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A SUMMARY ANALYSIS OF EDUCATION TRENDS IN LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN:

A REPORT PREPARED FOR USAID'S BUREAU FOR LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN

FINAL REPORT

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PREFACE

This report provides a summary of selected and relevant education trends to the U.S. Agency for International Development, Bureau for Latin America and the Caribbean, Office of Education (USAID/LAC/EDU). The document focuses on countries in the LAC region to which USAID delivers both bilateral and regional education assistance. The report prioritizes trends and data relating to basic education, higher education, vocational and technical training, and at-risk youth. The report also includes analysis of broader and crosscutting topics including literacy, private and public indicators of learning, labor and employment, and gender issues.

I. LITERACY INDICATORS

Early grade reading

Evidence from student achievement tests suggests that many children and young people struggle to acquire the reading skills they need as a foundation for learning. Reading plays a critical role in acquiring new knowledge, both in formal schooling and beyond the classroom. Therefore, it is essential that students master basic literacy skills early (ideally by the third grade) or risk falling behind. To measure progress toward this critical goal, early grade reading assessments (EGRA) have been conducted in 13 Latin American and Caribbean countries since 2006.[1] Results suggest that some students, particularly rural and non-Spanish/French speakers, have difficulty reading even a single word at the end of second grade, raising important equity questions about providing all children with basic skills. (See Graph 1) While EGRA tests in Nicaragua, Guatemala, and Honduras showed relatively low rates of non-readers among Spanish speakers by the end of third grade (fewer than 10 percent),[2] children still may not be able to read fluently and with understanding.

For example, EGRA results in Nicaragua indicated that although many students could read at rates comparable to international standards for Spanish speakers, between a quarter and a third of those tested could not. Nicaraguan fourth-grade students on average had oral reading fluency rates that were approximately what would be expected of second graders by international standards (Gove & Wettenberg, 2011, p.46). Comprehension increased over time, however, so that while Nicaraguan second graders understood only a little more than half (57 percent) of the passage read, third graders understood 82 percent of the passage, and fourth graders understood 87 percent (Gove & Wetterberg, 2011, p.47).[3] Although this evidence suggests that most children eventually acquire basic, if not advanced, literacy skills, delays in achieving reading fluency are of concern because they are often precursors of later reading skill deficits; also, research suggests that if reading difficulties are not corrected early, gaps between readers and non-readers increase over time and are more difficult to address later on (EdData II, 2011, p. 2).

Results from international reading tests at the elementary school level also suggest that a large percentage of students in the poorer LAC countries have difficulty mastering essential reading tasks. On average, more than 30 percent of participating third-grade students scored at the lowest levels in reading on the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization's (UNESCO's) 2006 Second Regional Student Achievement Test (SERCE). More than half of the students in Ecuador, Guatemala, and the Dominican Republic performed at this low level. (See Graph 2.) While fewer students scored at this level by sixth grade, rates were still greater than 20 percent in nine countries. (See Appendix, Graph A.1.) Latin American countries that participated in the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA)'s Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) for the fourth grade also had average scores below the intermediate international benchmark for 2011, which means that students had difficulty making straightforward inferences from the text.[4] (See Appendix, Table A.1.) Although 75–80 percent of students in

[1]According to the EGRA tracker updated July 2013 the countries are Argentina (2009), Brazil (2009), Dominican Republic (2012), Guatemala (2008, 2009), Guyana (2008), Haiti (2009, 2012), Honduras (2008,2009), Jamaica (2007), Nicaragua (2008, 2009, 2011, 2012), Peru (2006, 2007, 2009), Chile (no date), Mexico(no date) and Paraguay (no date). In some countries tests were conducted in multiple languages. See https://www.eddataglobal.org/documents/index.cfm?fuseaction=pubDetail&id=188 for additional details.

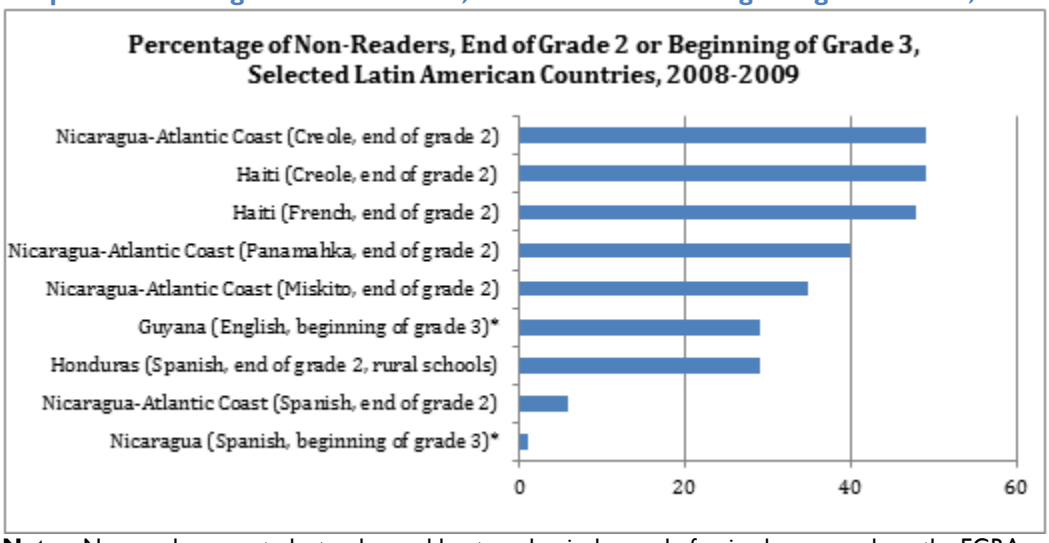
[2] Data from the 2008 Save the Children EGRA assessment in Guatemala showed 4 percent non-readers in Spanish in a midyear assessment of a non-representative sample of third graders. A 2009 EGRA assessment by CARE in Honduras found 8 percent non-readers in Spanish in a midyear assessment of a non-representative sample of third graders (Gove & Cvelich, 2011, Table 3, p. 15).

[3]Gove and Wetterberg point out that because small, rural schools were excluded from the sample, the results for Nicaragua might be higher than true country averages.

[4]PIRLS set four international benchmarks for 2011: (1)advanced international benchmark (scores of 625+), students can integrate ideas and information across texts to provide reasons and explanations,(2)high international benchmark (scores of 550-624),students can make inferences and interpretations with text-based support, (3)intermediate benchmark (scores of 475-549) can make straightforward inferences from the text, and (4)

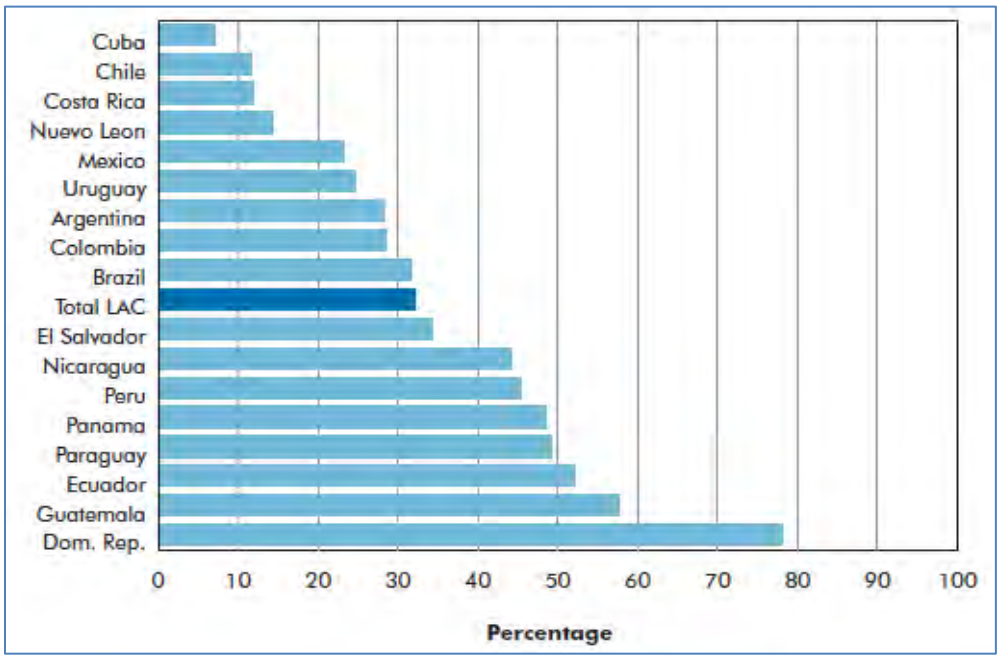
the three LAC countries could locate and retrieve information from different parts of the text, relatively few students were able to use reading to make inferences or integrate ideas across texts, placing them at a serious disadvantage in increasingly knowledge-based societies.

Graph 1: Percentage of Non-Readers, End of Grade 2 or Beginning of Grade 3, 2008–2009



Notes: Non-readers are students who could not read a single word of a simple paragraph on the EGRA assessment. Asterisk indicates nationally representative sample. Haiti data is from a regional sample of two districts. Honduras is from a rural sample of PROHECO schools. Nicaragua (Spanish) is a national sample, excluding small rural schools of less than 20 students per grade. Nicaragua Atlantic Coast excludes small rural schools of less than 60 students.
Source: Gove & Cvelich, 2011, Table 2, p. 13.

Graph 2: Percentage of Third Grade Students Scoring at the Lowest Levels on the SERCE Reading Test, 2006



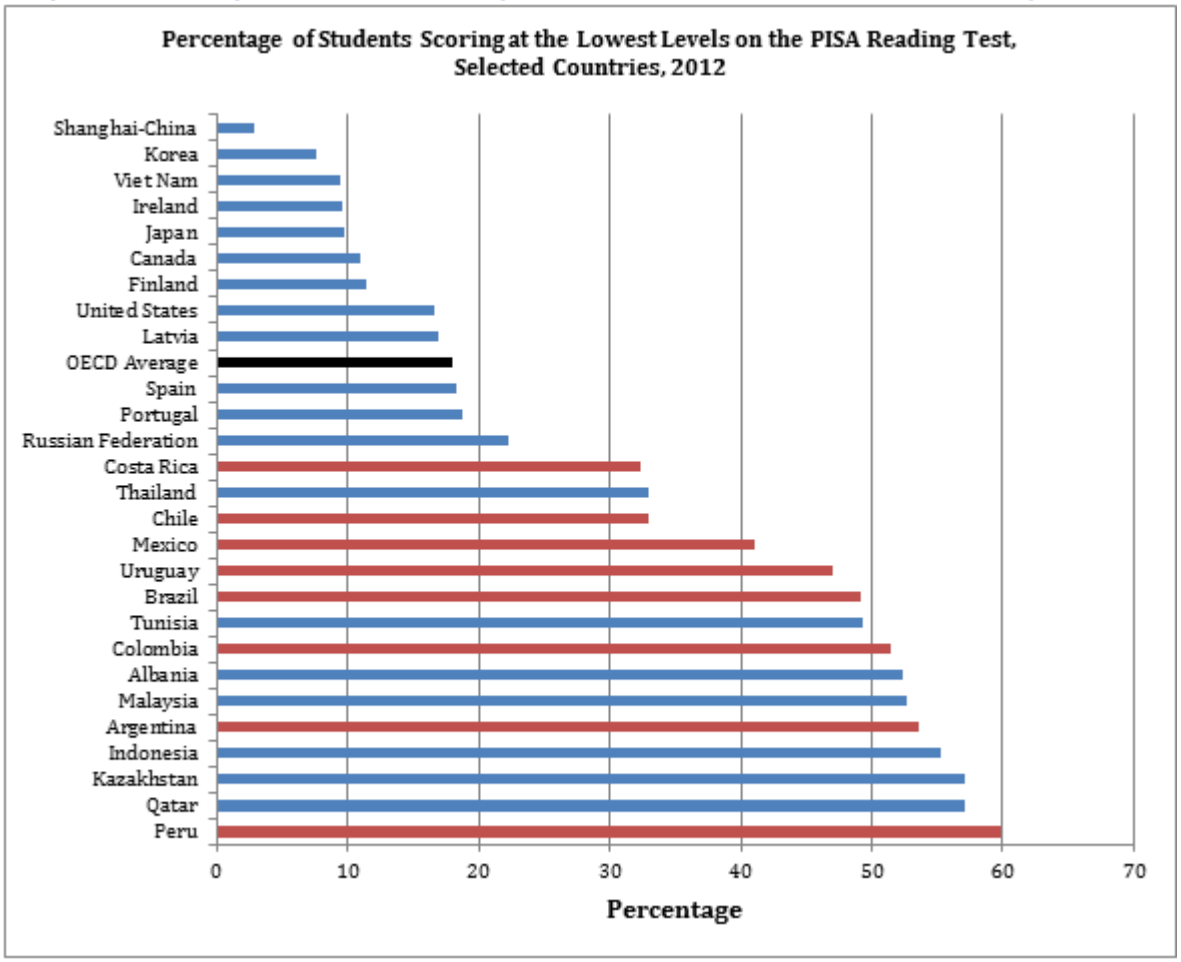
Notes: SERCE had four performance levels, ranging from Level 1 (lowest) to Level 4 (highest). The graph shows those at or below Level 1. For a description of what third graders can do at each level of the test see SERCE (2008), Executive Summary, Table 6, p.28.
Source: Ganimian, 2009. Figure 2, p. 17.

students at the low benchmark (scores of 400-474) can locate and retrieve information from different parts of the text. Participating Latin American and Caribbean countries' average scores were between 448 and 471.

Adolescent reading

Global tests of 15-year-olds show similar deficits in young people's ability to use reading as a tool for work or further learning. More than 30 percent of participating Latin American students performed at the lowest levels in reading on the most recent Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) test, compared to less than 10 percent of students in top performing countries. (See Graph 3.) Less than 1 percent of Latin American students performed at the highest reading proficiency levels on PISA 2012. (See Appendix, Table A.2.)

Graph 3: Percentage of Students Scoring at the Lowest Levels on the PISA Reading Test, 2012



Notes: Selected countries include top performer, Shanghai, the top five countries (not including economies like Hong Kong or Singapore), bottom five countries, all LAC participants, Spain, Portugal, United States, and Canada. Finland is also included as a previous top performer, Vietnam as an up and comer, Latvia and Russia as countries with similar gross domestic product (GDP), and Indonesia, Malaysia, and Thailand as potential economic competitors.
Source: OECD, 2013a, Annex B, Table 1.4.1b.

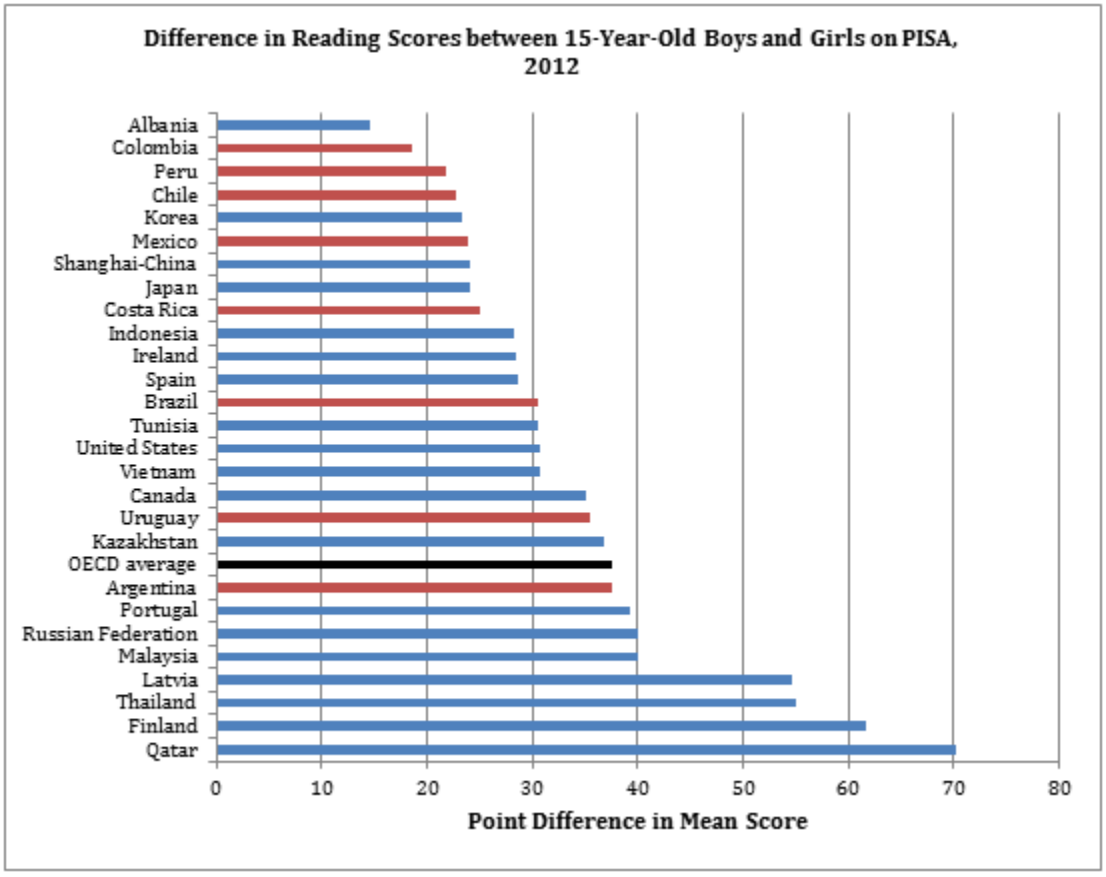
Reading performance by gender

Reading performance in LAC tends to be lower among boys and young men. Available evidence suggests that, in the early grades, boys and girls start out with similar reading performance. For example, EGRA results for Honduras and Nicaragua showed no statistically significant gender difference in boys and girls ability to recognize letters, read one word or read with 80 percent comprehension, with the exception of Miskito girls' letter recognition advantage in Nicaragua. (Girls in Guyana, however, did significantly better

than boys in all three areas.)[5] Likewise, there were no statistically significant gender differences in third-grade reading performance on the 2006 SERCE exam.

However, by the fourth and sixth grades, girls usually show stronger reading performance than boys. Of the 45 countries that participated in the 2011 PIRLS test, all but 5 showed an advantage for girls (on average 16 points). Although Colombia was one of those 5 with no gender difference, down from a 12-point gap in 2001, Trinidad and Tobago had a gender gap of 31 points in favor of girls, the same gap as in 2006. Honduras also had a gap of 12 points in favor of girls (Mullis et al., 2012, PIRLS).[6] Nine countries showed significant gender differences favoring girls on the sixth-grade SERCE reading test. (See Appendix, Graph A.2.) Gender differences in reading performance are also evident among older students. All countries participating in the 2012 PISA reading test showed higher performance among girls than boys, and Latin American countries were no exception. However, gender differences in Latin American countries were generally lower than the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) average, and Colombia had the second lowest gap of all participating countries. (See Graph 4.) Of the 5 Latin American countries with available data from 2000 and 2012 (Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Mexico, and Peru), only Brazil showed a statistically significant widening of the gender gap in favor of girls (OECD, 2013a, Annex B, Table 1.4.3c).

Graph 4: Difference in Reading Scores between 15-Year-Old Girls and Boys on PISA, 2012



Notes: Selected countries include top performer, Shanghai, the top five countries (not including economies like Hong Kong or Singapore), bottom five countries, all LAC participants, Spain, Portugal, United States, and Canada. Finland is included as a previous top performer, Vietnam as an up and comer, Latvia and Russia as countries with similar GDP, and Indonesia, Malaysia, and Thailand as potential economic competitors. All participating countries showed significant differences in reading in favor of girls. Latin American countries are marked in red.
Source: OECD, 2013a. Annex B, Table 1.4.1b.

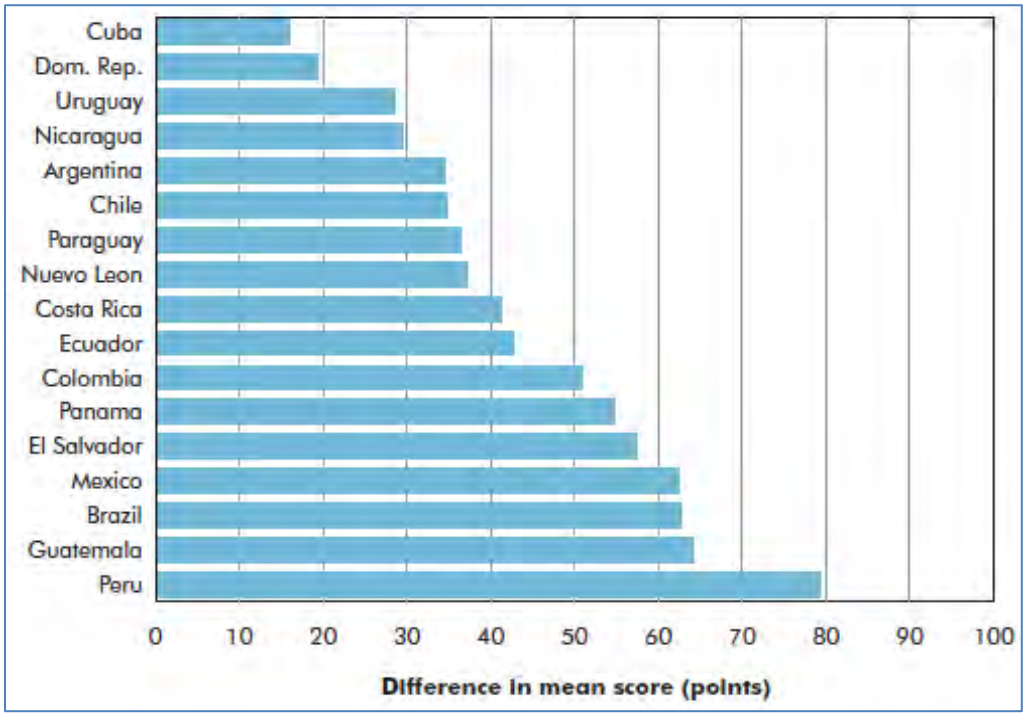
[5] From *EdData II brief on reading skills and gender at* http://www.rti.org/brochures/eddata_ii_gender_gaps.pdf.

[6] Honduras only participated in 2011 and, therefore, has no time trend data.

Reading performance by residence and income

Rural, poor, and indigenous children are at a particular disadvantage in terms of reading skills. Rural students had lower reading scores than urban peers on both the 2006 SERCE and 2009 PISA test.[7] (See Graph 5 and Appendix, Graph A.3.) Moreover, rural-urban achievement gaps on SERCE reading were wider than those between boys and girls. On PISA, rural students in Argentina, Mexico, Chile, Peru, and Panama scored behind urban peers by the equivalent of more than one grade level in OECD countries. (See Appendix, Graph A.3.) Children from poor families scored almost two grade levels or more behind wealthier peers on the 2009 PISA reading test. (See Graph 6.) In Peru in 2011, Spanish-speaking students were seven times more likely to achieve a satisfactory level in reading than speakers of native languages. Indeed, only 4 percent of those whose first language was not Spanish achieved a satisfactory level of achievement (UNESCO/OREALC, 2014, p. 9). Graph 1 provides further examples of rural and indigenous students' disadvantage in early grade reading.

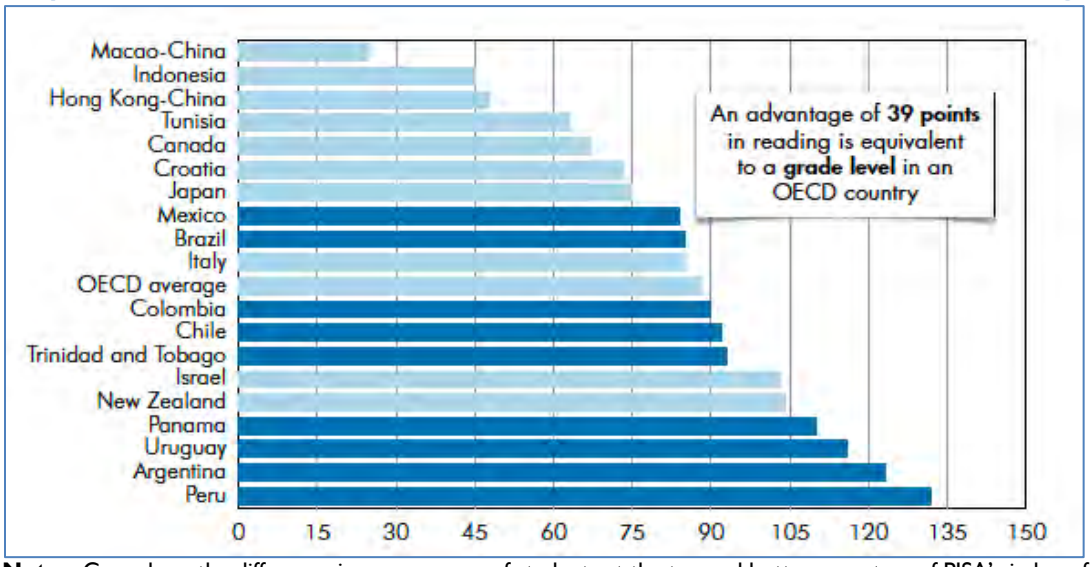
Graph 5: Urban Third Graders' Advantage over Rural Peers in Mean SERCE Reading Scores, 2006



Note: The graph only includes those countries where the differences in mean scores were statistically significant.
Source: Ganimian, 2009, Figure 12, p.29.

[7] See Ganimian, 2009, and Ganimian & Solano, 2011 for additional scores by rural-urban. Note that PISA 2009 focused on reading and the reports provided more detailed analysis of scores in that area. PISA 2012 focused on mathematics and, thus, the reports provided less detailed information on differences in reading.

Graph 6: Difference in Mean Scores between Rich and Poor Students on PISA Reading Test, 2009

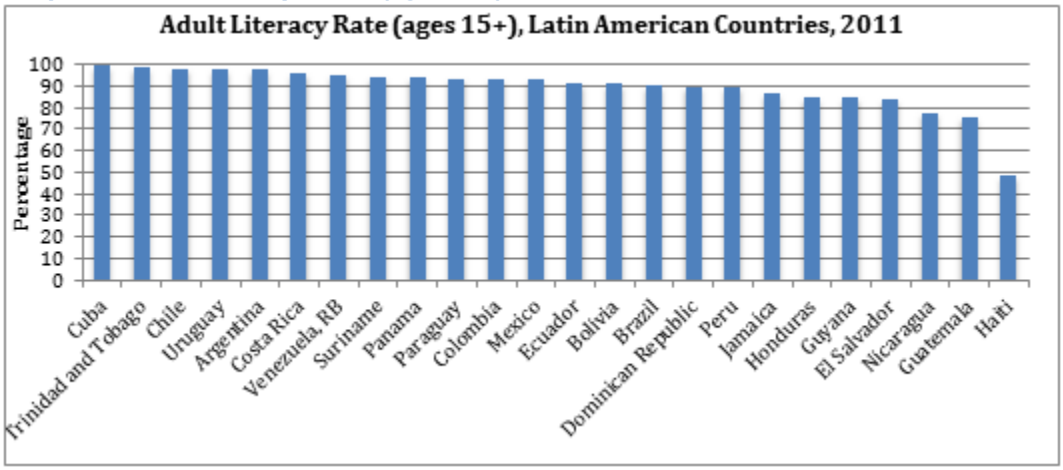


Notes: Gaps show the difference in mean scores of students at the top and bottom quarters of PISA's index of economic, social, and cultural status. Differences were statistically significant in all participating countries, but this graph includes only the top three performers on this indicator (i.e., countries with the smallest gaps), Latin American and Caribbean countries, one country per region, and the OECD average.
Source: Ganimian & Solano, 2011, graph 23, p.44.

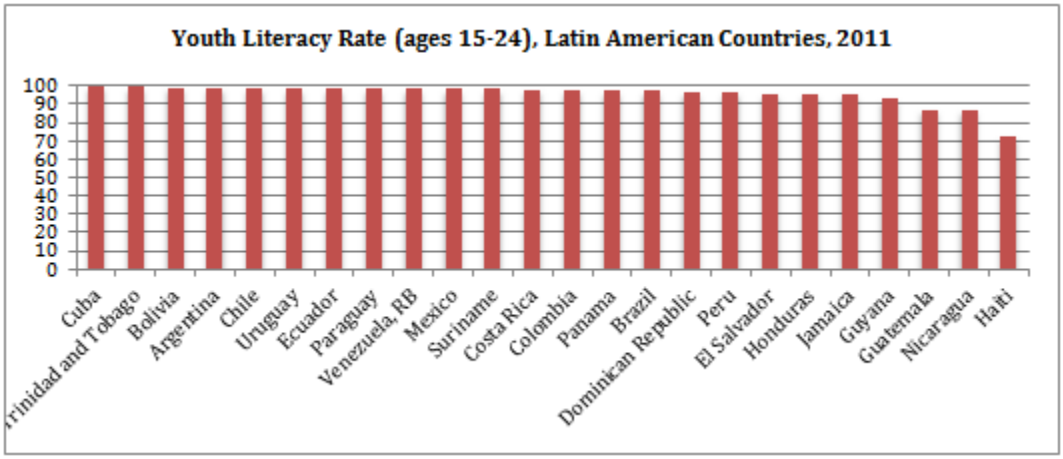
Adult and youth literacy rates

Aggregate literacy rates show that in most LAC countries 9 out of 10 individuals age 15 and older can read and write with understanding a simple sentence about their daily lives. Nearly every young person between ages 15 and 24 reports being able to complete this task, and rates have increased or held steady since 2000 in those countries where rates were already close to 100 percent. El Salvador and Honduras, in particular, saw dramatic increases in youth literacy rates between 2000 and 2011, with rates increasing by more than 7 percentage points. Guatemala increased youth literacy by 5 percentage points. Several countries also saw dramatic surges in literacy among adults as a whole. Guatemala, Jamaica, El Salvador, Honduras, and Suriname all increased adult literacy rates by more than 5 percent. (See Graphs 7 & 8 and Appendix, Tables A.3 & A.4.) Yet Haiti showed a decline in both youth and adult literacy rates between 2003 and 2006.

Graph 7: Adult Literacy Rates (ages 15+), LAC, 2011



Graph 8: Youth Literacy Rates, LAC, 2011



Notes: Data within 2 years of date listed, except Haiti's figure for 2011 is 2006 data. Nicaragua's figure for 2011 is 2005 data. Both match 2011 rates given in UNESCO's *Education for All Global Monitoring Report* 2014.
Source: World Bank, EdStats online database, consulted 1/5/14. Peru 2011 data is from EFA Global Monitoring 2014, Table 2.

Latin American adult literacy rates are well above global averages and similar to those of developed countries and East Asia, particularly among young people ages 15–24. (See Graph 9 and Appendix, Tables A.5 & A.6.) Although data show that more than 3 million young adults ages 15–24 in the region were illiterate in 2011, this is less than 3 percent of more than 124 million illiterate young people worldwide.[8] However, these illiteracy rates are usually based on self-reporting from household surveys rather than tests of actual literacy skills. Tests of reading skills typically show lower literacy rates than those based on self-reporting.[9] In addition, UNESCO's glossary of indicators notes that "some countries apply definitions and criteria for literacy which are different from the international standards or equate persons with no schooling to illiterates, or change definitions between censuses. Practices for identifying literates and illiterates during actual census enumeration may also vary."[10] Therefore, adult and youth literacy figures may not give an

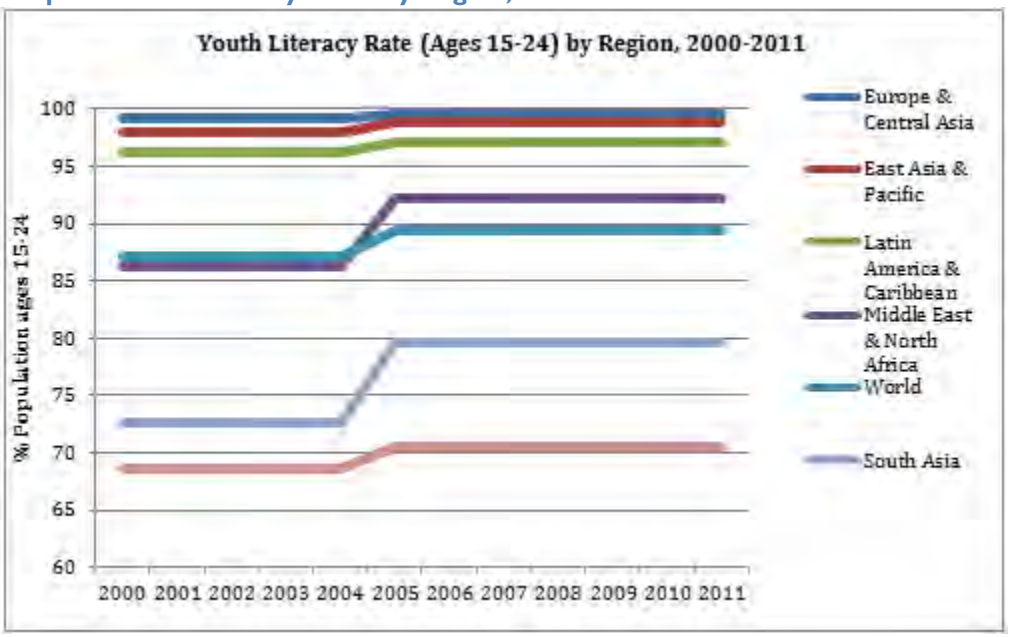
[8] Calculations based on data on total number of illiterates by region from World Bank, EdStats online database, consulted on 1/4/14.

