grades, while necessarily subjective, reflect our best assessment of the state and tendency of key education indicators and practices based on the available evidence.

Report Card on Latin American Education			
Subject	Grade	Tendency	Comments
Test Scores	D	↔	Scores on national and international tests remain below acceptable levels and, in general, are not improving.
Enrollments	B	↑	Enrollments are increasing rapidly, especially at preschool and secondary levels, but many children remain out of school.
Staying in School	C	↑	Children are staying in school longer, but completion rates are still inadequate, and repetition is substantially higher than in other regions.
Equity	D	↔	More poor, rural, and indigenous children are in school, but they learn less and leave sooner than those from better-off families.
Standards	D	↑	Although many are working toward them, no country has yet established and fully implemented comprehensive national standards or linked them to teacher education, texts, and tests.
Assessment	C	↑	National achievement tests are increasingly common, but remain precarious. Test results seldom influence policy.
Authority & Accountability at the School Level	C	↑	A number of countries have devolved decision-making to lower levels, but management and oversight are still inadequate.
Strengthening Teaching	D	↔	Efforts to improve teacher quality and accountability so far have not shown measurable changes in classroom processes.
Investment in Primary & Secondary Education	C	↑	Investment is rising, but per pupil spending is insufficient to provide quality education to all students.
Grading Scale:	A	Excellent	↑ Improving
	B	Good	↔ No Observable Change
	C	Average	↓ Declining
	D	Poor	
	F	Very Poor	

# I. QUANTITY WITHOUT QUALITY

*“Education is the most important productive asset most people will ever own.”*

– Michael Walton,  
World Bank

## Students with Low Achievement on the PISA Math Test, 2003

**Note:** Data show students performing at or below level 1 on the combined mathematics scale for selected countries. A full list of scores is available in **Table A.6** in the appendix.

**Source:** Based on data from OECD, 2004, *Learning*, Table 2.5a, p.354.

Latin America has significantly increased public spending on education and has managed to get many more children into school. Over the past decade, the percentage of children entering and completing primary and secondary education has risen faster in Latin America than in any other part of the developing world. This is no small achievement and reflects the commitment of successive governments to extend basic education to as many children as possible.

But the region has made almost no progress in improving learning and in reducing inequality in its schools. Latin America scores at the bottom on every global test of student achievement. Children from poor families routinely score much lower than children from middle- and upper-class families. Despite sincere and impressive efforts to reform, most schools still fail to provide children with the skills and competencies they need for economic and personal success and active citizenship.

Why? Two problems are central:

- Most governments continue to focus principally on inputs rather than outputs, measuring success chiefly in terms of increases in enrollment and spending rather than in terms of how much children learn.

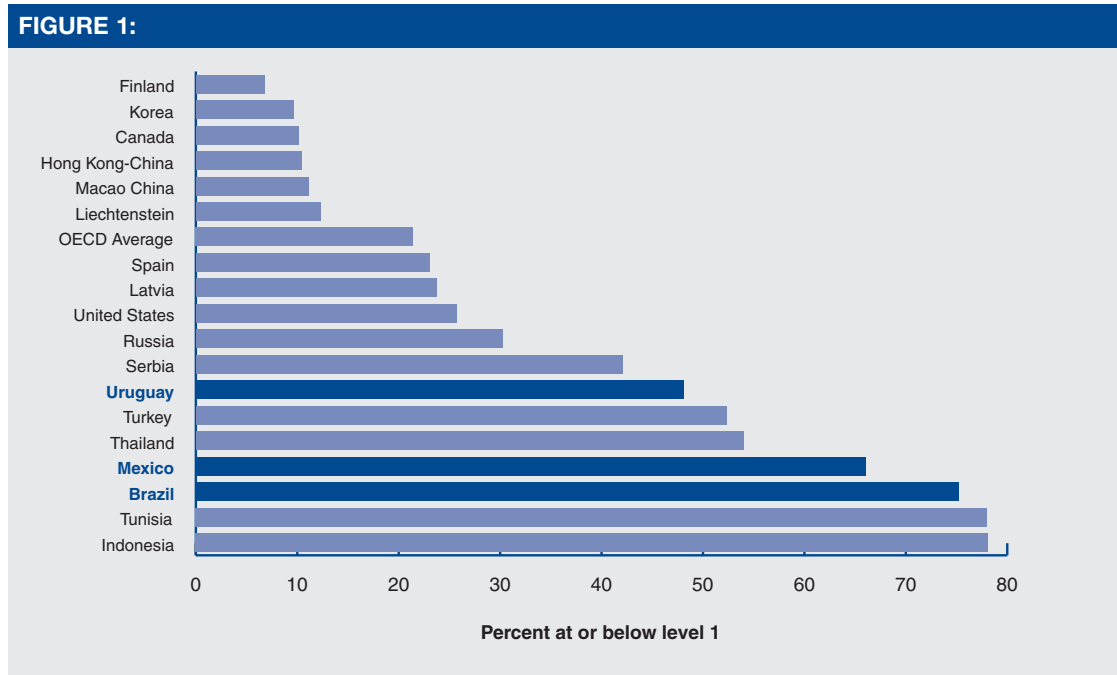
- Few have managed to introduce systemic reforms that make schools accountable to citizens for achieving educational objectives.

This combination of inappropriate indicators and little accountability has significantly slowed progress. Latin America’s continuing educational problems are described below.

### Test scores remain low: **D** ↔

National and international comparisons suggest that student learning is deficient.

**Students perform poorly on global tests.** In the 2003 Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) exam, 15-year-olds in the three participating Latin American countries (Brazil, Mexico, and Uruguay) scored near the bottom in reading, math, and science among the 41 countries surveyed. Roughly half of Latin American students had serious difficulties in using reading to extend their knowledge and skills. A majority (three-fourths in Brazil, two-thirds in Mexico, and nearly half in Uruguay) could not consistently apply basic mathematical skills to explore and understand an everyday situation. By contrast, only about 20% of students in Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) countries showed similar deficiencies (**Figure 1**).

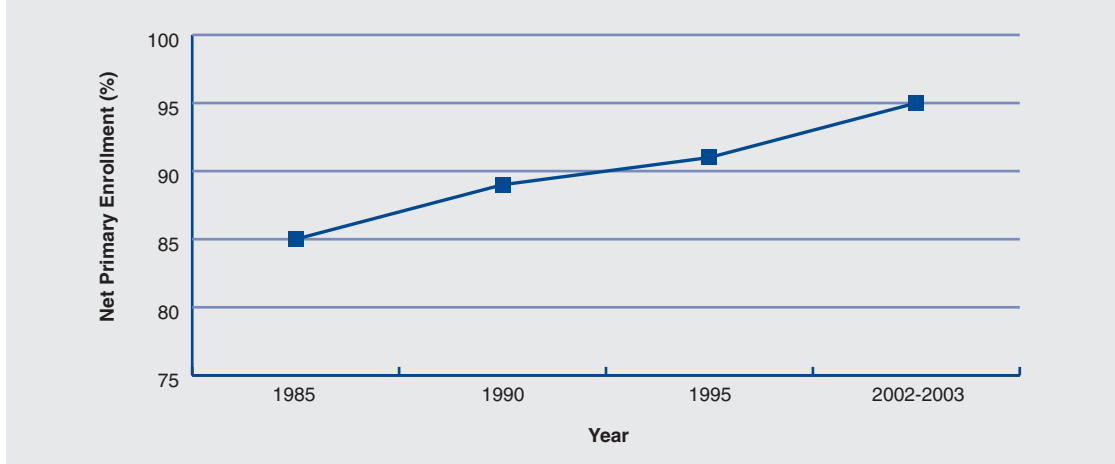


## Primary Enrollment in Latin America, 1985–2003

**Note:** Data are for the most recent year within one year of the date listed.

**Source:** World Bank, *World Development Indicators 2005* and Edstats online database.

**FIGURE 2:**



In an earlier PISA exam, students in Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Mexico, and Peru performed just as poorly. In both tests, Latin American countries scored considerably lower than Eastern European countries with similar incomes (Tables A.5–A.7 in appendix).

In a separate international study of math and science skills (Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study [TIMSS] 2003), Chilean eighth graders scored between 50 and 70 points lower than would be expected given Chile’s per capita income, level of human development, and education spending. Even the best Chilean students scored below the average for students in global top performing countries such as Singapore and Korea. Only the top 25% scored at the average level for countries with similar levels of development, such as Russia, Latvia, and Malaysia.

Signs of improvement are mixed at best. Brazil’s math and science scores on PISA improved between 2000 and 2003 (although its reading scores did not change), but Mexico’s scores dropped. Chile’s scores on the TIMSS remained essentially unchanged between 1999 and 2003.

**Scores on national achievement tests are similarly disturbing.** In Colombia, only 1 in 4 fifth graders and 1 in 100 ninth graders can combine mathematical operations to solve an everyday problem

at their grade level. In El Salvador, around 40–50% of secondary students perform at the lowest level in language, science, and social studies. In Peru, fewer than 1 in 10 sixth graders meet grade expectations in language and math; the vast majority of secondary students also perform below desired levels. And in Brazil, the average fourth grader tested in 2003 couldn’t consistently add, subtract, multiply, and divide or read and understand a short, simple text.

Most countries can’t tell if learning has improved over time. Those that can—for example, Brazil and Chile—show little change. This is probably due in part to having enrolled more disadvantaged students, whose greater learning challenges tend to bring average test scores down.

### Most children enroll in school: B↑

The good news is that most governments have had great success in getting more children in school. Enrollment rates have risen steadily at all levels since at least 1980 (Tables A.2–A.3 in appendix). Preschool rates are above the world average, and most countries are close to getting every child (except for the poorest and most isolated) to enter primary school (Figure 2).

But much remains to be done. Preschool and secondary enrollment rates in most countries are below those of countries elsewhere with similar levels

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*“A majority [of students] could not consistently apply basic mathematical skills... to an everyday situation.”*

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“...most governments have had great success in getting more children in school.”

### Average Years of Schooling of the Labor Force, by Region, 1960-2000

Note: “Labor force” is defined as those aged 25 and over.

Source: Barro, Robert and Jong-Wha Lee, 2001.

of income—and particularly below the East Asian tigers. Forty percent of children still do not enroll in preschool; 35% do not enroll in secondary school (Tables A.2–A.3 in appendix).

Workers in Latin America still have less education than their counterparts in East Asia and Eastern Europe. And the gap with East Asia is growing (Figure 3). Perhaps more telling, recent World Bank analysis shows that Latin American workers have almost 1.5 years less schooling than do workers in countries with similar incomes, while workers in the East Asian tigers have almost one year more.

### Children are staying in school longer, but few finish high school: C ↑

Nearly all children in urban areas now complete primary education, and overall completion rates continue to rise. Brazil has made especially significant progress—raising the proportion of rural and urban youth with six years of schooling by at least 20 percentage points between 1990 and 2002 (Table A.4 in appendix). Guatemala and El Salvador have also made important gains, especially since 1995. Still, more than 1 of every 10 children in the region does not complete primary school (Figure 4).

FIGURE 3:

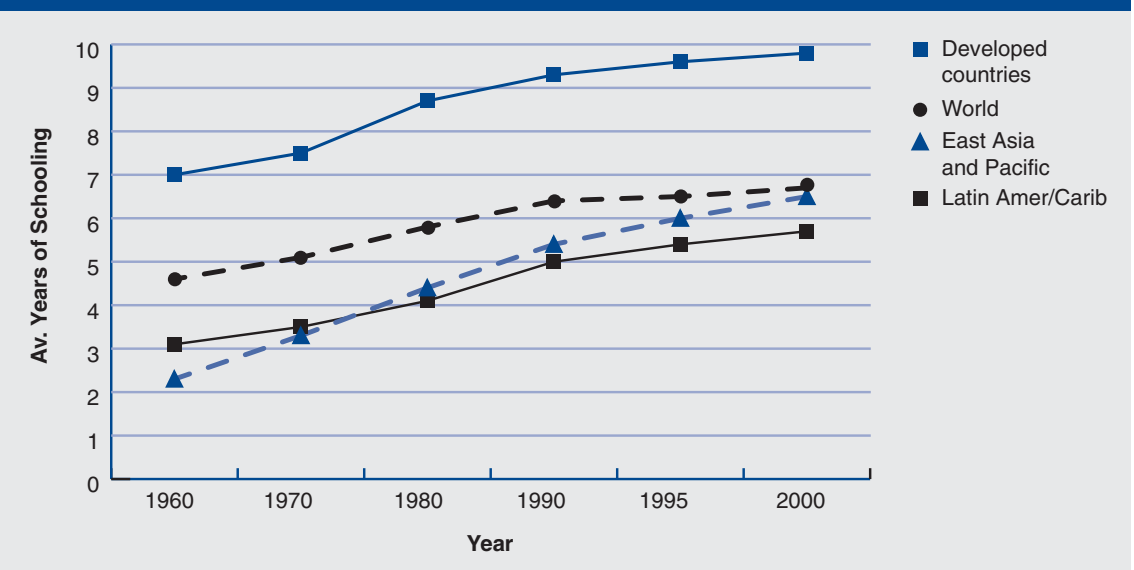
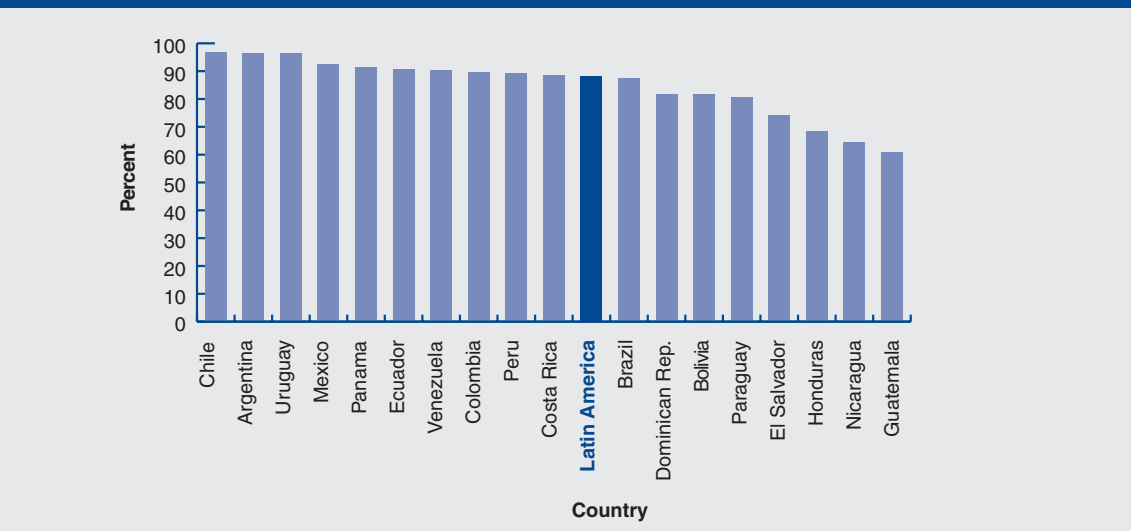


FIGURE 4:



### Primary School Completion among 15- to 19-Year-Olds, 2002

Note: Data for Argentina and Uruguay are for urban areas only. Latin America figure is the weighted average for the countries. Data are for the most recent year within two years of the date listed.

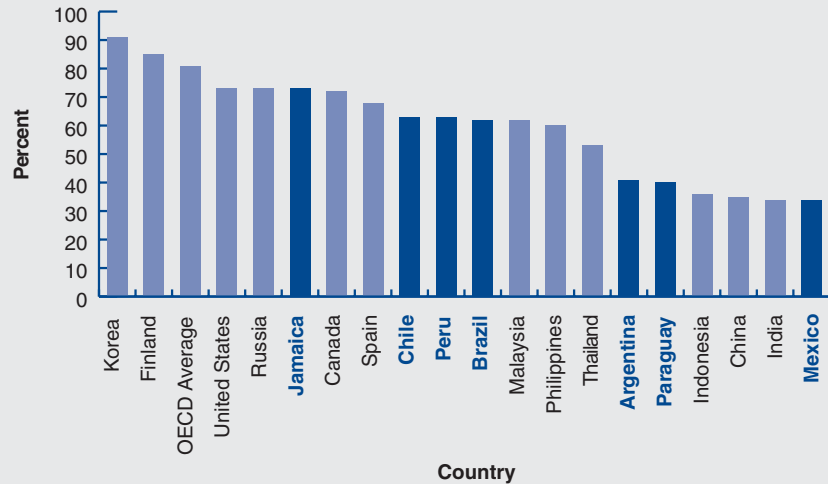
Source: ECLAC, 2005, Table III.1, pp. 89-90.