[9] From UNESCO datasheet "Countries with Literacy Rates Based on Reading Assessment" available at http://stats.uis.unesco.org/unesco/ReportFolders/ReportFolders.aspx. UNESCO's *2014 Education for All Global Monitoring Report* also notes that test-based literacy assessments show lower rates than self-reports from surveys.

[10] From http://www.uis.unesco.org/Pages/Glossary.aspx. Additional information on literacy rate calculation available at http://www.un.org/esa/sustdev/natlinfo/indicators/methodology_sheets/education/adult_literacy.pdf.

accurate picture of the number of individuals who can actually read and write a simple sentence, much less perform the more advanced reading tasks required in a knowledge economy.

Graph 9: Youth Literacy Rates by Region, 2000–2011



Notes: No data is available for high income countries, but literacy rates in those economies are generally considered to be universal. UNESCO-UIS Fact Sheet 26, September 2013 shows similar rates for LAC and world averages.
Source: World Bank, EdStats online database, consulted 1/5/14.

Illiteracy rates among older adults

Pockets of illiteracy remain. Three countries—Guatemala, Nicaragua and Haiti—still have youth literacy rates below 90 percent, and only Nicaragua is predicted to surpass 90 percent by 2015. Seven countries (Jamaica, Honduras, Guyana, El Salvador, Nicaragua, Guatemala, and Haiti) have adult literacy rates that are lower than 90 percent and none is expected to surpass that mark by 2015. (See Graphs 7 & 8 and Appendix, Tables A.3 & A.4.).

Although literacy rates are generally improving among all age groups, illiteracy remains concentrated among older cohorts with less recent schooling experience. Adults age 50 and older have the highest illiteracy rates in all Latin American countries that have data available, with particular lags in Central America. (See Appendix, Table A.7.) While countries like Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay have illiteracy rates of less than 10 percent for this age group, more than a third of the population age 50 and over are illiterate in El Salvador, Guatemala, and Nicaragua. Bolivia and Honduras, which also have high rates of illiteracy among older adults, reduced those rates by more than 10 percentage points between 2000 and 2011. Women over 50 have the highest illiteracy rates (when comparing by age and gender) in the LAC region, with the exception of Uruguay, where women in all age groups have lower illiteracy rates than men.[11]

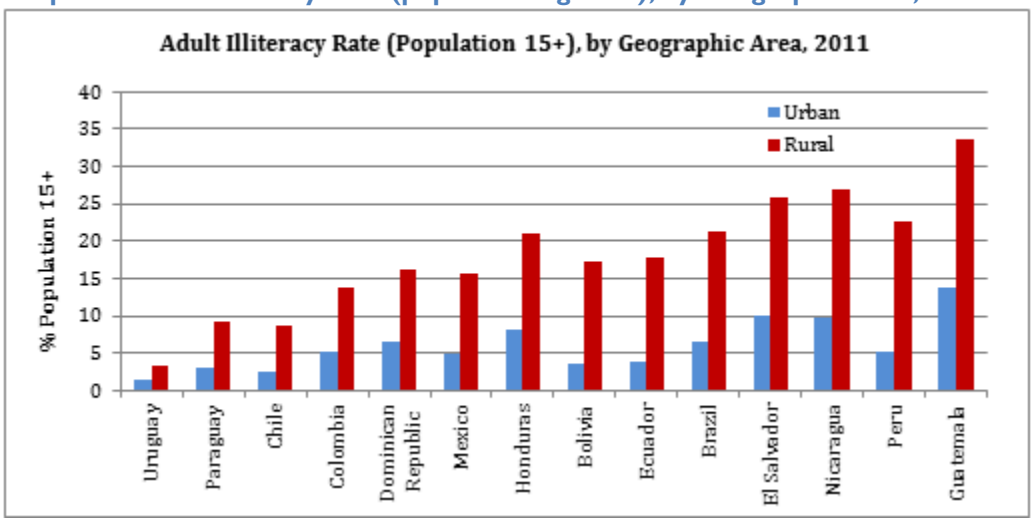
Illiteracy rates among adults by residence and income

Adult illiteracy rates are also 5 to almost 20 percentage points higher in rural than in urban areas. **(**See Graph 10 and Appendix, Table A.8**.)** Although the gaps between rural and urban residents have

[11] Sistema de Información de Tendencias Educativas en América Latina (SITEAL) online database.

decreased in most countries, it increased by more than 5 percentage points in the Dominican Republic between 2005 and 2011. Rural women usually have the highest illiteracy rates, particularly in Guatemala and Peru, where more than a third of rural women are illiterate. (See Appendix, Table A.9.)

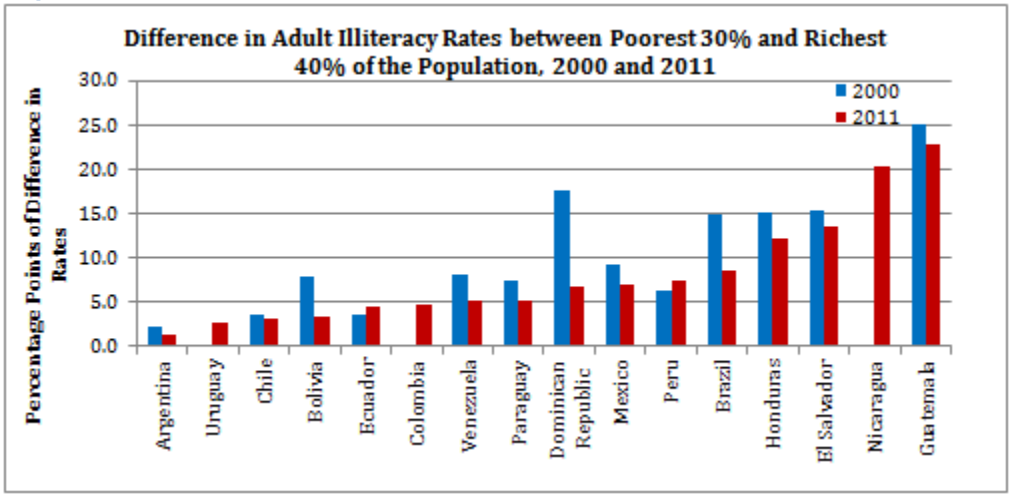
Graph 10: Adult Illiteracy Rate (population age 15+), by Geographic Area, 2011



Notes: Data within 2 years of date listed. Countries ordered from lowest to highest gap in illiteracy rates. Argentina excluded because urban only. Venezuela did not have disaggregated data. Panama and Costa Rica had zero values.
Source: Sistema de Información de Tendencias Educativas en América Latina (SITEAL) online database, consulted 1/10/14.

Poorer populations are more likely to be illiterate, with gaps of more than 20 percentage points between the poorest 30 percent and the richest 40 percent of adults age 15 and older in Guatemala and Nicaragua. More than a quarter of the poorest 30 percent is illiterate in these two countries, while only 5–6 percent of the richest 40 percent is illiterate. Gaps between rich and poor have declined modestly in most countries (1–3 percentage points), but Brazil reduced its gap by more than 6 percentage points and the Dominican Republic narrowed it by 11 percentage points between 2000-and 2011.However, gaps between rich and poor in Ecuador and Peru appeared to widen slightly during the 11-year period. (See Graph 11 and Appendix, Table A.10.)

Graph 11: Difference in Adult Illiteracy Rates between Poorest 30 Percent and Richest 40 Percent of the Population, 2000 and 2011



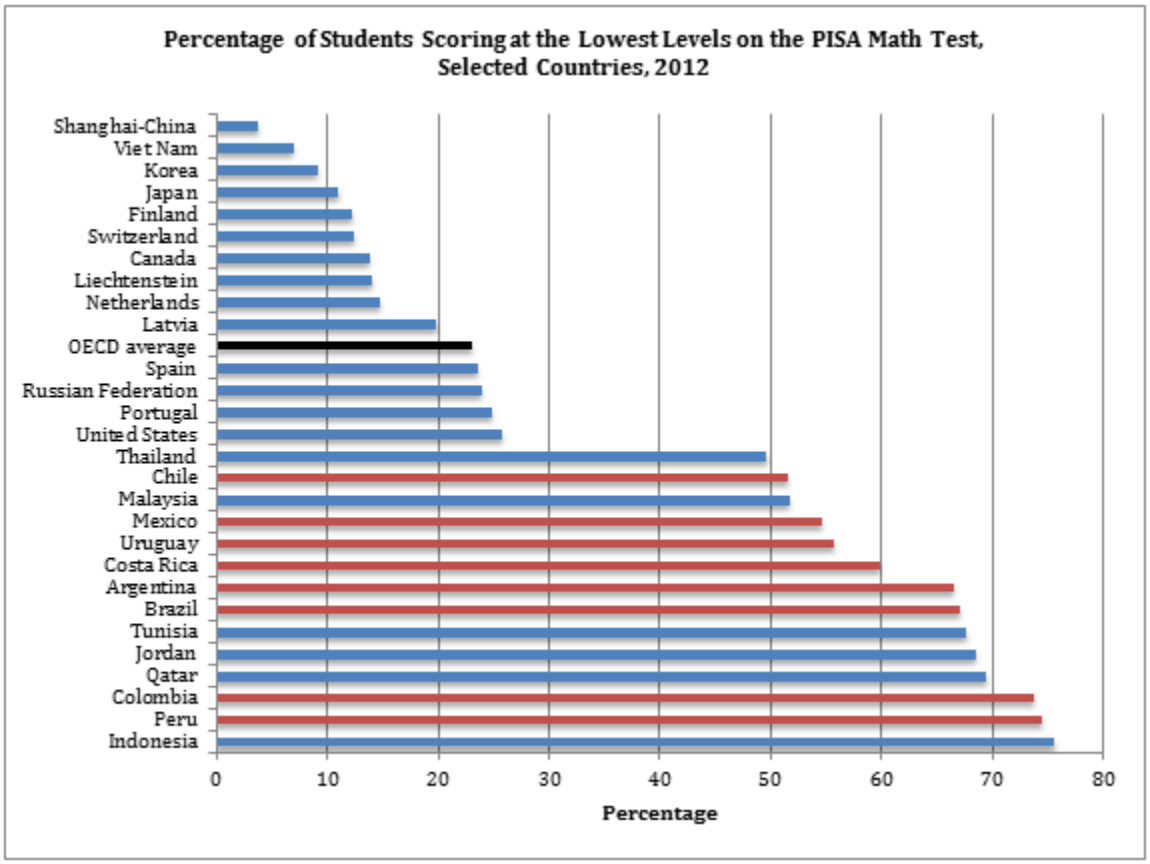
Notes: Data within 2 years of date listed. Countries ordered from lowest to highest gap in illiteracy rates. Costa Rica and Panama had zero values.
Source: Sistema de Información de Tendencias Educativas en América Latina (SITEAL) online database, consulted 1/10/14.

II. OTHER LEARNING OUTCOMES

Math and science test scores

Latin American students show low levels of learning on international math and science tests at the elementary, middle school, and high school level. (See Graph 12, and Appendix, Graph A.4 & Tables A.11-A.12.) On the most recent global test of student achievement, PISA 2012, more than half of 15-year-old Latin American students performed at the lowest levels on the math exam, while a third or more performed at the lowest levels in science. (See Appendix, Table A.13.) Less than 2 percent of Latin American students performed at the highest levels on either subject, compared to close to 10 percent in Vietnam and more than a quarter of students in top-performing Shanghai, a large city in China.

Graph 12: Percentage of Students Scoring at the Lowest Levels on the PISA Math Test, Selected Countries, 2012



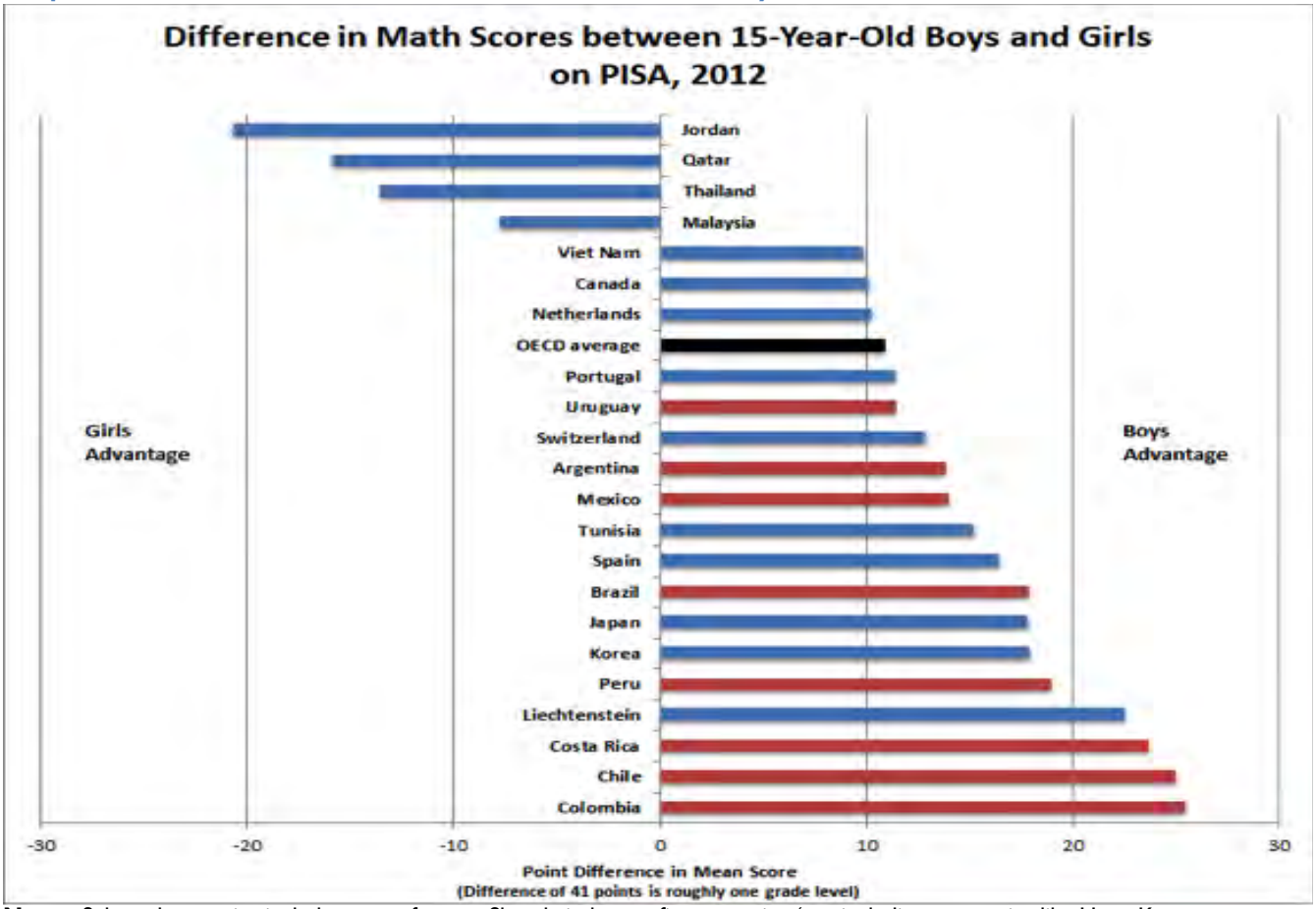
Notes: Selected countries include top performer, Shanghai, the top five countries (not including economies like Hong Kong or Singapore), bottom five countries, all LAC participants, Spain, Portugal, United States, and Canada. Finland is also included as a previous top performer, Vietnam as an up and comer, Latvia and Russia as countries with similar GDP, and Indonesia, Malaysia, and Thailand as potential economic competitors.
Source: OECD, 2013a, Annex B, Table 1.2.1a.

Math and science test scores by gender

In the LAC region, girls tend to score higher than boys on reading tests; boys tend to score higher on math tests; and, in general, girls and boys score similarly—low—on science tests. (See Graphs 13 & 14.) Latin American countries had among the highest gender differences in math in participating countries. In

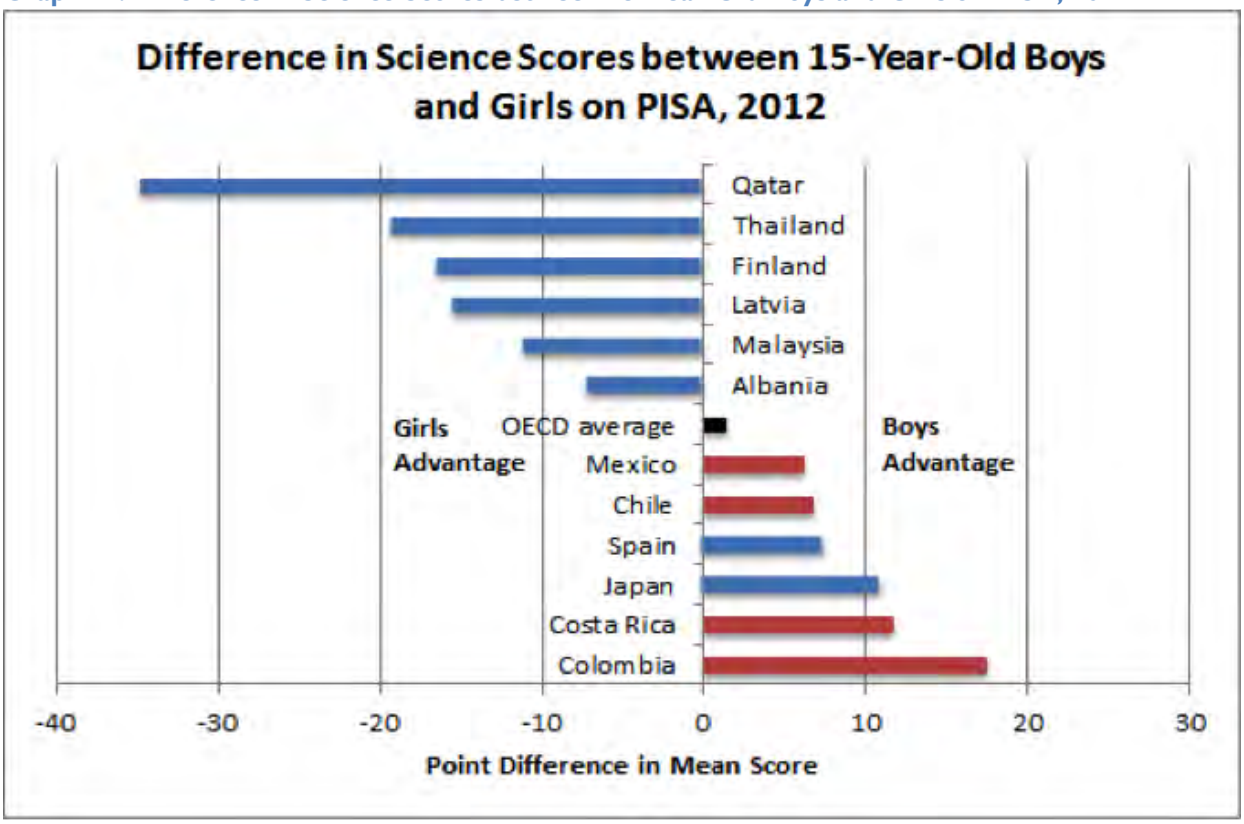
science, only 27 of 64 participating countries showed significant gender differences on the PISA science test, and of those, only 10 favored boys. Argentina, Brazil, Peru, and Uruguay had no statistically significant gender differences in science. However, Colombia had the largest difference in favor of boys in science of all participating countries/economies. PISA 2009 and SERCE 2006 showed similar gender results, with boys having an advantage in math and few statistically significant gender differences in science (Ganimian & Solano, 2011; Ganimian, 2009).

Graph 13: Difference in Math Scores between 15-Year-Old Boys and Girls on PISA, 2012



Notes: Selected countries include top performer, Shanghai, the top five countries (not including economies like Hong Kong or Singapore), bottom five countries, all LAC participants, Spain, Portugal, United States, and Canada. Finland is included as a previous top performer, Vietnam as an up and comer, Latvia and Russia as countries with similar GDP, and Thailand as a potential economic competitor. Gender differences in Finland, the United States, Indonesia, Latvia, Russia, and Shanghai were not statistically significant. Jordan, Qatar, Thailand, and Malaysia all had statistically significant differences that favored girls. Latin American countries are in red.
Source: OECD, 2013a, Annex B, Table 1.2.3a.

Graph 14: Difference in Science Scores between 15-Year-Old Boys and Girls on PISA, 2012



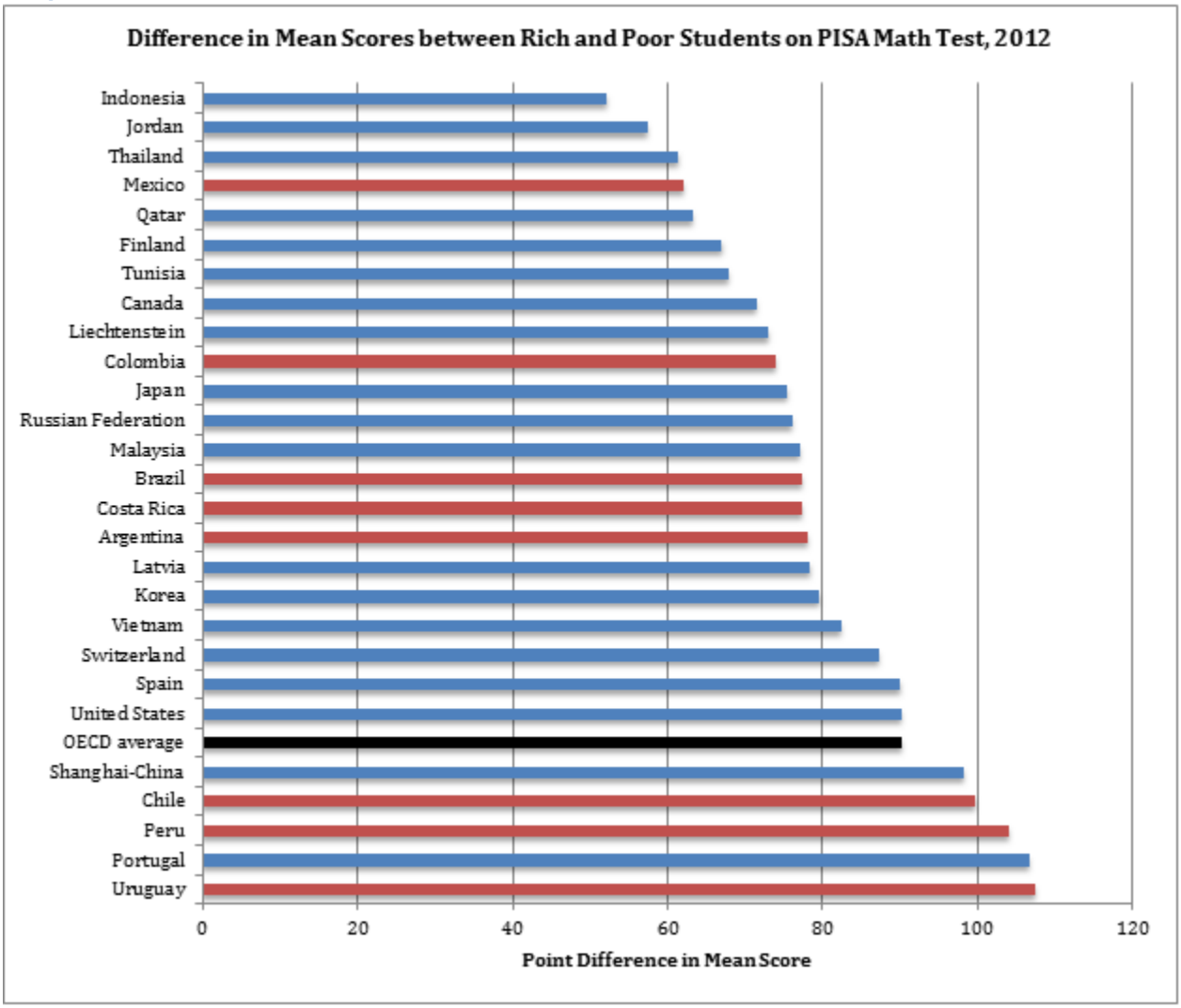
Notes: Selected countries include: Shanghai as top performer, top five countries leaving out other "economies" (e.g., Singapore, Hong Kong, Chinese Taipei, and Macao), bottom five countries, all LAC participants, Spain, Portugal, United States, and Canada. Finland is included as a previous top performer, Vietnam as an up and comer, Latvia and Russia as countries with similar GDP, and Indonesia, Thailand, and Malaysia as potential economic competitors. If a country from this list is not included in the graph, it is because gender differences were not statistically significant. Latin American countries marked in red.
Source: OECD, 2013a, Annex B, Table 1.5.1b.

Math and science test scores by residence and income

Poor and rural students often perform worse than wealthier, urban peers in math and science. Urban students performed better than rural students in math and science on the 2006 SERCE test.[12] At the same time, OECD analysis of the most recent PISA math results found that socioeconomic status accounts for more than 20 percent of the difference in mathematics scores in Peru, Chile, and Uruguay (OECD, 2013b, p. 13, 15). Indeed, students from the poorest quarter of the socioeconomic index are often nearly two grade levels behind students from the highest quarter. (See Graph 15.) Nine out of 13 countries and economies that showed significant improvement in math (including Brazil) also maintained similar equity levels, "proving that countries do not have to sacrifice high performance to achieve equity in education opportunities" (OECD, 2013b, p.3). Mexico improved performance and equity, with improvements of more than 40 points (about 1 year of formal schooling) among the poorest students (OECD, 2013b, p.13).

[12] See Ganimian, 2009 for examples from SERCE.

Graph 15: Difference in Mean Scores between Rich and Poor Students on PISA Math Test, 2012



Notes: Selected countries include Shanghai as top performer, the top five countries leaving out other "economies" (e.g., Singapore, Hong Kong, Chinese Taipei, and Macao), bottom five countries, all LAC participants, Spain, Portugal, United States, and Canada. Finland is also included as a previous top performer, Vietnam as an up and comer, Latvia and Russia as countries with similar GDP, and Indonesia, Thailand, and Malaysia as potential economic competitors. A difference of 41 points is equivalent to a grade level in OECD countries.
Source: OECD, 2013b, Annex B, Table II.2.4a.

Most countries in the region now monitor learning through national assessment systems, and many more are participating in international tests. (See Appendix, Table A. 14.) Eight Latin American countries participated in the 2012 PISA test, many for a second or subsequent time, and performance appears to be improving in several of them. For example, Brazil improved in math, science, and reading on the most recent PISA test, while Chile, Colombia and Peru improved in reading, and Mexico improved in math (Bos, et al., 2014a; OECD, 2013b). Brazil and Mexico were among the five countries with the biggest improvements in math,[13] while Chile and Peru experienced some of the biggest improvements in reading. However, Argentina and Costa Rica showed no significant changes in any of the three areas, and Uruguay's scores actually decreased.

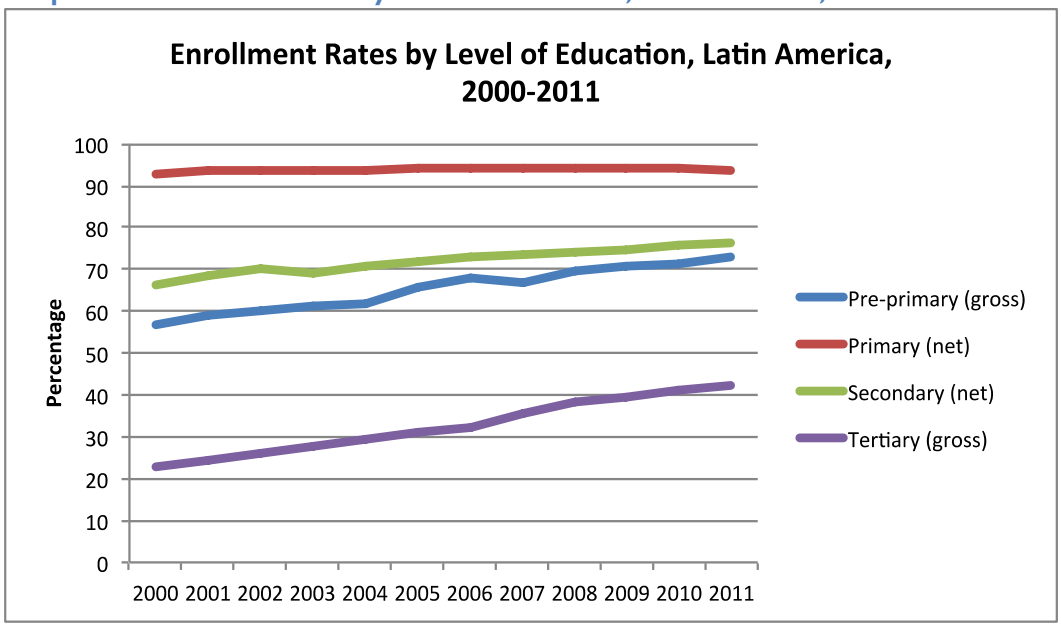
[13]However, OECD PISA analysis points out that although Mexico was among the most improved countries in math, it would still take a quarter century to catch up with the OECD average (OECD, 2013b).

III. ENROLLMENT AND SPENDING

Regional enrollment rates

Enrollment rates have increased at every level of schooling, and most children complete primary school. Average enrollment rates for the region have increased most dramatically at the pre-primary and tertiary level, reflecting improvements in secondary school coverage and an increased focus on preschool in several countries. (See Graph 6 and Appendix, Table A.15.) Primary school enrollment rates for the region have remained steady at around 94 percent since 2004, and primary school completion rates are over 90 percent in almost every country in the region. (See Appendix, Table A.16.) However, Suriname, Guatemala, Nicaragua, and Jamaica still face challenges in primary school completion, with rates between 80 and 88 percent in the most recent year for which data are available.[14]

Graph 16: Enrollment Rates by Level of Education, Latin America, 2000–2011



Source: World Bank, EdStats online database, consulted on 2/5/14.

Spending on education (national, per pupil)

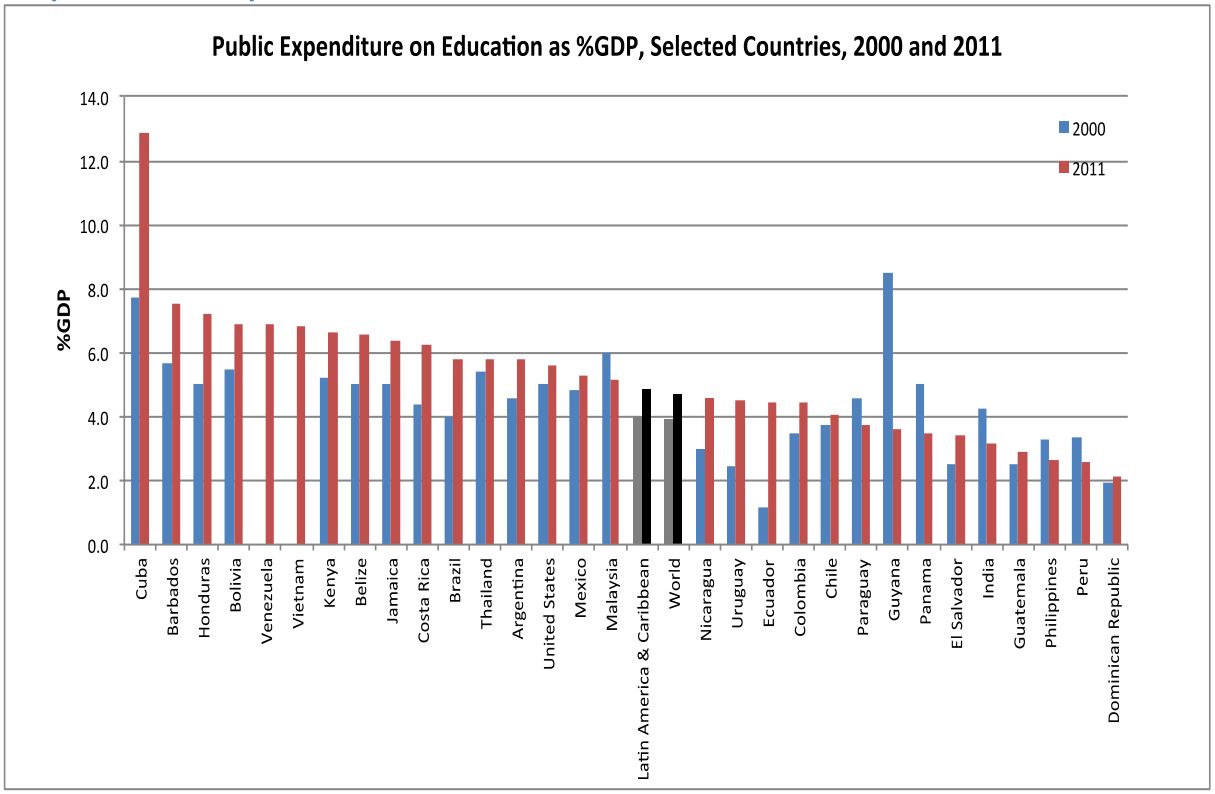
Latin American and Caribbean countries invest, on average, a larger share of national income (percent GDP) on education than the global average. Spending on education as a percentage of gross domestic product (GDP) increased in almost every country in the region between 2000 and 2011, although spending varies widely. (See Graph 17 and Appendix, Table A.17.) Paraguay, Guyana, Panama, and Peru, which are among the countries that invest the smallest shares of GDP in education, saw their investment as a share of national income decline. Notably, most Latin American countries spend a lower share of GDP on education than Vietnam (6.8 percent), a country that performed higher than LAC and Kenya (6.7 percent) on the PISA test. About half of LAC countries with available data invest less than the global average, and the Dominican Republic, Peru, and Guatemala invest less than 3 percent—half the 6 percent recommended by the Programa de Promoción de la Reforma Educativa en América Latina y el Caribe (PREAL) Task Force on

[14] Most recent data for Jamaica is 2004. Nicaragua is 2010, Guatemala and Suriname are 2011.

Education.[15] Several countries also spend a larger percentage of GDP on education than the United States, although in absolute value, the United States still outspends almost everyone on a global scale.

Spending per pupil also increased. All countries with available historical data showed an increase in annual spending per pupil in primary school, and, although only nine countries had historical data for secondary school spending per pupil, most of those also showed increases over time. (Costa Rica and Panama were the exceptions.). As with investment as a share of GDP, spending varies widely after controlling for differences in cost of living, from under $500 PPP per student in primary school in Guatemala, Guyana, and Nicaragua to over $2,000 PPP in Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Mexico, and Trinidad and Tobago.[16] Secondary school spending per pupil ranges from $255 PPP in Nicaragua to over $5,000 PPP in Barbados. (See Graphs 18 & 19 and Appendix, Table A.18.) Despite increases, however, median spending on primary education per pupil, at $915 PPP, is lower than the global median of $1,174 PPP, and most countries in the region spend less than Malaysia and Thailand. Seven spend less than the $700 PPP spent by Vietnam, which outperformed Latin American countries on the most recent PISA test. While most countries spend more per pupil on secondary education, a few (Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, and El Salvador) spend about the same, and five (Bolivia, Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Nicaragua, and Trinidad and Tobago) actually spend less.

Graph 17: Public Expenditure on Education as Percent GDP, Selected Countries, 2000 and 2011

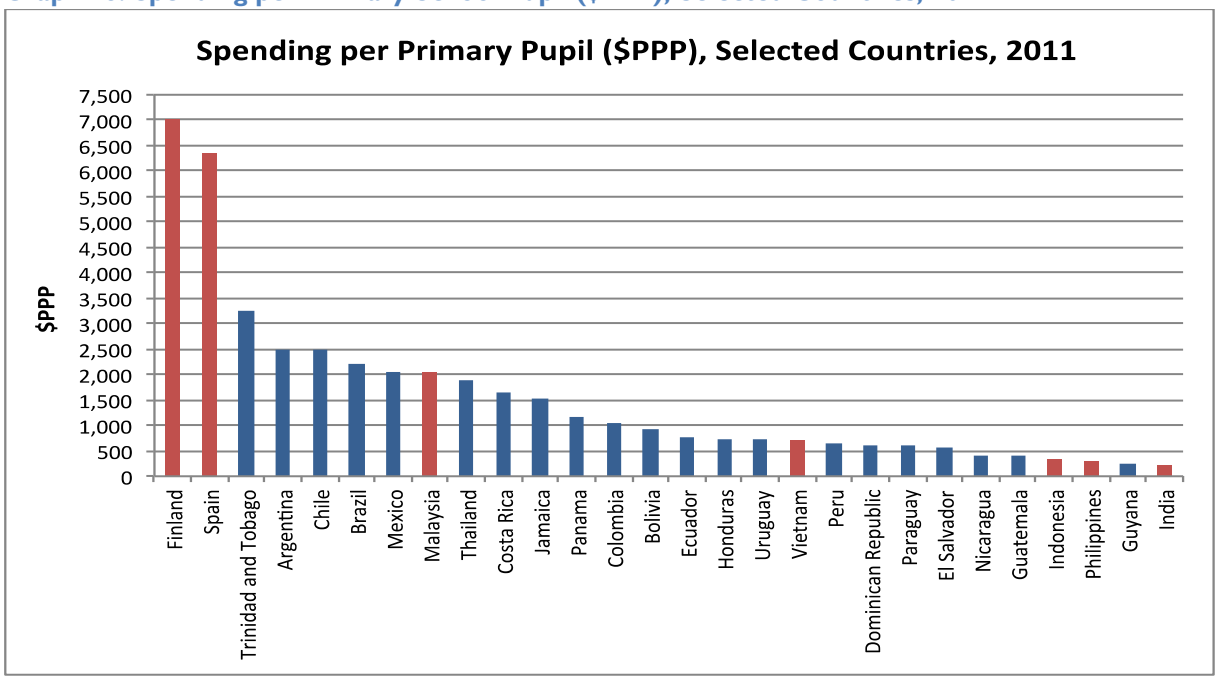


Notes: No data for Haiti or Suriname. All Honduras data is from 2010 PREAL/FEREMA national report, 2010 data is for 2008. Guatemala 2000 data is from 2008 PREAL/CIEN national report card. Dominican Republic 2010 data is for 2008, from PREAL/EDUCA 2010 national report card. *Education for All Global Monitoring* regional report for 2014 cites an average figure of 5.5 percent GDP for Latin America. However, Annex Table 9 in the full report shows a figure of 4.8 percent, which is consistent with the 4.9 percent cited in EdStats and used in the graph.
Source: World Bank, EdStats online database, consulted on 1/19/14.

[15] In English, PREAL is the Partnership for Educational Revitalization in the Americas.

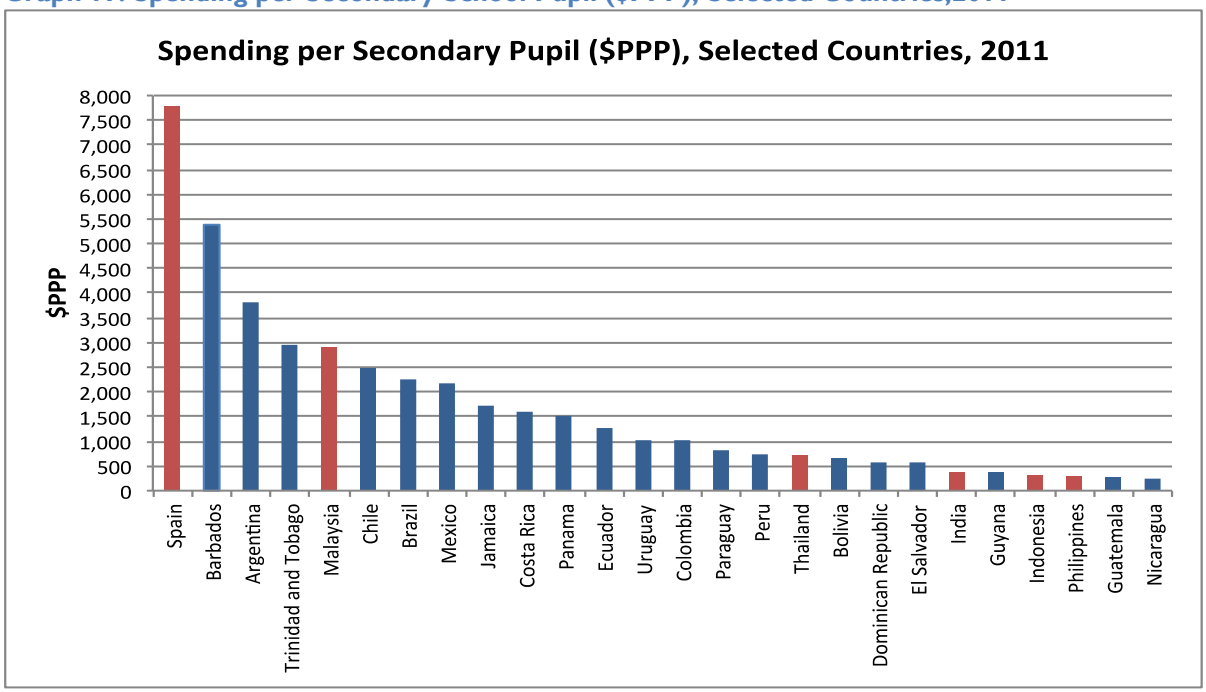
[16] UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) is the main source of education data for the EFA Global Monitoring Report. Public education spending per student are in purchasing power parity dollars (PPP$), which allows for direct comparison across countries of the relative value of the funding provided annually for education. The PPP$ are calculated using the Purchasing Power Parity rate, a rate of currency conversion which eliminates differences in price levels among countries. See http://www.uis.unesco.org/Education/Pages/FAQ.aspx

Graph 18: Spending per Primary School Pupil ($PPP), Selected Countries, 2011



Notes: All data within two 2 years of data listed except Philippines and El Salvador, which are for 2008. Comparison countries are marked in red. Data are reported in U.S. purchasing power parity to control for differences in cost of living among countries.
Source: UNESCO *Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2013-2014*, Statistical Tables, Table 9, pp. 380-383. Honduras and Jamaica from UNESCO Global Education Digest 2012, Table 13.

Graph 19: Spending per Secondary School Pupil ($PPP), Selected Countries,2011



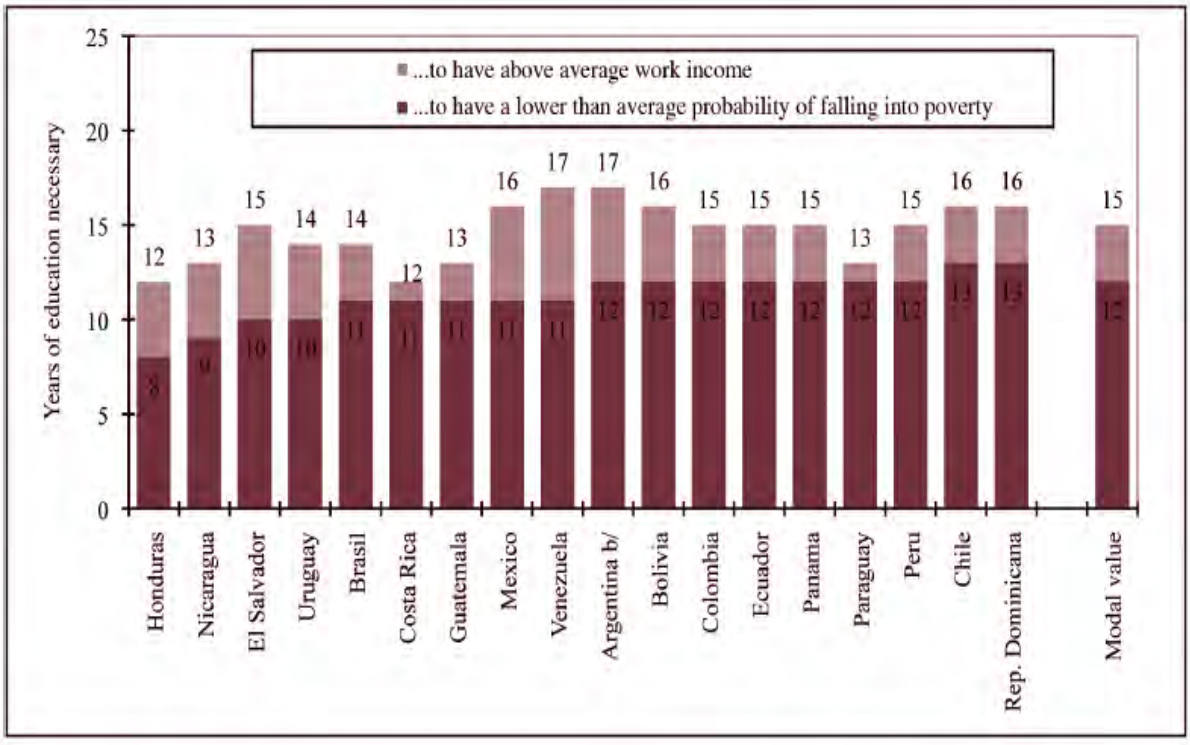
Notes: All data within 2 years of data listed except Philippines and El Salvador, which are for 2008. Comparison countries are marked in red. Finland not included because value of $12,083 distorts scale of graph. Data are reported in U.S. purchasing power parity to control for differences in cost of living among countries.
Source: UNSESCO *Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2013-2014*, Statistical Tables, Table 9, pp. 380-383. Jamaica from UNESCO Global Education Digest 2012, Table 13.

IV. WORK READINESS

Link between education, work, income, and economic growth

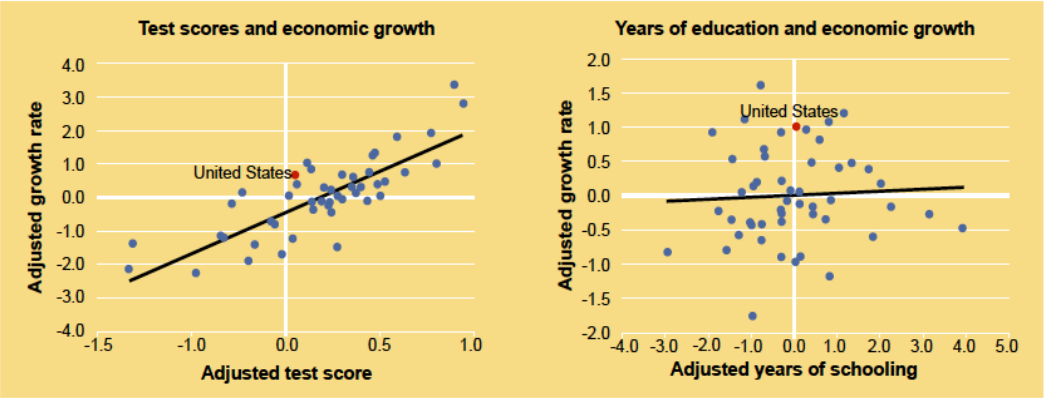
Research tells us that better educated adults have a lower probability of falling into poverty, earning higher incomes, living healthier lives, and engaging in positive civic behaviors. Analysis by the United Nations Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) in 2011 suggests that young people in most Latin American countries need to complete a minimum 12 years of schooling in order to have a high probability of staying out of poverty and a higher than average work income. (See Graph 20 and Appendix, Graph A.5.) Indeed, in several countries, 2 to 4 years of post-secondary education are also needed to ensure higher than average income. However, the number of years of schooling is an imperfect measure, and Hanushek et al. (2008) point out that it is learning, rather than years of schooling per se, that has the most impact on economic growth. (See Graph 21.) OECD analysis of the Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies (PIACC) concludes "that individuals scoring at the highest levels in literacy are almost three times as likely to enjoy higher wages than those scoring at the lowest levels, and those with low literacy skills are also more than twice as likely to be unemployed "(OECD, 2013b, p.26). Graph 22 shows additional positive health and civic outcomes associated with high levels of literacy on PIACC.

Graph 20: Years of Education Needed to Have a Lower Probability of Falling into Poverty or a Work Income Higher than Average Among Employed Persons Ages 20–29, 2008



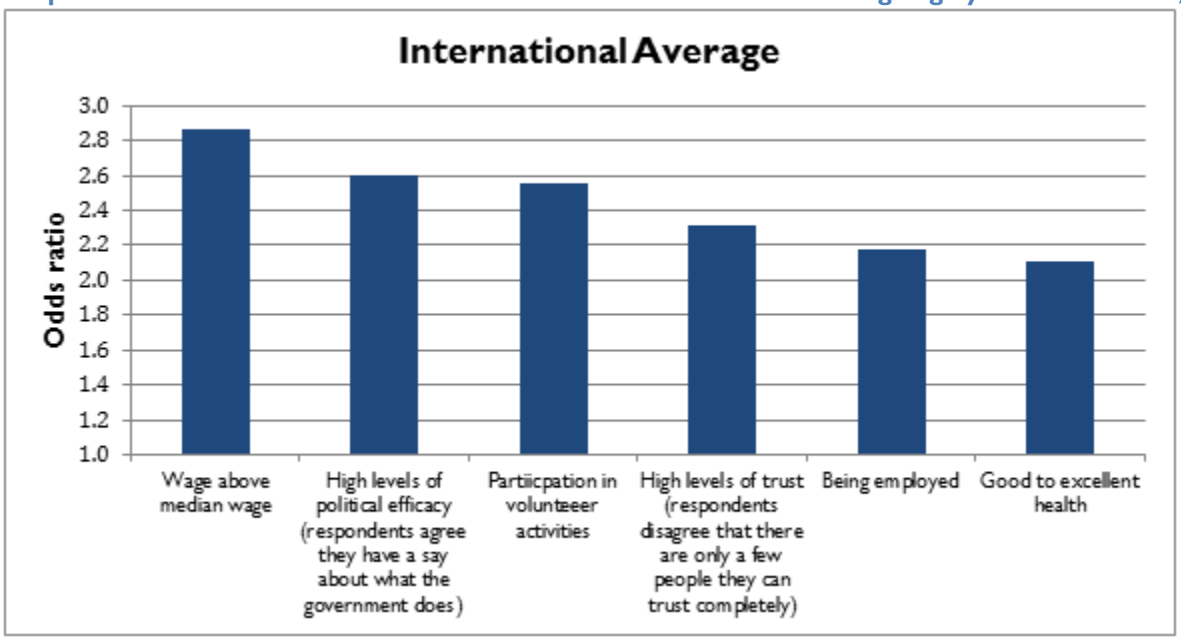
Notes: Urban areas, among those working over 20 hours a week.
Source: United Nations Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC), 2011, Figure 3, p. 9.

Graph 21: Learning, Years of Schooling, and Economic Growth, 1960–2000



Notes: The *y*-axis indicates growth rates from 1960 and 2000, adjusted for GDP in 1960, and school attainment/test scores. The x-axis in the first graph shows test scores adjusted for school attainment. The x-axis in second graph shows school attainment adjusted for test scores. The solid line shows the relationship between the two variables among the 50 countries with available test score information, each of which is represented by a dot.
Source: Hanushek et al., 2008, Figure 3.

Graph 22: Likelihood of Positive Social and Economic Outcomes among Highly Literate Adults, 2012



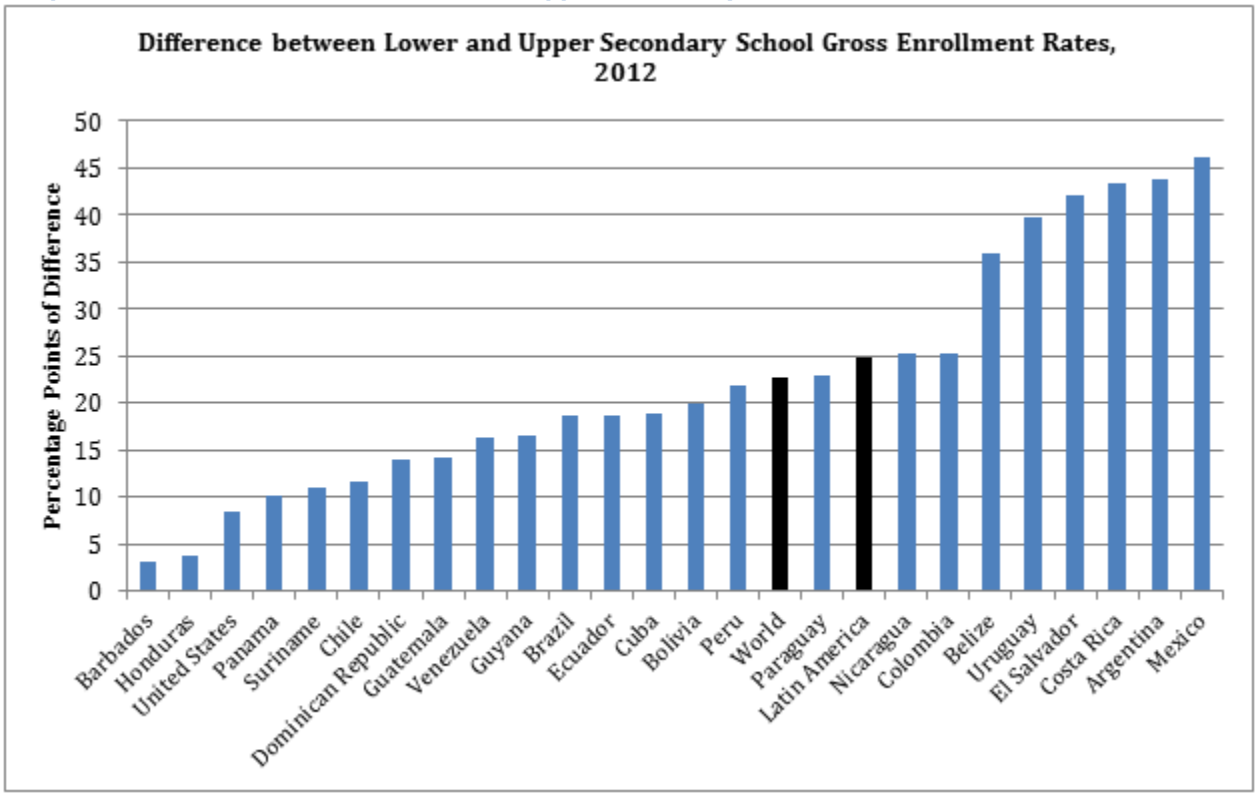
Notes: Graph shows increased likelihood (odds ratio) of adults scoring at Level 4/5 in literacy on the Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC) reporting high earnings, high levels of trust and political efficacy, good health, participating in volunteer activities, and being employed, compared with adults scoring at or below Level 1 in literacy. Odds ratios are adjusted for age, gender, educational attainment, and immigrant and language background. High wages are defined as workers' hourly earnings that are above the country's median.
Source: OECD, 2013b, Figure II.1.1, p.26.

Secondary enrollment and completion

While most children in the region complete primary school, secondary school enrollment falls off dramatically among teens in many countries, and only about half of the young adults, ages 20–24, have completed high school across the region. (See Appendix, Table A.10.) More than 75 percent of secondary-school-age students are enrolled in secondary school in Latin America, higher than the global average of 63 percent, and enrollments are, on average, increasing. (See Appendix, Table A.19.) However,

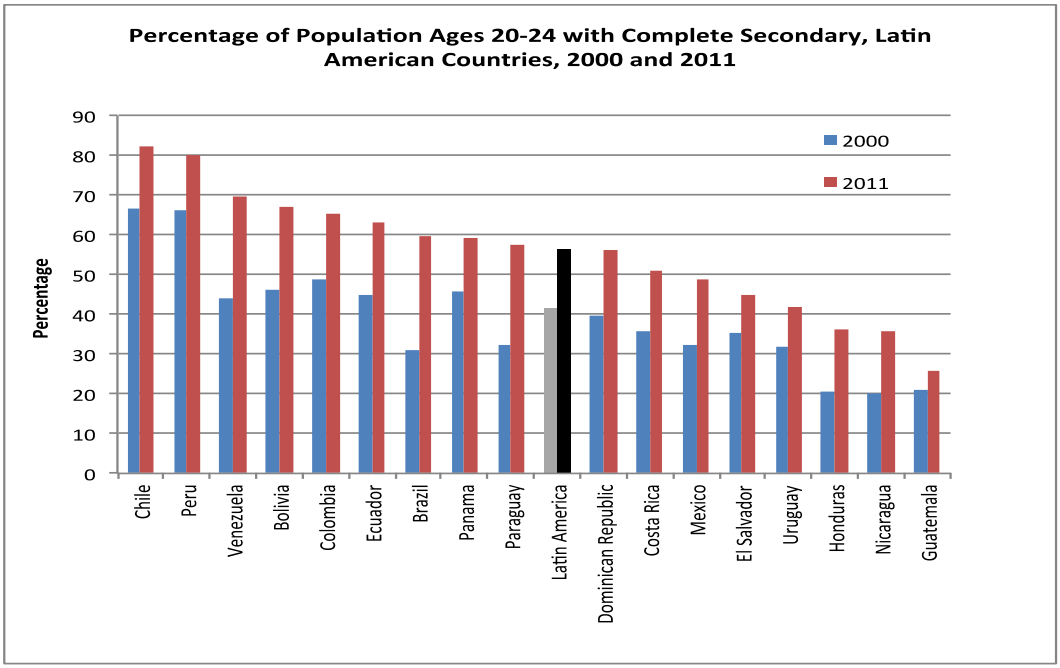
that still leaves nearly a quarter of the young people of secondary-school age who are not enrolled in secondary school. Moreover, the enrollment rates decline by more than 24 percentage points between lower and upper secondary school. In most countries that decline is less than the average decline globally, but in El Salvador, Costa Rica, Argentina and Mexico, the difference is 40 percentage points or more. (See Graph 23.) Such steep declines suggest that many young people in the region do not receive a full 12 years of schooling. Indeed, according to household survey data, only a little more than half of the population between 20 and 24 years of age has completed secondary education. Chile and Peru lead the region with about 80 percent of young adults completing high school, while less than 40 percent have done so in Honduras, Nicaragua, and Guatemala. (See Graph 24.) Women (except for indigenous women in rural areas) are more likely to complete high school than men, as are individuals from higher income brackets, non-indigenous populations, and individuals living in urban areas. (See Graph 25.)

Graph 23: Difference between Lower and Upper Secondary School Gross Enrollment Rates, 2012



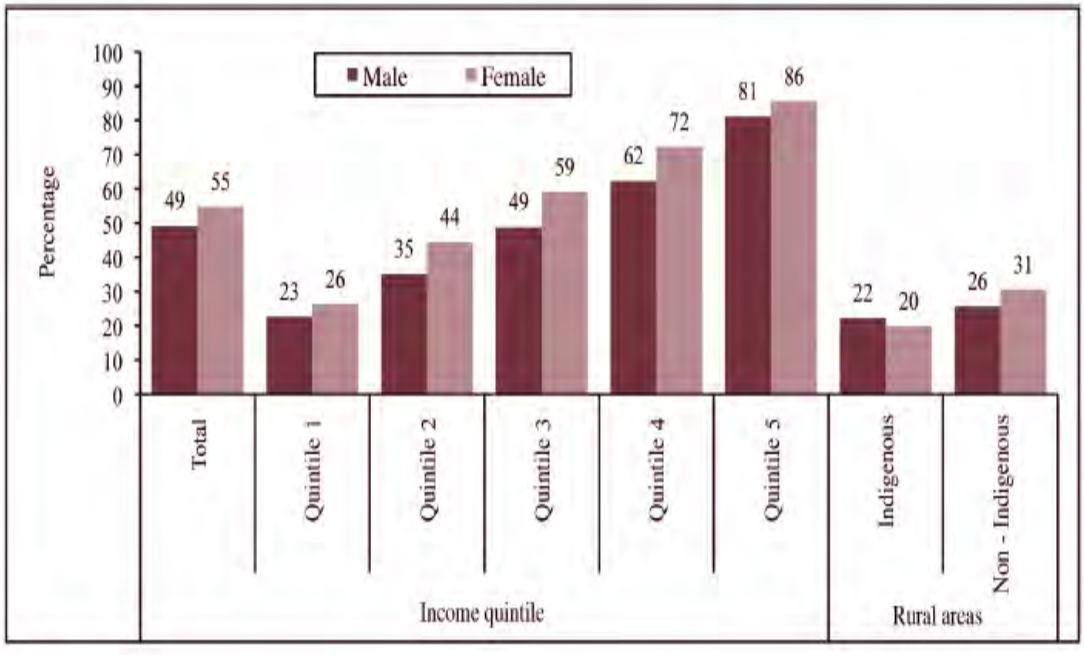
Note: Graph shows the difference between gross lower secondary and gross upper secondary school enrollment rates in all Latin American countries with data available. Jamaica is excluded because it shows lower secondary school rates that are lower than enrollment rates at the upper secondary school level, leading to a negative value on the graph. This may be due to high numbers of older students enrolled at the upper secondary school level. All comparator countries besides the United States have been excluded to keep graph manageable, but developed countries generally show small differences between lower and upper secondary school enrollments (fewer than 10 percentage points); countries like India and China have a drop of around 30 percentage points. Countries are listed from smallest to largest drop. Data for Brazil is for 2005.
Source: World Bank, EdStats online database, consulted 1/9/14.

Graph 24: Percentage of Population Ages 20–24 with Complete Secondary Education, Latin American Countries, 2000 and 2011



Notes: Data within 2 years of date listed, except Guatemala 2011 is for 2006 and Uruguay 2000 is for 2007. No data for Argentina. Data after 2004 in Peru is not strictly comparable with prior years due to a change in methodology by the Peruvian National Institute of Statistics.
Source: Comisión Económica para América Latina y el Caribe (CEPAL) online database, consulted 2/27/14.

Graph 25: Percentage of Population Ages 20–24 that Complete Secondary Education by Per Capita Income and Gender, Latin America, 2008

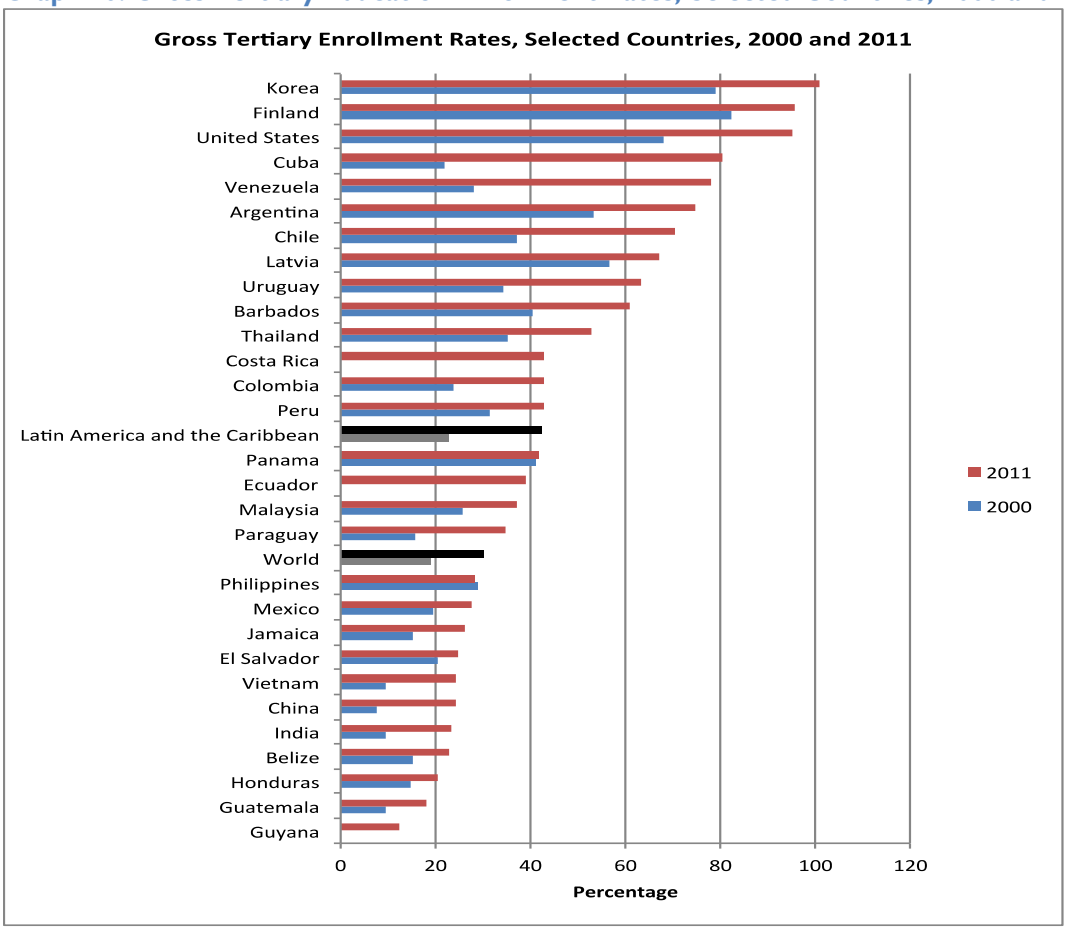


Source: United Nations Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC), 2011, Figure 3, p. 9.