## Secondary School Graduation Rates, 2002

**Note:** Data show upper secondary graduates as a percent of the population at the typical age of graduation, and are for the most recent year 2000-02. Mexico's data may include some double counting.

**Source:** OECD, *Education at a Glance 2001-2004*.

**FIGURE 5:**



Completion rates in rural areas remain significantly lower than in urban areas. In countries with large rural populations, such as Guatemala and Nicaragua, fewer than half of all rural youths have completed primary school (Table A.4 in appendix).

Repetition has declined, but remains a problem. Primary school repetition rates dropped from 29% in 1988 to 11% in 2002, but are still more than double the world average (5.6 %) and much higher than the average for even low-income countries (6.7%). Secondary repetition, while in line with world trends, is still substantially greater than in East Asian countries such as Indonesia, Vietnam, and the Philippines.

Secondary school graduation rates are also low, judging by the few countries that report them. Most are around 60% or less (Figure 5). Argentina, Paraguay, and Mexico have rates below those in Malaysia, the Philippines, and Thailand, where gross domestic product (GDP) per capita is similar or less. In a global marketplace that requires increasingly

sophisticated workers, having such a large share of the population without a high school education is a clear deficit.

### **Inequity remains widespread and persistent: D ↔**

Education is one of the most important assets that people own. Unfortunately, public schools in Latin America, by failing to provide high-quality education, continue to exacerbate the gap between rich and poor.

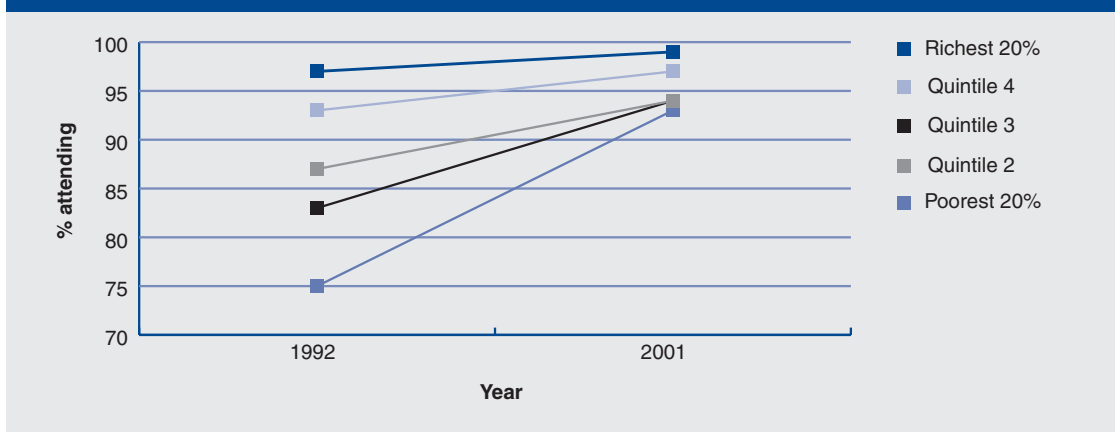
Still, there has been some progress. A greater percentage of the poor are starting school than ever before. In Brazil, for example, enrollment by the poorest fifth of the population rose from 75 percent in 1992 to 93 percent by 2001 (Figure 6). Brazil, Costa Rica, Ecuador, El Salvador, and Venezuela have each cut differences in primary enrollment between rich and poor almost in half since 1990 (Table A.12 in appendix).

*“...public schools...continue to exacerbate the gap between rich and poor.”*

## School Attendance Rates in Brazil, by Income, 1992-2001

Source: Souza, 2005, p.214.

FIGURE 6:

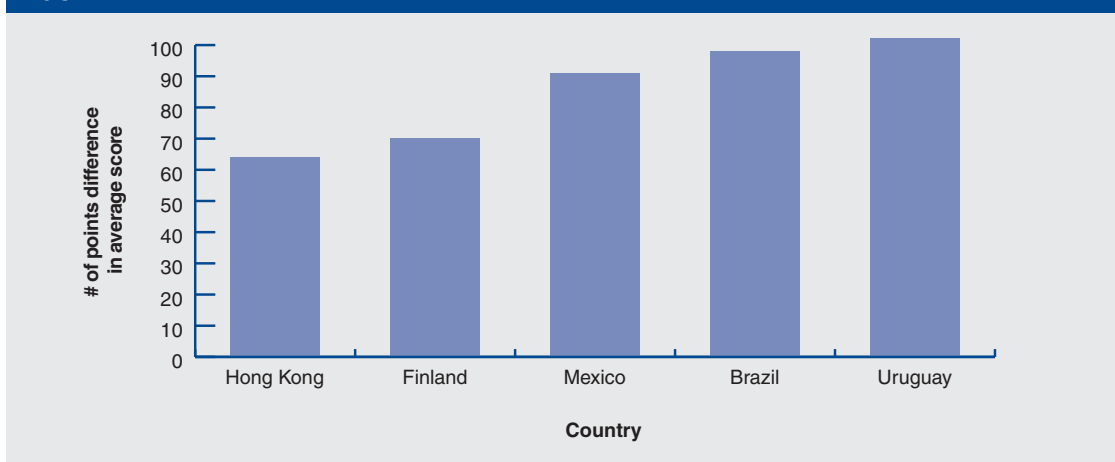


## Gap in Average PISA Math Scores between Richest and Poorest Quarter of Students, Selected Countries, 2003

**Note:** Data show the number of points difference in average scores of students in the top and bottom quarters of the PISA index of economic, social, and cultural status. Data include all Latin American countries, plus two top-scoring OECD countries. Each proficiency level spans approximately a 60-point range.

**Source:** Based on data from OECD, 2004, *Learning*, Table 4.4, p.399.

FIGURE 7:



On the other hand, children from poor families continue to learn significantly less and leave school much sooner than those from better-off families.

For example, poor children from Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Mexico, and Peru scored sharply lower on the 2000 PISA reading exam than those from richer families (**Table A.14** in appendix). On the 2003 PISA exam in math, students from poorer families performed almost two proficiency levels lower than those from higher income families (**Figure 7**). In Chile, secondary students from low-income families scored an average of 70 points lower in language and nearly 100 points lower in math than middle- to upper-income students on national tests in 2003—and the gap has not changed much over time.

The poor also leave school much sooner than the better-off, and the difference in education levels appears to be growing. With the exception of Jamaica, the wealthiest fifth of 21- to 30-year-olds get five to seven more years of schooling than the poorest fifth. In Bolivia, average schooling in the poorest fifth of the population is just 5.2 years, compared to 12.6 years among the richest fifth, a difference of nearly 7.5 years. In most countries, the gap has either remained the same or gotten worse. El Salvador is a notable exception, having managed to lower the rich-poor schooling gap by more than two years between 1995 and 2000 (**Figure 8**).

*“Indigenous and Afro-Latin children are much less likely...to complete primary school or to enroll in secondary school.”*

**Children from indigenous and Afro-Latin backgrounds receive less education.** Indigenous and Afro-Latin children are much less likely than their peers to complete primary school (Figure 9) or to enroll in secondary school. They also tend to score below their white peers on achievement tests. Afro-Brazilian students, for example, score worse on national achievement exams than white students even after controlling for income. In Ecuador, indigenous fifth graders score 20% below non-indigenous children in language and math. And in Peru, while 35% of fourth graders nationwide showed a “sufficient” level of reading comprehension on the most recent national tests, only 8% of native Aymara speakers and 0.3% of native Quechua speakers did so.

The good news is that racial/ethnic gaps, at least in terms of literacy and primary enrollment, seem to be lessening. Ethnic gaps in primary enrollment are virtually nonexistent in Peru and are small in

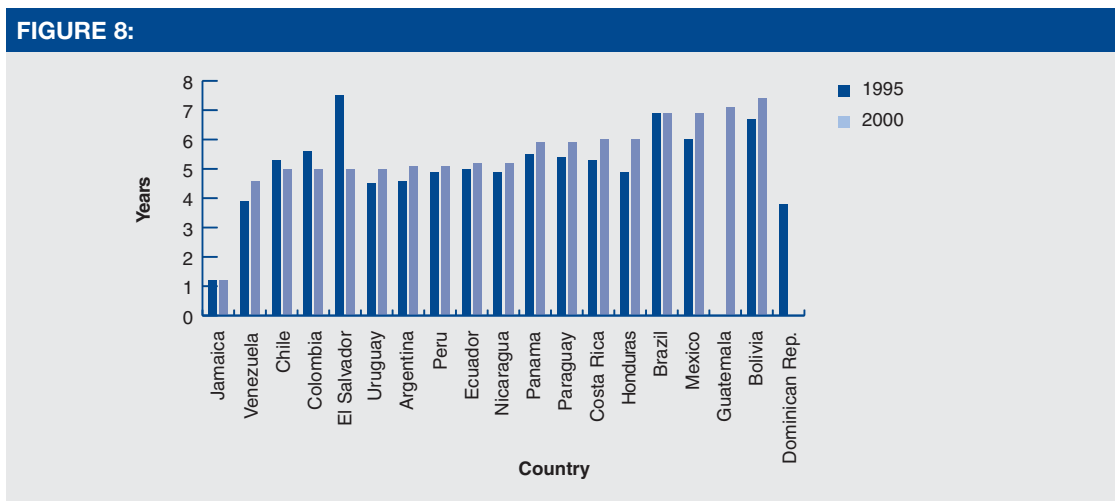
Ecuador. There is also evidence of decreasing racial inequality in primary school attendance in Brazil.

**Girls do relatively well.** Boys and girls start and complete schooling at similar rates in almost every country (Tables A.15–A.18 in appendix). And, in some countries, girls do better. Girls and boys also have similar levels of achievement on international tests. The 2003 PISA exam shows Latin American girls scoring around 20–40 points higher than boys in reading and around 11–16 points lower in math; boys and girls show a statistically similar performance in science. Scores from PISA 2000 also generally show girls with better performance in reading and statistically similar performance in math and science. National test results in several countries show similar trends. The notable exception, however, is indigenous girls, who lag behind boys on almost every indicator.

### Difference in Average Years of Schooling between Richest and Poorest 20% of 21- to 30-Year-Olds, 1995 and 2000

**Note:** Data are for the most recent year within two years of the date listed.

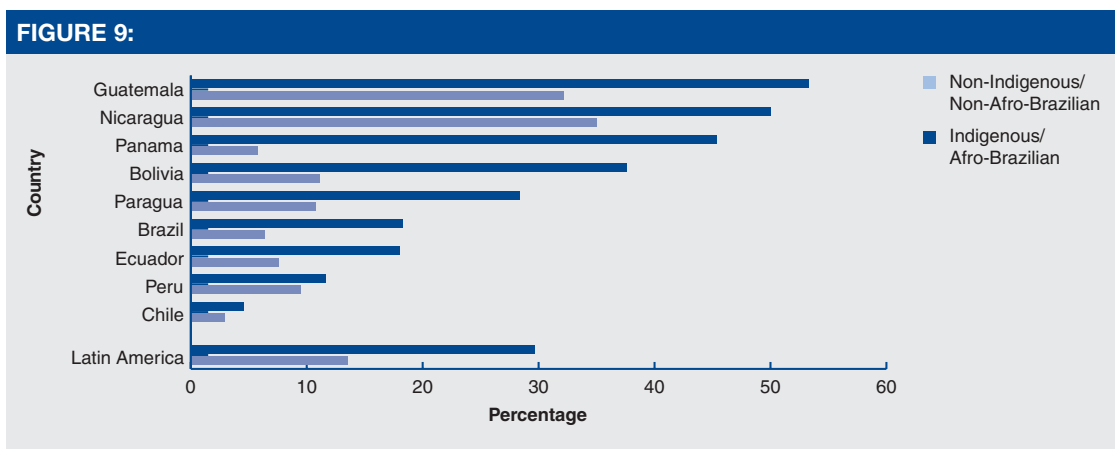
**Source:** Based on data from World Bank, 2004, *Inequality*, Table A.23, p. 308.



### Population Aged 15-19 That Has Not Completed Primary Education, by Ethnic or Racial Group, 2002

**Note:** Latin America figure is the simple average of countries. Data are for the most recent year within two years of the date listed.

**Source:** ECLAC, 2005, Figure III.7, p. 94.



## II. PROMISING REFORMS, BUT UNEVEN RESULTS

Many governments are making serious, sustained efforts to improve their schools. Through successive Summits of the Americas, they have committed to increase access to quality basic education by 2010. Many have sought to implement policies in the four priority areas we identified several years ago:

- Set standards for the education system and measure progress toward meeting them.
- Give schools and local communities more control over—and responsibility for—education.

- Strengthen the teaching profession by raising salaries, reforming training, and making teachers more accountable to the communities they serve.
- Invest more money per student in preschool, primary, and secondary education.

Progress has been uneven, however, and countries have had limited success in reaching desired levels of quality, equity, and efficiency in their schools.

### 1. SET STANDARDS FOR EDUCATION SYSTEMS AND MEASURE PROGRESS TOWARD MEETING THEM

#### Standards: **D** ↑

Several countries are making progress in setting out what they expect students to know and be able to do. However, no country has yet established, disseminated, and fully implemented comprehensive national standards in education. Among the promising developments in this area are the following:

- Colombia has defined content standards in five subjects along with minimum conditions for improved student learning, including length of the school year, student-teacher ratios, teaching materials, and school construction.
- Chile has begun to develop learning standards that define what constitutes acceptable (and insufficient) levels of achievement. It hopes to bring its national tests in line with them beginning in 2006.
- Some Brazilian and Mexican state governments have used national curricula to develop clearer and well-exemplified learning expectations at the state level.
- Argentina recently began developing Core Learning Goals (Núcleos de Aprendizajes Prioritarios), priority areas from the national curriculum in language, math, social studies, and science for grades K–12.
- A serious effort is under way in Honduras to develop K–12 standards in math and language, and align student achievement tests with them. K–6 standards have already been completed.
- Nicaragua has taken steps to further develop and implement some of the content standards for

primary education developed by the consortium of Central American ministers of education in the late 1990s.

More generally, however, the concept of education standards in Latin America has not yet taken hold. To be sure, teachers are given a curriculum that specifies the topics they must cover. But national curricula are more a guide to content than a commitment to achieving minimum levels of learning. They do not specify what constitutes excellent, good, acceptable, or unacceptable performance for any given subject. Nor are they expressed in terms that are easily measured.

Most countries lack clear, measurable objectives for students and schools and mechanisms for monitoring progress toward those objectives. None has yet aligned national education standards with the rest of the education system (e.g., teacher education, lesson plans, textbooks, tests, budget plans). Education standards have not figured explicitly among the education objectives emerging from the various Summits of the Americas.

The lack of standards has serious implications for education progress. Standards establish key goals that schools are expected to achieve. By laying out a clear vision of what we want and expect of schools, and by making that vision public, standards allow society to make sure that their country provides a minimum level of quality to all students in the system. Countries that have not specified what they want from their schools are unlikely to get it.