Tertiary enrollment, completion and quality

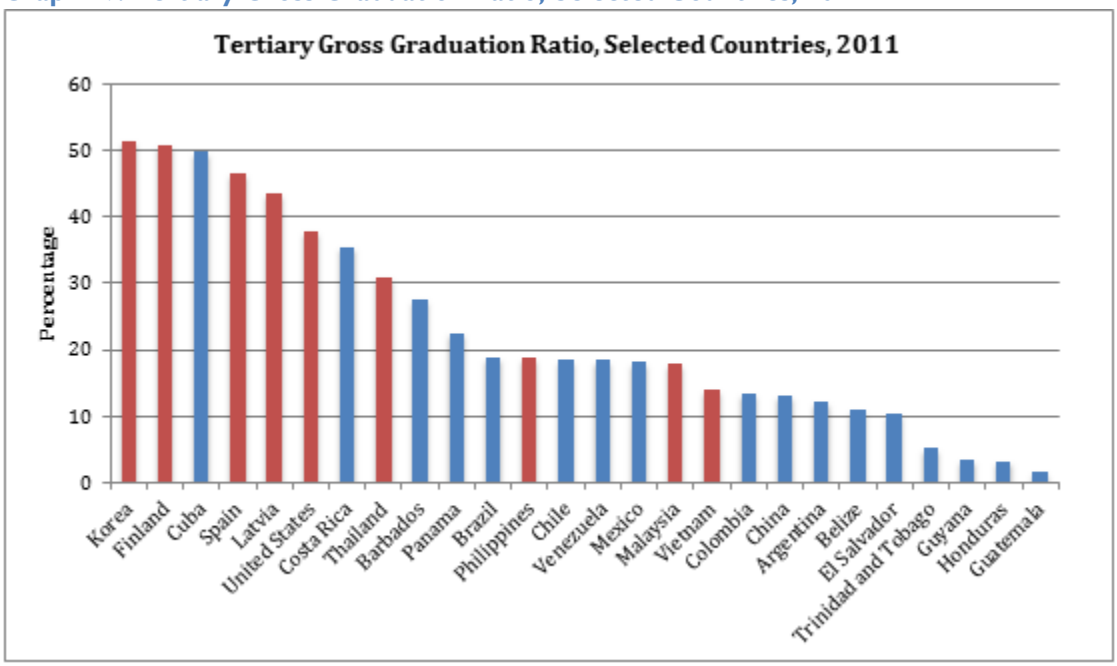
Few young people in the region continue their education beyond high school. Enrollment in tertiary education covers less than half of the young people of post-secondary-school age in the region, although rates have risen sharply since 2000. Rates also vary widely by country, from around 80 percent in Cuba to 12 percent in Guyana. (See Graph 26.) In most Latin American countries with data available, tertiary graduation rates among current students are below 25 percent, and less than 1 in 10 adults age 25 and older have completed university studies. (See Graph 27 and Appendix, Graph A.6.) By contrast, tertiary graduation rates in top-performing countries like Korea and Finland are greater than 50 percent. However, tertiary graduation rates are rising, with seven Latin American countries experiencing rises of more than 5 percentage points between 2000 and 2011. (See Appendix, Table A. 20.) Women are more likely to complete their university studies than men, regardless of income, although the gaps are small among the lowest 40 percent of the population. (See Graph 28.) Income gaps in the region are wide—those among the richest 20 percent are 20 to 30 times more likely to complete tertiary education than those among the poorest 20 percent. Even among wealthier populations the differences are high: women in the highest quintile are more than twice as likely to complete tertiary education as women from the quintile just below.. (Similarly, men in the wealthiest quintile have a large advantage over peers in the quintile just below.)

Graph 26: Gross Tertiary Education Enrollment Rates, Selected Countries, 2000 and 2011



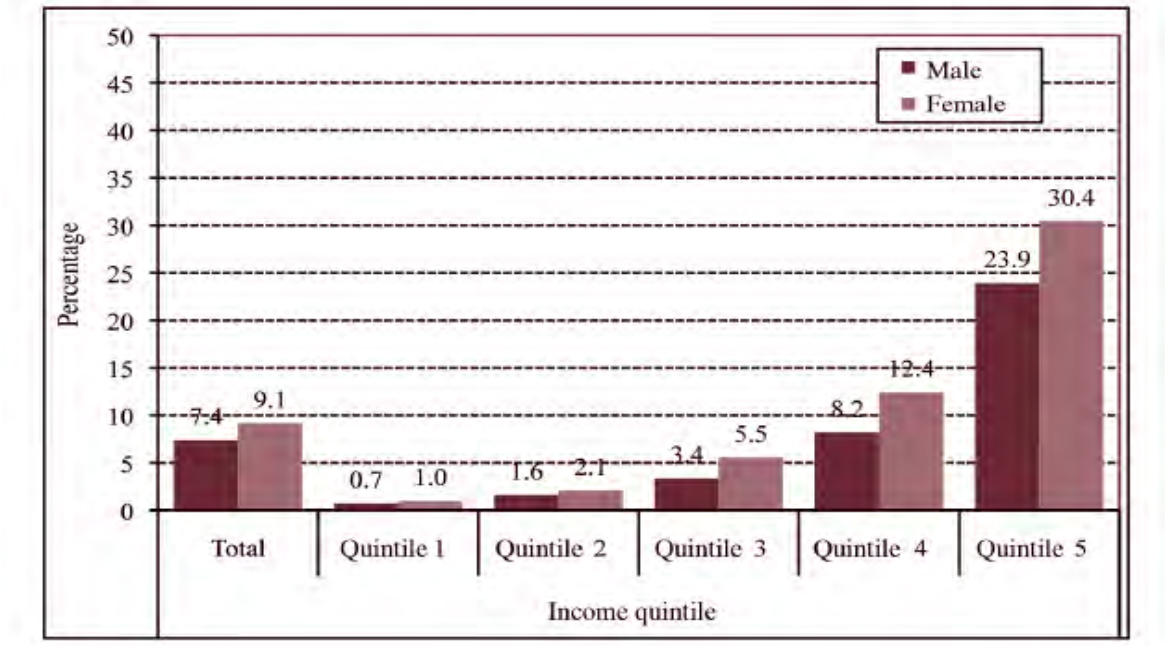
Notes: Data within 2 years of date listed, except Ecuador 2011 figure is for 2008, Guatemala 2011 figure is for 2007. No data for Brazil or Haiti. Bolivia, Dominican Republic, Nicaragua, Suriname, and Trinidad and Tobago are not included in the graph because most recent data is for 2004 or older.
Source: World Bank, EdStats online database, consulted 1/19/14.

Graph 27: Tertiary Gross Graduation Ratio, Selected Countries, 2011



Notes: Data shows number of graduates in ISCED level 5A first degree programs (regardless of age) as a percentage of the population of theoretical graduation age for that level or program during the same academic year. No data for Bolivia, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Haiti, Jamaica, Peru, or Suriname. Nicaragua, Paraguay, and Uruguay data are not included in the graph because most recent data is for 2001 or older. Brazil and Philippines 2011 data is for 2005. Trinidad and Tobago 2011 data is for 2004. Honduras 2011 is for 2003, and Guatemala is for 2007. Comparison countries marked in red.
Source: EdStats online database, consulted 1/20/14.

Graph 28: Percentage of the Population Ages 25–29 with at Least 5 Years of University Studies by Income and Gender, Latin America, 2008



Source: United Nations Economic and Social Commission (ECOSOC), 2011, Figure 5, p.13.

The limited information available on the quality of tertiary education in the region suggests that the region's universities are not globally competitive. Few Latin American universities rank among the top

universities in the world. Only 3 Latin American universities (2 in Brazil and 1 in Colombia) are featured in the 2013 Times Higher Education ranking of the top 400 universities in the world, compared to 40 Asian universities,[17] 5 Indian universities, and 2 South African universities. None of the Latin American countries ranked higher than 225th. Likewise the 2013 QS ranking of the top 200 universities include only 3 universities (1 in Brazil, 1 in Chile, and 1 in Mexico), compared to 31 in Asian economies. The highest ranked Latin American university (University of Sao Paulo in Brazil) ranked 127th. Ten Latin American universities are featured on the 2013 Shanghai ranking of the top 500 universities (6 from Brazil, 2 from Chile, 1 from Mexico, and 1 from Argentina), but Asian universities once again had greater representation, with 73 universities appearing on the list. No Latin American university ranked above 100 on the Shanghai ranking, and only 7 ranked below 300.[18] On regional rankings of Latin American universities, the highest rated universities tend to be concentrated in a few countries (Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Argentina, and Mexico),[19] leaving students in smaller countries with little access to global-quality tertiary education.

Mismatch between work and education

Evidence suggests that there is a mismatch between work and education, particularly for STEM (science, technology, engineering, and mathematics) skills. Many of the fastest growing jobs world-wide will require strong skills in science, math and engineering, and Latin America is no exception. The 25 fastest growing Latin American companies identified by Bloomberg BusinessWeek in 2010 include 7 food manufacturing and processing companies, 6 transportation and construction companies (airlines, car rentals, rail and road trailers, steel products, road maintenance, cement), 5 companies in telecommunications or retail services, and 5 companies working in energy, mining or chemicals. The remaining 2 focused on textiles and electrical equipment. Analysis by GoingGlobal, an international firm providing country-specific career and employment information, also highlights high demand for workers in science and engineering fields—in particular, energy, mining, agriculture and information technology— in the eight Latin American countries for which it provides employment trends. They note additional demand for workers in finance, marketing, and business management across several countries.[20] A recent partnership between the Carlos Slim Foundation and Coursera further identified computer science, teacher professional development, healthcare and public health as high-demand fields.[21] In addition to specific sector-related skills, businesses report that they will need employees who are able to work with and lead others, solve problems, speak multiple languages, and are proficient with new technologies. (See Graph 29.)

At the same time, a high percentage of Latin American firms say they are unable to find workers with the skills they need. (See Graph 30.) Although jobs are growing in STEM fields, performance on PISA and other international tests suggests that Latin American students do not have strong science and math competency and struggle with the higher order skills needed to apply knowledge to real world contexts. When business executives in 148 countries were asked in 2013 to rate the availability of scientists and engineers in their country, only 3 Latin American countries rated themselves in the top 50 (Costa Rica, Chile, and Trinidad and Tobago), and only 4 more rated themselves above the global mean (Barbados, Guyana, Ecuador, and Mexico) (Schwab & Sala-i-Martín, 2013). The percentage of graduates in social sciences, law, business, and humanities

[17] Asian universities include those located in Singapore, Hong Kong, Korea, China, Japan, and Taiwan.

[18] QS university ranking at http://www.topuniversities.com/university-rankings; Times Higher Education Ranking at http://www.timeshighereducation.co.uk/world-university-rankings/2013-14/world-ranking; and Shanghai rankings at http://www.shanghairanking.com

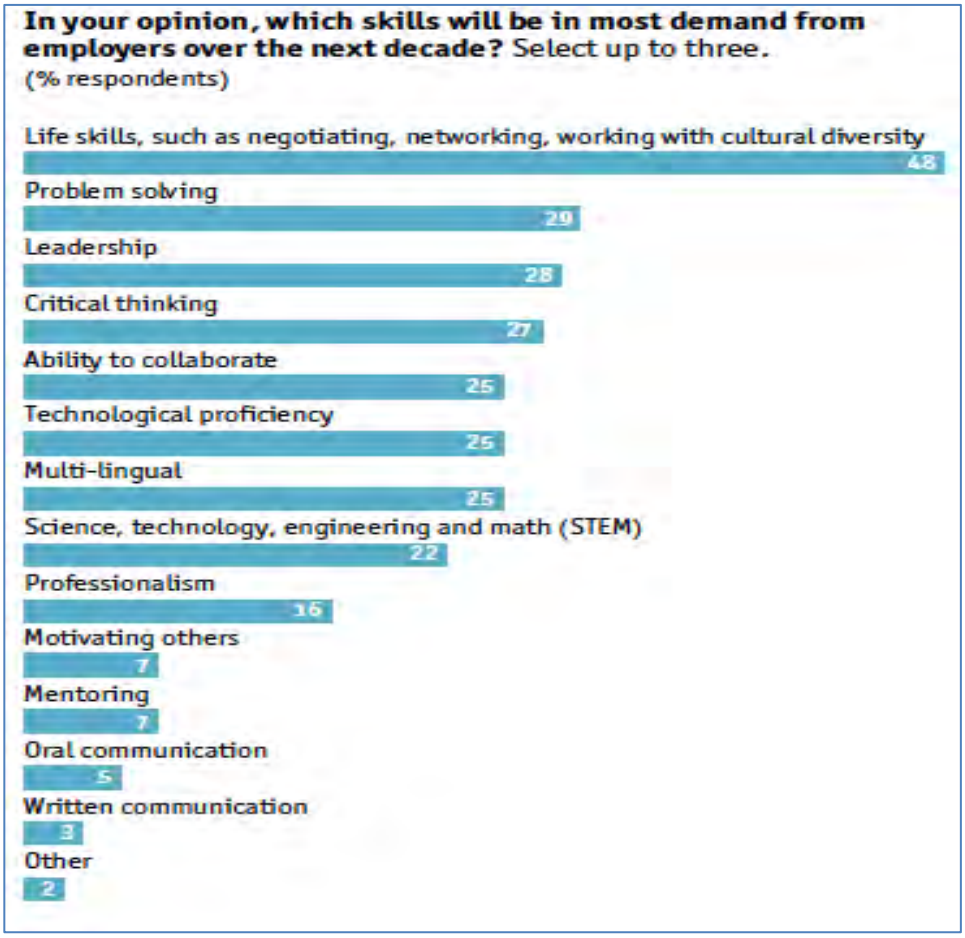
[19] QS 2013 ranking of 301 Latin American universities available at http://www.topuniversities.com/latin-american-rankings.

[20] See Going Global. *Country Profiles-Employment Trends*. Available at http://www.goinglobal.com/en/country-profiles/

[21] See http://www.prnewswire.com/news-releases/carlos-slim-foundation-and-coursera-announce-strategic-partnership-to-advance-education-and-job-creation-in-latin-america-242743871.html

in the region far surpasses the percentage of graduates in science and engineering. (See Graph 31 and Appendix, Table A.21.) While more than 30 percent of tertiary education graduates in countries like Thailand, Korea, and Finland study science, engineering or agriculture, less than a quarter do so in most Latin American countries. By contrast, in all but 5 Latin American countries with data available, more than 60 percent of tertiary education graduates were in social sciences, humanities, and education. In Honduras, Barbados, Costa Rica, and Ecuador, more than 70 percent of graduates were in these fields. The percentage of graduates in science fields appears to be growing in several countries, however, with increases of 4 percentage points or more in Panama, Uruguay, and Guatemala between 2005 and 2011.[22]

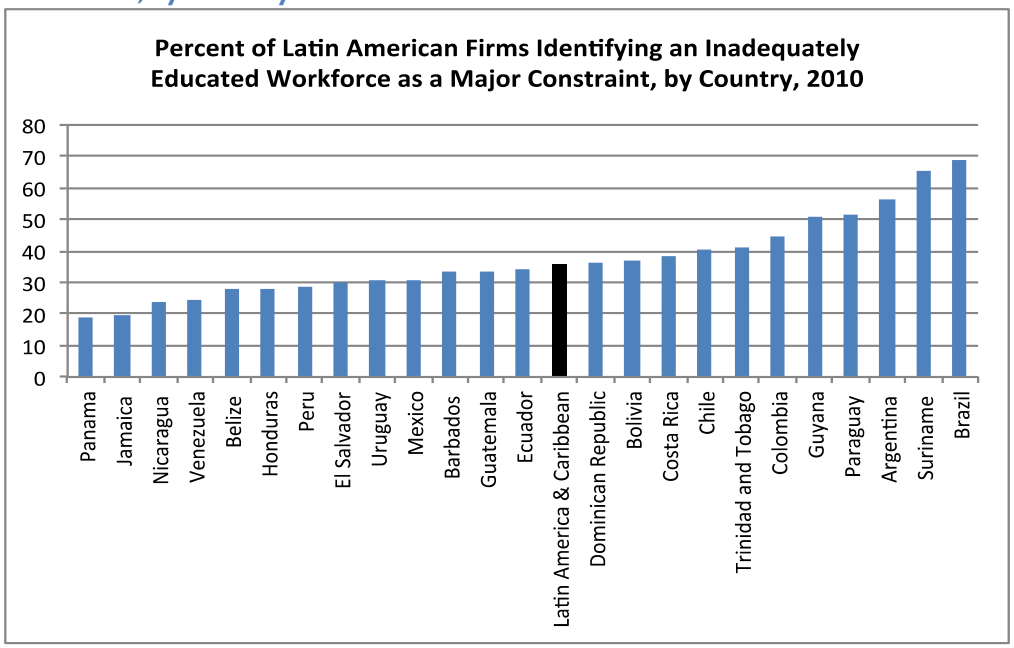
Graph 29: Skills in Most Demand according to Business Leaders, 2009



Source: Andreasson, 2009.

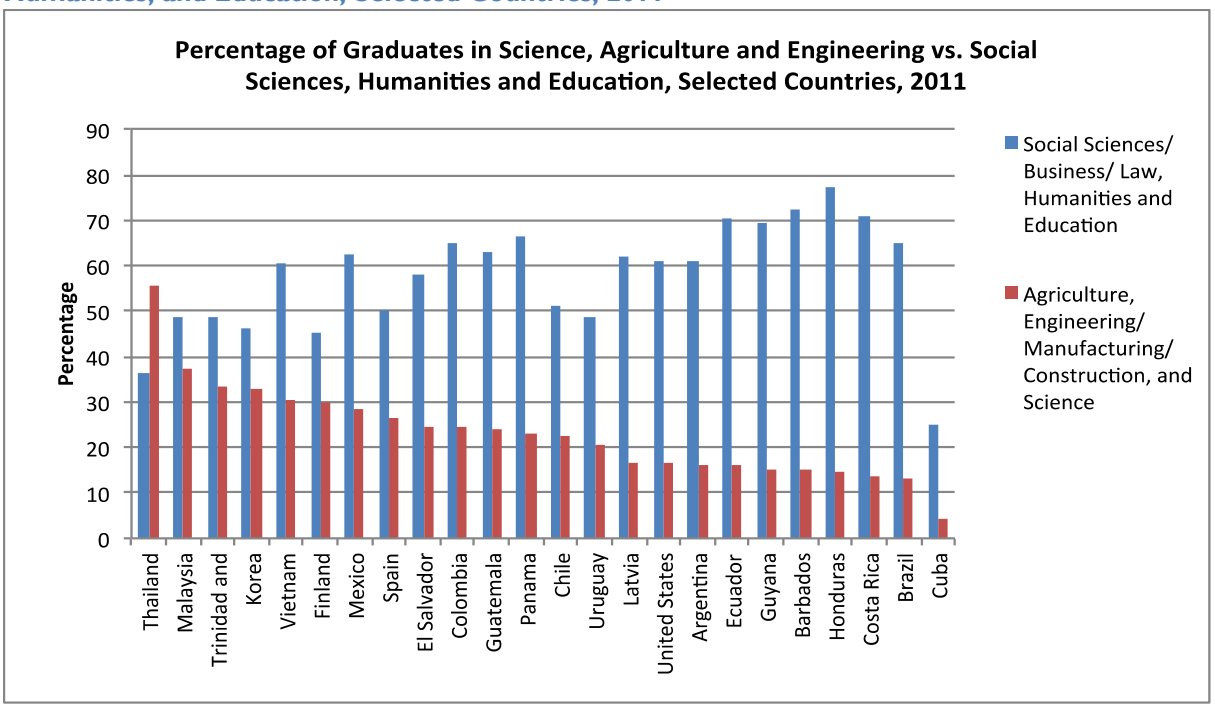
[22] Guatemala's increase is for data between 2002 and 2007. In Guyana and Honduras, more than 40 percent of tertiary graduates are in education and in Costa Rica, nearly 30 percent.

Graph 30: Percent of Latin American Firms Identifying an Inadequately Educated Workforce as a Major Constraint, by Country 2010



Notes: Brazil data is for 2009.
Source: World Bank Enterprise Surveys, online database consulted on 2/14/14. Available at http://www.enterprisesurveys.org/Data/ExploreTopics/workforce#latin-america-caribbean--7.

Graph 31: Percentage of Graduates in Science, Agriculture, and Engineering vs. Social Sciences, Humanities, and Education, Selected Countries, 2011



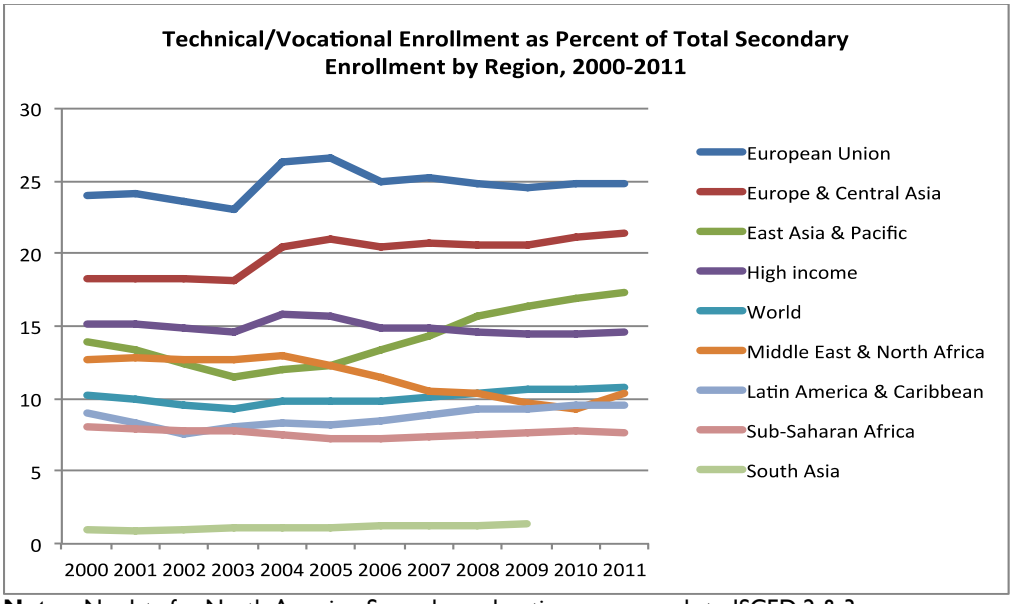
Notes: All data within 2 years of date listed, except Ecuador is for 2008, Guatemala is for 2007 and Trinidad and Tobago is 2004. No 2011 data is available for Belize, Dominican Republic, Haiti, Jamaica, Nicaragua, Paraguay, Peru, Suriname, Bolivia, and Venezuela. Countries are ordered from largest to smallest percentage of science, agriculture and engineering graduates.
Source: World Bank, EdStats online database, consulted 1/20/14.

Business leaders in most countries rate the quality of business management schools more highly than that of scientific research institutions. Business leaders in only 8 of 24 Latin American countries surveyed in the 2013 Global Competitiveness report rated their countries' business schools below the international mean, but 8 provided ratings that placed their countries among the top 50.[23] However, most Latin American business people ranked their countries lower than the international mean for the quality of scientific research institutions (Schwab & Sala-i-Martín, 2013).[24] In addition to shortages of graduates in STEM-related fields, according to the International Labor Organization's 2013 Global Employment Trends report, lack of expansion in manufacturing and high concentrations of subsistence farming constrain labor productivity (ILO 2013a, p.67).

Enrollment in vocational technical education

Vocational technical education, which often provides a direct connection between education and work, is a relatively small share of secondary school enrollment in Latin America and the Caribbean. Fewer than 10 percent of those enrolled in secondary school are enrolled in vocational/technical education in the region, less than the global average and well below rates in East Asia and Europe. (See Graph 32.) Participation varies widely, however. Cuba, Ecuador, Guatemala, and Suriname actually have enrollment shares similar to Europe, where nearly a quarter of secondary school enrollment is in vocational/technical programs. (See Appendix, Table A.22.) The regional average has increased slightly over time, but several countries have experienced declines of 1 to 5 percentage points in the share of vocational/technical enrollment between 2000 and 2011. (See Graph 32 and Appendix, Table A.22.)

Graph 32: Technical/ Vocational Enrollment as Percent of Total Secondary School Enrollment by Region, 2000–2011



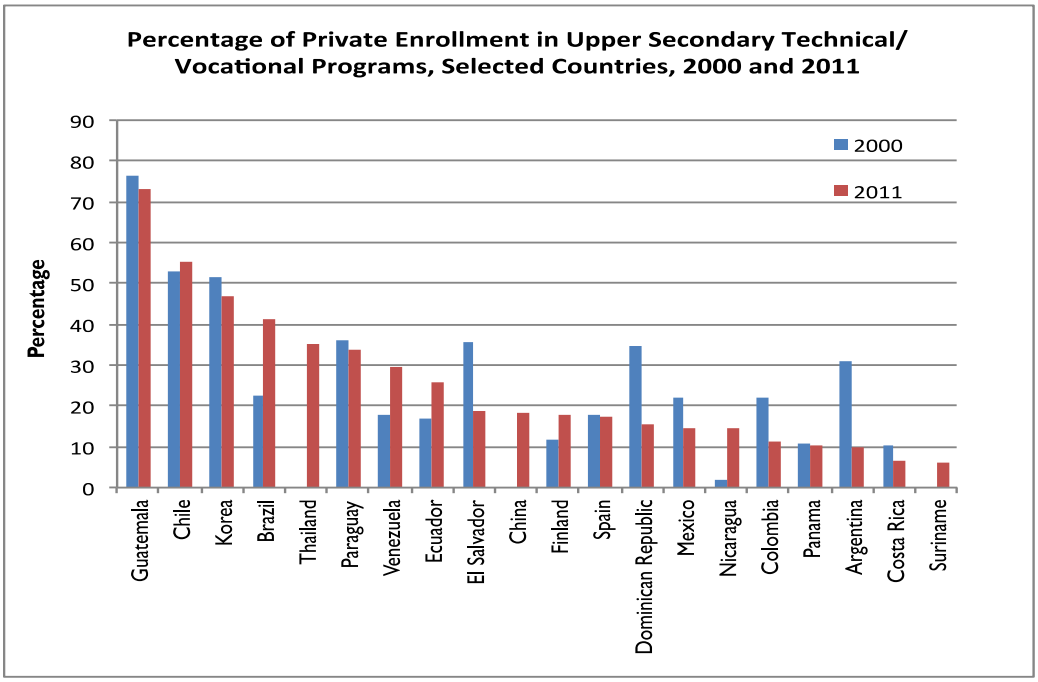
Notes: No data for North America. Secondary education corresponds to ISCED 2 & 3.
Source: World Bank, EdStats online database consulted 1/9/14.

[23] Survey respondents were asked to assess the quality of business schools on a scale of 1-extremely poor/among the worst in the world and 7-excellent/among the best in the world. On average, the 148 participating countries rated themselves at 4.2. Sixteen of 24 Latin American countries rated themselves at or above this level. Chile rated itself highest at 5.3, while Paraguay had the lowest rating at 3.2.

[24] Survey respondents were asked to assess the quality of scientific research institutions on a scale of 1-extremely poor/among the worst in the world and 7-extremely good/among the best in the world. On average, participating countries rated themselves at 3.8. Sixteen Latin American countries rated themselves lower than 3.8. Costa Rica rated itself highest at 4.8.

Enrollment in vocational/technical programs is concentrated in upper secondary education, where the share of enrollment ranges from 5 percent in Nicaragua, to more than 80 percent in Guatemala and Honduras. (See Appendix, Table A.23.) On average, in the Latin American countries with available data, nearly a quarter of upper secondary vocational/technical enrollment is private, but this varies from around 6 percent in Suriname and Costa Rica to nearly 75 percent in Guatemala. The private share seems to be decreasing in many countries. (See Graph 33.)

Graph 33: Percentage of Private Enrollment in Upper Secondary Technical/ Vocational Programs, Selected Countries, 2000 and 2011



Notes: No data for Barbados, Cuba, Haiti, Honduras, Jamaica, and Peru. Nicaragua 2011 data is for 2008. Belize data is suspect due to a drop of some 50 percentage points between 2007 and 2011 and is not included.
Source: World Bank, EdStats online database consulted 1/9/14.

Little data is available on the quality of vocational-technical programs or their effectiveness in preparing students for jobs. In a 2013 survey of business leaders, about half of the 24 participating Latin American countries said that the local availability of high quality, specialized training services was average or better than average, although no country said that such programs were widely available (Schwab and Sala-i-Martín, 2013).[25] Many firms offer their own training, and more than half of the surveyed business leaders rated cooperation between business and universities on research and development below average (Schwab & Sala-i-Martín, 2013).[26] (See Graph 34.) Taken together, these results suggest that more needs to be done to align training with business needs and to extend coverage to a broader segment of the society.

[25] Survey respondents were asked to rate their country on a scale of 1- not available at all to 7 widely available. Among all participating countries, the average ranking was 4.2. Twelve of 24 participating LAC countries rated themselves at a 4.2 or better. Costa Rica had the highest rating (5).

[26] Survey respondents were asked to rate collaboration on a scale of 1- do not collaborate at all to 7 collaborate extensively. Average ranking for all countries was 3.7. Thirteen Latin American countries rated themselves lower than this level.

Graph 34: Percent of Firms Offering Formal Training, Latin American Countries, 2010

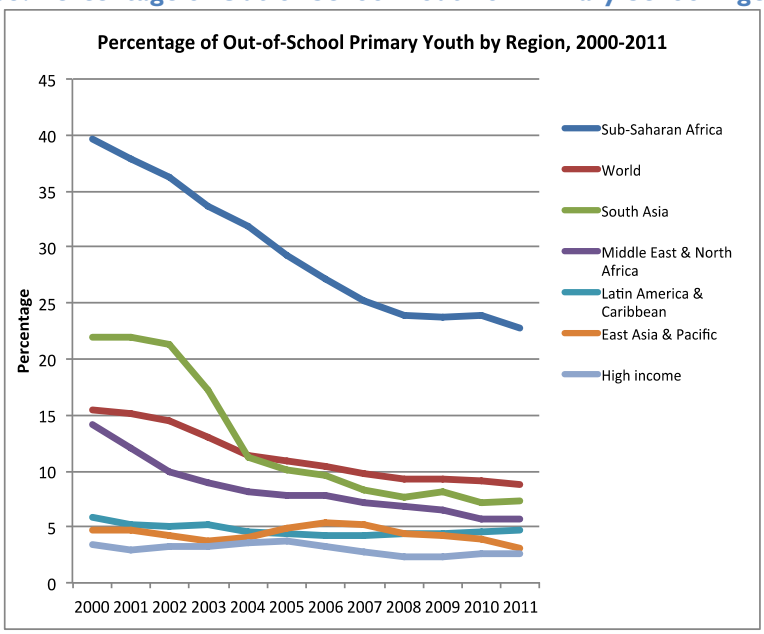
Notes: Brazil data is for 2009.
Source: World Bank Enterprise Surveys, online database consulted on 2/14/14. Available at http://www.enterprisesurveys.org/Data/ExploreTopics/workforce#latin-america-caribbean--7.

V. AT-RISK YOUTH

Out-of-school youth

A worrisome number of young people are out of school. Less than 5 percent of primary school age youth are out of school in the region, about half of the global average, and overall rates have declined slightly. (See Graph 35.) However, that still translates to about 2.8 million individuals of primary school age who are not in school.[27] More than 10 percent of these young people are out of school in Bolivia, Colombia, Guyana, and Paraguay, and rates in several countries have increased. (See Appendix, Table A.24.) According to World Bank figures, an additional 1.5 million youth of lower secondary school age were out of school in 2011, and out-of-school rates for this youth cohort tend to be higher than rates for the primary level. More than half of the Latin American countries have out-of-school rates for lower secondary school age youth of 9 percent or above.[28] (See Appendix, Table A.25.).However, most countries are still below the global average of 18 percent, and out-of-school rates in the region are declining. (See Graph 36.). Guatemala and Uruguay are notable exceptions, with more than 1 in 5 lower secondary age youth out of school.[29]

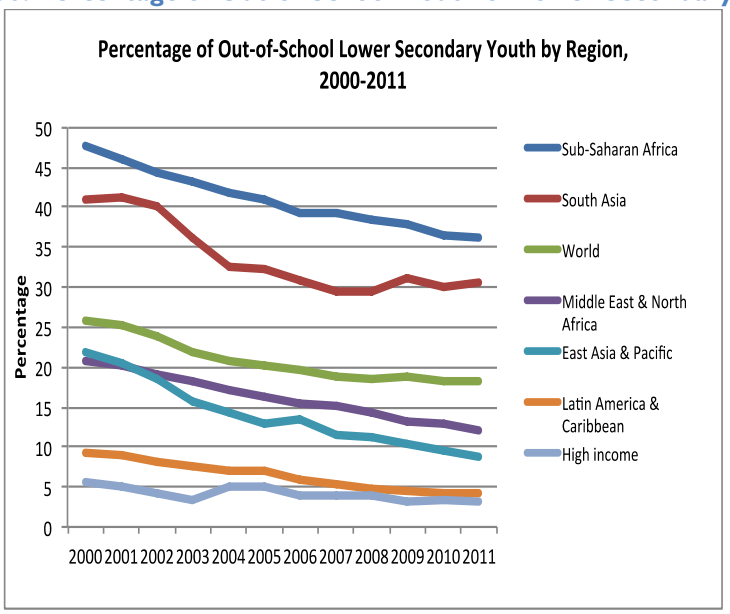
Graph 35: Percentage of Out-of-School Youth of Primary School Age



Source: World Bank, EdStats online database, consulted 1/10/14.

[27] There are slight discrepancies in the number of individuals cited in different sources. The *2013 Education for All* Latin America regional report, for example, cites a figure of 2.7 in a table, but 2.5 in the text. We have used the World Bank figure for consistency with the other graphs in this section.
[28] Note that the regional out-of-school rate is 4.2 percent, similar to that for primary, but a closer look at country-by-country data show most Latin American countries are well above that rate.
[29] Both the World Bank and the UNESCO-UIS database report an out-of-school rate for Uruguay of approximately 23 percent in 2010. This is substantially higher than the 8 percent rate reported in 2007 and 2008 and no other data for Uruguay is reported. Consequently rates should be viewed with caution.

Graph 36: Percentage of Out-of-School Youth of Lower Secondary School Age



Source: World Bank, EdStats online database, consulted 1/10/14.

School to work transition

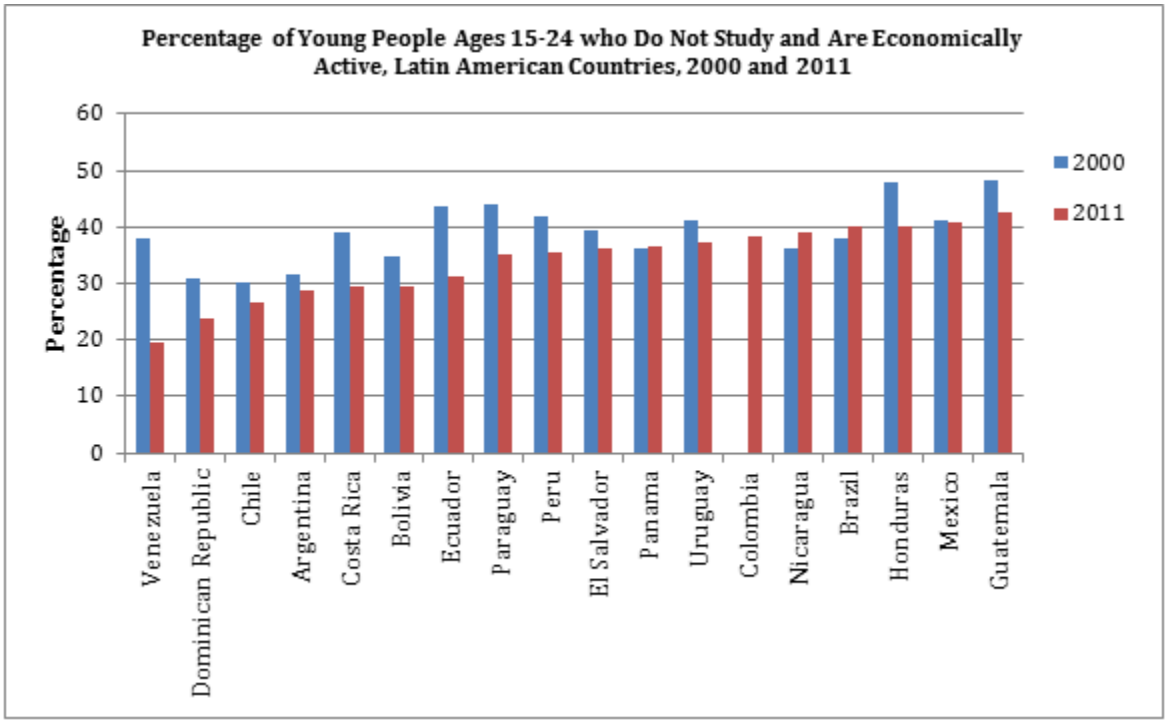
Some leave school to go to work or to combine work and study. Data from household surveys suggests that between 20 and 40 percent of young people between ages 15 and 24 are out of school and either working or looking for work.[30] (See Graph 37 and Appendix, Table A.26.) Labor force participation rates are declining in most countries, and reports about youth employment issued by the International Labor Organization (ILO) attribute at least part of the decline to young people staying in school longer than in the past. Rural youth are more likely than urban young people to be out of school and working—with gaps of about 7 percentage points in most countries, although rural-urban gaps in Honduras, Nicaragua, Paraguay, and Peru are higher. All countries with data available show that young men are substantially more likely than young women to be out of school and working, with gender gaps of around 9 percentage points in best of cases, but closer to 20 percentage points in most.[31] Honduras and Nicaragua had gaps of more than 33 percentage points in 2011. Such large gender gaps may exist partially because girls stay in school longer, face less pressure to enter the labor force, or encounter greater barriers to entry into work. More than half of young men ages 15–24 are out of school and working in Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, and Nicaragua. Not surprisingly, young adults of post-secondary school age (ages 18–24) are more likely than younger teens (ages 15–17) to be out of school and working, with some 40–50 percent meeting that criterion in Latin American countries with available data. However, more than 20 percent of 1youth ages 15–17 in Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, and Nicaragua are out of school and working. Since it is likely that few of these teens have completed secondary school, they will undoubtedly face greater constraints in terms of opportunities and wages as adults than those who finish their schooling. [32]

[30] The 2013 ILO youth employment report for Latin America cites a regional average of 33 percent of young people who work, but don't study in 2011. Around 35 percent of young people ages 15-24 dedicate themselves exclusively to study. Country-level data for youth ages15-24 who "only work" in this report are generally lower than the "don't study but are economically active" data from SITEAL presented in the graph. This is most likely due to differing definitions, since SITEAL includes those who are employed as well as those who are actively looking for work. Trends over time are generally similar, however.

[31] Data from ILO's 2013 youth employment report for Latin America also show large gender gaps between young men and young women ages 15-24 who "just work," with an average gap of 18.1 percentage points in favor of men across the 15 countries with data available.

[32] Analysis of rural/urban, gender, and age is based on data from SITEAL's online database, using data within 2 years of 2011. Tables and graphs were not included for space reasons, but can be provided upon request.

Graph 37: Percentage of Young People Ages 15–24 who Do Not Study and Are Economically Active, Latin American Countries, 2000 and 2011

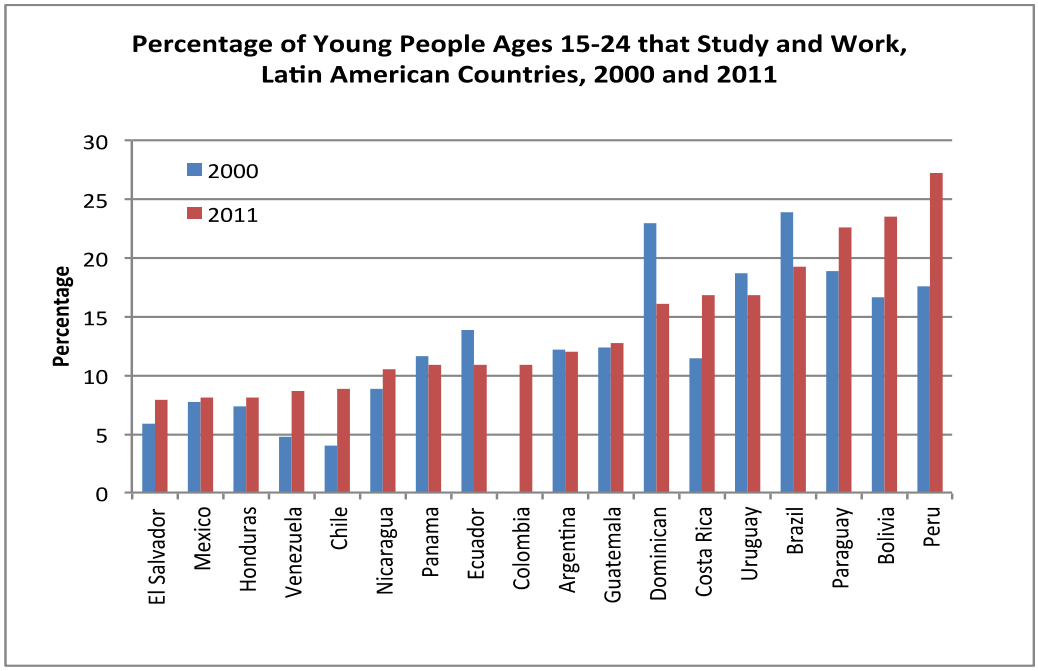


Notes: Data show percentage of young people (ages 15–24) who are outside the education system and have a relationship with the labor market, either because they work more than 1 hour a week or because they are actively looking for a job. Employment also includes assisting in family activities whether paid or unpaid.
Source: Sistema de Información de Tendencias Educativas en América Latina (SITEAL) online database, Consulted on 1/10/14.

In most Latin American countries with available data, about 1 in 10 young people combine work and study.[33] (See Graph 38 and Appendix, Table A.27.**)** More than 1 in 5 do so in Paraguay, Bolivia, and Peru. Urban youth in all countries except Bolivia, Brazil, and Peru are more likely to both work and study than rural peers, with differences in rates of more than 5 percentages points in most countries. Young men have work and study rates approximately 1–5 percentage points higher than young women, except in Uruguay where rates of work and study are around 2 percentage points higher for young women.[34] In general, youth ages 18–24 are more likely to combine work and study than are youth ages 15-17, but Bolivia, Brazil, El Salvador, Guatemala, Mexico, and Nicaragua have higher rates among younger teens. Older teens in these countries may have already left the system, as these countries also had high rates of out-of-school youth at the lower secondary school level. (See Appendix, Table A.25.) Paraguay has rates that are similar across the two age groups. Combining work and study also seems to be most prevalent among the wealthiest 40 percent of the population, except in Peru where poorest 30 percent has a higher percentage of young people who do so.[35]

[33] The 2013 ILO youth employment report for Latin America cites a regional average of 12 percent of young people ages 15-24 who both work and study. Country-level data for youth ages 15-24 who "study and work" in this report are generally lower than the "study and are economically active" data from SITEAL presented in the graph. This is most likely due to differing definitions, since SITEAL includes those who are employed as well as those who are actively looking for work. Trends over time are generally similar in direction, but may vary in magnitude between the ILO and SITEAL datasets. Colombia and Honduras are exceptions. In Colombia, ILO data shows an increase in the percent studying and working between 2005 and 2011 (from 6.5 to 10.6 percent), while SITEAL shows a slight decline (from 12.8 to 10.9 percent). In Honduras, ILO data shows a rise from 6.0 percent to 8.1 percent over the same time period, while SITEAL shows a decline from 9.8 percent to 8.1 percent.
[34] Data from ILO's 2013 youth employment report for Latin America show similar gender gaps.
[35] Analysis of rural/urban, gender, age, and income is based on data from SITEAL's online database, using data within 2 years of 2011. Tables were not included for space reasons, but can be provided upon request.

Graph 38: Percentage of Young People Ages 15–24 who Study and Work, Latin American Countries, 2000 and 2011



Notes: Data show the percentage of young people (ages 15–24) who study and also have a relationship with the labor market be it because they are employed at least 1 hour a week or are actively looking for employment. Employment also includes assisting in family activities whether paid or unpaid.
Source: Sistema de Información de Tendencias Educativas en América Latina (SITEAL) online database, Consulted on 1/10/14.

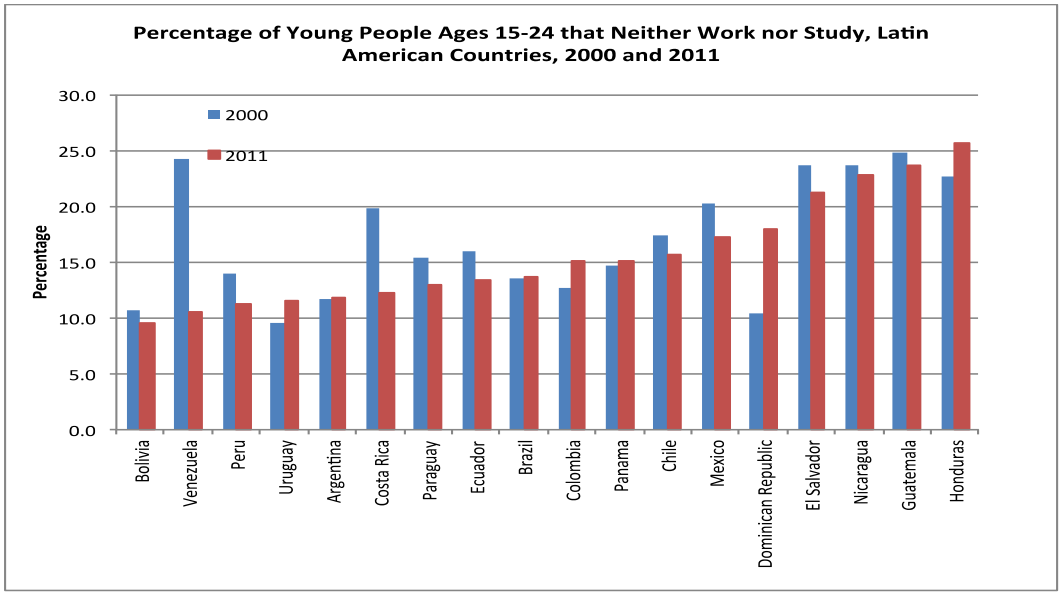
Youth who neither work nor study

Many out-of-school youth neither work nor study. According to the International Labor Organization about 20 percent of young people ages 15–24 in Latin America were neither employed nor in education nor training in 2011, down from 21 percent in 2005 (ILO, 2013c). Rates vary by country, from 10 percent in Bolivia to around 25 percent of young people ages 15–24 in Honduras, and appear to be declining in most countries.[36] (See Graph 39 and Appendix, Table A.28) However, the percent of "ni-ni's"[37] rose in Uruguay, Colombia, Panama, the Dominican Republic, and Honduras from 2000 to 2011, with increases of more than 7 percentage points in the Dominican Republic.

[36] Country level rates reported by the ILO for 2011 are generally two to eight percentage points higher than those reported by SITEAL (shown in the graphs), and trends between 2005 and 2011 in several countries are different depending on which dataset is used. Differences are likely due to differing definitions of "not working" (SITEAL does not include those actively seeking employment as part of ni-ni rates), and differences in the dates of data (2005 data may be for 2004, etc.). SITEAL country-level data is used in the text because it allows for longer time trend comparisons (2000 to 2011), and because it allows for greater disaggregation than the ILO data, which is only available by gender for all countries listed and by income for a smaller subset of countries. However, ILO data is included in Table A.29 in the appendix for comparative purposes.

[37] From the Spanish "ni estudian, ni trabajan," meaning neither study nor work.

Graph 39: Percentage of Young People Ages 15–24 who Neither Work Nor Study, Latin American Countries, 2000- 2011



Note: Data show the percentage of young people (ages 15–24) who are outside the education system and do not have and are not actively seeking employment. All data within 2 years of date listed. Countries are ordered from lowest to highest rate in 2011. Colombia 2000 is from 2005.
Source: Sistema de Información de Tendencias Educativas en América Latina (SITEAL) online database, consulted 1/10/14.

Young adults ages 18–24, poor youth ages 15–24, and those from rural areas are more likely to be neither working nor studying than younger teens, wealthier young people, or youth from urban areas. Among young adults ages 18–24, Central American countries have the highest ni-ni rates. Between one-fifth to more than one-quarter of young adults in this age group in the Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, and Nicaragua are in this category (SITEAL online database, consulted 1/10/14).[38] By contrast, rates among 15-17-year-olds in these countries range from 9 percent in the Dominican Republic to 21 percent in Honduras.[39] In rural areas, the percentage of youth ages 15–24 who neither work nor study is on average around 7 percentage points higher than in urban areas.[40] Central American countries again have the highest rural ni-ni rates, with close to 30 percent of rural youth in El Salvador, Guatemala, and Nicaragua falling into this category. By comparison, only around 10 percent of rural youth are neither working nor studying in Bolivia and Uruguay. (See Appendix, Table A.30.) In contrast, Peru is the only country in which ni-ni rates are higher in urban areas than in rural ones. Poverty compounds the problem, and young people (ages 15–24) from the poorest 30 percent of the population have rates that are 2 to 6 times higher than rates among the 40 percent wealthiest. Central American countries,[41] Mexico, and Brazil have ni-ni rates of more than 20 percent among the poorest 30 percent. Ni-ni rates are less than 10 percent among the richest 40 percent of the population in most countries (SITEAL online database, consulted 1/10/14).[42]

[38] Tables for ni-ni rates by age and income are not included in the annex due to space concerns, but can be provided upon request.

[39] In the Dominican Republic, 22 percent of 18-24-year-olds are ni-ni's, while in Honduras the ni-ni rate among 18-24-ear-olds is 28.3 percent.

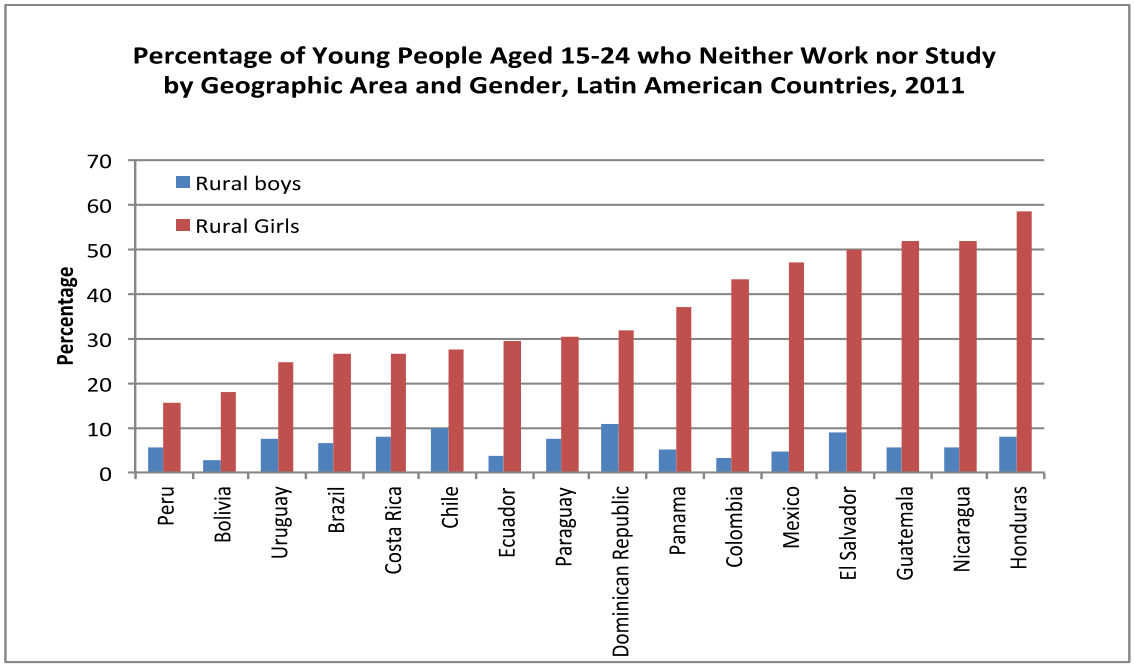
[40] Based on a simple average of the gaps across all countries that have data available.

[41] Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, and Nicaragua have rates over 20 percent among the poorest. Panama and Costa Rica have lower overall rates among the poorest, but the gap between rich and poor is similar to the rest of Central America (between 12-15 percentage points). Honduras has a slightly larger gap of 17 percentage points between the wealthiest 40 percent and poorest 30 percent.

[42] Guatemala, Honduras, and Nicaragua are the only three countries with ni-ni rates among the wealthiest of more than 10 percent. The rate among the wealthiest in Guatemala is about 13 percent as compared to. 25 percent among the poorest. In Honduras, the rate among the wealthiest is around 11 percent as compared to 28 percent among the poorest. In Nicaragua, the rate among the wealthiest is approximately 16 percent, with rates around 28 percent among the poorest.

Young rural women are particularly vulnerable, with half of this cohort in El Salvador, Guatemala, Nicaragua, and Honduras neither studying nor working. (See Graph 40.) The ILO 2014 *Global Employment Trends* report notes similar differences in ni-ni rates by gender and ethnic origin in Brazil. While overall 18.4 percent of young people ages 15–29 in Brazil were neither working nor studying in 2009,[43] the rate was only 12 percent among young men while it was 21 percent among young women.[44] The rate was even higher (28 percent) among Afro-Brazilian females, a particularly high-risk group. Interestingly, according to SITEAL data, ni-ni rates for young men were lower in rural areas than in urban areas in eight of the countries with available data.

Graph 40: Percentage of Young People Ages 15–24 who Neither Work Nor Study by Geographic Area and Gender



Note: Data show the percentage of young people (ages 15–24) who are outside the education system and do not have and are not actively seeking employment. All data within 2 years of date listed. Countries are ordered from lowest to highest rate among rural girls in 2011. Argentina and Venezuela are excluded because only urban data are available.
Source: Sistema de Información de Tendencias Educativas en América Latina (SITEAL) online database, Consulted 1/10/14.

Having a high percentage of young people in the region who neither work nor study is particularly troubling since these individuals are neither engaged in productive employment nor developing skills that they can use to improve their lives as adults. They may also be less engaged in and more dissatisfied with their societies than their peers who are employed or in school, and may be more likely to engage in risk-taking behaviors like early parenthood or involvement with gangs.

[43] Although most analysis of youth trends use the segment of the population ages 15-24, ILO's global employment reports use a broader age range for ni-ni rates to account for those who may continue their tertiary studies as well as those who may finish their secondary studies late.
[44] Young women ages 15-24 are more likely than young men in the same age range to be neither working nor studying in all 18 countries included in ILO's 2013 regional report for Latin America. On average, young women are more than twice as likely to fall into this category as young men (28.6 percent versus 12 percent) (ILO, 2013c, Appendix Table 13). The gap ranges from about 7 percentage points in Uruguay to about 35 percentage points in Guatemala.

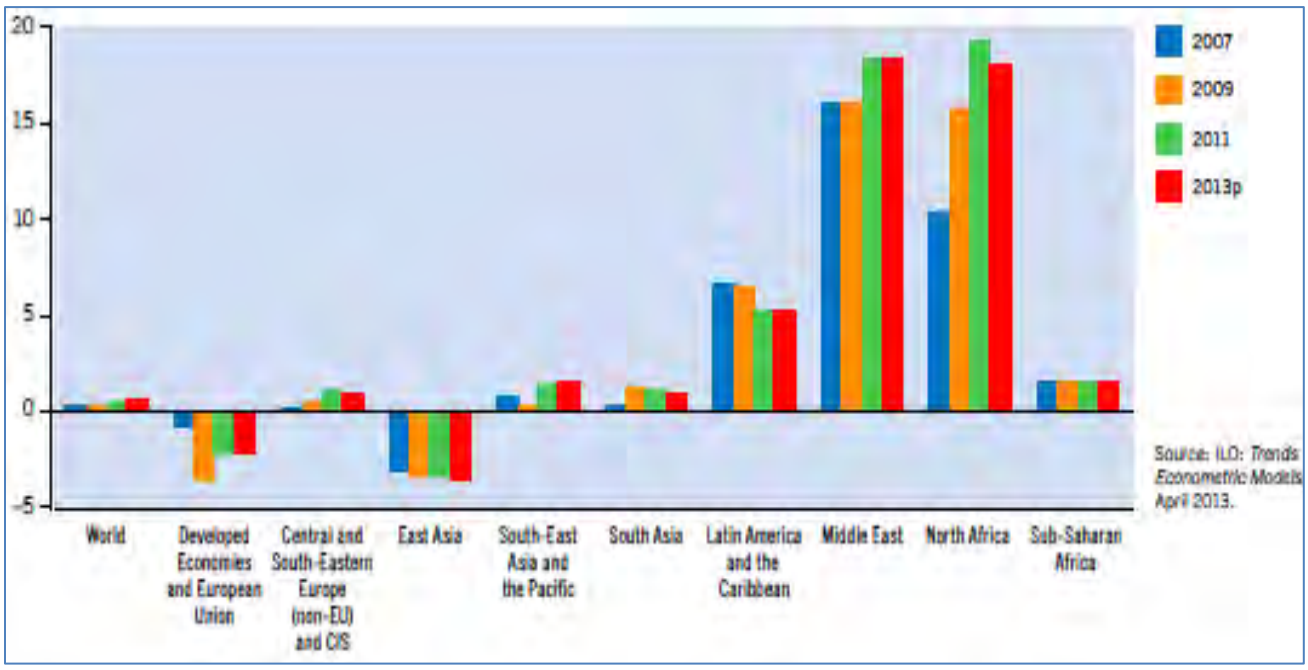
Youth unemployment and underemployment

Unemployment and underemployment pose significant challenges. According to recent reports by the International Labor Organization, about half of the more than 108 million young people between the ages of 15 and 24 in the region are already involved in the labor market. However, of those, more than half (55.6 percent) are employed in the informal sector, where jobs often pay lower salaries and provide less career stability, labor protections, and benefits. Although some Latin American countries have maintained informality rates below 50 percent, rates can reach over 70 percent in low-income Andean and Central American countries (ILO, 2014, p.13).

At the same time, young people account for 40 percent of unemployed persons in the region, with unemployment rates among those ages 15–24 estimated at 13.9 percent in 2013. This is lower than the 16.4 percent regional youth unemployment rate in 2005, but still more than twice the rate for older adults (age 25 and older) (ILO, 2013c, pp.26-27). It is also slightly higher than the average youth unemployment rate globally—13.1 percent—in 2013 (ILO, 2014, p.12).[45]

Young women are more likely to be unemployed than men, with unemployment rates of about 18 percent compared with 11 percent for young men (ILO, 2013c). However, gender gaps appear to be declining slightly. (See Graph 41.) Poor youth are also at a disadvantage, with more than a quarter of poor youth unemployed in 2011, as compared to only 9 percent among young people from upper income quintiles. Moreover, the gap between the unemployment rates of rich and poor has grown by about 3 percentage points since 2005 (ILO, 2013c, p.29). Youth in urban areas also have greater advantages terms of labor market participation (ILO, 2013b, p.5).

Graph 41: Youth Unemployment Rates by Region and Gender (percentage points of difference), 2007–2013

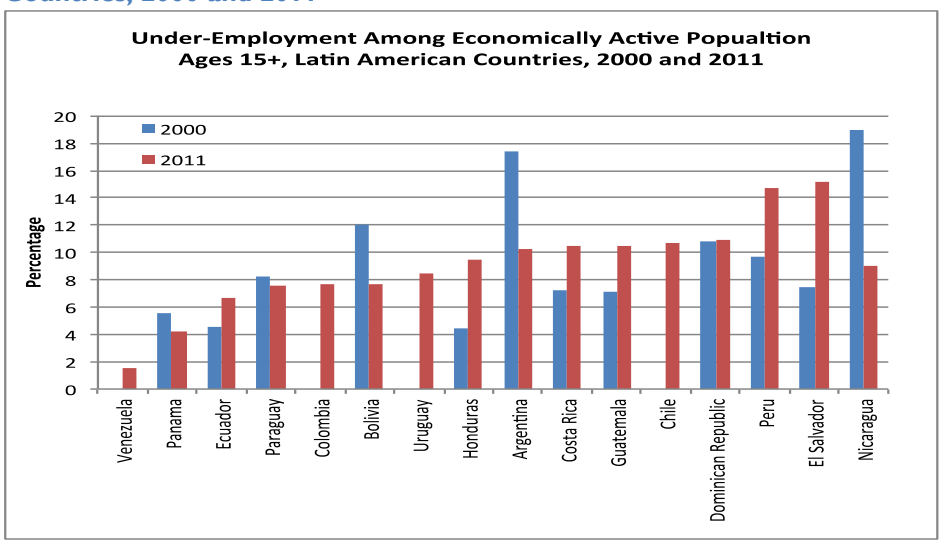


Source: ILO, 2013b, Figure 3, p.10.

[45]Note that the ILO *Global Employment Trends for Youth* report shows that youth unemployment decreased from 17.6 percent in 2003 to 12.9 percent in 2012. Differences are likely due to the difference in reference years. Both show a decline in youth unemployment. The 2014 *Global Employment Trends* report puts youth rates for the region at 13.6 percent, with a decline to 13.1 percent forecast for 2018. For this report, we use the figures from the 2013 regional report for Latin America, since it has a more recent publication date and more recent reference data. As a reference, the global youth unemployment rate was 12.6 percent, while the global adult rate was 4.6 percent in 2012.

Moreover, in *Global Employment Trends for Youth 2013: A Generation at Risk* the ILO notes that "[u]nemployment rates in Latin America and the Caribbean often show large differences for workers with different levels of education, and these differences are not always in favor of those with the highest educational achievements" (p.18). For example in Argentina, Chile, and Peru the highest rate of unemployment is among workers with intermediate (secondary) education levels, in part due to higher demand for workers with tertiary education. Likewise, the ILO reports that in several countries young men with high levels of education are more likely to be unemployed than those with lower levels of education, perhaps because they are more resistant to accepting low-quality jobs. It may also be due to a divergence between their university major and the skills demanded by the labor market or possibly more competition within the labor market, but more research is needed (ILO 2013c, p. 30). Although data is less readily available on underemployment, household surveys suggest that a high percentage of adults age 15 and older are working less than 35 hours a week involuntarily. (See Graph 42.)

Graph 42: Under-Employment among Economically Active Population Ages 15+, Latin American Countries, 2000 and 2011



Notes: Refers to percent of the economically active population age 15 and older who work less than 35 hours a week for involuntary reasons and are willing to work more hours. No data for Mexico or Brazil. Nicaragua 2011 is for 2005.
Source: Sistema de Información de Tendencias Educativas en América Latina (SITEAL) online database, Consulted 2/20/14.

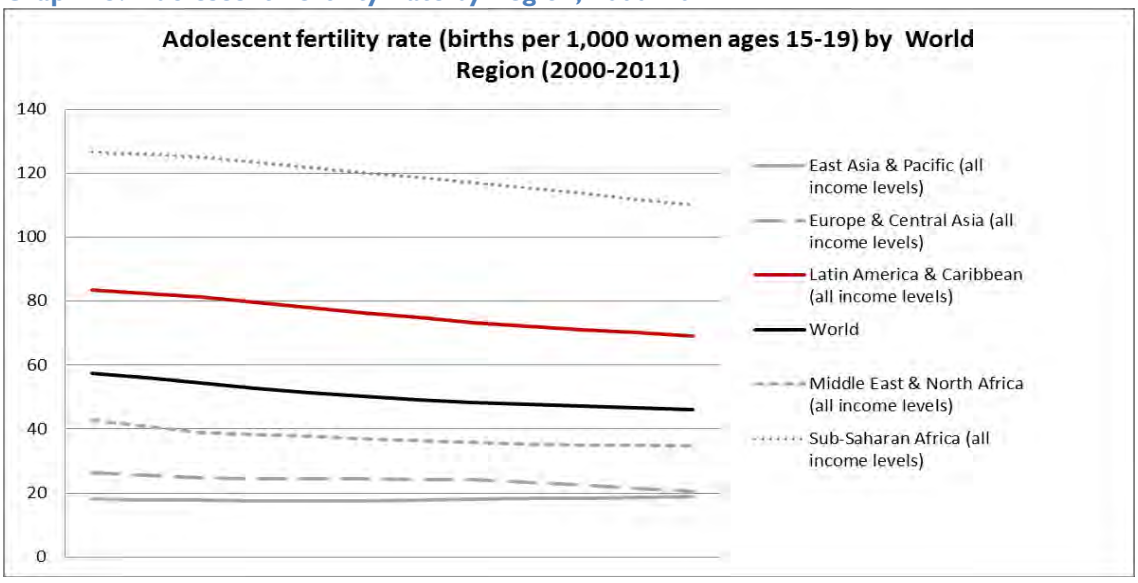
Large percentages of unemployed and under-employed youth can have potentially strong consequences for the region, as more young people become frustrated with their career prospects and either drop out of the labor market or protest government decisions (ILO, 2014, p.21). Under-utilizing young people's talent also impedes economic growth. The ILO points out in its 2104 report that Latin American labor productivity is growing at less than the world rate mainly due to the large share of individuals employed in lower productivity sectors (Figure 24, p. 48).