---

*“Countries that have not specified what they want from their schools are unlikely to get it.”*

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*“...only a minority of Latin American countries have participated in a global achievement test.”*

---

## Assessments: C ↑

### **National testing systems have gotten stronger.**

Nearly every country in the hemisphere has developed national tests to measure the most important indicator of education success—student learning. And many countries are working to improve their tests. For example:

- Nicaragua conducted its first national test of third and sixth graders in 2002.
- Colombian law now requires all students in the fifth and ninth grades to be tested in language, math, science and citizenship every three years. These tests complement Colombia’s long-standing end-of-secondary school exam.
- Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic, and El Salvador, among others, now administer achievement tests to all students at the end of secondary school. In Costa Rica and the Dominican Republic, these exams count for a portion of a student’s final grade.
- In 2006, El Salvador will begin testing all third, sixth, and ninth graders in language and math.
- Nearly a dozen Brazilian states now test all students in key grades rather than just a sample.
- Countries are gradually improving their technical expertise and directing more attention to disseminating and using test results to improve education. Peru is a good example.

**More countries are participating in global tests.** Eight Latin American countries have now participated in one or more global tests (Table A.11 in appendix).

- Most recently, Chile participated in the 2003 TIMSS exam and Brazil, Mexico, and Uruguay participated in the 2003 PISA exam.
- Argentina, Belize, Colombia, and Peru have also participated in global tests. Several countries participate in multiple tests.
- At least three additional countries plan to participate in the near future (Trinidad and Tobago in the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study [PIRLS] in 2006, El Salvador and Honduras in TIMSS 2007). Panama has also announced that it will soon participate in a global test, although it has not specified which one.
- Because some countries continue to participate in tests they have taken previously (e.g., Chile in TIMSS and Brazil and Mexico in PISA), the

region now has some information on achievement over time.

- At the subglobal level, UNESCO’s Latin America office plans to follow up its 1997 test of mathematics and language skills at the primary level with a second round of testing in 2005–06; this will include at least 17 countries.

Those countries that have participated deserve praise for doing so—and for the commitment to improving education that their participation implies. The fact remains, however, that only a minority of Latin American countries have participated in a global achievement test.

### **Testing systems still face important obstacles.**

These include:

- **lack of clarity** about the goals and intended use of tests;
- **few staff** with training in testing and measurement;
- **limited ability to compare results over time** (although some countries have made progress);
- **limited financial commitment**—in several countries, testing regimes are highly dependent on external financing;
- **weaknesses in reporting results**—information often does not reach the people who can use it (students, parents, employers, teachers, policymakers) in a timely and accessible manner (Brazil, Chile, Colombia, and Peru have made particularly good progress, however); and
- **lack of a culture of assessment**—including weak public and school demand for test information, poor understanding of what tests can reliably tell us and when, and failure to integrate tests with the rest of the education system

Additionally, educator resistance to external standardized testing, albeit less insistent than in the past, continues.

### **National education statistics and research programs are weak.**

Few countries have developed robust statistical systems that monitor both inputs and outputs. Fewer still fund applied research that can improve policy. Local policy specialists and consultants who can identify problems and suggest solutions are in short supply. (Box 1 summarizes recent issues and progress in this field.)

## BOX 1 - Collecting Better Information on School Systems in Latin America

Several countries have been working to improve the information they collect on their schools, strengthening data collection systems and improving how education statistics are used. Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Jamaica, Mexico, Paraguay, Peru, and Uruguay participate in the OECD's World Education Indicators Program which extends OECD indicators and methodology to 16 developing countries. The Regional Education Indicators Project (PRIE), currently led by Mexico and with cooperation from UNESCO's Latin American regional office, is also working to improve the quality and comparability of education data in conjunction with Summit of the Americas activities. Several countries, including Brazil, have also made significant efforts to improve their national education statistics.

Despite these advances, educational statistics are still underdeveloped and face severe comparability, consistency, and accuracy constraints. Improvements generally receive low priority considering the vast amounts of money being spent on schools. Basic measures of quality and equity are missing, as well as information on teachers—what they are paid, whether they teach, what they teach, and background training—and how many days of class were actually received/given in a particular year. Regular, richer, more reliable, comparable household surveys would help provide valuable information, particularly on equity.

Systematic information on the links between education and other sectors (e.g., skills demanded by the labor force, increased community involvement, civic responsibility, nonviolence, family stability) is scarce, and there are few measurements of what actually happens in the classroom. Research under way in all these areas can help deepen our understanding of the role of education in national development processes.

Source: PREAL elaboration.

## 2. GIVE SCHOOLS AND LOCAL COMMUNITIES MORE CONTROL OVER—AND RESPONSIBILITY FOR—EDUCATION: C ↑

**Countries continue to devolve power to lower levels.** For example, Argentina, Colombia, and Mexico have all transferred resources and authority from a centralized ministry of education to lower levels of government. Meanwhile, Chile, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, and several states in Brazil have given communities varying degrees of power over the education their children receive.

Several countries are working to get parents involved in monitoring the quality of their schools in addition to helping with administrative functions. For example, Chile publicly and widely reports national test results by school to help parents select and evaluate their children's schools. Other countries, including Colombia, also make test results available by school on the Internet. The state of Paraná, Brazil, produced detailed school-level report cards in 2001 and 2002, and conducted widespread outreach to parents on their use.<sup>1</sup> A few Central American countries have conducted small-scale experiments with school self-evaluations to involve parents in assessing and monitoring school problems. Still others are finding that effectively involving parents in the administration of schools also helps monitor service provision (such as teacher attendance)—particularly in remote areas.

A few countries are also broadening the types of education financed with public funds. Chile's voucher system allows parents and students to "vote with their feet," letting them choose whether to send students to a traditional public school or a publicly financed private school. The government of Bogotá, Colombia, has contracted with prestigious private schools to administer *colegios en concesión*, giving them academic and administrative autonomy in return for providing high-quality education to the poor.

**Schools and communities still can't make key decisions.** Most schools cannot choose and manage their own staff or decide how budgets will be spent (Table 1). Teachers often have limited authority to innovate in their classrooms, let alone contribute to school management. Parents and communities still have little say in how local schools are run. Several factors limit the reach of school autonomy initiatives in the region:

- *Many reforms are outside the regular system.* Although autonomous school programs are expanding in countries such as El Salvador, Guatemala, and Honduras, they are generally limited to a few select schools or areas, usually those at the margin of the traditional system.

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*“Parents and communities still have little say in how local schools are run.”*

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<sup>1</sup> This program has been discontinued under a new administration.

**TABLE 1: Level of Decision-making in Public Elementary and Secondary Schools, 2004**

	Hiring/ Firing of Teachers	Hiring/ Firing of Principals	Teacher Promotions	Salaries	Budget and Use of Resources	Maintenance	Books	Classroom Organization and Schedules	Curriculum
Argentina	Provincial	Provincial	Provincial	Provincial	National, provincial	Provincial	Provincial		National, provincial
Bolivia	Municipal, departmental		Municipal, departmental	National		Municipal, departmental			Municipal, departmental, national
Brazil	Municipal, state	Municipal, state	Municipal, state	Municipal, state		Municipal, schools			State, national
Chile	Municipal	Municipal	Municipal	Municipal, national		Municipal	Municipal		
Colombia	Departmental, municipal	Departmental, municipal	Departmental, municipal	National	National, departmental, municipal	Municipal	Municipal	School	School
Costa Rica	National	National		National	National	National	Parents		
Dominican Republic	National, with input from regions, districts, and schools	National, with input from regions, districts, and schools	National	National	National, with input from regions and districts	Regional, district, school	National	School	National
Ecuador	National, schools (CEM, Redes Amigas)	National	National	National	National, school	National	National	National	National, schools may adapt
El Salvador	Departmental, school (EDUCO)	National	National	National	National, school	School	National	School	National
Guatemala	National, municipal, parents (PRONADE)	National	National	National, municipal	National	National, municipal, parents	National	National, parents	National
Honduras	National, departmental, schools (PROHECO)	Departmental	National	National	National, departmental	National, municipal, school	National	National, departmental, school	National
Jamaica	School, national	School, national	School, National	National	National	School, national	National	School	National
Mexico	State, national	State	State, national	State	National agency	State	State, national		National
Nicaragua	Municipal, school council	Municipal, school council	Departmental, municipal, school council	National, school council	National, school council		National, school council	National, school council	National, school council
Panama	National	National	National	National	National	National, school	National	School, municipal	National
Peru	National, intermediate organization		National, intermediate organization	National, intermediate organization	National, intermediate organization, school, parents		National, school	National, school	National, school
Venezuela	National, state	National	National, state	National, state	National, state	National	National		

**Note:** Acronyms in parentheses refer to national programs in which schools and parents have decision-making power over the hiring and firing of teachers. Only schools that are part of these programs exercise this decision-making power.

**Sources:** PREAL elaboration based on Kaufman and Nelson, 2004; Grindle, 2004; Jamaican Task Force on Educational Reform, 2004; and PREAL report cards.

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*“...the state needs to shift from being a single central provider of education to being a manager of multiple actors...”*

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- *Implementation has been partial or slow.* This lag time is largely due to a lack of confidence in schools and their abilities. Institutional weaknesses and political obstacles also hinder reforms.
- *Resources are scarce.* Existing school autonomy reforms have relied heavily on international financial resources and technical “know-how.” When international support has ended, most governments have been unable to provide the necessary resources for maintaining or scaling up programs from national budgets. Inadequate resources and other supports for schools make it difficult to ensure that schools are prepared for the increased responsibilities that come with increased autonomy.

Schools that lack authority and resources cannot be effective partners in improving education.

**Successful decentralization requires combining local participation with a smart state.** On the one hand, we know that increasing local control can improve school management (**Box 2**) and even boost learning. For example:

- Preliminary studies in Nicaragua show math scores improving in many autonomous schools.
- In Comayagua, Honduras parent participation was associated with improved student performance in math and language.
- In Argentina, test scores rose at autonomous schools in poor areas.
- A recent analysis of TIMSS results showed that in countries where schools have more say in managing personnel, planning, choosing instructional methods, and deciding how to use resources, students scored significantly higher in science. Initial results from PISA 2003 suggest similar findings for math.

On the other hand, we also know that without smart state oversight, putting more control in the hands of schools can increase inequalities, foster corruption, or unduly politicize the educational process. Local authorities are not perfect, and often lack the vision and resources necessary to produce good education for all.

Accordingly, the role of the state is crucial. But the state needs to shift from being a single central provider of education to being a manager of multiple actors (including provincial and municipal

## **BOX 2 - Benefits of Increased School and Community Participation in School Management**

- **Improved teacher and pupil attendance and student retention.**
- **Better quantity and quality of parents' contribution to education.**
- **Greater cohesion and efficiency within schools.**
- **Stronger links between schools and the communities they serve.**
- **Better accountability and democratic practices as parents learn to articulate their concerns when teachers and regional offices do not meet their responsibilities.**

governments) through a system of regulations, benchmarks, and incentives. It needs to supply vision, set standards, provide funds, compensate for inequities, promote innovation, evaluate performance, and supervise school management. It should hold schools accountable for meeting objectives and for good administration, and be accountable for its own.

There is no single successful model for doing this. Rather, different models may be appropriate under different conditions. Throughout, countries need a smart central state that:

- *is firmly committed* to providing quality public education over time;
- *specifies clearly* what schools are expected to accomplish;
- *oversees performance* of students, teachers, schools, and policies to make sure goals are being met, and makes changes where needed;
- *widely disseminates information* on how schools are doing;
- *promotes equity* by allocating funds to those that need them most;
- *provides resources* including money, training, and incentives that help schools meet their goals; and
- *is itself accountable* to parents, employers, and society more generally for providing quality education for all.

In short, autonomy must be linked with accountability. Schools should have the authority to decide on tasks related to their own operation but still be accountable to broader learning goals.

### 3. STRENGTHEN THE TEACHING PROFESSION BY RAISING SALARIES, REFORMING TRAINING, AND MAKING TEACHERS MORE ACCOUNTABLE TO THE COMMUNITIES THEY SERVE: D ↔

*“...altering teacher training is relatively easy, while altering management and incentives—which challenge powerful vested interests—is hard.”*

Here countries have made the least progress and face the greatest challenges. Teachers continue to be poorly trained, poorly compensated, and poorly managed—making it extremely hard for them to do their jobs properly.

To address this problem, governments have concentrated principally on improving teacher training, while ignoring other important factors, such as management and incentives. They take this approach because altering teacher training is relatively easy, while altering management and incentives—which challenge powerful vested interests—is hard. As a result, in the words of one analyst, “the entire system of recruiting, training, assigning, supervising, and monitoring teachers is badly designed in nearly every regard.”<sup>2</sup>

**Training is poor.** Only around three-fourths of Latin American primary teachers have the minimum training their country requires—this is well below global and East Asian averages (**Figure 10**). The deficit stems in part from a rapid expansion in enrollments, but also suggests important gaps in teacher education—not to mention the wide variation in quality of training received.

Poor children, who most need high-quality teachers, are the least likely to get them. States in Brazil’s high-poverty Northeast, for example, have the lowest proportions of trained teachers. In Bolivia, rural

teachers are twice as likely as urban teachers to lack full training and are more likely to abandon teaching.

Moreover, teachers seldom represent the best and brightest of their generation. Many have lower academic grades than their peers and have chosen teaching more as a last resort for getting into college than as a true vocation. Chile and Guatemala may be exceptions, however. Both countries appear to enroll higher quality applicants. In Chile, this is at least in part a response to higher salaries.

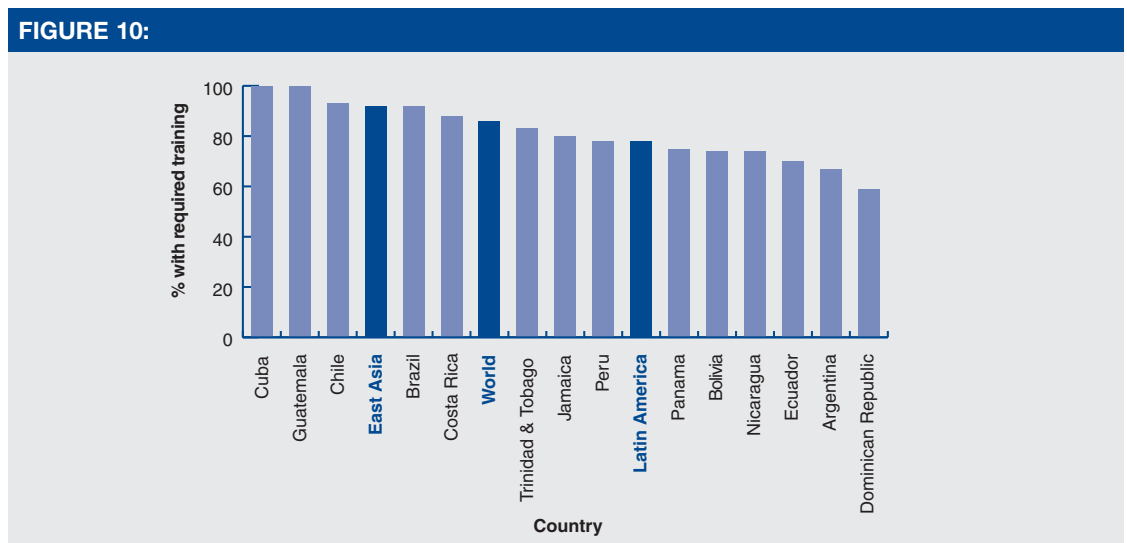
Many countries have taken steps to improve both pre-service and in-service programs (**Box 3**). Countries such as Honduras, where teacher education has historically been provided at the secondary level, have moved pre-service programs to universities. Others are fostering professional learning communities, so that teachers within and among schools can learn from each other. Still others are developing intensive immersion courses, incorporating active learning strategies and classroom follow-up into teacher education and using distance learning alternatives to reach teachers and potential teachers in rural areas.

However, teacher education in general continues to emphasize theory over practice and is often disconnected from classroom needs and curriculum. Only a few countries accredit schools of education or test their graduates as a condition for employment.

#### Proportion of Primary School Teachers with Required Training, 2002-2003

**Note:** Data are for the most recent year within one year of the date listed.

**Source:** World Bank, *World Development Indicators 2004 and 2005*; UNESCO *Global Education Digest 2004*.



<sup>2</sup> L. Pritchett, “Towards a New Consensus for Addressing the Global Challenge of the Lack of Education,” 2004, [www.copenhagenconsensus.com/Files/Filer/CC/Papers/Education\\_230404.pdf](http://www.copenhagenconsensus.com/Files/Filer/CC/Papers/Education_230404.pdf).