Latin American countries are working to decrease youth unemployment through a series of short-, medium-, and long-term plans. Such policies often include second chance programs, school-to-work programs, labor training, entrepreneurship, specific legislation, and social dialogue/participation of youth (ILO, 2013c, p.13). Other policies include those that seek to provide education and training to ease the school-to-work transition and prevent labor market mismatches; target employment of disadvantaged youth; encourage entrepreneurship and self-employment to assist potential young entrepreneurs; and provide labor rights protections to ensure young people receive equal treatment from employers (ILO, 2013b, p.6).

Teenage pregnancy rates

The prevalence of teenage pregnancy, HIV, and drug use remains high in the LAC region, but these rates have declined in a handful of countries in the past decade. Quantitative analysis by the Inter-American Development Bank (IDB) found that the relationship between teen pregnancy and educational level (measured by school attendance, enrollment, or completion) is stronger in the LAC region than in other parts of the world (Näslund-Hadley & Manzano. 2011). Teenage pregnancy rates among young women ages 15 to 19 in some Latin American countries are as high as or higher than comparison countries in sub-Saharan Africa and about 10 percentage points higher than comparison countries in Asia. (See Appendix, Table A.31.) The same is true for adolescent fertility rates in the region at 69 births per 1,000 women; rates are higher than the world average of 46 births per 1,000 women (World Bank 2011). Rates have continued to decline over the past decade, however, with Colombia, El Salvador, Honduras, and Nicaragua decreasing their rates by 20 points or more. (See Graph 43 and Appendix, Table A.32.)

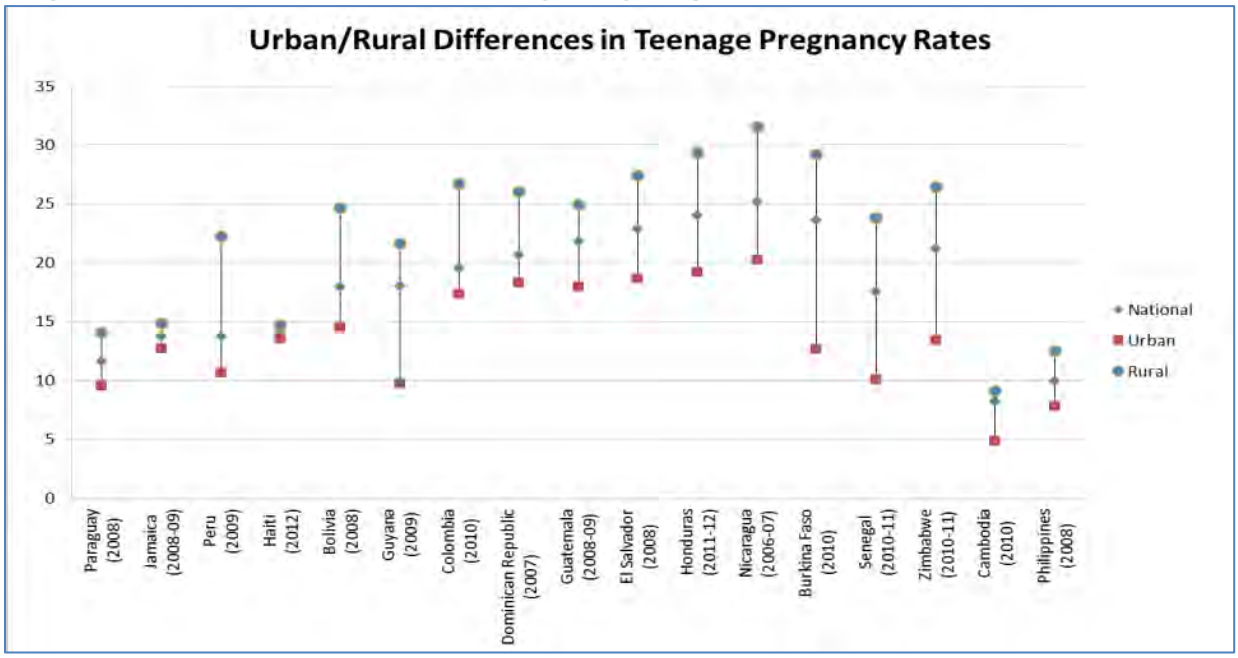
Graph 43: Adolescent Fertility Rate by Region, 2000–2011



Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators, consulted 12/5/2013.

Many teenage mothers have 1.8 to 2.8 fewer years of education than other teenage girls and are 14 times more likely to drop out of school (Näslund-Hadley & Manzano, 2011). The IDB study found that between 67 percent and 89 percent of teenage mothers are out of school, compared with 14 percent to 35 percent of other teenage girls who did not have children. High pregnancy rates in Latin America are concentrated among young women from low-income rural households. (See Appendix, Graph 44 and Graph A.7.) Many of these teenage girls become mothers because they encounter roadblocks that discourage educational attainment, lack high aspirations, and believe that having children gives their lives meaning (Näslund-Hadley & Manzano, 2011; Näslund-Hadley & Binstock, 2010).

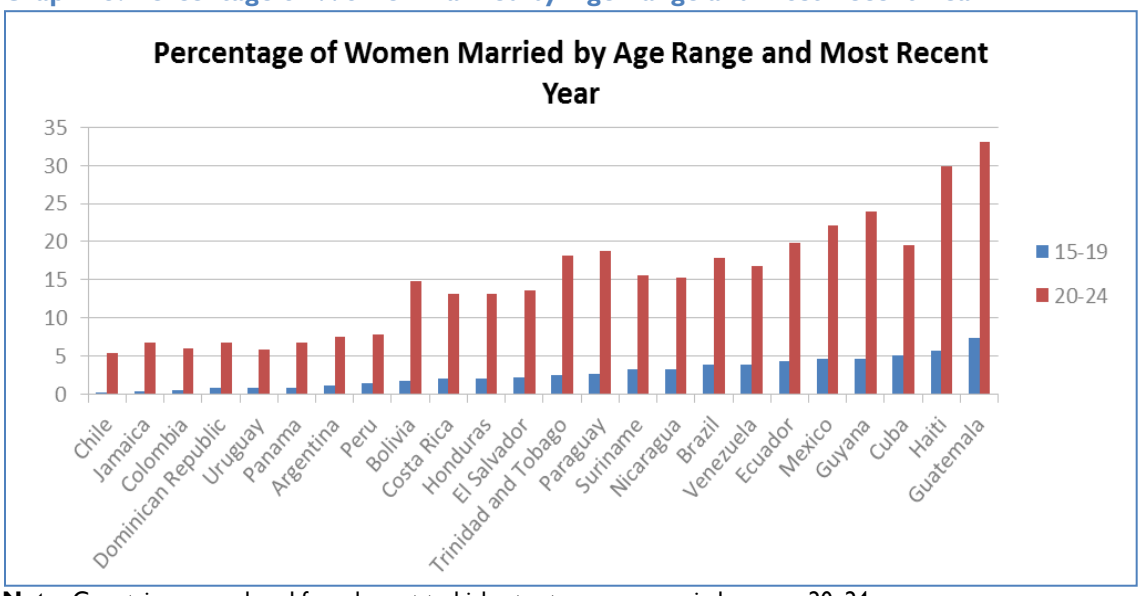
Graph 44: Urban/Rural Difference in Teenage Pregnancy Rates



Source: Measure DHS, consulted 12/5/2013.

According to the United Nations, World Marriage Data, adolescent marriage rates among young women remain low (5 percent or below), suggesting many young women get pregnant out of wedlock. (See Appendix, Table A.33.) This may be the result of early cohabitation with their partners (Näslund-Hadley & Manzano, 2011). Teenage boys have an even lower tendency of getting married young, with less than 2 percent getting married between the ages of 15–19 across the LAC region. As adolescent females get older (ages 20–24), marriage rates increase dramatically across all countries in the region. (See Graph 45 and Appendix, Table A.33.)

Graph 45: Percentage of Women Married by Age Range and Most Recent Year

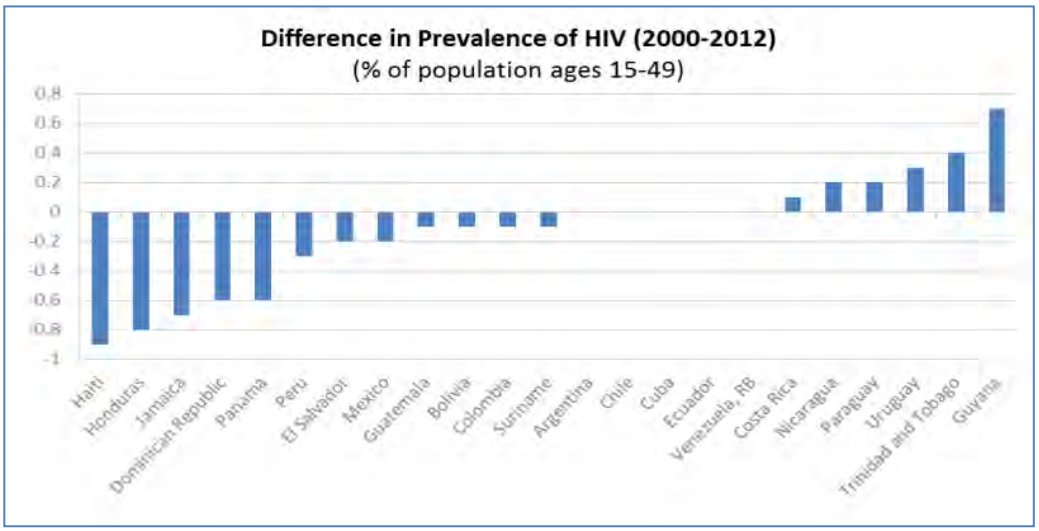


Note: Countries are ordered from lowest to highest rate among married women 20–24 years.
Source: UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division, consulted 12/05/2013.

Adult HIV rates

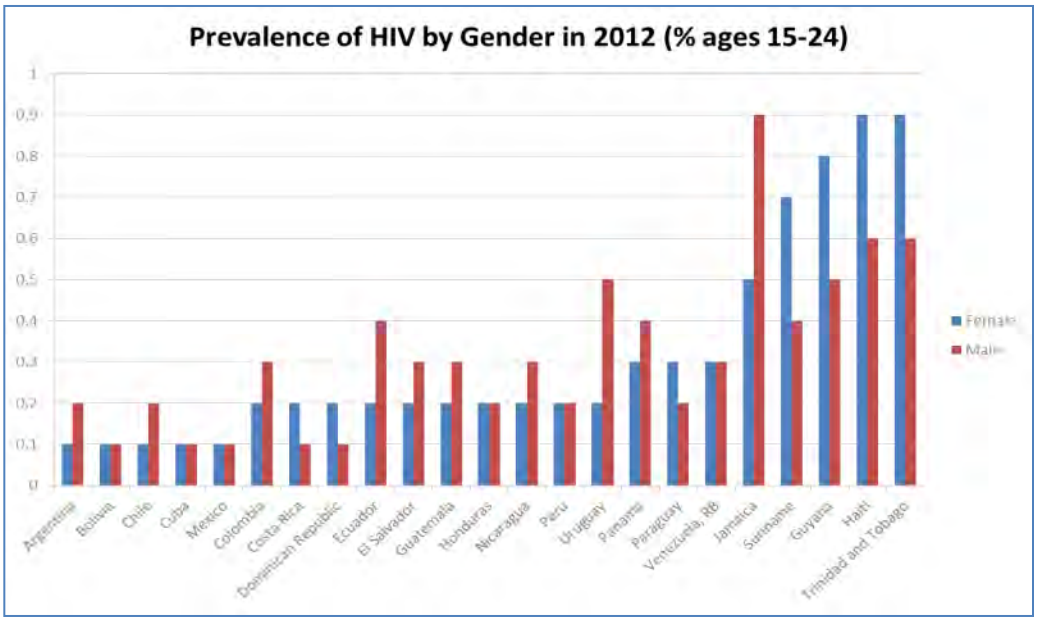
The prevalence of HIV has remained stable for adults in most countries. Countries that had very high prevalence of HIV—Haiti, Honduras, and Jamaica—saw HIV rates decrease among adults ages 15 to 49 between 2000 and 2012, while other countries such as Guyana and Trinidad and Tobago recorded slight increases. (See Graph 46.) Average HIV rates for female and males seem to be similar in many countries across the region, although the rate for women exceeds that of men in a handful of countries. (See Graph 47.) Prevalence among young men is much higher than among women in Jamaica, Ecuador, and Uruguay.

Graph 46: Difference in Prevalence of HIV, 2000–2012



Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators, consulted 12/5/2013.

Graph 47: Prevalence of HIV by Gender in 2012



Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators, consulted 12/5/2013.

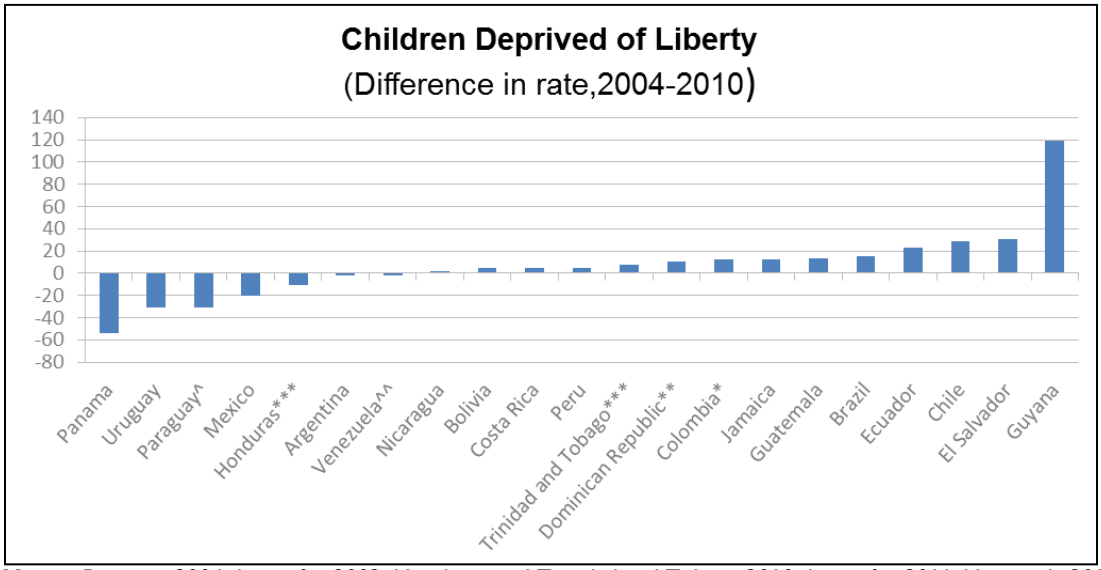
Adolescent use of drugs

Youth in the region are most likely to use easily accessible drugs such as cannabis and amphetamines. A quarter of youth in Jamaica and Chile say they have used cannabis at least once, compared to youth in Peru, Haiti, and Venezuela who have some of the lowest cannabis use in the LAC region (0.02 percent, 1.7 percent and 1.7 percent, respectively). **(**See Appendix, Tables A.34-A.38.**)** Use of cocaine in the region is much lower than cannabis usage, which is greater than 7 percent on average; an average of only 2 percent of youth surveyed said that they tried cocaine at least once (UNDOC, 2012).

Youth as perpetrators of crime and violence

Drugs may be a factor in the alarming number of young people affected by crime and violence, either as perpetrators or victims, according to an Organization of American States report (2013). Although casual links between the incidence of crimes and those who have taken drugs cannot be established, drug consumption tends to be high among people who have committed a crime. The growth, production, and sale of drugs can fuel crime (Goldstein 1985; MacCoun et al. 2003). Also, youth involvement in drug trafficking often ends in jail time. Whether through involvement in drugs or other risky behavior, an increasing number of young adults and children are currently in prison, penal institutions, or detention centers in Latin American countries. While the number of incarcerated young adults has remained stable in most countries, Brazil has seen its already high numbers rise steeply—about 60 percent from 2005–-2012. (See Appendix, Table A.39.) Guyana has seen a sharp increase in the number of children under 18 in the criminal justice system, while Uruguay has seen a steep decrease. (See Graph 48.) Munyo (2013) attributes the increase in youth incarceration to "changes in incentives to commit crime." In Uruguay (the case study country, this included the detrimental effect of the 2002 economic crisis, which lowered wages and made illegal activities more attractive; the more lenient juvenile crime law, which significantly reduced the expected sentencing of youth offenders; the substantial increase in youth escaping from juvenile correctional facilities; and; a past epidemic of cocaine, a drug that severely affects a youth's ability to plan for the future.

Graph 48: Children Deprived of Liberty

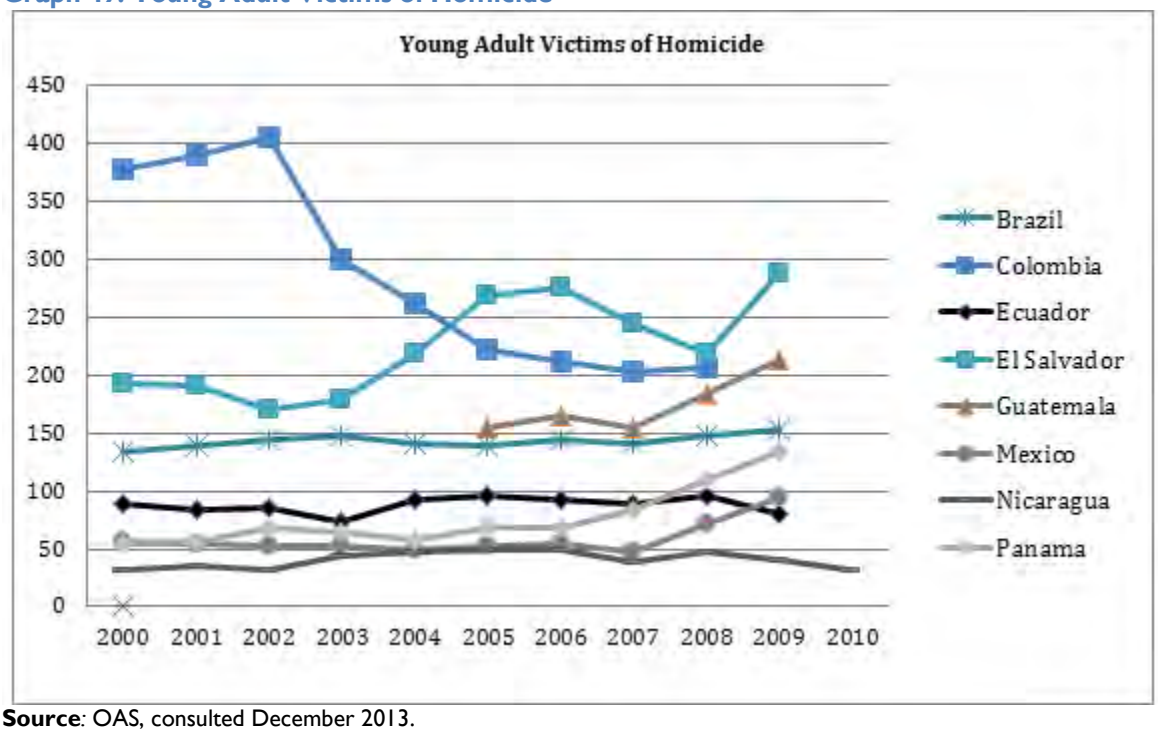


Notes: Paraguay 2004 data is for 2002. Honduras and Trinidad and Tobago 2010 data is for 2011. Venezuela 2010 data is for 2008. Dominican Republic 2004 data is for 2006. Colombia 2004 data is for 2007.
Source: OAS, Observatory on Citizen Security online database, consulted 12/13.

Youth as victims of crime and violence

Several countries in LAC have seen an increase in violent crimes against children and adolescents between 2008 and 2011. Jamaica has a particularly high rate of child homicide victims, although the rate is declining. (See Appendix, Table A.40.) Colombia has seen a steep decline in young adult homicide victims, but El Salvador, Trinidad and Tobago, Barbados, and Panama have seen increases. (See Graph 49.) The high dropout rates for youth cohorts in the LAC region may be a factor contributing to youth involvement in crime. Research suggests, however, that education can reduce the incidence of crime. One study, for example, found that a one-year increase in average years of schooling reduced both property and violent crime by 11 to 12 percent in the United States (Lochner & Moretti, 2001).

Graph 49: Young Adult Victims of Homicide



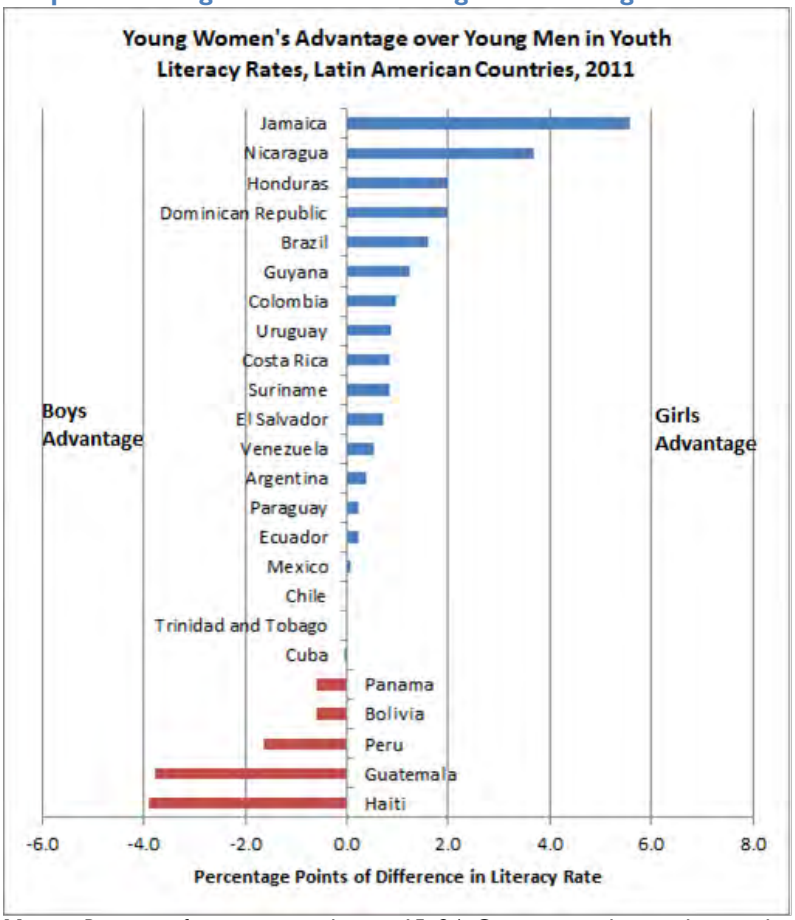
Source: OAS, consulted December 2013.

VI. TRENDS TO WATCH

Gender equity

Although global education discussions often center on making sure that girls have equal access to high-quality education, girls in many Latin America countries outperform boys on existing education measures. Young women tend to have similar or higher youth literacy rates than young men, although Guatemala and Haiti are important exceptions and adult literacy rates in some countries still favor men. (See Graph 50 and Appendix, Tables A.41 and A.42.) Gender gaps in favor of girls are predicted to increase in Colombia, Ecuador, Dominican Republic, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Venezuela. However, rural women are the exception and have higher illiteracy rates than urban men or women or rural men in most countries. (See Appendix, Table A.9.)

Graph 50: Young Women's Advantage over Young Men in Youth Literacy Rates, 2011



Notes: Rates are for young people ages 15–24. Countries with a gender gap that favors boys are noted in red. Note that there is no reported gender gap in Cuba and differences are less than 1 percentage point in 14 of the 24 countries. Data are within 2 years of date listed except Haiti figure for 2011 is for 2006. Nicaragua and Peru figures for 2011 are for 2005.
Source: World Bank, EdStats online database, consulted 1/5/14.

Girls tend to enroll in and complete schooling at higher rates than boys, particularly at the secondary level and tertiary level. (See Graphs 25 & 28, and Appendix Tables A.43 & A.44.) Indeed, UNESCO's 2013 *Education for All Global Monitoring Report* for Latin America and the Caribbean notes "[o]f the 15 countries in the world that have less than 90 adolescent boys in secondary for every 100 adolescent girls, half are in this region" (UNESCO/OREALC, 2014, p.6, author's translation). Girls often have a strong advantage in reading

achievement tests, trail boys by a smaller margin on math tests, and do about as well on science tests. (See Graphs 4, 13, & 14 and Appendix, A.2.)

However, these advantages have not translated to higher employment among young women. In all countries with data available, young men are substantially more likely than young women to be out of school and working (SITEAL online database, consulted 1/10/14). The proportion of young women ages 15–19 who are economically active is 18 percentage points less than the proportion of young men. Labor force participation among young women ages 20–24 is more than 25 percentage points lower than the rate for young men in the same age group (ILO, 2013c, p. 24). Rural girls in particular are more likely to be neither working nor studying.

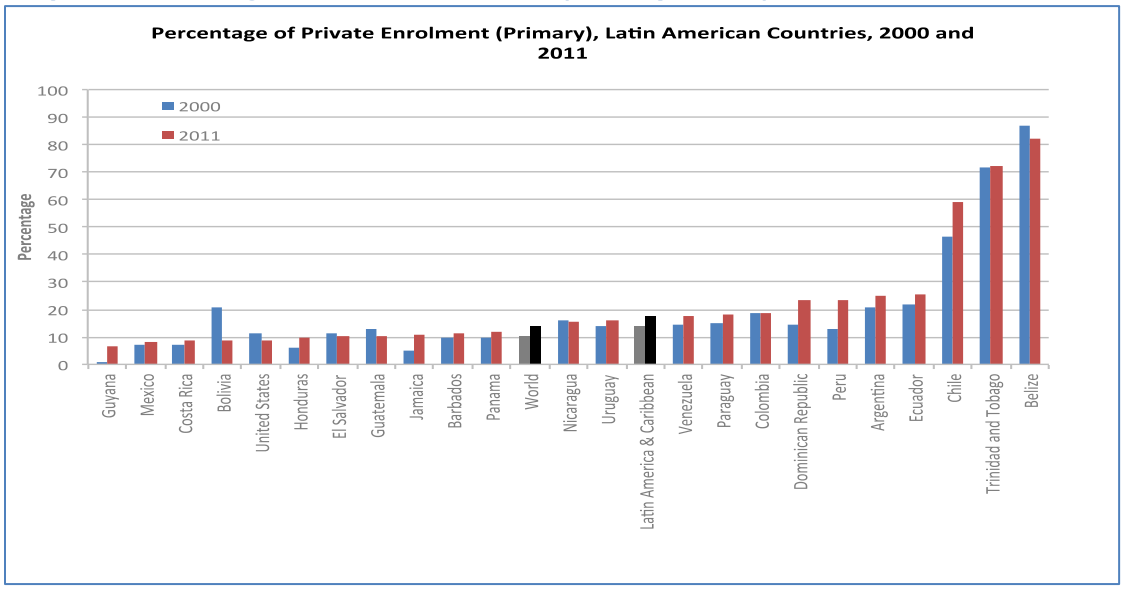
The combination of young LAC women's higher educational attainment and their high unemployment rates at all education levels has important policy implications. First, in a world where knowledge and skills are increasingly important to adult success in terms of income and positive social behaviors, Latin American countries need to make sure that young men aren't being left behind. Doing so may require flexible approaches that balance boys' need to work and study and that allow for learning styles and interests that may be different from those of young women. Second, it is clear that young women face barriers to labor force participation that go beyond education (ILO, 2013c). Taking full advantage of their knowledge and skills will require addressing those barriers, including the need to balance work and family obligations, wage and informality differences, access to credit, etc. Third, countries will have to find policies to help address the specific needs of rural girls, who continue to face the highest disadvantages according to most indicators.

Private school enrollment and quality

A significant proportion of Latin American children attend private school. Nearly one in five primary school students (17.5 percent) are enrolled in private schools in the region, up 3 percentage points from 2000. This is higher than the global average (around 14 percent), which had a similar level of growth. In some countries, nearly a quarter of all primary students attend private school, and in Chile,[46] Trinidad and Tobago, and Belize rates are even higher. (See Graph 51 and Appendix, Table A.45.) An even higher percentage of students are enrolled in private schools at the secondary level, where the regional average increased from 17.5 percent in 2000 to 19.3 percent in 2011. Rates at the global level grew more quickly, however, expanding from 19.5 percent private enrollment in 2000 to 22.3 percent in 2011. (See Graph 52 and Appendix, Table A.46.) As with primary school, several countries including Chile,[47] Guatemala, and Belize have considerably higher rates—nearly 60 percent of secondary school enrollment is private in these countries. In fact, the private school enrollment rate in Haiti is more than 75 percent (Lisman, 2012). While only six countries in the region saw the private share of primary education decrease in the last decade, the situation at the secondary level is mixed, with about half of Latin American countries with data available increasing and half decreasing their share of private enrollment between 2000 and 2011. Of the nine countries with private rates above the global average, all but two saw that share increase. To the extent that high percentages of private enrollment reflect deficiencies in the public sector (low quality or low access), increasing rates of private enrollment suggest that those problems are not improving.

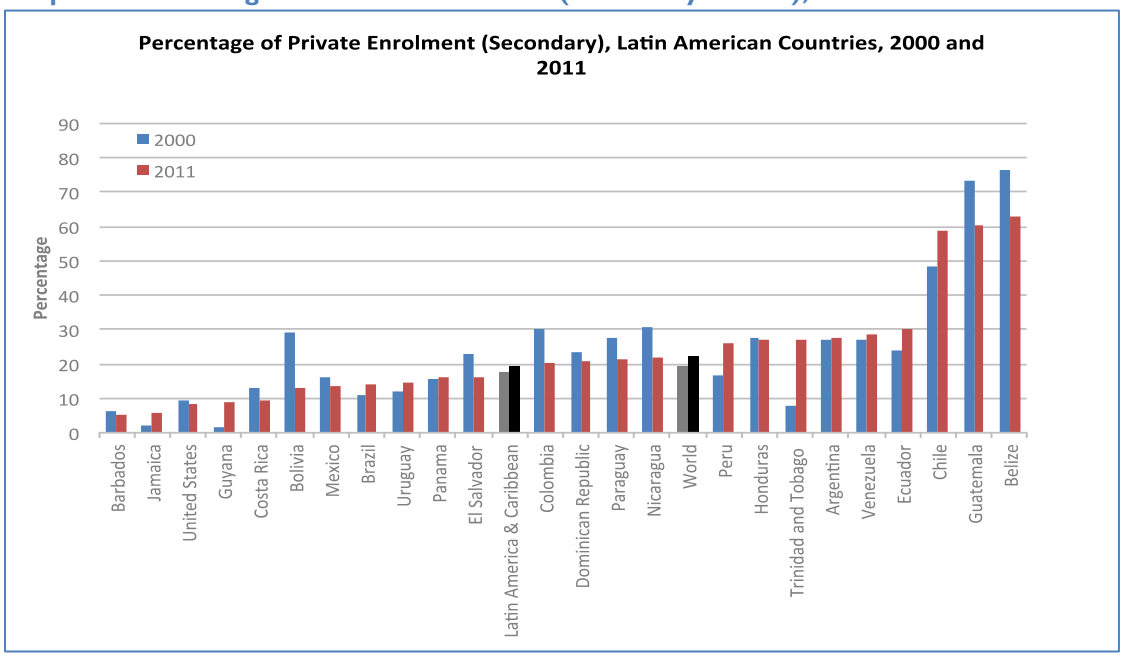
[46] In Chile, a substantial number of private schools are publically financed (*escuelas particulares subvencionadas*).
[47] See note about *escuelas particulares subvencionadas*.

Graph 51: Percentage of Private Enrollment (Primary School), 2000 and 2011



Note: Data within 2 years of date listed except Honduras 2000 is for 2005. No data for Haiti.
Source: World Bank, EdStats online database consulted on 1/5/13.

Graph 52: Percentage of Private Enrollment (Secondary School), 2000 and 2011



Note: Data within 2 years of date listed except Honduras 2000 is for 2005. No data for Haiti.
Source: World Bank, EdStats online database consulted on 1/5/13.