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*“Most teachers in the public sector are not accountable to anyone—principals, parents, or governments.”*

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### BOX 3 - Innovations in Teacher Training

Recognizing the weaknesses of existing teacher training programs, several countries are working to make them better. Two innovative practices in the region include the following.

#### **ESTIPAC- Mexico**

The Rural Center for Higher Education-ESTIPAC program offers pre-service training to students from rural areas who will return as teachers to their home communities. Students come from all over the country, and approximately 20% are of indigenous descent. The program is based in Jalisco and is supported by private contributions. The center has been offering higher level academic programs for rural primary and secondary school teachers for more than 20 years. Students in this program develop strategies for coping with the difficulties of rural life that affect their students. The program also provides academic teaching and leadership skills for economic and community development in rural areas.

#### **New Model for Teacher Training in Central America**

This project, initiated in 2005, seeks to establish a common subregional model for pre-service and in-service teacher training and for teacher evaluation against common standards. A joint effort of the Organization of American States and the Ministry of Education in El Salvador, the project aims to create a core of qualified and effective teachers in different subject areas in line with the education improvement policies of the six participating Central American countries. Through online forums, publications, and regional seminars, the project will provide opportunities for sharing best practices in the region and ongoing professional development.

Source: Vaillant, 2004 and [http://www.edured.gob.sv/formaciondocente/Pagina\\_Principal.asp](http://www.edured.gob.sv/formaciondocente/Pagina_Principal.asp). For more innovations in training see Andraca, 2003.

In-service training tends to be sporadic, small-scale, and isolated rather than constituting a continuous process for updating professional skills and knowledge that are applied in the classroom. So far there is little evidence that training or teacher credentials have significant impact on teacher performance or student learning.

**Management is worse.** Most teachers in the public sector are not accountable to anyone—principals, parents, or governments. Salaries are unrelated to performance in virtually every country. Dismissing a teacher for poor performance is nearly impossible. Teaching excellence is seldom rewarded, or even acknowledged. Teachers seldom receive the support they need to diagnose problems and upgrade their skills.

Pay is unrelated to performance. Teachers in most countries appear to earn as much as other workers with similar levels of education and experience, once differences in hours worked and vacations are taken into account. The problem may be that pay is not keyed to performance. Mediocre teachers earn the same as outstanding teachers. Teachers who fail to

show up are paid the same as those who come to work every day.

Only a few countries have experimented with linking pay to performance, and the results have been mixed. Flaws in design—often made necessary by union resistance—have limited the effectiveness of these experiments. Performance bonuses are often too small to generate extra effort—or are so easy to earn that nearly all teachers qualify. Some, such as Mexico’s *Carrera Magisterial* program, give the most weight to factors unrelated to student achievement.

Teacher performance is rarely evaluated. Almost no country systematically assesses classroom practice or its impact on student learning. (See **Box 4** for a recent effort.) Teacher unions strongly resist evaluation and make their implementation difficult. In Mexico, for example, evaluation is voluntary and has no negative consequences. In Chile, union leaders have refused to implement a relatively weak system of evaluation they agreed to in 2004. Only a few other countries are even considering establishing teacher evaluation systems.

Non-monetary performance incentives are largely absent. Apart from salaries, teachers are seldom offered performance incentives that are common in other occupations, such as:

- clear standards regarding what they should do and achieve;
- job security in return for good performance;
- social prestige and recognition;
- opportunities for professional growth, including a career advancement ladder and treatment as a competent professional; and
- having to satisfy clients or a supervisor.

Almost none of these apply to public school teachers in the region. No country has established clear performance or outcome standards for teachers. All teachers—good or bad—have job security. Teachers are widely

regarded as having low prestige. Few face attractive opportunities for professional growth. Most are not accountable to supervisors or to the communities they serve.

Several OECD countries are implementing multifaceted programs to encourage better teaching (**Box 5**). Within the region, El Salvador has revised its teacher statute with the support of its teacher union, has nearly doubled teachers' monthly salary, and is screening teacher candidates for academic levels. Colombia has established a new teachers' statute that includes assessment, salary increments based in part on performance, and teacher selection based on objective criteria.

#### BOX 4 - Evaluating Teacher Performance in Colombia

In 2003, Colombia designed and implemented a performance evaluation system designed to improve the quality of teaching and learning. By law, teachers, school directors, academic coordinators, and school counselors (orientadores escolares) are to be evaluated in 14 teaching skill areas including innovation, commitment to the school, knowledge of the school's education improvement plan, and conflict resolution. Teachers are graded on a 1–6 scale by the school principal, based on classroom observations, planning documents, class diaries, and an interview. The assessment is then used to develop a formal plan for improvement in areas judged deficient. The law provides for a voluntary pilot application in 2003 to familiarize teachers and administrators with the system (which was carried out), followed by mandatory participation in subsequent years. Future applications will influence incentives for professional development as well as decisions on sanctions for poor performance.

Source: Colombian Ministry of Education, "Manual de la Evaluación de Desempeño de Docentes y Directivos Docentes," [www.mineducacion.gov.co/documentos/Manual\\_Evaluacion\\_Docente.pdf](http://www.mineducacion.gov.co/documentos/Manual_Evaluacion_Docente.pdf).

#### BOX 5 - Improving Teacher Quality in the OECD: Attracting, Developing, and Retaining Effective Teachers

Aware of their common problems in providing high-quality teachers to serve a diverse student population, 27 member nations of the OECD—as well as Israel and Chile—initiated a joint activity in 2001 on Attracting, Developing, and Retaining Effective Teachers.

Sweden has probably made the most progress. Innovations there include ensuring that one-third of all teaching degrees are awarded in mathematics, science, or technology; persuading well-qualified people from other professions to enter teaching; and encouraging men and immigrants to become teachers. Sweden now provides core training for all future teachers, as well as an extended work-based practicum and a focus on scientific based-methods and research skills. Over 100 hours per year are set aside for in-service training. A teacher mentoring program pairing all first-year teachers with a more experienced counterpart is under way. To ensure better work conditions and retention, class size has been reduced and more teacher aides recruited. Local authorities and school headmasters, rather than a central authority, are now fully responsible for planning teachers' work arrangements. The fixed-pay scheme with pay ladders has been abolished, and pay levels are now determined through negotiation between school management and the individual teacher. A five-year agreement has been signed by the government and the teacher unions to improve skills development, career opportunities, recruitment, collaboration, pay, and conditions of employment.

Source: Teachers Matter: Attracting, Selecting, and Retaining Effective Teachers, [www.oecd.org](http://www.oecd.org).

“...teacher unions feel that governments don't value teachers' contribution[s]... [while] governments argue that the teacher unions do not behave professionally.”

**Governments and teacher unions continue to be at odds.** Significant, ongoing tension between governments and teacher unions is one of the greatest obstacles to improving education in the region.

On the one hand, teacher unions feel that governments don't value teachers' contribution to educational improvement. They argue that teachers are not consulted regarding reforms, have little say in how schools are run, and often get little support in the most basic elements of their job (for example, in-service training and supervision, lesson planning, and teaching materials). They therefore do not view governments as reliable partners in the education enterprise.

For their part, governments argue that teacher unions do not behave professionally. Union leaders focus exclusively on salaries and job stability, and resist measures that might improve education quality, such as evaluation, merit pay, and accountability. Since governments have little real power over teacher unions, they must rely largely on union self-motivation to help instigate change, a process they distrust.

The good news is that coalitions of actors, including teacher unions, have begun to come together in a few countries to talk about common plans for improving education quality and professionalism. And experiences in Chile and Mexico show growing acceptance of the idea of pay for performance and teacher evaluation among individual teachers and unions.

#### 4. INVEST MORE MONEY PER STUDENT IN PRESCHOOL, PRIMARY, AND SECONDARY EDUCATION: C ↑

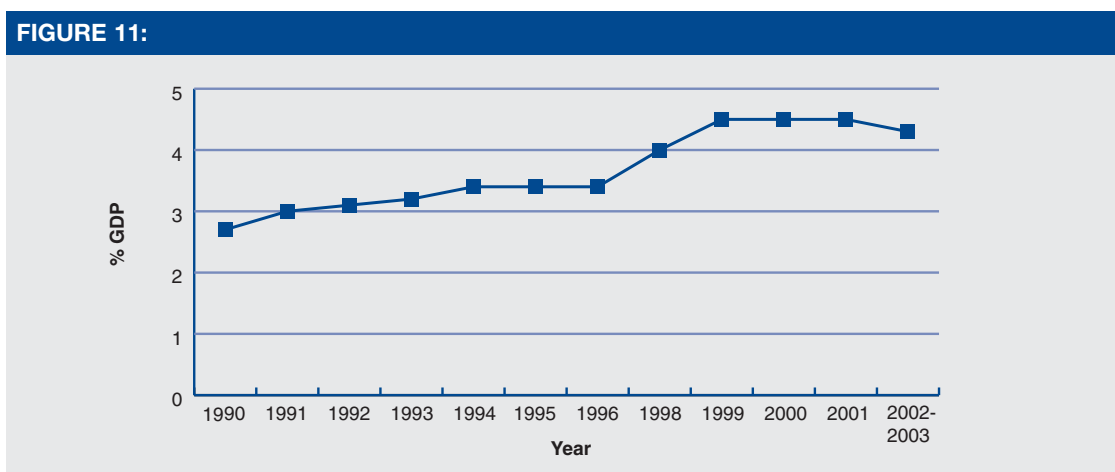
**Investment in education is increasing.** Public spending on education as a proportion of gross domestic product (GDP) increased from 2.7 percent in 1990 to 4.3 percent in 2002–03 (Figure 11) and is above the average for low- and middle-income countries. If we add private and nonformal

expenditures, the percentage is even higher—up to 10% in Brazil, for example. Spending per pupil also went up in most countries. Clearly, almost all governments are devoting more money to education.

#### Public Spending on Education in Latin America as a Percent of GDP, 1990-2003

Note: Data for 1997 are not available.

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators 2005 and Edstats online database.





*“Latin American schools produce less student learning per dollar spent than do most schools elsewhere.”*

**Public Spending per Pupil on Primary Education (\$PPP), 2002**

**Note:** Data are for public current expenditure per pupil and expressed in constant 2000 dollar purchasing power parity (\$PPP).

**Source:** UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2005, *Montreal, Personal Communication.*

**Student Performance on PISA and Spending per Student, 2000**

**Note:** Scores reflect average student performance across the three assessment areas. Expenditure is expressed in US dollars using purchasing power parities (\$PPP).

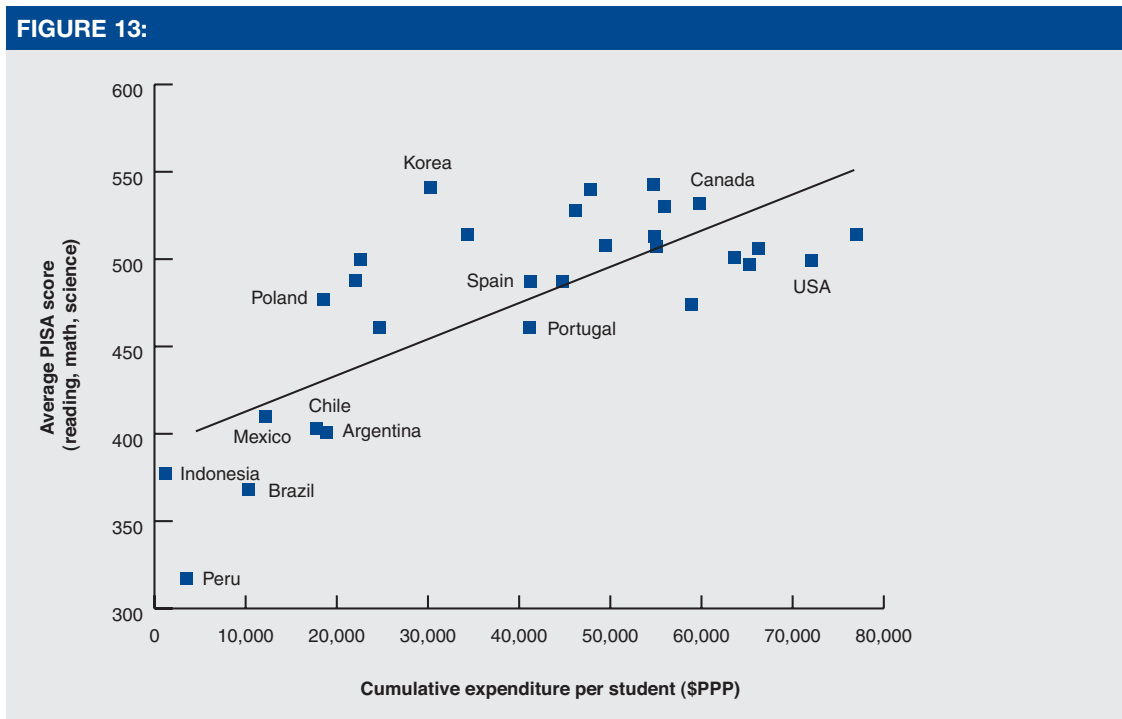
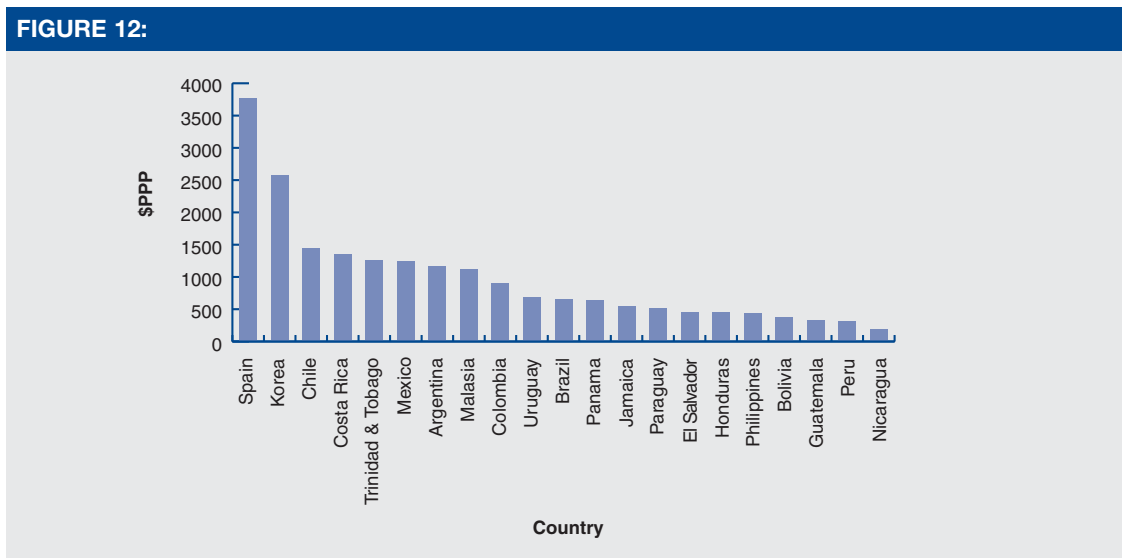
**Source:** OECD/UNESCO-UIS, 2003, *Literacy Skills*, adapted from Figure 3.7b, p.113.

**Spending per student remains low, however.**

After adjusting for differences in the cost of living, annual spending per pupil in primary education ranges from around \$190 in Nicaragua to a high of around \$1,400 in Chile (Figure 12). Although there is no “magic” number for optimal spending, this is substantially less than in OECD countries, where spending averages around \$4,800 per student. Such large differences both outside and within the region are likely to affect quality and equity.

**Public spending is inefficient.**

Latin American schools produce less student learning per dollar spent than do most schools elsewhere. Each of the five Latin American countries that participated in the 2000 PISA examination had learning scores below what would be expected given their level of per student investment (Figure 13). Initial analysis shows similar results for Mexico’s math performance on PISA 2003.



“...public monies spent on higher education almost automatically favor the rich.”

### Share of Total Public Education Spending on the Richest and Poorest 20% of the Population, Selected Countries

Note: Data are for the most recent year available from 1991-2001.

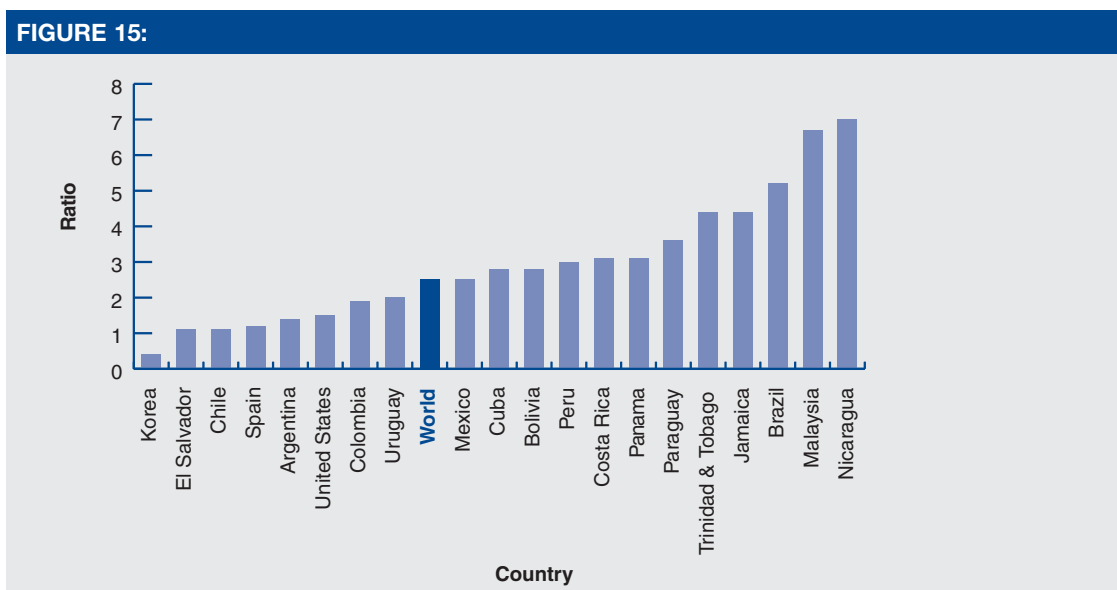
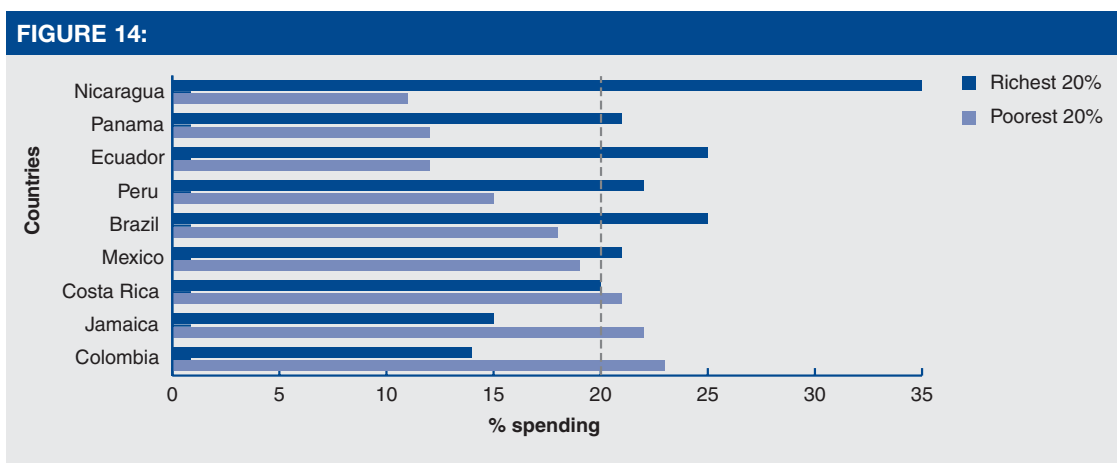
Source: Adapted from World Bank, World Development Report 2004, Table 3, p. 256.

Furthermore, many countries pay for teachers who don't teach: many teachers have administrative jobs that keep them out of the classroom, and many more simply don't show up for class. Primary and secondary repetition costs the region over \$11 billion a year, according to UNESCO estimates. And few countries systematically study how expenditures on various inputs and policies affect learning outcomes to determine how to get the most from their investment. In a world of scarce resources, such inefficiencies represent an important loss.

**Public spending on education doesn't reach the poor.** A recent World Bank study showed that in six of the nine Latin American countries for which data are available, the poorest fifth of the population receives less than a fifth of all education spending. Inequity is particularly striking in

Nicaragua, where the richest fifth receives one-third of public spending on education, compared with just over 10% for the poorest fifth (Figure 14). Colombia, Costa Rica, and Jamaica are noteworthy exceptions to this pattern.

Because most poor children in Latin America never finish secondary school, public monies spent on higher education almost automatically favor the rich. Although ratios are generally declining, on average, Latin America still spends more than three times as much per student at the university level than at the primary level; in several countries, the ratio is much higher. Nicaragua is the chief offender here, spending seven times more on each university student than on each primary student. By contrast, El Salvador and Chile invest almost equally per student at the two levels (Figure 15).



## BOX 6 - Businesses as Partners in Improving Education

As part of an increasing trend toward corporate social responsibility in the region, businesses are becoming an important advocate for better education. Business contributions may take several forms.

### Investing Money

Many businesses are involved in providing direct support to schools. Often, this takes the form of school sponsorship and infrastructure improvement programs such as those run by *Fundación Coca-Cola* and *Lazos-Teleton* in Mexico and the Global Development Alliance in Nicaragua. The long-standing Falconbridge Foundation school sponsorship program in the Dominican Republic includes interventions to enhance teacher performance and strengthen community participation, as well as improve infrastructure. Other programs, such as UNETE in Mexico and *Computadores para Educar* in Colombia provide private sector resources for technology. Through the *Becarios-Tutores* program in Honduras, business leaders also donate scholarship funds to high performing sixth graders who then tutor first grade children needing extra help.

### Investing Time and Expertise

Some businesses provide valuable technical know-how to schools. Programs such as *Lideres del Siglo XXI*, led by *Meals de Colombia* in Colombia and *Impulsa* in Mexico send CEOs or high-level executives to work directly with school leaders to improve strategic planning and management.

### Promoting Policy

In a few countries, businesses are promoting better education policy. Business groups in the Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Guatemala, Panama, and Colombia have organized press campaigns to raise the profile of education in the debate during electoral periods and have created advisory groups to aid ministers of education and ensure program continuity over time. Also in Colombia, the *Educación Compromiso de Todos* initiative brings together representatives of the media, leading businesses, and nonprofits to monitor education progress in the short, medium, and long term; make education goals explicit; quantify commitments; and bring the most important topics in education to the attention of public opinion and decision-makers.

Source: PREAL elaboration. For more information on business involvement in education, see PREAL's ProEducación newsletters at [www.preal.org](http://www.preal.org).

**New approaches will be needed.** Paying for quality education for all children will require creative solutions. Improving efficiency—by reducing repetition and staff absenteeism, for example—is a start. Equally important, countries need to determine which policies are cost effective so as to avoid wasting funds. Programs such as Brazil's Fund for Maintenance and Development of Basic Education and the Valorization of Teaching (FUNDEF)—which reorients regional distribution formulas to increase resources for poorer, rural areas in Northeastern Brazil—may also prove instructive. More money (public and private) will be needed, particularly to bring poor children up to acceptable levels of learning.

The private sector can also play a positive role in improving education. Private provision of educational services, such as the *Fé y Alegría* schools run by the Catholic Church in the Andean countries, may be one option in a broader strategy of education financing. Business leaders are also increasingly investing in education (**Box 6**).

But spending more money will only pay off if countries manage to alter the context and incentives with which schools operate. Increased spending must go hand in hand with structural reform.

### III. PUT LEARNING FIRST

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*“Governments should concentrate on the most important education output: what children learn.”*

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*“Accountability...is part of almost every successful education system”*

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Providing all children with high-quality education requires that countries make two fundamental changes in their education policy: (1) make learning the chief measure of education success, and (2) make schools accountable to citizens for achieving educational objectives.

#### ***Make learning the chief measure of education success***

Although learning is the most important product that schools produce, most countries focus instead on increasing spending and enrollments, training teachers, building schools, reforming curriculum, and upgrading technology. All of these are *inputs*; none of them are *outputs*.

It's time to change that pattern. Governments should concentrate on the most important education output: what children learn. They should take the following steps.

#### ***Establish clear learning standards.***

Countries should decide what they want their children to learn. Should priority go to simple skills in reading, writing, math, and science? Should countries emphasize producing a conceptual mastery of these skills that enables students to apply learning to real-world problems? Should they promote adaptability and creativity, or values?

Every country must make these decisions for itself, in consultation with all sectors of society. The result should be a set of education standards that explain clearly what schools are expected to achieve, and whose achievement (or failure) can be measured. Countries that don't know what they want won't get what they want.

#### ***Regularly measure student learning.***

Putting learning first requires that countries establish strong national testing systems that regularly monitor progress toward meeting education standards. Key policies include:

- providing adequate political and financial support for tests,
- keying tests to national standards,
- placing testing programs in institutions that are insulated from partisan politics,

- testing every student every year in at least a core set of subjects—such as mathematics and reading—so as to identify students who are not making adequate progress and give them the attention they need to improve, and
- making test results widely available to the public in an easy-to-understand format.

#### ***Participate in at least one global test of student achievement.***

Although global achievement tests are essential to assessing national progress, many governments have not participated fearing the negative publicity that low scores could generate, or arguing that the cost is too high.

Both arguments should be resisted. International student achievement tests establish an important benchmark for assessing national progress. If scores are low, countries can use them to sound the alarm and mobilize public support for necessary changes. The costs of international student achievement tests are relatively low when compared with the amounts governments already spend on education. Such investments in quality control are fundamental to good management.

#### ***Make schools accountable—to parents, employers, and citizens***

Governments need to establish relationships of accountability among citizens, politicians, policymakers, and providers, with clear objectives, adequate resources, capable and motivated providers, assessments of progress, rewards, and punishments.

Accountability—setting goals and holding students, parents, teachers, principals, and ministries responsible for results—is part of almost every successful education system (**Box 7**). It may take many different forms, but all have one common denominator: key actors have strong incentives both to meet their obligations and to perform at the highest possible level.

Unfortunately, accountability is generally absent from Latin American education. Most schools and ministries are accountable to no one. Goals are poorly specified and difficult to measure.

## BOX 7 - Does Accountability Improve Test Scores?

Although true accountability includes more than just testing, debate often centers on whether high-stakes tests and other incentives (consequences) help or hinder student learning. Opponents argue that focusing on incentives detracts from using tests as an improvement tool and has unintended negative consequences (teaching to the test, disproportionate “punishment” of schools with poor and minority students, higher repetition and dropout rates). Proponents argue that tests and other incentives increase schools’ focus on learning and help ensure that all children who need help get it. Who’s right? Probably both.

School systems in the United States have been implementing diverse accountability systems since the late 1980s. Where state exit exams were introduced, several studies found increases in dropout rates and repetition, especially among low-achieving and minority students. But Texas saw repetition rates level off and graduation rates begin to climb a few years after implementing its exit test. Researchers are unsure whether this is because the tests were “easy,” because students are showing sufficient increase in performance, because of Texas’s simultaneous large increases in spending, or some other factor.

A 2002 study based on national test scores in the United States found that states with stronger accountability systems\* saw larger gains in math scores of both lower and higher scoring students, regardless of race or ethnicity. These gains were stronger in middle schools than in primary schools. They remained after adjusting results for possible biases in who took the test (whether special education and students with limited English proficiency were included) and for context factors (proportion of minority students, population, and per pupil revenues) that influence which states adopt strong accountability and might also cause learning to increase regardless of accountability measures.

The longer term effects of accountability on learning are less clear, and more study is needed. However, the increased focus on learning and data-driven decision-making arising from accountability debates is a step in the right direction.

*\*The strength of an accountability system was ranked on a scale of 0–5 based on the degree of external pressure on schools to improve student achievement. States ranked as 0 have no statewide tests or standards; while states receiving a 5 test students at the primary and middle grades, strongly sanction and reward schools based on test scores, and require a high school exit exam for graduation.*

Sources: Carnoy and Loeb, 2004.

Achievement tests are infrequent, and their results are not widely known. Teachers are seldom evaluated, never dismissed, and earn the same whether they perform well or poorly. The clients of schools—students, parents, and employers—have little information on how schools are doing and almost no power to effect change.

Making schools accountable is a complex process with five basic elements:

- **Standards.** Countries need to make clear what they expect from students, teachers, and schools by establishing clear, appropriate standards.
- **Information.** The clients of education, including schools, parents, community leaders, and employers, need reliable information on student achievement, school performance, and the steps being taken toward improvement.
- **Consequences.** For accountability to work, consequences for meeting (or failing to meet) objectives must be established, including rewards

for good performance and sanctions for poor performance.

- **Authority.** Schools, local communities, and parents should have the authority necessary to make decisions and implement changes. If they do not, it makes little sense to take them to task for shortcomings.
- **Capacity.** Teachers, principals, and schools need to have adequate ability and resources to meet the standards their country has set, including appropriate funding, training, autonomy, and support.

Countries need to recognize that getting children into school is not enough. They must also give them the academic, personal, and social skills necessary for success in today’s world. By making learning the chief measure of education success, and by making schools accountable to citizens for achieving educational objectives, governments can take a major step toward providing quality education for all children.

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## CONTEXT

**Table A.1 - Basic Social and Economic Indicators, 2002-2003**

	Population (millions) 2003	Average Annual Rate of Population Growth (%) 1975-2002	Population Under Age 15 (% of total) 2003	GDP per capita (PPP) 2003	Life expectancy at birth (years) 2003	Adult Literacy (% ages 15+) 2002
Canada	32.0	1.1	18.2	30,677	79.3	m
Spain	41.0	0.5	15.0	22,391	79.2	97.7
United States	291.0	1.0	21.0	37,562	77.4	m
Argentina	36.8	1.4	27.0	12,106	74.5	97.0
Belize	0.3	2.3	37.7	6,950	71.2	76.9
Bolivia	8.8	2.2	38.4	2,587	64.1	86.7
Brazil	176.6	1.8	27.5	7,790	68.7	86.4
Chile	15.8	1.5	26.9	10,274	76.4	95.7
Colombia	44.6	2.0	31.8	6,702	71.9	92.1
Costa Rica	4.0	2.6	29.8	9,606	78.6	95.8
Cuba	11.3	0.7	20.3	m	76.9	96.9
Dominican Republic	8.7	2.0	32.0	6,823	67.1	84.4
Ecuador	13.0	2.3	32.7	3,641	71.0	91.0
El Salvador	6.5	1.6	34.7	4,781	71.0	79.7
Guatemala	12.3	2.6	42.5	4,148	66.1	69.9
Haiti	8.4	1.9	39.0	1,742	51.9	51.9
Honduras	7.0	3.0	40.8	2,665	66.1	80.0
Jamaica	2.6	1.0	29.7	4,104	75.8	87.6
Mexico	102.3	2.0	32.3	9,168	73.6	90.5
Nicaragua	5.5	2.8	40.9	3,262	68.8	76.7
Panama	3.0	2.1	30.0	6,854	75.0	92.3
Paraguay	5.6	2.9	38.4	4,684	71.0	91.6
Peru	27.1	2.1	33.0	5,260	70.0	85.0
Trinidad and Tobago	1.3	0.9	23.7	10,766	72.3	98.5
Uruguay	3.4	0.7	24.4	8,280	75.4	97.7
Venezuela	25.7	2.5	32.2	4,919	73.9	93.1
China	1288.4	1.2	23.6	5,003	70.8	90.9
India	1064.4	1.9	32.4	2,892	63.4	61.3
Indonesia	214.7	1.8	29.7	3,361	66.9	87.9
Korea	47.9	1.1	20.7	17,971	74.2	97.9
Malaysia	24.8	2.5	33.0	9,512	73.0	88.7
Thailand	62.0	1.5	22.9	7,595	69.3	92.6

**Note:** GDP per capita is in current international dollars (purchasing power parity- PPP).

**Sources:** World Bank, World Development Indicators 2005; UNDP Human Development Report 2004, Table 5, p.152 for Average Annual Rate of Population Growth.