Because public education in most countries covers only the primary and secondary levels, a large share of enrollment in pre-primary and tertiary education is private. (See Graphs, Appendix A.8 & A.9.) On average, nearly a quarter of enrolled preschool students attend private schools, although this ranges widely from less than 10 percent in Guyana to more than 90 percent in Jamaica. Several countries have ramped up their preschool efforts in recent years and public coverage at this level in general is expanding rapidly. The effect of those efforts on private education, however, is unclear; expanded public provision might lead to declines in

private enrollment as children move from paid private programs to free public ones. At the same time, expansion of coverage and new laws that make 1 year of preschool compulsory may lead more children to enroll in private programs, particularly where sufficient public programs are not available or are of low quality. Fewer countries have data available for the tertiary level. In several that do, however, large public universities provide free education to primarily middle and upper class students. However, on average, more than 40 percent of enrollments at this level are private.[48] Private enrollment rates are highest in Chile and Brazil, where growing demand for tertiary education exceeds the capacity of public universities to provide it.

Private expenditure on education generally amounts to less than 1 percent of GDP at any education level, pre-primary through tertiary. Despite the substantial and often growing share of private enrollment in the region, the limited data available on educational expenditures from private sources suggest that monetary contributions to education remain primarily public. No country has private investment above 1 percent of GDP in pre-primary education, and only the Dominican Republic (primary) and Guatemala (secondary) have private investment above 1 percent of GDP for grades 1–12. At the tertiary level, Peru receives 1 percent of education expenditures from private sources, while in Chile it is closer to 2 percent. Yet private investment in 2010 was nearly equal to expenditures from public sources in preschool in Colombia and Guatemala, in primary school in the Dominican Republic, and for tertiary education in Paraguay. (See Appendix, Graphs A.10-13.) Expenditures from private sources exceed those from public sources at the secondary level in the Dominican Republic and Guatemala, and four countries (El Salvador, Colombia, Peru, and Chile) had private expenditures that were greater than public expenditures at the tertiary level.

Private schools and public schools perform similarly on tests after controlling for differences in the background of the students they serve. Parents often enroll their children in private school because they feel it provides better quality education. Although information on private schools is scarce and few countries track data on their structure or performance systematically, private school test scores do tend to be higher than those of public schools in a general comparison. For example, students in private schools scored about 60 points higher than those in public schools on UNESCO/OREAL's 2006 regional test of third and sixth graders learning achievement (SERCE) (Duarte et al., 2010).[49] However, researchers found that once they took differences in student body characteristics and family backgrounds into account, whether a school was publicly or privately managed or financed had little relation to test scores.[50] In other words, private schools tended to score higher primarily because they served a more privileged student body, with parents who were more highly educated and involved.[51] (Privately managed, but publicly funded schools also did not have higher tests scores after controlling for the population served.) An earlier study of the first UNESCO/OREALC 1997 regional test of third and fourth graders found similar results—private schools did not do better than public schools once family and peer effects were removed (Somers et al., 2001).[52] Duarte et al. reported that studies of PISA 2006 science scores showed that most of the five participating Latin American countries

[48] Author's calculation of simple average for LAC countries based on World Bank data.

[49] Exceptions were Paraguay in third-grade math and reading, Colombia and the Dominican Republic in sixth-grade reading and math, and El Salvador in sixth-grade math where differences between public and private schools were not statistically significant.

[50] The study controlled for individual characteristics of students such as socioeconomic status (including parent education, language spoken at home, and availability of books and other goods and services), parent involvement, and the frequency with which parents read to their child when younger. At the school level, the study controlled for the average socioeconomic status of the school, an index of parent involvement, and school discipline. Cuba and Mexico were excluded because in Cuba all schools are public and Mexico did not collect socioeconomic data about students.

[51] Note that, although the gap is smaller than when comparing private and public schools generally, private schools still retain their test score advantage (regionally and in most individual countries) when controlling only for the socioeconomic status of individual students without including peer characteristics of the student body as a whole. Exceptions at the country level are the same as in footnote 44, with the addition that differences are no longer significant in third-grade math in the Dominican Republic.

[52] The Somers et al. study controls for individual student characteristics, including parent(s) years of schooling, if there are two parents in the household, if there are at least 10 books in the home, parent involvement in school-related activities (seldom, sometimes, always), the extent to which parents know their child's teacher, parent attendance at parent-teacher meetings, and the frequency with which parents read to their child when younger. Peer group characteristics included the average socioeconomic status of students in the school (including parent education, two parents, and 10 books), average parent involvement, and classroom discipline. The study also controlled for whether schools were in urban or megacity areas, gender and grade level of students.

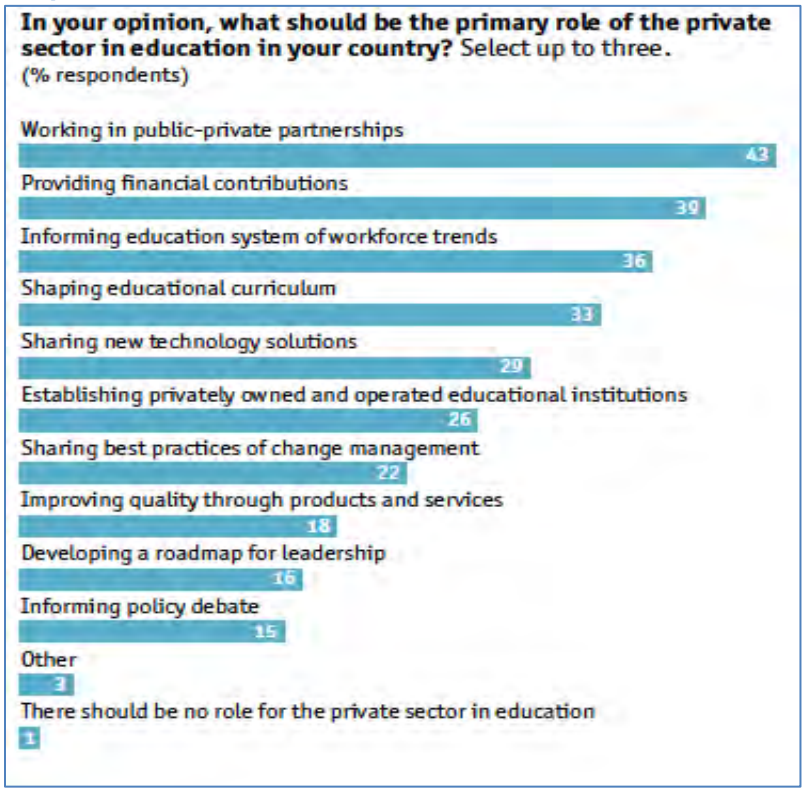
showed no difference between public and private schools, and no advantage to public schools after controlling for family background and the schools' overall socioeconomic status. Brazil, however, was the exception, showing an advantage for private schools (Duarte et al., 2010, p. 5).

Both the Somers et al. and Duarte et al. studies suggest that differences in school management have little to do with public-private differences in test scores in most instances. However, Duarte and his colleagues found exceptions in third-grade reading and sixth-grade math in Argentina, third-grade reading and math in Colombia, sixth-grade math in Costa Rica, sixth-grade reading and math in Chile, and third-grade reading in Panama, where private schools retain their advantage even after controlling for individual student and peer characteristics. In these countries, the authors note, only more detailed analysis can reveal what aspects, if any, of private management affect differences in learning results (Duarte, et al., 2010, p.16).

Public-private partnerships

Businesses are becoming increasingly involved in supporting education improvement. According to a recent Economist Intelligence Unit report, 74 percent of global business leaders surveyed in 2009 reported that the private sector was somewhat to very engaged with education in their countries, and 41 percent felt it could affect education policy to a great extent. (See Appendix, Graphs A.14 & A.15.). Most businesses saw their role as working in partnership with public entities, providing financial contributions, and helping align education with the skills they need to retain their comparative advantage. (See Graph 53.), In other words, they did not see themselves in the business of education or running the education system. Rather, the majority focus on the benefits for business of improving education, either in terms of improved community relations, corporate social responsibility, or training workers (Van Fleet, 2011). (See Graph 54.)

Graph 53: Business Views of the Private Sector Role in Education (Opinion Survey), 2009



Source: Andreasson, 2009.

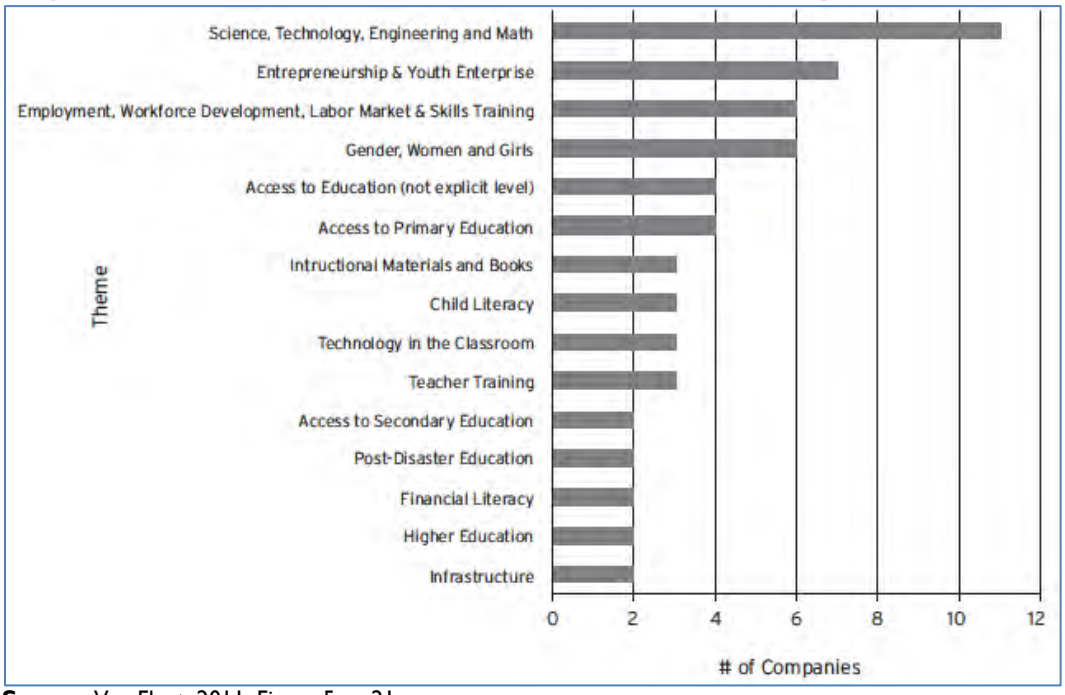
Graph 54: Multilatinas Motivations for Investing in Education, 2010

Notes: Multilatinas are corporations that are headquartered in Latin America and are controlled by stakeholders based in the region. Although the graph is from a study of multilatina business leaders, similar motivations were given in a study of Fortune 500 companies investing in education in the region.
Source: Van Fleet and Sanchez Zinny, 2012, Figure 3, p. 8.

Financial contributions are an important part of business engagement in the region. A 2011 analysis of Fortune 500 giving to global education found that U.S.-based companies give approximately a half a billion dollars a year to support education in developing countries, most of it in cash, and with larger contributions from the corporations themselves than from their associated foundations. Of 41 companies responding to the survey, 39 reported investing in projects in Latin America, more than in any other region. Contributions were focused primarily in Brazil and Mexico, but a quarter of responding firms also reported investing in education in Argentina, Peru, Chile, Colombia, and Haiti (post-earthquake).[53] Fortune 500 giving for education tended to be for shorter-term projects (3 years or less) and was primarily conducted by non-profit organizations. Few companies reported coordinating their efforts with government or other donors (Van Fleet, 2011). Company giving was very much aligned with business needs and strategic interests. For example, financial firms tended to invest more in education in Brazil and Mexico given the perceived unmet demand for financial services in those countries. Projects related to science, technology, engineering and math (STEM) featured prominently as did youth entrepreneurship, workforce development, and opportunities for women and girls. (See Graph 55.)

[53]Eighty-nine companies on the Fortune 500 were identified as making charitable contributions to education based on public financial records. Of these, 41 responded to the survey.

Graph 55: Fortune 500 Business Investment in Global Education by Theme, 2009–2010



Source: Van Fleet, 2011, Figure 5, p. 21.

Multilatinas (corporations that are headquartered in Latin America and are controlled by stakeholders based in the region), multi-national companies with headquarters outside the region, and domestically based businesses, also contribute around $663 million dollars annually to education in the region, according to a separate study (Van Fleet & Sanchez Zinny, 2012). As with Fortune 500 companies, most contributions were in cash (59 percent), and investment was concentrated in Brazil (50 percent), Colombia (40 percent), Mexico and Peru (32 percent) and Argentina (23 percent). Multilatinas were more likely than Fortune 500 firms to invest in projects for longer than 3 years—45 percent as compared to 17 percent—perhaps because regional companies are more strongly vested in the countries in which they work. Multilatinas were also more likely to coordinate with host-country governments (32 percent as compared to 27 percent). However, such coordination ranged from superficial ribbon cutting to working with ministries to improve their capacity for education management, and companies cited a number of factors that made collaboration with the public sector difficult. (See Graph 56.) In fact, half of the responding multilatinas reported no coordination with others. In addition, although U.S. Fortune 500 companies' investments in education show strong support of science, technology, engineering, and math (STEM), areas typically associated with 21st century skills and a competitive knowledge economy, none of the multilatinas reported investing in these skills specifically. (See Appendix, Graph A.16.)

Graph 56: Reasons Cited by Multilatinas for Not Collaborating with the Public Sector, 2010

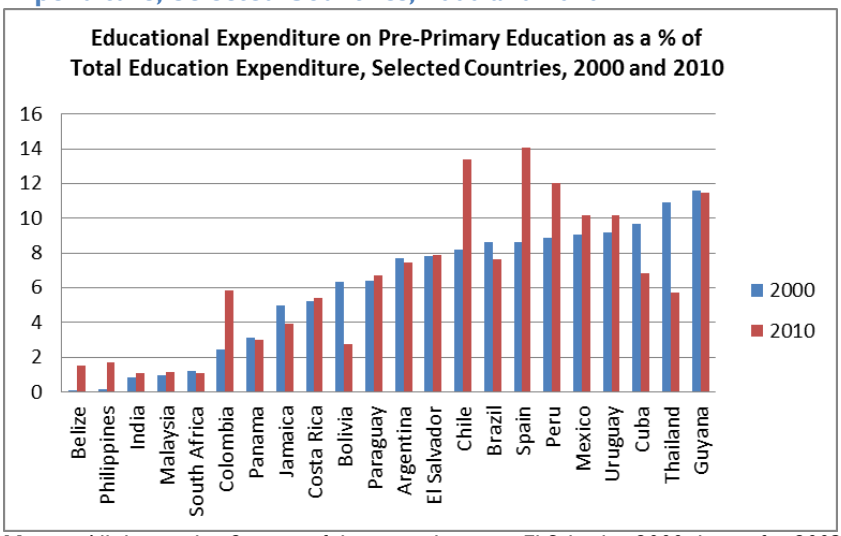
Source: Van Fleet and Sanchez Zinny, 2012, Figure 6, p. 9.

Business participation in education remains primarily concentrated on such activities as adopting schools, donating resources, and providing infrastructure assistance, but a growing number are turning their attention to supporting innovative pilot programs, monitoring student learning, and influencing education policy. Indeed, 15 percent of the respondents in the Economist Intelligence Unit survey said "influencing policy debate" should be a primary role for business in their country. (See Graph 53.) In addition, the Partnership for Educational Revitalization in the Americas (PREAL) has worked extensively with business groups, primarily in Central America, to promote policy change in diverse areas ranging from education finance and the campaign to ensure 4 percent of GDP goes to education in the Dominican Republic to improving municipal management of schools in Honduras, from supporting teacher recognition prizes in Guatemala to forming citizen coalitions for reform in Panama. Business partners have also been engaged in monitoring education performance and holding governments accountable for improving education through PREAL's education report cards. Private sector provision of education services, particularly innovations like online learning and flipped classrooms, are another trend to watch.

Preschool enrollment and finance

Access to preschool is increasing; however, preschool education is delivered and financed primarily by the private sector. As in many parts of the world, preschool education in Latin America has multiple providers: government, private sector, and nonprofit entities such as religious institutions. These providers are a response to increasing enrollment in pre-primary education. (See Graph 6 and Appendix, Graph A.17 & Table A.47.) Access to pre-primary education has been found to vary greatly within countries with children from poorer and rural households and other marginalized groups (e.g., those lacking birth certificates) significantly less likely to have access to early childhood education (UNESCO *Education for All Global Monitoring Report*, 2007 and 2014). As a result, these children are not likely to reap the full benefits that a preschool education can offer, and they will start their formal schooling behind wealthier urban peers. For example, across OECD countries, students who said that they had attended pre-primary school for more than 1 year scored 53 points—or more than one grade level—higher in mathematics than students who had not (PISA Results, Vol. II, p. 14). Unfortunately, investment in pre-primary education remains low in terms of overall education expenditure. Only a handful of LAC countries including Chile, Peru, and Guyana have continued to increase the percentage of their education budgets dedicated to pre-primary education, while a majority of countries have stagnated or reduced their investment in the pre-primary level. (See Graph 57.)

Graph 57: Education Expenditure on Pre-Primary Education as a Percent of Total Education Expenditure, Selected Countries, 2000 and 2010



Notes: All data within 2 years of date noted, except El Salvador 2000 data is for 2003.
Source: World Bank, EdStats online database consulted on 1/19/14.

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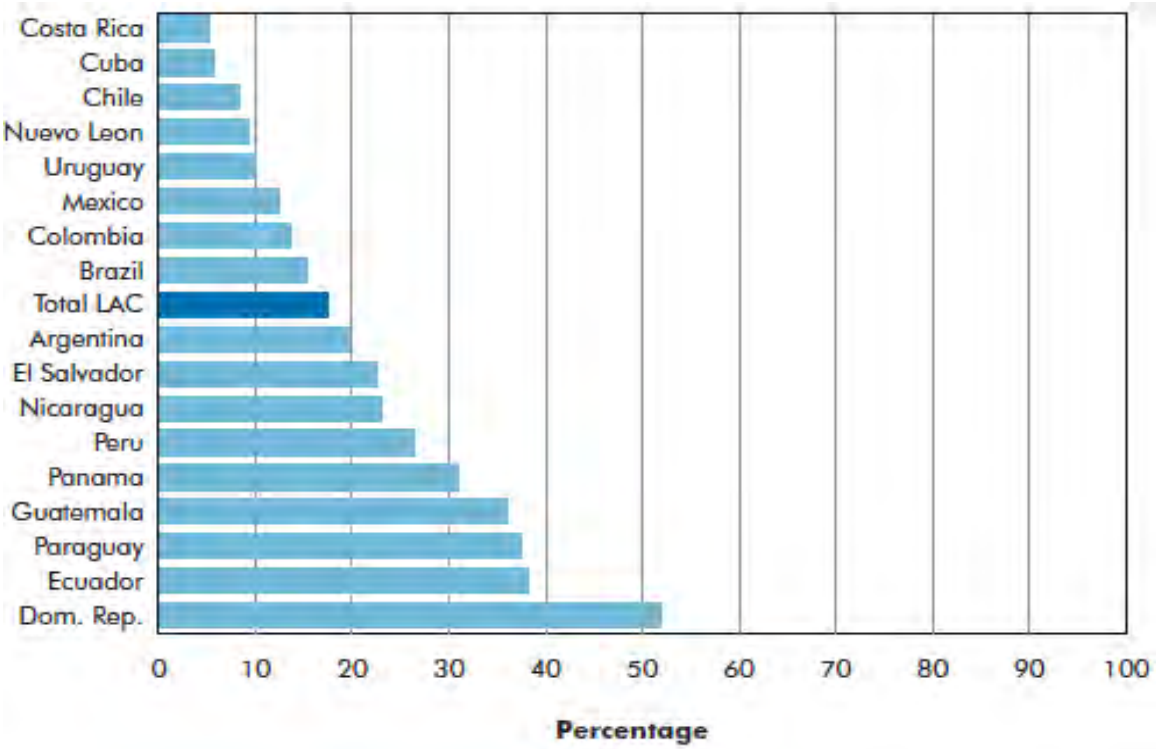
APPENDIX – SUPPLEMENTARY GRAPHS AND TABLES

Graph A.1. Percentage of Sixth Grade Students Scoring at the Lowest Levels on the SERCE Reading Test, Latin American Countries, 2006



Notes: SERCE had four performance levels, ranging from Level 1 (lowest) to Level 4 (highest). SERCE also kept track of students performing below Level 1. For a description of what sixth graders can do at each level of the test see SERCE (2008), Executive Summary, Table 12, p. 38.
Source: Ganimian, 2009. Figure 4, p. 19.

Table A.1. Mean Scores on PIRLS, Participating LAC Countries, 2001, 2006 and 2011

	2011	2006	2001
Trinidad and Tobago	471	436	na/
Honduras (6th grade)	450	n/a	n/a
Colombia	448	n/a	422
Argentina	n/a	n/a	420
Belize	n/a	n/a	327
Centerpoint	500		
Advanced International Benchmark	625		
High International Benchmark	550		
Intermediate International Benchmark	475		
Low International Benchmark	400		

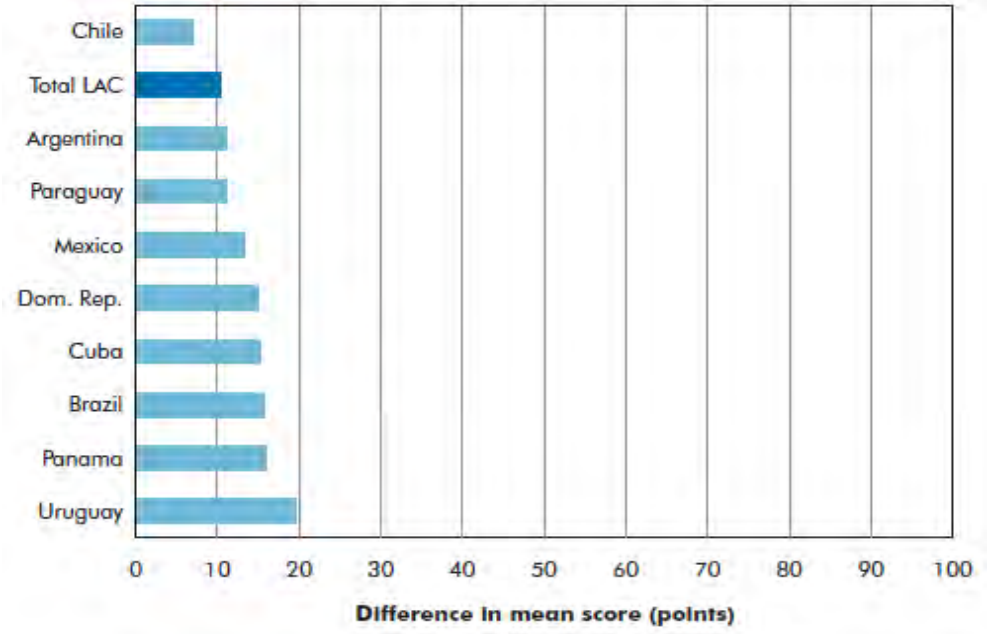
Notes: Students at the advanced international benchmark can integrate ideas and information across texts to provide reasons and explanations. Students at the high international benchmark can make inferences and interpretations with text-based support. Students at the intermediate benchmark can make straightforward inferences from the text, while students at the low benchmark can locate and retrieve information from different parts of the text. Colombia and Trinidad and Tobago both improved their performance in 2011 compared to prior participation in the test.
Source: Mullis et al., 2003 and 2012, PIRLS International Results in Reading.

Table A.2. Percentage of Students Scoring at the Highest and Lowest Levels on the PISA Reading Test, Selected Countries, 2012

	Proficiency levels in PISA 2012	
	Below Level 2 (less than 407.47 score points)	**Level 5 or above (above 625.61 score points)**
Peru	59.9	0.5
Qatar	57.1	1.6
Kazakhstan	57.1	0.0
Indonesia	55.2	0.1
Argentina	53.6	0.5
Malaysia	52.7	0.1
Albania	52.3	1.2
Colombia	51.4	0.3
Tunisia	49.3	0.2
Brazil	49.2	0.5
Uruguay	47.0	0.9
Mexico	41.1	0.4
Chile	33.0	0.6
Thailand	33.0	0.8
Costa Rica	32.4	0.6
Russian Federation	22.3	4.6
Portugal	18.8	5.8
Spain	18.3	5.5
OECD Average	**18.0**	**8.4**
Latvia	17.0	4.2
United States	16.6	7.9
Finland	11.3	13.5
Canada	10.9	12.9
Japan	9.8	18.5
Ireland	9.6	11.4
Viet Nam	9.4	4.5
Korea	7.6	14.1
Shanghai-China	2.9	25.1

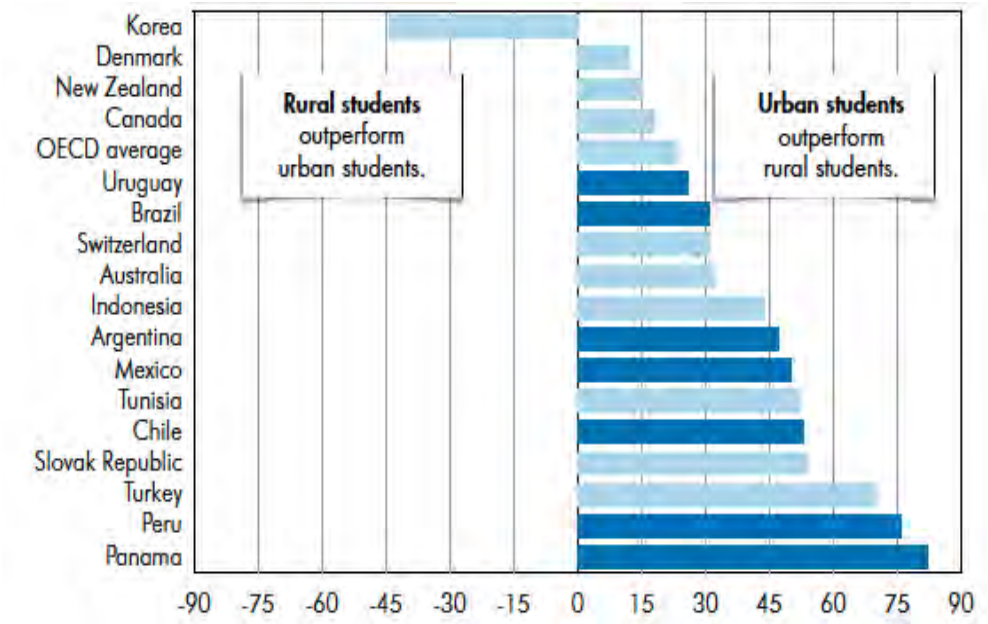
Notes: Selected countries include top performer, Shanghai, the top five countries (not including economies like Hong Kong or Singapore), bottom five countries, all LAC participants, Spain, Portugal, United States, and Canada. Finland is also included as previous top performer, Vietnam as an up and comer, Latvia and Russia as countries with similar GDP, and Indonesia, Malaysia and Thailand as a potential economic competitors.
Source: OECD, 2013a, Annex B, Table 1.4.1b.

Graph A.2. Sixth Grade Girls' Advantage over Boys in Mean SERCE Reading Scores, 2006



Notes: The graph only shows those countries where the differences in mean scores were statistically significant.
Source: Ganimian, 2009. Figure 18, p.36.

Graph A.3. Difference in Mean Scores between Students in Urban and Rural Schools on PISA Reading Test, 2009



Notes: Urban schools in this graph include both small and large cities. These calculations control for differences in family income. Country selection is the same as in previous sections. OECD average includes all 34 member countries. An advantage of 39 points in reading is equivalent to a grade level in an OECD country.
Source: Ganimian and Solano, 2011, Graph 22, p. 42.

Table A.3. Adult Literacy Rate (percent population ages 15+), Selected Countries, 2000, 2005, 2011 and 2015

	2000	2005	2011	2015
Cuba	99.8		99.8	99.9
Trinidad and Tobago		98.4	98.8	
Chile	95.7		98.6	97.2
Uruguay		97.8	98.1	
Argentina	97.2		97.9	98.1
Spain		97.8	97.7	
Costa Rica	94.9		96.3	
Venezuela	93.0	93.0	95.5	95.7
China	90.9		95.1	95.7
Suriname		89.6	94.7	90.0
Turkey		88.2	94.1	92.4
Panama	91.9		94.1	94.3
Paraguay		94.6	93.9	94.8
Colombia		92.8	93.6	95.2
Mexico	90.5	91.6	93.5	94.6
Vietnam	90.2		93.4	93.8
Malaysia	88.7		93.1	93.3
South Africa		88.7	93.0	
Ecuador	91.0	84.2	91.6	94.1
Bolivia	86.7	90.7	91.2	93.4
Brazil	86.4	88.6	90.4	92.3
Dominican Republic	87.0		90.1	92.6
Jamaica	79.9		87.0	
Honduras	80.0	83.6	85.1	86.0
Guyana			85.0	
El Salvador		79.8	84.5	88.5
Guatemala	69.1		75.9	77.9
Haiti	58.7	48.7		
Nicaragua	76.7	78.0		84.0
Peru		87.9		92.4
India	61.0	62.8		69.7
Kenya	82.2	72.2		77.4
Philippines	92.6	92.6		94.2
Thailand	92.6	93.5		95.7

Notes: Data for most recent year within 2 years of date listed. Data for 2015 is projected. Haiti figure for 2000 is 2003 data and figure for 2011 is 2006 data. Nicaragua figure for 2011 is 2005 data. Both Haiti and Nicaragua 2011 match rates given in UNESCO's *Education for All Global Monitoring Report* 2014. Comparison countries are in red.

Source: World Bank, EdStats online database, consulted 1/5/14. Peru 2011 and 2015 projection are from UNESCO's *Education for All Global Monitoring Report* 2014, Annex Table 2.

Table A.4. Youth Literacy Rate (percent population ages 15-24), Selected Countries, 2000, 2005, 2011 and 2015

	2000	2005	2011	2015
Cuba	100.0		100.0	99.9
China	98.9		99.6	99.5
Spain		99.5	99.6	
Trinidad and Tobago		99.5	99.6	
Bolivia	97.3	99.4	99.4	99.0
Argentina	98.9		99.2	99.2
Chile	99.0		98.9	99.3
Uruguay		98.7	98.8	
South Africa		97.6	98.8	
Turkey		96.1	98.7	97.6
Ecuador	96.4	95.4	98.7	96.7
Paraguay		98.8	98.6	97.1
Venezuela, RB	97.2	98.4	98.5	97.8
Mexico	96.6	97.6	98.5	98.8
Malaysia	97.2		98.4	98.8
Suriname		94.9	98.4	92.1
Costa Rica	97.6		98.3	
Colombia		98.0	98.2	98.2
Philippines	95.1	95.1	97.8	95.0
Panama	96.1		97.6	96.4
Brazil	94.2	96.8	97.5	98.6
Vietnam	94.8		97.1	
Dominican Republic	94.2	95.8	97.0	95.9
El Salvador		89.0	96.0	95.7
Honduras	88.9	93.9	95.9	91.2
Jamaica			95.6	
Guyana			93.1	
Guatemala	82.2		87.4	87.0
Thailand	98.0	98.1		98.6
Peru		97.1		97.9
Nicaragua	86.2	87.0		90.9
Kenya	92.5	82.4		77.2
India	76.4	81.1		83.7
Haiti	81.6	72.3		

Notes: Data for most recent year within 2 years of date listed. Data for 2015 is projected. Haiti figure for 2000 is 2003 data and figure for 2011 is 2006 data. Philippines 2011 figure is for 2008. Nicaragua figure for 2011 is 2005 data. Both Haiti and Nicaragua 2011 match rates given in UNESCO's *Education for All Global Monitoring Report* 2014. Comparison countries are noted in red.
Source: World Bank, EdStats online database, consulted 1/5/14. Peru 2011 and 2015 projection are from UNESCO's *Education for All Global Monitoring Report* 2014, Annex Table 2.