## ENROLLMENT

**Table A.2 - Net Primary and Secondary Enrollment, by Country, 1995 and 2003**

Primary			Secondary		
	1995	2003		1995	2003
Panama	95	100	Canada	92	98
Peru	91	100	Spain	94	94
Canada	95	100	Korea	96	87
Spain	100	100	Cuba	82	86
Ecuador	92	100	United States	89	85
Korea	99	100	Argentina	59	81
Belize	99	99	Chile	55	79
Mexico	100	99	Jamaica	64	75
Brazil	90	97	Brazil	19	72
Bolivia	m	95	Uruguay	m	72
Jamaica	100	95	Bolivia	29	71
China	98	95	Trinidad & Tobago	65	70
Malaysia	91	95	Malaysia	m	69
<b>LATIN AMERICA</b>	<b>91</b>	<b>95</b>	Belize	m	69
Cuba	99	93	Peru	53	69
United States	96	93	<b>LATIN AMERICA</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>64</b>
Dominican Republic	81	92	Panama	51	63
Indonesia	97	92	Mexico	46	60
Paraguay	89	92	Venezuela	20	59
Venezuela	82	91	Colombia	50	54
Trinidad and Tobago	88	91	Costa Rica	43	50
Costa Rica	92	90	Paraguay	33	50
Uruguay	95	90	Ecuador	m	50
El Salvador	79	90	El Salvador	21	49
Colombia	85	87	Nicaragua	26	39
Honduras	90	87	Dominican Republic	22	36
Guatemala	69	87	Guatemala	19	30
Chile	86	86	Honduras	21	m
Thailand	m	86			
Nicaragua	83	85			
India	m	83			

**Note:** Data are for the most recent year within one year of the date listed. Secondary data in 1995 and 2003 are not directly comparable due to a change in the international definition of secondary enrollment in 1997.

**Sources:** Data for 1995: *PREAL, 2001, Lagging Behind, Table A.2, p. 29*; World Bank, 2005, *Edstats online database for China, Latin American average*. Data for 2003: World Bank, *World Development Indicators 2005*; UNESCO, *Global Education Digest 2005 for Belize*.



## ENROLLMENT

**Table A.3 - Pre-Primary and Tertiary Gross Enrollment, by Country, 1995 and 2003**

Pre-Primary			Tertiary		
	1995	2003		1995	2003
Cuba	95	115	Korea	52	85
Spain	72	106	United States	81	81
Malaysia	48	89	Spain	48	59
Jamaica	79	87	Canada	88	58
Thailand	57	86	Argentina	38	56
Korea	84	83	Panama	30	43
Mexico	71	76	Chile	28	42
Ecuador	51	74	Venezuela	28	40
Brazil	57	67	Bolivia	24	39
Trinidad and Tobago	12	66	Thailand	20	37
Canada	64	65	Uruguay	28	37
Uruguay	41	63	Cuba	13	34
Argentina	52	61	Dominican Republic	22	34
United States	70	61	Peru	27	32
<b>LATIN AMERICA</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>61</b>	Malaysia	12	27
Peru	36	60	<b>WORLD</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>26</b>
Panama	68	56	<b>LATIN AMERICA</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>25</b>
Venezuela	42	53	Colombia	15	24
Chile	96	49	Mexico	15	21
El Salvador	30	49	Costa Rica	31	20
Bolivia	40	47	Paraguay	10	19
Costa Rica	68	41	Brazil	13	18
Colombia	27	37	Nicaragua	11	18
<b>WORLD</b>	<b>34</b>	<b>36</b>	El Salvador	19	17
China	29	36	Jamaica	8	17
<b>EAST ASIA AND PACIFIC</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>EAST ASIA AND PACIFIC</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>15</b>
Dominican Republic	31	34	Indonesia	11	15
India	5	30	Honduras	11	15
Paraguay	45	30	China	5	13
Nicaragua	18	28	India	7	11
Guatemala	35	27	Guatemala	8	9
Honduras	14	21	Trinidad and Tobago	8	9
Indonesia	18	20	Ecuador	18	m

**Note:** Data are for the most recent year within two years of the date listed. Since gross enrollment includes children under and over the official ages eligible for pre-primary or tertiary education, rates over 100% are possible. Tertiary data for 1995 and 2003 are not directly comparable due to a change in the definition of tertiary enrollment in 1997.

**Source:** Data for 1995: World Bank, 2005, Edstats online database. Data for 2003: World Bank, World Development Indicators 2005.

## COMPLETION

**Table A.4 - Percent of the Population Aged 15 to 24 with at Least 6 Years of Schooling, by Urban-Rural, 1990-2002**

	Urban			Rural		
	1990	1995	2002	1990	1995	2002
Argentina a/	97	96	97	m	m	m
Bolivia	m	88	91	m	52	56
Brazil	59	59	79	21	22	46
Chile	94	96	98	83	86	94
Colombia	78	82	87	40	44	54
Costa Rica	91	91	93	80	79	81
Dominican Republic	m	80	89	m	59	74
Ecuador	94	95	94	m	m	85
El Salvador	m	79	86	m	40	57
Guatemala	66	75	81	24	33	44
Honduras	76	80	84	42	54	55
Mexico a/	92	93	94	69	74	85
Nicaragua	m	75	80	m	31	40
Panama	94	95	97	84	84	80
Paraguay	93	92	93	m	m	68
Peru	m	m	95	m	m	80
Uruguay	96	97	97	m	m	m
Venezuela b/	90	90	91	61	62	m

**Note:** Data are for the most recent year within two years of the date listed, except where noted. 1995 data for Guatemala are from 1998. Colombia 2002 rural data are for 1999. Argentina includes Greater Buenos Aires only. Paraguay includes only Asunción.

a/ Beginning in 1996 in Mexico and 1997 in Argentina, data allow for calculating the number of years of schooling. Prior data are estimated on the basis of incomplete primary, complete primary, incomplete secondary, complete secondary and tertiary categories.

b/ Starting in 1997, the design of the survey does not permit urban-rural disaggregations. Therefore the data reported reflect national totals.

**Source:** CEPAL, *Panorama Social 2004, Table 29, Annex.*

## ACHIEVEMENT

**Table A.5 - Percent of Students at Highest and Lowest Level of Proficiency in Reading, Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), 2000 and 2003**

	2000			2003			
	Mean Score	% scoring at or below level 1	% at level 5	Mean Score	% scoring at or below level 1	% at level 5	
Finland	546	7	18	Finland	543	6	15
Canada	534	9	17	Korea	534	7	12
New Zealand	529	14	19	Canada	528	10	13
Australia	528	12	18	Liechtenstein	525	10	13
Ireland	527	11	14	Australia	525	12	15
Korea	525	6	6	New Zealand	522	16	16
Hong Kong	525	9	10	Ireland	515	11	9
United Kingdom	523	13	16	Sweden	514	13	11
Japan	522	10	10	Netherlands	513	12	9
Sweden	516	13	11	Hong Kong	510	12	6
Austria	507	15	9	Belgium	507	18	13
Iceland	507	15	9	Norway	500	18	10
Belgium	507	19	12	Switzerland	499	17	8
France	505	15	9	Japan	498	19	10
Norway	505	18	11	Poland	497	17	8
United States	504	18	12	France	496	18	7
<b>OECD AVERAGE</b>	<b>500</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>10</b>	United States	495	19	9
Denmark	497	18	8	<b>OECD AVERAGE</b>	<b>494</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>8</b>
Switzerland	494	20	9	Denmark	492	17	5
Spain	493	16	4	Iceland	492	19	7
Czech Republic	492	18	7	Latvia	491	18	6
Italy	487	19	5	Austria	491	21	8
Germany	484	23	9	Germany	491	22	10
Liechtenstein	483	22	5	Czech Republic	489	19	6
Hungary	480	23	5	Hungary	482	21	5
Poland	479	15	6	Spain	481	21	5
Greece	474	24	5	Luxembourg	479	23	5
Portugal	470	27	4	Portugal	478	22	8
Russian Federation	462	27	3	Italy	476	24	5
Latvia	458	31	4	Greece	472	25	6
Israel	452	33	4	Slovak Republic	469	25	4
Luxembourg	441	35	2	Russian Federation	442	34	2
Thailand	431	37	1	Turkey	441	37	4
Bulgaria	430	40	2	Uruguay	434	40	5
Mexico	422	44	1	Thailand	420	44	1
Argentina	418	44	2	Serbia	412	47	0
Chile	410	48	1	Brazil	403	50	2
Brazil	396	56	1	Mexico	400	52	1
Macedonia	373	63	0	Indonesia	382	63	0
Indonesia	371	69	0	Tunisia	375	63	0
Albania	349	70	0				
Peru	327	80	0				

**Note:** Level 1 (low proficiency): 335-407 points. Students at this level can make only simple connections between the text and common, everyday knowledge and recognize explicit themes in a text. Students who score below level 1 can probably read in a technical sense, but have serious difficulties in using reading literacy as an effective tool to advance and extend their knowledge and skills in other areas.  
Level 5 (high proficiency): more than 625 points. Students at this level demonstrate a full and detailed understanding of a text, can infer deeply embedded information from a text, and can critically evaluate and hypothesize about what they read.

**Source:** Data for 2000: OECD/UNESCO, 2003, *Literacy Skills*, Table 2.1.a, p.274. Data for 2003: OECD, 2004, *Learning*, Annex Table 6.1, p.443.

## ACHIEVEMENT

**Table A.6 - Mathematics Achievement on PISA, 2000 and 2003**

	Mean score (2000)	Mean score (2003)	% at or below level 1 (2003)	% at level 6 (2003)
Hong Kong-China	560	550	10	11
Finland	536	544	7	7
Korea	547	542	10	8
Netherlands	m	538	11	7
Liechtenstein	514	536	12	7
Japan	557	534	13	8
Canada	533	532	10	6
Belgium	520	529	17	9
Macao-China	...	527	11	5
Switzerland	529	527	15	7
Australia	533	524	14	6
New Zealand	537	523	15	7
Czech Republic	498	516	17	5
Iceland	514	515	15	4
Denmark	514	514	15	4
France	517	511	17	4
Sweden	510	509	17	4
Austria	515	506	19	4
Ireland	503	503	17	2
Germany	490	503	22	4
<b>OECD AVERAGE</b>	<b>500</b>	<b>500</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>4</b>
Slovak Republic	...	498	20	3
Norway	499	495	21	3
Luxembourg	441	493	22	2
Poland	470	490	22	2
Hungary	488	490	23	3
Spain	476	485	23	1
Latvia	463	483	24	2
United States	493	483	26	2
Russian Federation	478	468	30	2
Portugal	454	466	30	1
Italy	457	466	32	2
Greece	447	445	39	1
Serbia	...	437	42	0
Turkey	...	423	52	2
Uruguay	...	422	48	1
Thailand	432	417	54	0
Mexico	387	385	66	0
Indonesia	367	360	78	0
Tunisia	...	359	78	0
Brazil	334	356	75	0
United Kingdom	529	m	m	m
Israel	503	...	...	...
Thailand	432	...	...	...
Bulgaria	430	...	...	...
Argentina	388	...	...	...
Chile	384	...	...	...
Albania	381	...	...	...
Macedonia	381	...	...	...
Peru	292	...	...	...

**Note:** M- Country participated but its response rate was too low to ensure comparability. Dots indicate that a country did not participate in given year. Level 1 (low proficiency): 358-420 points. Students at this level can answer questions where all the information needed is present and the questions are clearly defined. Students scoring below level 1 are not necessarily incapable of performing any mathematical operation, but are unable to utilize math skills required by the easiest PISA tasks.

Level 6 (high proficiency): more than 670 points. Students at this level are capable of advanced mathematical thinking and reasoning, including mastery of formal mathematical relationships, complex problem solving and modeling, and clear communication of arguments and interpretations in their findings.

**Source:** Data for 2000: OECD/UNESCO, 2003, *Literacy Skills*, Table 3.3, p.287. Data for 2003: OECD, 2004, *Learning*, Figure 2.5c and Table 2.5a, p. 254.

## ACHIEVEMENT

**Table A.7 - Mean Science Literacy Scores, PISA, 2000 and 2003**

	2000	2003
Finland	538	548
Japan	550	548
Hong Kong	541	539
Korea	552	538
Australia	528	525
Lichtenstein	476	525
Macao-China	...	525
Netherlands	m	524
Czech Republic	511	523
New Zealand	528	521
Canada	529	519
Switzerland	496	513
France	500	511
Belgium	496	509
Sweden	512	506
Ireland	513	505
Hungary	496	503
Germany	487	502
<b>OECD AVERAGE</b>	<b>500</b>	<b>500</b>
Poland	483	498
Iceland	496	495
Slovak Republic	...	495
Austria	519	491
United States	499	491
Latvia	460	489
Russian Federation	460	489
Spain	491	487
Italy	478	486
Norway	500	484
Luxembourg	443	483
Greece	461	481
Denmark	481	475
Portugal	459	468
Uruguay	...	438
Serbia	...	436
Turkey	...	434
Thailand	436	429
Mexico	422	405
Indonesia	393	395
Brazil	375	390
Tunisia	...	385
United Kingdom	532	m
Bulgaria	448	...
Israel	434	...
Chile	415	...
Macedonia	401	...
Argentina	396	...
Albania	376	...
Peru	333	...

**Note:** M- Country participated but its response rate was too low to ensure comparability. Dots indicate that a country did not participate in given year.

Scale: Detailed proficiency levels for science will not be available until the 2006 test. However, a score close to 400 indicates students can generally recall only simple factual scientific knowledge and use it to draw conclusions, while students scoring around 700 points can create or use conceptual models to make predictions, analyze scientific investigations and data, and evaluate alternative viewpoints.

**Source:** Data for 2000: OECD/UNESCO, 2003, *Literacy Skills*, Table 3.3, p.287. Data for 2003: OECD, 2004, *Learning*, annex Table 6.6.

## ACHIEVEMENT

**Table A.8 - PISA Results Relative to GDP and Education Spending, 2000**

	Mean combined reading literacy score	Mean mathematical literacy score	Mean scientific literacy score	Average score across three areas	GDP per capita (\$PPP) 2000	Cumulative expenditure on educational institutions per student (\$PPP) 1999
Albania	349	381	376	369	3,506	m
<b>Argentina</b>	<b>418</b>	<b>388</b>	<b>396</b>	<b>401</b>	<b>12,377</b>	<b>18,893</b>
Australia	528	533	528	530	26,325	55,987
Austria	507	515	519	514	28,070	77,027
Belgium	507	520	496	508	26,392	49,489
<b>Brazil</b>	<b>396</b>	<b>334</b>	<b>375</b>	<b>368</b>	<b>7,625</b>	<b>10,269</b>
Bulgaria	430	430	448	436	5,710	m
Canada	534	533	529	532	28,130	59,808
<b>Chile</b>	<b>410</b>	<b>384</b>	<b>415</b>	<b>403</b>	<b>9,417</b>	<b>17,820</b>
Czech Republic	492	498	511	500	13,806	22,606
Denmark	497	514	481	497	28,755	65,244
Finland	546	536	538	540	25,357	47,854
France	505	517	500	507	25,090	55,086
Germany	484	490	487	487	26,139	44,800
Greece	474	447	461	461	15,885	24,671
Hong Kong	525	560	541	542	25,153	m
Hungary	480	488	496	488	12,204	21,997
Iceland	507	514	496	506	28,143	m
Indonesia	371	367	393	377	3,043	1,164
Ireland	527	503	513	514	28,285	34,329
Israel	452	433	434	440	20,131	m
Italy	487	457	478	474	25,095	58,868
Japan	522	557	550	543	26,011	54,737
Korea	525	547	552	541	15,186	30,246
Latvia	458	463	460	460	7,045	m
Liechtenstein	483	514	476	491	m	m
Luxembourg	441	446	443	443	48,239	m
Macedonia	373	381	401	385	5,086	m
<b>Mexico</b>	<b>422</b>	<b>387</b>	<b>422</b>	<b>410</b>	<b>9,117</b>	<b>12,189</b>
New Zealand	529	537	528	531	20,372	m
Norway	505	499	500	501	36,242	63,599
<b>Peru</b>	<b>327</b>	<b>292</b>	<b>333</b>	<b>317</b>	<b>4,799</b>	<b>3,479</b>
Poland	479	470	483	477	9,547	18,586
Portugal	470	454	459	461	16,780	41,166
Russian Federation	462	478	460	467	8,377	m
Spain	493	476	491	487	20,195	41,267
Sweden	516	510	512	513	26,161	54,845
Switzerland	494	529	496	506	29,617	66,214
Thailand	431	432	436	433	6,402	m
United Kingdom	523	529	532	528	24,964	46,175
United States	504	493	499	499	34,602	72,119
<b>OECD AVERAGE</b>	<b>500</b>	<b>500</b>	<b>500</b>	<b>500</b>	<b>m</b>	<b>m</b>

**Note:** Brazil, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Portugal, and Switzerland data include public expenditures only. Indonesia cumulative expenditure data are for 2000. United States data include public and private independent expenditures only.

**Source:** OECD/UNESCO, 2003, *Literacy Skills*, annex table 3.3, p. 287.

## ACHIEVEMENT

**Table A.9 - Eighth Grade Student Achievement on Trends in Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS), 2003**

	Math	Science
Singapore	605	578
Korea	589	558
Hong Kong	586	556
Chinese Taipei	585	571
Japan	570	552
Belgium-FI	537	516
Netherlands	536	536
Estonia	531	552
Hungary	529	543
Latvia	508	512
Russian Federation	508	514
Malaysia	508	510
Slovak Republic	508	517
Australia	505	527
United States	504	527
Lithuania	502	519
Sweden	499	524
Scotland	498	512
Israel	496	488
New Zealand	494	520
Slovenia	493	520
Italy	484	491
Armenia	478	461
Serbia	477	468
Bulgaria	476	479
Romania	475	470
<b>INTERNATIONAL AVG.</b>	<b>466</b>	<b>473</b>
Norway	461	494
Moldova, Rep	460	472
Cyprus	459	441
Macedonia	435	449
Lebanon	433	393
Jordan	424	475
Iran	411	453
Indonesia	411	420
Tunisia	410	404
Egypt	406	421
Bahrain	401	438
Palestinian Ntl Authority	390	435
Morocco	387	396
Chile	387	413
Philippines	378	377
Botswana	366	365
Saudi Arabia	332	398
Ghana	276	255
South Africa	264	244

Source: National Center for Education Statistics, TIMSS Results, <http://nces.ed.gov/timss/TIMSS03tables.asp>, math-table 5, science-table 6.

**Table A.10 - Fourth Grade Student Achievement on Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS), 2001**

	Average Score
Sweden	561
Netherlands	554
England	553
Bulgaria	550
Latvia	545
Canada	544
Hungary	543
Lithuania	543
United States	542
Italy	541
Germany	539
Czech Republic	537
New Zealand	529
Hong Kong	528
Russian Federation	528
Scotland	528
Singapore	528
France	525
Greece	524
Slovak Republic	518
Iceland	512
Romania	512
Israel	509
Slovenia	502
<b>INTERNATIONAL AVG.</b>	<b>499</b>
Norway	499
Cyprus	494
Moldova	492
Turkey	449
Macedonia	442
Colombia	422
Argentina	420
Iran	414
Kuwait	396
Morocco	350
Belize	327

Note: For Canada, results for Ontario and Quebec Provinces only.

Source: IEA/ISC, 2003, PIRLS International Report, Exhibit B.2, p. 307.

## ASSESSMENT

**Table A.11 - Participation in International Tests, 1995-2005**

	Global Tests							IEA Civic Education Study (1999)	Test for Latin American Region Only  LLECE (1998)	Planned Participation in Future Global Tests	Planned Participation in Future Regional Tests
	TIMSS (1995)	TIMSS (1999)	TIMSS (2003)	PIRLS (2001)	PISA (2000)	PISA (2003)	IALS (1998)				
Argentina	X		X	X	X				X	PISA 2006	LLECE 2006
Belize				X							
Bolivia									X		
Brazil					X	X			X	PISA 2006	LLECE 2006
Chile		X	X		X		X	X	X	PISA 2006	LLECE 2006
Colombia	X			X				X	X	TIMSS 2007, PISA 2006	LLECE 2006
Costa Rica									X		LLECE 2006
Cuba									X		LLECE 2006
Dominican Republic									X		LLECE 2006
Ecuador											LLECE 2006
El Salvador										TIMSS 2007	LLECE 2006
Guatemala											LLECE 2006
Haiti											
Honduras									X	TIMSS 2007	LLECE 2006
Jamaica											
Mexico	X				X	X			X	TIMSS 2007, PISA 2006	LLECE 2006
Nicaragua											LLECE 2006
Panama											LLECE 2006
Paraguay									X		LLECE 2006
Peru					X				X		LLECE 2006
Trinidad and Tobago										PIRLS 2006	
Uruguay							X			PISA 2006	LLECE 2006
Venezuela									X		

**Note:** IALS is the International Adult Literacy Survey; it measures the prose literacy skills of 16-65 year olds. The International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) Civic Education Study tests the citizenship and public affairs preparedness of 14 year olds and 16-18 year olds. LLECE (Laboratorio Latinoamericano de Evaluación de la Calidad de la Educación) tests the language and mathematics skills of third and fourth graders in Latin America and the Caribbean. Mexico participated in the 1995 round of TIMSS, but did not release its results. Argentina participated in the 1995 and 2003 rounds of TIMSS, but the results are not yet available.

**Source:** Official websites for each test: TIMSS: <http://nces.ed.gov/timss/>, PIRLS: <http://www.pirls.org/>, PISA: <http://www.pisa.oecd.org/>, IALS: <http://www.nifl.gov/nifl/facts/IALS.html>, IEA: <http://nces.ed.gov/surveys/cived/>, LLECE: <http://llece.unesco.cl/index.act> and personal communication with UNESCO.



**EQUITY - Income Differences**
**Table A.12 - Difference in School Enrollment Rates between Richest and Poorest Quintiles (%), by Age, 1990-2001**

		6 to 12 year olds			13 to 17 year olds			18 to 23 year olds		
		Poorest 20%	Richest 20%	Difference	Poorest 20%	Richest 20%	Difference	Poorest 20%	Richest 20%	Difference
Argentina	1992	97	99	2	73	94	21	33	54	21
	1996	98	100	2	67	97	30	26	62	36
	2001	97	99	2	87	99	12	36	72	36
Bolivia	1996	89	99	10	39	77	38	8	49	41
	1999	87	97	10	41	89	48	13	62	49
Brazil	1990	70	96	26	52	84	32	14	40	26
	1995	81	98	17	64	91	27	20	48	28
	2001	93	99	6	81	96	15	32	55	23
Chile	1990	96	99	3	79	94	15	25	52	27
	1996	96	100	4	82	97	15	27	63	36
	2000	98	100	2	87	98	11	26	64	38
Colombia	1996	86	98	12	64	83	19	20	47	27
	1999	88	97	9	66	85	19	22	46	24
Costa Rica	1990	83	94	11	45	82	37	16	42	26
	1995	93	99	6	58	89	31	22	46	24
	2000	94	98	4	59	84	25	20	55	35
Dominican Republic	1995	92	96	4	85	91	6	37	47	10
Ecuador	1994	78	95	17	47	77	30	22	39	17
	1998	91	99	8	50	85	35	19	48	29
El Salvador	1991	64	92	28	47	74	27	14	39	25
	1995	74	96	22	53	80	27	17	43	26
	2000	79	97	18	61	81	20	24	42	18
Guatemala	2000	67	93	26	42	75	33	9	40	31
Honduras	1990	73	91	18	38	63	25	4	31	27
	1995	83	96	13	40	64	24	6	31	25
	1999	78	92	14	40	67	27	7	34	27
Jamaica	1990	98	100	2	81	79	-2	5	3	-2
	1996	99	100	1	88	94	6	14	14	0
	1999	99	100	1	87	96	9	13	18	5
Mexico	1992	86	97	11	48	84	36	12	40	28
	1996	91	99	8	47	88	41	7	46	39
	2000	93	100	7	57	90	33	16	52	36
Nicaragua	1993	93	99	6	54	86	32	21	41	20
	1998	73	95	22	45	79	34	13	42	29
Panama	1991	93	98	5	56	88	32	14	53	39
	1995	95	100	5	63	87	24	16	50	34
	2000	96	100	4	70	96	26	22	65	43
Paraguay	1995	84	96	12	48	76	28	10	35	25
	1999	90	99	9	60	84	24	13	49	36
Peru	1994	98	99	1	84	95	11	35	56	21
	2000	99	100	1	86	96	10	25	56	31
Trinidad & Tobago	1992	98	98	0	69	93	24	7	30	23
Uruguay	1989	96	99	3	68	92	24	17	50	33
	1995	98	100	2	66	95	29	18	59	41
	2000	98	100	2	68	98	30	17	68	51
Venezuela	1989	86	97	11	65	84	19	24	43	19
	1995	94	97	3	75	89	14	28	48	20
	1998	94	99	5	72	91	19	27	54	27

**Note:** Data show the percentage of the population in a particular age group that are enrolled in school.

**Source:** World Bank, 2004, *Inequality*, Table A.47 in *Statistical Appendix*, p.332.

## EQUITY - Income Differences

**Table A.13 - Difference in Average Years of Schooling between Richest and Poorest Quintiles, by Age, 1990-2001**

	21-30 Year Olds			31-40 Year Olds			41-50 Year Olds		
	1990	1995	2000	1990	1995	2000	1990	1995	2000
Argentina	4.6	4.6	5.1	5.1	5.8	6.6	4.6	6.0	6.4
Bolivia	m	6.7	7.4	m	8.3	9.1	m	7.9	8.5
Brazil	7.1	6.9	6.9	7.9	8.0	7.9	6.8	7.8	7.9
Chile	4.8	5.3	5.0	5.5	5.8	5.9	5.8	6.0	6.2
Colombia	m	5.6	5.0	m	6.8	6.4	m	6.6	6.5
Costa Rica	4.9	5.3	6.0	6.5	6.3	6.1	6.0	6.2	5.7
Dominican Republic	m	3.8	m	m	5.0	m	m	5.6	m
Ecuador	m	5.0	5.2	m	7.3	6.5	m	6.3	7.2
El Salvador	6.5	7.5	5.0	6.8	8.2	5.2	5.8	6.6	4.6
Guatemala	m	m	7.1	m	m	7.7	m	m	7.1
Honduras	5.4	4.9	6.0	6	5.9	6.6	5.6	5.3	6.2
Jamaica	1.1	1.2	1.2	2.2	1.7	1.6	2.5	2.2	1.3
Mexico	6.6	6.0	6.9	7.8	7.8	7.8	7.1	7.4	8.3
Nicaragua	m	4.9	5.2	m	5.8	5.6	m	4.2	5.8
Panama	5.5	5.5	5.9	7.2	7.2	6.7	7.6	7.8	7.0
Paraguay	m	5.4	5.9	m	6.7	6.4	m	6.2	6.8
Peru	m	4.9	5.1	m	6.2	7.2	m	6.3	6.6
Trinidad & Tobago	3.2	m	m	4.8	m	m	3.9	m	m
Uruguay	4.1	4.5	5.0	5	5.3	5.6	4.6	5.6	5.2
Venezuela	4	3.9	4.6	5.7	4.9	5.1	5.8	4.7	5.3

Note: Data are for the most recent year within two years of the date listed.

Source: World Bank, 2004, *Inequality*, Table A.23, p.308.

**Table A.14 - Performance on the PISA Combined Reading Literacy Scale, by National Quarters of the Index of Family Wealth, 2000**

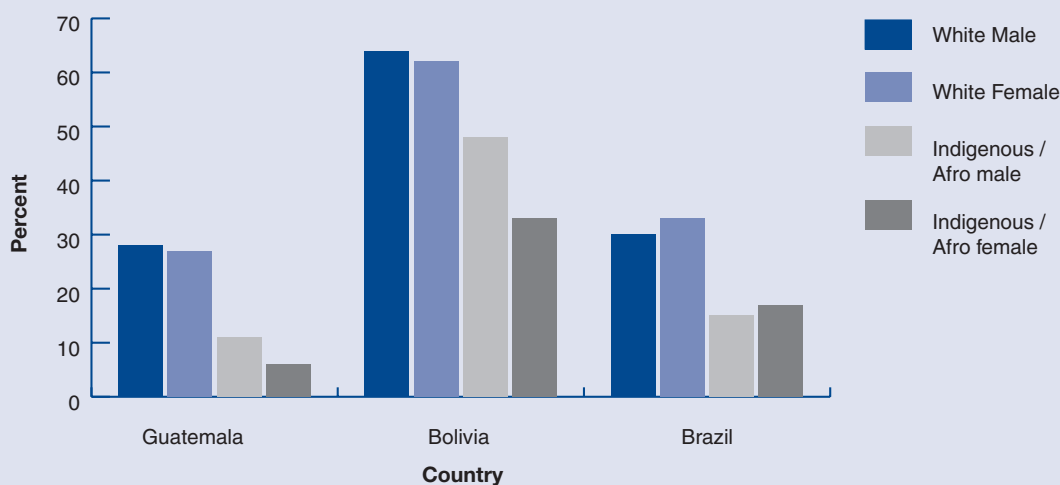
	Bottom quarter	Second quarter	Third quarter	Top quarter	Difference between Top and Bottom Quarters
Japan	521	526	526	527	6
Finland	535	544	551	556	21
Hong Kong	512	526	531	533	21
Korea	509	525	531	534	25
Ireland	513	523	531	543	30
Canada	514	538	543	546	32
<b>OECD AVERAGE</b>	<b>481</b>	<b>499</b>	<b>508</b>	<b>515</b>	<b>34</b>
Thailand	419	422	427	454	35
Spain	472	491	499	512	40
Indonesia	349	366	373	394	45
Brazil	370	385	396	437	67
Peru	301	311	329	371	70
Mexico	392	408	424	464	72
Portugal	432	457	486	507	75
Chile	378	390	411	460	82
United States	455	503	525	540	85
Argentina	380	397	430	471	91

Note: Differences between top and bottom quarter are statistically significant except for Japan.

Source: OECD/UNESCO, 2003, *Literacy Skills*, Table 6.2, p.341.

## EQUITY - Ethnic/Racial Differences

**Figure A.1 - Population Completing More than Primary Education, by Race, Ethnicity and Gender**



Source: Adapted from World Bank, 2003, *Inequality*, Figure 3.1, p. 86.

## GENDER

**Table A.15 - Net Primary and Secondary Enrollment Rate (%), by Gender, 1995 and 2002**

Primary	1995		2002		Secondary	1995		2002	
	M	F	M	F		M	F	M	F
Argentina	m	m	m	m	Argentina	m	m	79	83
Bolivia	m	m	95	95	Bolivia	m	m	72	71
Brazil	m	m	98	91	Brazil	m	m	69	74
Chile	88	86	87	86	Chile	52	57	78	79
Colombia	m	m	87	86	Colombia	42	49	51	56
Costa Rica	89	89	90	91	Costa Rica	39	13	48	52
Cuba	99	99	94	93	Cuba	52	63	86	86
Dominican Republic	78	79	99	95	Dominican Republic	18	26	30	41
Ecuador	93	94	99	100	Ecuador	m	m	50	51
El Salvador	78	78	90	90	El Salvador	21	23	48	49
Guatemala	76	69	89	86	Guatemala	m	m	30	29
Haiti	57	55	m	m	Haiti	m	m	m	m
Honduras	m	m	87	88	Honduras	m	m	m	m
Jamaica	m	m	95	95	Jamaica	m	m	73	76
Mexico	99	100	99	100	Mexico	m	m	59	61
Nicaragua	76	79	86	85	Nicaragua	30	35	36	42
Panama	m	m	100	99	Panama	m	m	60	66
Paraguay	91	91	91	92	Paraguay	37	39	49	51
Peru	91	90	100	100	Peru	54	52	70	68
Trinidad and Tobago	90	89	91	90	Trinidad and Tobago	m	m	68	73
Uruguay	92	93	89	90	Uruguay	m	m	68	76
Venezuela	83	85	90	91	Venezuela	18	27	55	64

Note: Data are for the most recent year within two years of the date listed.

Source: Data for 1995: World Bank, 2005, Edstats online database. Data for 2002: World Bank, World Development Indicators 2005, CD-ROM.

## GENDER

**Table A.16 - Gross Pre-Primary and Tertiary Enrollment Rate (%), by Gender, 1995-1996 and 2002**

PRE-PRIMARY	1996		2002		TERTIARY	1995		2002	
	M	F	M	F		M	F	M	F
Argentina	53	56	60	61	Argentina	32	44	45	67
Bolivia	44	44	47	48	Bolivia	29	20	m	m
Brazil	53	54	57	57	Brazil	12	14	16	21
Chile	97	98	49	49	Chile	30	26	44	41
Colombia	33	34	37	37	Colombia	15	16	23	25
Costa Rica	71	70	60	61	Costa Rica	33	28	18	21
Cuba	88	87	115	114	Cuba	10	16	29	29
Dominican Republic	33	33	34	34	Dominican Republic	19	25	26	43
Ecuador	55	56	73	76	Ecuador	22	14	m	m
El Salvador	39	42	47	50	El Salvador	19	19	16	19
Guatemala	35	34	55	56	Guatemala	13	4	10	8
Haiti	m	m	m	m	Haiti	2	1	m	m
Honduras	13	14	21	22	Honduras	12	10	13	17
Jamaica	80	87	84	88	Jamaica	9	7	11	24
Mexico	72	74	80	82	Mexico	16	14	22	21
Nicaragua	23	24	27	28	Nicaragua	11	12	17	19
Panama	39	37	55	56	Panama	24	36	35	55
Paraguay	51	71	30	30	Paraguay	10	11	16	22
Peru	36	37	57	59	Peru	28	26	32	31
Trinidad and Tobago	59	60	65	67	Trinidad and Tobago	9	7	7	11
Uruguay	44	46	63	64	Uruguay	25	32	27	48
Venezuela	44	45	52	53	Venezuela	30	27	39	42

**Note:** Data for 1996 for Bolivia, Brazil, Jamaica, and Trinidad and Tobago are from 1999. Since gross enrollment includes children under and over the official ages eligible for pre-primary or tertiary education, rates over 100% are possible.  
**Source:** UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2005, online database.

**Note:** Data are for the most recent year within two years of the date listed.  
**Source:** Data for 1995: World Bank, 2005, Edstats online database. Data for 2002: World Bank, World Development Indicators 2005, CD-ROM.

**Table A.17 - Youth (15-24) Literacy Rate (%), by Gender, 1995 and 2002**

	1995		2002	
	M	F	M	F
Argentina	98	99	98	99
Bolivia	97	92	99	96
Brazil	93	95	93	96
Chile	98	99	99	99
Colombia	95	97	97	98
Costa Rica	98	98	98	99
Cuba	100	100	100	100
Dominican Republic	89	90	91	92
Ecuador	97	96	96	96
El Salvador	87	85	90	88
Guatemala	83	70	86	74
Haiti	60	59	66	67
Honduras	81	84	87	91
Jamaica	89	96	91	98
Mexico	97	96	97	96
Nicaragua	98	94	84	89
Panama	89	90	97	97
Paraguay	97	96	96	96
Peru	98	94	98	96
Trinidad and Tobago	100	100	100	100
Uruguay	99	99	99	99
Venezuela	97	98	98	99

**Note:** Data are for the most recent year within two years of the date listed.  
**Source:** World Bank, World Development Indicators 2005, CD-ROM.

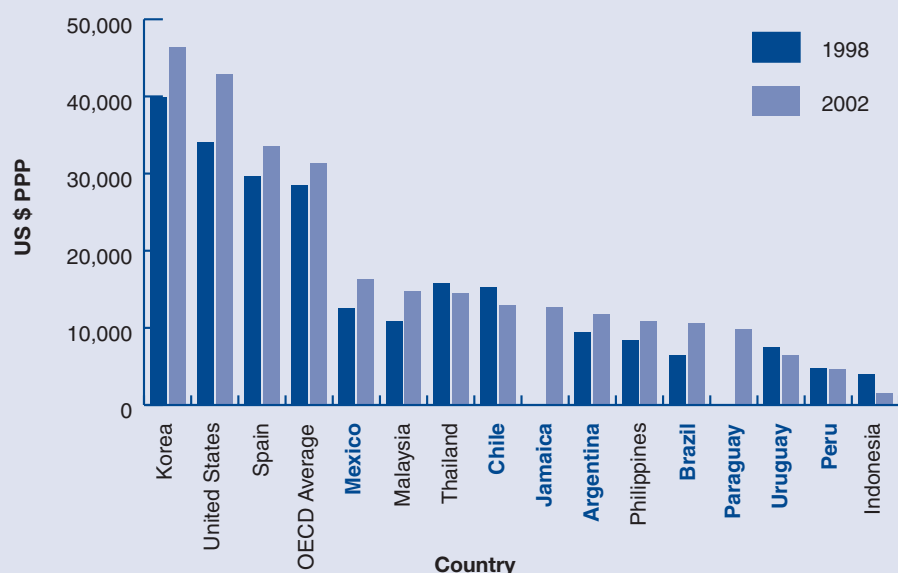
**Table A.18 - Primary Completion (%), by Gender, 1995 and 2003**

	1995		2003	
	M	F	M	F
Argentina	97	90	101	105
Bolivia	m	m	103	99
Brazil	m	m	113	114
Chile	92	91	105	103
Colombia	82	86	86	90
Costa Rica	80	83	94	95
Cuba	m	m	95	94
Dominican Republic	61	66	90	97
Ecuador	90	91	99	100
El Salvador	69	72	86	86
Guatemala	52	44	66	59
Haiti	m	m	m	m
Honduras	m	m	m	m
Jamaica	m	m	85	85
Mexico	99	100	99	100
Nicaragua	46	55	70	79
Panama	m	m	97	98
Paraguay	76	79	92	93
Peru	89	88	97	98
Trinidad and Tobago	88	91	91	91
Uruguay	93	96	90	93
Venezuela	77	86	88	92

**Note:** Data are for the most recent year within two years of the date listed. Since primary completion calculations include graduates under and over official ages, rates over 100% are possible.  
**Source:** World Bank, 2005, Edstats online database.

## TEACHERS

**Figure A.2 - Annual Statutory Teachers' Salaries, Experienced Public Primary Teachers, US\$(PPP), 1998 and 2002**



**Note:** Salaries are for teachers with 15 years experience, expressed in current international dollars (purchasing power parity). Salaries for Uruguay are for a position of 20 hours per week. Most teachers hold two positions.  
**Source:** OECD, 2004, *Education at a Glance*, Table D3.1.

**Table A.19 - Annual Statutory Salaries of Teachers in Public Institutions with Minimum Training, US\$(PPP), 2002**

	Primary education			Lower secondary education			Upper secondary general education		
	Starting salary	Salary after 15 years of experience	Salary at top of scale	Starting salary	Salary after 15 years of experience	Salary at top of scale	Starting salary	Salary after 15 years of experience	Salary at top of scale
Argentina	8,398	11,794	11,794	12,076	17,007	17,007	12,076	17,007	17,007
Brazil	8,191	10,610	m	9,883	13,322	m	13,853	16,397	m
Chile	11,033	12,857	13,306	11,033	12,857	13,306	11,033	13,454	13,926
Egypt	891	1,988	2,278	891	1,988	2,278	m	m	m
Indonesia	975	1,543	1,543	975	1,543	1,990	1,014	1,858	1,990
Jamaica	10,955	12,686	12,686	10,955	12,686	12,686	10,955	12,686	12,686
Korea	26,983	46,400	74,672	26,852	46,269	74,541	26,852	46,269	74,541
Malaysia	9,344	14,670	14,670	13,647	23,315	23,315	13,647	23,315	23,315
Mexico	12,375	16,324	27,038	15,862	20,722	34,181	m	m	m
Paraguay	9,789	9,789	9,789	15,269	15,269	15,269	15,269	15,269	15,269
Peru	4,627	4,627	5,530	4,577	4,577	5,273	4,577	4,577	5,273
Philippines	9,857	10,880	10,880	9,857	10,880	10,880	9,857	10,880	10,880
Spain	28,161	33,521	41,860	31,550	36,930	45,957	32,679	38,067	47,323
Thailand	5,862	14,406	14,406	5,862	14,406	14,406	5,862	14,406	14,406
United States	29,513	42,801	52,104	29,525	42,801	51,170	29,641	42,918	51,308
Uruguay	5,397	6,467	n/a	5,397	6,467	n/a	5,873	6,944	n/a

**Note:** Salaries are expressed in current international dollars (purchasing power parity- PPP). Data for Argentina, Brazil, Malaysia, Paraguay, Peru and Uruguay are for 2001. Salaries for Uruguay are for a position of 20 hours per week. Most teachers hold two positions. N/a- Category does not apply.

**Source:** OECD, 2004, *Education at a Glance*, Table D3.1.

## TEACHERS

**Table A.20 - Trained Teachers (as % of total), 2003**

	Pre-Primary	Primary	Secondary
Argentina	83	67	65
Bolivia	84	74	77
Brazil	87	92	79
Chile	m	92	87
China	m	97	m
Costa Rica	79	88	84
Cuba	100	100	85
Dominican Republic	75	58	64
Ecuador	71	70	70
Guatemala	100	100	100
Indonesia	71	94	53
Jamaica	67	80	m
Malaysia	m	97	53
Nicaragua	30	74	65
Panama	54	75	81
Peru	m	78	76
Trinidad & Tobago	20	83	58
<b>LAC</b>	<b>m</b>	<b>78</b>	<b>m</b>
<b>EAST ASIA</b>	<b>m</b>	<b>92</b>	<b>m</b>
<b>WORLD</b>	<b>m</b>	<b>86</b>	<b>m</b>

**Note:** Data are for the most recent year within one year of the date listed. Trained teachers are defined as those who have received the minimum organized teacher-training required for teaching at the relevant level of education in the given country.

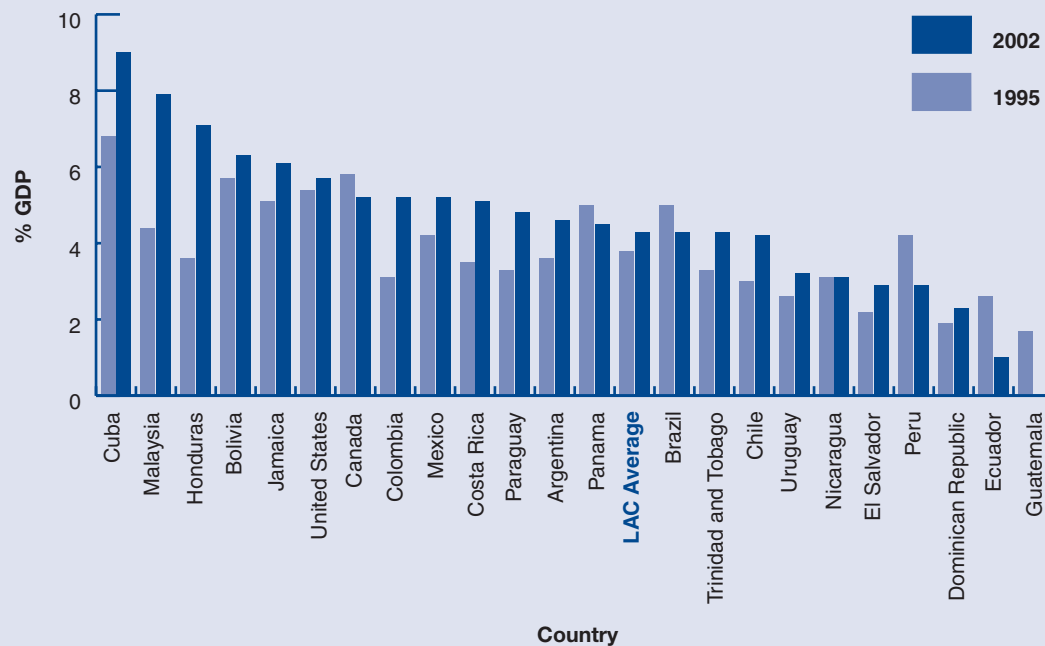
**Source:** UNESCO, *Global Education Digest 2005* and UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2005, online database. Primary regional aggregate data from World Bank, *World Development Indicators 2004* and 2005.

**Table A.21 - The Organization of Teachers' Working Time, 2002**

	Number of weeks of teaching			Number of days of teaching			Net teaching time in hours		
	Primary	Lower secondary	Upper secondary, general programs	Primary	Lower secondary	Upper secondary, general programs	Primary	Lower secondary	Upper secondary, general programs
Argentina	38	38	38	180	180	180	810	900	900
Brazil	40	40	40	200	200	200	800	800	800
Chile	40	40	40	192	192	192	864	864	864
Egypt	36	36	36	187	187	187	748	748	748
Indonesia	44	44	44	252	252	252	1260	738	738
Korea	37	37	37	220	220	220	811	554	531
Malaysia	41	41	41	193	193	193	762	778	778
Mexico	42	42	36	200	200	174	800	1167	1037
Paraguay	38	38	38	183	183	183	732	814	915
Peru	36	36	36	172	172	172	774	619	619
Philippines	40	40	40	196	196	196	1176	1176	980
Spain	37	36	35	176	171	166	880	564	548
Thailand	40	40	40	181	181	181	760	652	652
United States	36	36	36	180	180	180	1139	1127	1121
Uruguay	37	36	36	165	160	160	720	480	480

**Note:** Data for Argentina, Brazil, Malaysia, Paraguay, Peru, and Uruguay are for 2001.

**Source:** OECD, 2004, *Education at a Glance*, Table D4.1.

**Figure A.3 - Public Education Expenditure as a Percent of GDP, by Country, 1995 and 2002**

**Note:** Data are for the most recent year within two years of the date listed, except where noted. 1995 data for Canada, Ecuador, Mexico, United States are from 1998.

**Source:** Data for 1995: World Bank, 2005, *Edstats online database*. Data for 2002: World Bank, *World Development Indicators 2005*. Honduras from FEREMA/PREAL, 2005, *Educación: El Futuro es Hoy. Informe de Progreso Educativo: Honduras 2005*.

**Table A.22 - Public Spending on Education (as a Percent of Total Government Expenditures), 1996 and 2003**

	1996	2003
Mexico	23.0	24.3
Costa Rica	22.8	22.4
Malaysia	15.4	20.3
El Salvador	14.1	20.0
Bolivia	11.1	19.7
Chile	14.8	18.7
Cuba	12.6	18.7
Peru	19.2	17.1
United States	14.4	17.1
Colombia	19.0	15.6
Nicaragua	m	15.0
<b>LAC Average</b>	16.3	15.0
Argentina	12.6	13.5
Trinidad and Tobago	11.6	13.4
Canada	13.5	12.7
Dominican Republic	13.4	12.4
Brazil	m	12.1
Paraguay	18.6	11.4
Uruguay	15.5	9.6
Jamaica	12.9	9.5
Ecuador	13.0	8.0
Panama	20.9	7.7
Venezuela	22.4	m
Honduras	16.5	m
Guatemala	15.8	m

**Note:** Data are for the most recent year within two years of the date listed.

**Source:** Data for 1996: PREAL, 2001, *Lagging Behind*, Table A.32, p. 44. Data for 2003: UNESCO, *Global Education Digest 2005*.

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