Table A.5. Youth Literacy Rate (ages 15-24) by Region, 2000-2011

Region	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Europe & Central Asia	99.3	99.3	99.3	99.3	99.3	99.6	99.6	99.6	99.6	99.6	99.6	99.6
East Asia & Pacific	98.0	98.0	98.0	98.0	98.0	98.9	98.9	98.9	98.9	98.9	98.9	98.9
Latin America & Caribbean	96.3	96.3	96.3	96.3	96.3	97.1	97.1	97.1	97.1	97.1	97.1	97.1
Middle East & North Africa	86.2	86.2	86.2	86.2	86.2	92.2	92.2	92.2	92.2	92.2	92.2	92.2
World	**87.2**	**87.2**	**87.2**	**87.2**	**87.2**	**89.4**	**89.4**	**89.4**	**89.4**	**89.4**	**89.4**	**89.4**
South Asia	72.6	72.6	72.6	72.6	72.6	79.7	79.7	79.7	79.7	79.7	79.7	79.7
Sub-Saharan Africa	68.7	68.7	68.7	68.7	68.7	70.4	70.4	70.4	70.4	70.4	70.4	70.4

Notes: No data for High Income countries, but generally considered to be universal. UNESCO Fact Sheet 26, September 2013 shows similar rates for LAC and World averages.
Source: World Bank, EdStats online database, consulted 1/5/14.

Table A.6. Adult Literacy Rate (ages 15+) by Region, 2000-2011

Region	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Europe & Central Asia	98.2	98.2	98.2	98.2	98.2	98.9	98.9	98.9	98.9	98.9	98.9	98.9
East Asia & Pacific	91.5	91.5	91.5	91.5	91.5	94.7	94.7	94.7	94.7	94.7	94.7	94.7
Latin America & Caribbean	89.7	89.7	89.7	89.7	89.7	91.5	91.5	91.5	91.5	91.5	91.5	91.5
World	**81.8**	**81.8**	**81.8**	**81.8**	**81.8**	**84.1**	**84.1**	**84.1**	**84.1**	**84.1**	**84.1**	**84.1**
Middle East & North Africa	70.4	70.4	70.4	70.4	70.4	79.2	79.2	79.2	79.2	79.2	79.2	79.2
Lower middle income	67.7	67.7	67.7	67.7	67.7	70.6	70.6	70.6	70.6	70.6	70.6	70.6
South Asia	58.0	58.0	58.0	58.0	58.0	61.6	61.6	61.6	61.6	61.6	61.6	61.6
Sub-Saharan Africa	57.4	57.4	57.4	57.4	57.4	59.8	59.8	59.8	59.8	59.8	59.8	59.8

Notes: No data for High Income, but generally considered to be universal. UNESCO Fact Sheet 26, September 2013 shows similar rates for LAC and World averages.
Source: World Bank, EdStats online database, consulted 1/5/14.

Table A.7. Adult Illiteracy Rates (Ages 15+) by Age Group, 2000, 2005, and 2011

		2000	2005	2011
Argentina	**15-24**	0.7	0.7	0.4
	25-34	0.7	0.6	0.5
	35-49	1.2	1.1	0.7
	50+	2.9	2.8	1.9
Bolivia	**15-24**	2.7	1.2	1.0
	25-34	7.0	3.6	2.1
	35-49	13.3	9.8	6.0
	50+	38.3	31.1	22.4
Brazil	**15-24**	4.2	3.2	1.5
	25-34	7.6	6.5	3.7
	35-49	11.2	10.3	7.4
	50+	27.5	25.4	18.6
Colombia	**15-24**		2.1	2.0
	25-34		3.2	3.2
	35-49		5.6	5.2
	50+		16.8	15.6
Chile	**15-24**	0.9	0.9	0.6
	25-34	1.6	1.5	0.9
	35-49	2.8	2.6	2.1
	50+	9.8	9.8	7.0
Dominican Republic	**15-24**	5.5	4.5	2.7
	25-34	8.2	6.9	6.0
	35-49	12.8	11.6	8.9
	50+	26.8	28.8	20.7
Ecuador	**15-24**	2.4	1.8	1.3
	25-34	3.6	3.2	2.1
	35-49	8.3	6.6	4.6
	50+	22.5	21.3	20.0
El Salvador	**15-24**	7.5	6.2	4.0
	25-34	12.5	9.9	9.0
	35-49	19.7	17.5	15.9
	50+	38.6	36.2	33.9
Guatemala	**15-24**	18.3	12.1	9.0
	25-34	25.1	18.7	17.9
	35-49	35.0	28.2	27.8
	50+	56.2	48.3	47.4
Honduras	**15-24**	8.8	9.1	5.0
	25-34	11.7	12.1	9.7
	35-49	19.1	18.4	14.9
	50+	42.7	40.1	31.3
Mexico	**15-24**	2.6	2.7	1.7
	25-34	4.6	4.0	3.5
	35-49	8.7	7.5	5.6
	50+	25.0	21.9	17.0
Nicaragua	**15-24**	13.5	9.6	6.7
	25-34	14.5	15.2	13.4
	35-49	24.2	20.6	15.4
	50+	45.2	42.0	37.3
Paraguay	**15-24**	4.4	2.0	1.4
	25-34	5.6	3.4	2.0
	35-49	8.9	6.4	4.2
	50+	20.0	18.8	13.2
Peru	**15-24**	2.4	2.5	1.8
	25-34	4.1	4.6	4.1
	35-49	10.3	9.6	8.1
	50+	30.4	26.0	23.3
Uruguay	**15-24**		1.3	1.1
	25-34		1.5	1.2
	35-49		1.4	1.2
	50+		3.5	2.6
Venezuela	**15-24**	2.3	1.9	1.4
	25-34	3.1	2.8	1.9

		2000	2005	2011
	35-49	5.0	4.3	2.7
	50+	19.5	15.6	10.5

Notes: Data for most recent year within 2 years of date listed. Costa Rica and Panama reported as 0 values.
Source: Sistema de Información de Tendencias Educativas en América Latina (SITEAL) online database, consulted 1/10/14.

Table A.8. Adult Illiteracy Rate (Ages 15+) by Geographic Area, Latin American Countries, 2000, 2005 and 2011

		2000	2005	2011
Bolivia	**Urban**	6.3	5.6	3.7
	Rural	29.0	22.3	17.2
Gap		22.7	16.7	13.5
Brazil	**Urban**	9.5	8.7	6.5
	Rural	28.7	25.8	21.2
Gap		19.3	17.1	14.7
Colombia	**Urban**		4.6	5.3
	Rural		15.1	13.8
Gap			10.5	8.5
Chile	**Urban**	2.6	2.8	2.5
	Rural	12.2	11.7	8.7
Gap		9.6	8.9	6.2
Dominican Republic	**Urban**	12.6	11.0	6.6
	Rural		14.9	16.2
Gap			4.0	9.6
Ecuador	**Urban**	4.3	4.5	3.8
	Rural	17.6	17.5	17.9
Gap		13.3	13.0	14.1
El Salvador	**Urban**	11.3	10.4	9.9
	Rural	32.0	28.1	25.9
Gap		20.6	17.6	16.1
Guatemala	**Urban**	16.5	14.0	13.8
	Rural	43.0	37.6	33.6
Gap		26.5	23.6	19.7
Honduras	**Urban**	10.3	9.6	8.1
	Rural	27.2	27.0	20.9
Gap		17.0	17.5	12.8
Mexico	**Urban**	5.9	6.2	4.9
	Rural	22.4	17.8	15.6
Gap		16.4	11.6	10.7
Nicaragua	**Urban**	13.5	11.3	9.7
	Rural	35.9	32.9	27.0
Gap		22.4	21.5	17.3
Paraguay	**Urban**	5.2	4.6	3.1
	Rural	14.3	11.7	9.2
Gap		9.1	7.1	6.1
Peru	**Urban**	5.1	5.7	5.3
	Rural	25.3	25.0	22.7
Gap		20.2	19.3	17.4
Uruguay	**Urban**		2.1	1.4
	Rural		3.4	3.4
Gap			1.2	2.0

Notes: Data for most recent year within 2 years of date listed. Argentina excluded because urban only. Venezuela did not have disaggregated data. Costa Rica and Panama reported as 0 values.
Source: Sistema de Información de Tendencias Educativas en América Latina (SITEAL) online database, consulted 1/10/14.

Table A.9. Adult Illiteracy Rates (Ages 15+) by Geographic Area and Gender, Latin American Countries, 2000, 2005, and 2011

			2000	2005	2011
Bolivia	**Urban**	**M**	2.5	2.0	1.0
		F	9.6	8.9	6.1
	Rural	**M**	16.7	10.3	8.6
		F	41.2	33.5	25.7
Brazil	**Urban**	**M**	8.9	8.3	6.3
		F	9.9	9.0	6.7
	Rural	**M**	30.3	27.4	22.9
		F	27.0	24.0	19.3
Colombia	**Urban**	**M**		4.2	5.1
		F		4.9	5.5
	Rural	**M**		15.3	14.3
		F		14.8	13.2
Chile	**Urban**	**M**	2.4	2.5	2.2
		F	2.9	3.1	2.7
	Rural	**M**	12.1	11.1	8.6
		F	12.3	12.3	8.9
Dominican Republic	**Urban**	**M**		10.6	6.2
		F		11.3	7.0
	Rural	**M**		15.7	17.0
		F		14.1	15.4
Ecuador	**Urban**	**M**	3.2	3.6	2.8
		F	5.3	5.4	4.7
	Rural	**M**	14.3	14.2	15.0
		F	21.1	20.9	20.8
El Salvador	**Urban**	**M**	8.1	7.0	7.0
		F	13.9	13.2	12.1
	Rural	**M**	27.9	24.7	23.0
		F	35.8	31.2	28.7
Guatemala	**Urban**	**M**	9.9	8.9	8.7
		F	22.0	18.2	18.3
	Rural	**M**	31.7	28.1	24.2
		F	53.7	45.7	42.2
Honduras	**Urban**	**M**	9.1	8.8	7.0
		F	11.2	10.2	9.0
	Rural	**M**	26.9	26.3	20.6
		F	27.5	27.8	21.1
Mexico	**Urban**	**M**	4.6	4.7	3.8
		F	7.1	7.5	5.8
	Rural	**M**	18.8	15.1	13.1
		F	25.8	20.3	17.8
Nicaragua	**Urban**	**M**	12.4	9.7	8.5
		F	14.5	12.7	10.8
	Rural	**M**	35.6	32.3	27.0
		F	36.3	33.5	27.1
Paraguay	**Urban**	**M**	3.6	2.9	2.6
		F	6.7	6.1	3.5
	Rural	**M**	12.2	9.4	7.7
		F	16.9	14.3	10.8
Peru	**Urban**	**M**	2.2	2.6	2.4
		F	7.8	8.6	8.0
	Rural	**M**	13.9	13.3	10.8
		F	36.7	37.1	34.9
Uruguay	**Urban**	**M**		2.4	1.7
		F		1.9	1.3
	Rural	**M**		4.3	4.4
		F		2.3	2.3

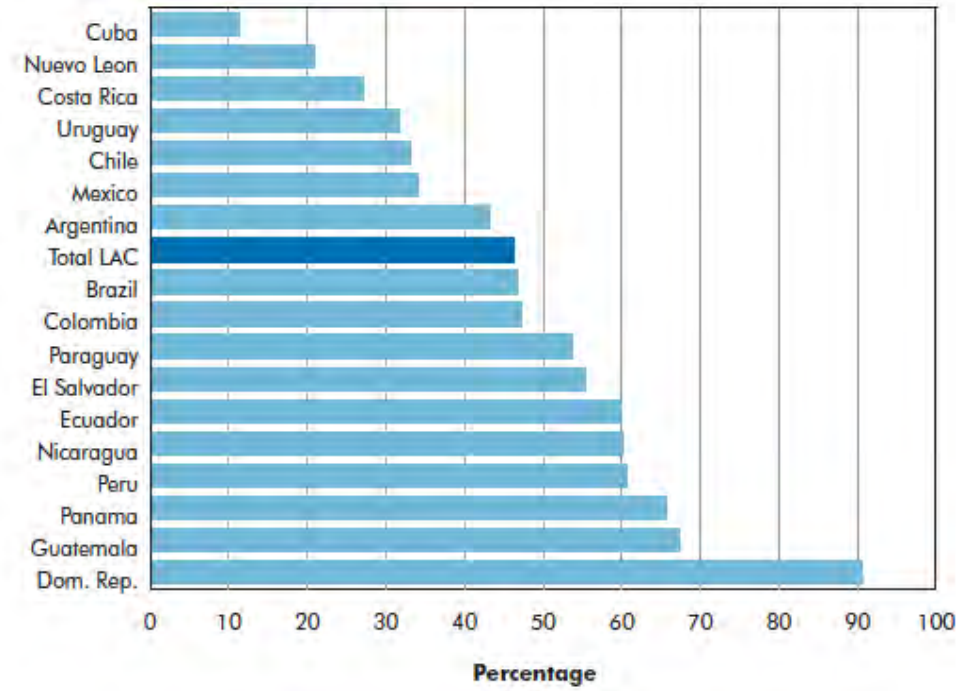
Notes: Data for most recent year within 2 years of date listed. Argentina not included because urban only. Venezuela not included because data not disaggregated. Costa Rica and Panama had zero values.
Source: Sistema de Información de Tendencias Educativas en América Latina (SITEAL) online database, consulted 1/10/14.

Table A.10. Adult Illiteracy Rates (Ages 15+) by Income, Latin American Countries, 2000, 2005, & 2011

		2000	2005	2011
Argentina	30 percent inf	2.7	2.8	1.6
	30 percent med	1.4	1.5	1.0
	40 percent sup	0.5	0.3	0.4
	Gap	2.2	2.4	1.2
Bolivia	30 percent inf	10.8	8.4	5.6
	30 percent med	6.8	5.7	3.7
	40 percent sup	3.1	3.1	2.1
	Gap	7.8	5.3	3.4
Brazil	30 percent inf	17.4	15.3	10.6
	30 percent med	10.1	9.7	8.1
	40 percent sup	2.6	2.6	2.1
	Gap	14.8	12.8	8.5
Colombia	30 percent inf		7.3	8.0
	30 percent med		4.4	4.9
	40 percent sup		1.5	3.2
	Gap		5.8	4.8
Chile	30 percent inf	4.5	5.1	3.9
	30 percent med	2.8	3.0	3.1
	40 percent sup	0.9	0.8	0.9
	Gap	3.6	4.3	3.0
Dominican Republic	30 percent inf	22.0	16.5	9.6
	30 percent med	12.4	6.6	6.8
	40 percent sup	4.4	4.6	3.0
	Gap	17.7	11.9	6.7
Ecuador	30 percent inf	6.0	8.6	6.2
	30 percent med	4.5	4.0	3.2
	40 percent sup	2.5	1.4	1.7
	Gap	3.6	7.1	4.5
El Salvador	30 percent inf	20.2	17.6	17.8
	30 percent med	11.1	10.2	10.2
	40 percent sup	5.0	4.6	4.2
	Gap	15.2	13.0	13.6
Guatemala	30 percent inf	30.8	28.8	28.0
	30 percent med	16.4	13.6	16.5
	40 percent sup	5.7	6.1	5.2
	Gap	25.1	22.7	22.8
Honduras	30 percent inf	18.8	17.3	15.4
	30 percent med	8.9	9.3	7.5
	40 percent sup	3.7	3.6	3.3
	Gap	15.1	13.7	12.2
Mexico	30 percent inf	11.1	12.7	9.0
	30 percent med	5.3	4.6	4.4
	40 percent sup	1.9	1.6	2.0
	Gap	9.3	11.0	7.0
Nicaragua	30 percent inf			26.3
	30 percent med			15.3
	40 percent sup			6.1
	Gap			20.2
Paraguay	30 percent inf	9.1	9.1	6.4
	30 percent med	6.0	3.6	2.9
	40 percent sup	1.7	1.1	1.2
	Gap	7.5	8.0	5.2
Peru	30 percent inf	8.9	9.6	9.8
	30 percent med	4.7	6.6	5.3
	40 percent sup	2.6	2.7	2.5
	Gap	6.3	6.9	7.4
Uruguay	30 percent inf		3.6	3.0
	30 percent med		2.1	1.2
	40 percent sup		0.8	0.3
	Gap		2.8	2.7
Venezuela	30 percent inf	11.3	21.6	7.2
	30 percent med	6.7	8.2	4.4
	40 percent sup	3.2	1.9	2.2
	Gap	8.1	19.7	5.1

Notes: Data for most recent year within 2 years of date listed. Countries ordered from lowest to highest gap between richest and poorest in illiteracy rates. Costa Rica and Panama had zero values.
Source: Sistema de Información de Tendencias Educativas en América Latina (SITEAL) online database, consulted 1/10/14.

Graph A.4. Percentage of Third Grade Students Scoring at the Lowest Levels on the SERCE Math Test, Latin American Countries, 2006



Notes: SERCE had four performance levels, ranging from Level 1 (lowest) to Level 4 (highest). SERCE also kept track of students performing below Level 1. The graph shows students performing at or below level 1. For a description of what third graders can do at each level of the tests see SERCE (2008), Executive Summary, Table 3, p. 23.
Source: Ganimian, 2009. Figure 1, p.16.

Table A.11. Mean Scores on Eighth Grade Trends in Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS), 1995, 1999, 2003, 2007, and 2011

	1995	
	Math	**Science**
Singapore	643	607
Korea	607	565
Hong Kong	588	522
Belgium (Fl)	565	550
Czech Republic	564	574
Slovak Republic	547	544
Switzerland	545	522
France	538	498
Hungary	537	554
Russian Federation	535	538
Ireland	527	538
Canada	527	531
Sweden	519	535
International Avg	**513**	**516**
New Zealand	508	525
England	506	552
Norway	503	527
United States	500	534
Latvia	493	485
Spain	487	517
Iceland	487	494
Lithuania	477	476
Cyprus	474	463
Portugal	454	480
Iran	428	470
Australia	530	545
Austria	539	558
Belgium (Fr)	526	471

	1999	
	Math	**Science**
Singapore	604	568
Korea	587	549
Chinese Taipei	585	569
Hong Kong	582	530
Japan	579	550
Belgium (Fl)	558	535
Netherlands	540	545
Slovak Republic	534	535
Hungary	532	552
Canada	531	533
Slovenia	530	533
Russian Federation	526	529
Australia	525	540
Finland	520	535
Czech Republic	520	539
Malaysia	519	492
Bulgaria	511	518
Latvia	505	503
United States	502	515
England	496	538
New Zealand	491	510
International Avg	**487**	**488**
Lithuania	482	488
Italy	479	493
Cyprus	476	460
Romania	472	472
Moldova	469	459
Thailand	467	482

	2003	
	Math	**Science**
Singapore	605	578
Korea, Rep	589	558
Hong Kong	586	556
Chinese Taipei	585	571
Japan	570	552
Belgium-Fl	537	516
Netherlands	536	536
Estonia	531	552
Hungary	529	543
Latvia	508	512
Russian Fed	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
International Avg	**466**	**473**
Norway	461	494

	1995	
	Math	**Science**
Bulgaria	540	565
Netherlands	541	560
Scotland	498	517
Colombia	385	411
Germany	509	531
Romania	482	486
Slovenia	541	560
Denmark	502	478
Greece	484	497
Thailand	522	525
Israel	522	524
Kuwait	392	430
South Africa	354	326

Notes: Australia, Austria, Belgium (Fr), Bulgaria, Netherlands and Scotland did not satisfy guidelines for sample participation rates. Colombia, Germany, Romania, and Slovenia did not meet age/grade specifications (high % of older students). Denmark, Greece and Thailand had unapproved sampling procedures at the classroom level. Israel, Kuwait, and South Africa had unapproved sampling procedures at the classroom level and did not meet other guidelines.

Sources: For math-Beaton, et. al., 1996, Table 1.1, p.22. International average from text p.25. For science- Beaton, et. al., 1996, Table 1.1, p.22 and text p. 24.

	1999	
	Math	**Science**
Israel	466	468
Tunisia	448	430
Macedonia	447	458
Turkey	429	433
Jordan	428	450
Iran	422	448
Indonesia	403	435
Chile	392	420
Philippines	345	345
Morocco	337	323
South Africa	275	243

Sources: For math- Mullis, et. al. 2000, Exhibit 1.1, p.32. For science- Martin, et.al. 2000, Exhibit 1.1, p.32.

	2003	
	Math	**Science**
Moldova, Rep	460	472
Cyprus	459	441
Macedonia, Rep	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/index.asp, math-table 5, science-table 6.

Table A.11. (con't) Mean Scores on Eighth Grade Trends in Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS), 1995, 1999, 2003, 2007, and2011

	2007	
	Math	**Science**
Chinese Taipei	598	561
Korea	597	553
Singapore	593	567
Hong Kong	572	530
Japan	570	554
Hungary	517	539
England	513	542
Russian Federation	512	530
United States	508	520
Lithuania	506	519
Czech Republic	504	539
Slovenia	501	538
TIMSS Scale Avg	**500**	**500**
Armenia	499	488
Australia	496	515
Sweden	491	511
Malta	488	457
Scotland	487	496
Serbia	486	470
Italy	480	495
Malaysia	474	471
Norway	469	487
Cyprus	465	452
Bulgaria	464	470
Israel	463	468
Ukraine	462	485
Romania	461	462
Bosnia and Herzegovina	456	466
Lebanon	449	414
Thailand	441	471
Turkey	432	454
Jordan	427	482

	2011	
	Math	**Science**
Korea	613	560
Singapore	611	590
Chinese Taipei	609	564
Hong Kong	586	535
Japan	570	558
Russian Federation	539	542
Israel	516	516
Finland	514	552
United States	509	525
England	507	533
Hungary	505	522
Australia	505	519
Slovenia	505	543
Lithuania	502	514
TIMSS Scale Centerpoint	**500**	**500**
Italy	498	501
New Zealand	488	512
Kazakhstan	487	490
Sweden	484	509
Ukraine	479	501
Norway	475	494
Armenia	467	437
Romania	458	465
United Arab Emirates	456	465
Turkey	452	483
Lebanon	449	406
Malaysia	440	426
Georgia	431	420
Thailand	427	451
Macedonia	426	407
Tunisia	425	439
Chile	416	461

	2007	
	Math	**Science**
Tunisia	420	445
Georgia	410	421
Iran	403	459
Bahrain	398	467
Indonesia	397	427
Syria	395	452
Egypt	391	408
Algeria	387	408
Colombia	380	417
Oman	372	423
Palestine	367	404
Botswana	364	355
Kuwait	354	418
El Salvador	340	387
Saudi Arabia	329	403
Ghana	309	303
Qatar	307	319
Morocco	381	402

Notes: Morocco did not satisfy guidelines for sample participation rates. In 2007, TIMSS set four benchmarks- Advanced (625), High (550), Intermediate (475) and Low (400). In science, only about half of students in Colombia (51%) and El Salvador (47%) made the low international benchmark and only 4-6% of students made the high benchmark. In math, only 31% of Colombian students made the low benchmark, while only 22% did so in El Salvador. No students made the advanced benchmark and only 1-2% made the high benchmark.

Sources: For math- Mullis, et. al. 2008, Exhibit 1.1, p.35. For science- Martin, et.al. 2008, Exhibit 1.1, p.35.

	2011	
	Math	**Science**
Iran	415	474
Qatar	410	419
Bahrain	409	452
Jordan	406	449
Palestine	404	420
Saudi Arabia	394	436
Indonesia	386	406
Syria	380	426
Morocco	371	376
Oman	366	420
Ghana	331	306
Botswana (9th)	397	404
South Africa (9th)	352	269
Honduras (9th)	338	332

Notes: In math- Macedonia, Iran, Qatar, Bahrain, Jordan, Palestine, Saudi Arabia, Indonesia, Syria , Oman, and Botswana reservations about reliability of average achievement because % of students with achievement too low for estimation between 15-24%. Morocco, Ghana, South Africa, Honduras- Average achievement not reliably measured because the % of students with achievement too low for estimation exceeds 25%. In science- Ghana and South Africa same "reservations about reliability" as above. In math, only 57% of students reach the low benchmark, while only 6 percent reached the high benchmarked and less than 1% reached the advanced level. In Honduras, only 21% reached the low benchmark, 1 % reached the high mark and none reached the advanced mark. In Science, almost 80% of students reach low benchmark, and 12% reach high, but only 1% reach advanced. In Honduras, only 35% reach low benchmark and only 1% reaches high.

Table A. 12. Mean Scores on PISA Reading, Math and Science Tests, 2000, 2003, 2006, 2009, and 2012

	Reading					Math				Science		
	PISA 2000	PISA 2003	PISA 2006	PISA 2009	PISA 2012	PISA 2003	PISA 2006	PISA 2009	PISA 2012	PISA 2006	PISA 2009	PISA 2012
OECD												
Australia	528	525	513	515	512	524	520	514	504	527	527	521
Austria	492	491	490	m	490	506	505	m	506	511	m	506
Belgium	507	507	501	506	509	529	520	515	515	510	507	505
Canada	534	528	527	524	523	532	527	527	518	534	529	525
Chile	410	m	442	449	441	m	411	421	423	438	447	445
Czech Republic	492	489	483	478	493	516	510	493	499	513	500	508
Denmark	497	492	494	495	496	514	513	503	500	496	499	498
Estonia	m	m	501	501	516	m	515	512	521	531	528	541
Finland	546	543	547	536	524	544	548	541	519	563	554	545
France	505	496	488	496	505	511	496	497	495	495	498	499
Germany	484	491	495	497	508	503	504	513	514	516	520	524
Greece	474	472	460	483	477	445	459	466	453	473	470	467
Hungary	480	482	482	494	488	490	491	490	477	504	503	494
Iceland	507	492	484	500	483	515	506	507	493	491	496	478
Ireland	527	515	517	496	523	503	501	487	501	508	508	522
Israel	452	m	439	474	486	m	442	447	466	454	455	470
Italy	487	476	469	486	490	466	462	483	485	475	489	494
Japan	522	498	498	520	538	534	523	529	536	531	539	547
Korea	525	534	556	539	536	542	547	546	554	522	538	538
Luxembourg	m	479	479	472	488	493	490	489	490	486	484	491
Mexico	422	400	410	425	424	385	406	419	413	410	416	415
Netherlands	m	513	507	508	511	538	531	526	523	525	522	522
New Zealand	529	522	521	521	512	523	522	519	500	530	532	516
Norway	505	500	484	503	504	495	490	498	489	487	500	495
Poland	479	497	508	500	518	490	495	495	518	498	508	526
Portugal	470	478	472	489	488	466	466	487	487	474	493	489
Slovak Republic	m	469	466	477	463	498	492	497	482	488	490	471
Slovenia	m	m	494	483	481	m	504	501	501	519	512	514
Spain	493	481	461	481	488	485	480	483	484	488	488	496
Sweden	516	514	507	497	483	509	502	494	478	503	495	485
Switzerland	494	499	499	501	509	527	530	534	531	512	517	515
Turkey	m	441	447	464	475	423	424	445	448	424	454	463
United Kingdom	m	m	495	494	499	m	495	492	494	515	514	514
United States	504	495	m	500	498	483	474	487	481	489	502	497
OECD average 2000	**496**	**497**	**490**	**496**	**498**	**m**	**m**	**m**	**m**	**m**	**m**	**m**
OECD average 2003	**m**	**494**	**492**	**497**	**498**	**500**	**498**	**499**	**496**	**m**	**m**	**m**
OECD average 2006	**m**	**m**	**489**	**494**	**496**	**m**	**494**	**496**	**494**	**498**	**501**	**501**
OECD average 2009	**m**	**m**	**m**	**494**	**497**	**m**	**m**	**496**	**494**	**m**	**501**	**501**
Partners												

	Reading					Math				Science		
	PISA 2000	PISA 2003	PISA 2006	PISA 2009	PISA 2012	PISA 2003	PISA 2006	PISA 2009	PISA 2012	PISA 2006	PISA 2009	PISA 2012
Albania	349	m	m	385	394	m	m	377	394	m	391	397
Argentina	418	m	374	398	396	m	381	388	388	391	401	406
Brazil	396	403	393	412	410	356	370	386	391	390	405	405
Bulgaria	430	m	402	429	436	m	413	428	439	434	439	446
Colombia	m	m	385	413	403	m	370	381	376	388	402	399
Costa Rica	m	m	m	443	441	m	m	409	407	m	430	429
Croatia	m	m	477	476	485	m	467	460	471	493	486	491
Cyprus	m	m	m	m	449	mm	m	m	440	m	m	438
Dubai (UAE)	m	m	m	459	468	m	m	453	464	m	466	474
Hong Kong-China	525	510	536	533	545	550	547	555	561	542	549	555
Indonesia	371	382	393	402	396	360	391	371	375	393	383	382
Jordan	m	m	401	405	399	m	384	387	386	422	415	409
Kazakhstan	m	m	m	390	393	m	m	405	432	m	400	425
Latvia	458	491	479	484	489	483	486	482	491	490	494	502
Liechtenstein	483	525	510	499	516	536	525	536	535	522	520	525
Lithuania	m	m	470	468	477	m	486	477	479	488	491	496
Macao-China	m	498	492	487	509	527	525	525	538	511	511	521
Malaysia	m	m	m	414	398	m	m	404	421	m	422	420
Montenegro	m	m	392	408	422	m	399	403	410	412	401	410
Peru	327	m	m	370	384	m	m	365	368	m	369	373
Qatar	m	m	312	372	388	m	318	368	376	349	379	384
Romania	428	m	396	424	438	m	415	427	445	418	428	439
Russian Federation	462	442	440	459	475	468	476	468	482	479	478	486
Serbia	m	m	401	442	446	m	435	442	449	436	443	445
Shanghai-China	m	m	m	556	570	m	m	600	613	m	575	580
Singapore	m	m	m	526	542	m	m	562	573	m	542	551
Chinese Taipei	m	m	496	495	523	m	549	543	560	532	520	523
Thailand	431	420	417	421	441	417	417	419	427	421	425	444
Tunisia	m	375	380	404	404	359	365	371	388	386	401	398
United Arab Emirates - Ex. Dubai	m	m	m	423	432	m	m	411	434	m	429	439
Uruguay	m	434	413	426	411	422	427	427	409	428	427	416
Vietnam	m	m	m	m	508	m	m	m	511	m	m	528

Source: *PISA 2012 Results: What Students Know and Can Do. Student Performance in Mathematics, Reading and Science. Volume 1*. Annex B, Tables I.2.3b, I.4.3b, and I.5.3b.

Table A.13. Percentage of Students Scoring at the Highest and Lowest Levels on the PISA Science Test, Selected Countries, 2012

	Proficiency levels in PISA 2012	
	Below Level 2 (less than 409.54 score points)	**Level 5 or above (above 633.33 score points)**
Peru	68.5	0.0
Indonesia	66.6	0.0
Qatar	62.6	1.5
Colombia	56.2	0.1
Tunisia	55.3	0.1
Brazil	53.7	0.3
Albania	53.1	0.4
Argentina	50.9	0.2
Mexico	47.0	0.1
Uruguay	46.9	1.0
Malaysia	45.5	0.3
Costa Rica	39.3	0.2
Chile	34.5	1.0
Thailand	33.6	0.9
Portugal	19.0	4.5
Russian Federation	18.8	4.3
United States	18.1	7.5
OECD Average	**17.8**	**8.4**
Spain	15.7	4.8
Latvia	12.4	4.4
Canada	10.4	11.3
Japan	8.5	18.2
Finland	7.7	17.1
Vietnam	6.7	8.1
Korea	6.6	11.7
Estonia	5.0	12.8
Shanghai-China	2.7	27.2

Notes: Selected countries include top performer, Shanghai, the top five countries (not including economies like Hong Kong or Singapore), bottom five countries, all LAC participants, Spain, Portugal, United States, and Canada. Finland is included as previous top performer, Vietnam as an up and comer, Latvia and Russia as countries with similar GDP, and Indonesia, Malaysia and Thailand as a potential economic competitors.

Source: OECD, 2013. *PISA 2012 Results: What Students Know and Can Do. Student Performance in Mathematics, Reading and Science. Volume 1.* Annex B, Table 1.5.1b. Vietnam, OECD average, Peru and Indonesia (level 5 & above) from Table I.5.1a.

Table A.14. National Assessment Systems in Latin American Countries, 2008

Country	*Name of assessment*	*Years*	*Frequency*	*Grades tested*	*Census or samples*	*Based on curriculum*	*High stakes*[a]
Argentina	Operativo Nacional de Evaluación (ONE)	1993–2005	Annually, except 2001	3, 6, 7, 12	Census and samples	Yes	No
Bolivia	Sistema de Medición de la Calidad (SIMECAL)	1996–2000	Annually, for varying grades[b]	First two assessments: 3, 6, 8 Third assessment: 12 for all students, 3 for bilingual students	Census and samples	Yes	Yes
Brazil	Sistema de Avaliação da Educação Básica (SAEB)	Since 1990	Every other year	4, 8, 11	Sample	Yes	No
	Exame Nacional do Ensino Médio (ENEM)	Since 1998	Annually	High school exit	Universal[c] (Voluntary)	Yes	No
	Prova Brasil	Since 2005	Every three years	4, 8	Census	No	No
Chile	Sistema de Medición de la Calidad Educación (SIMCE)	Since 1988	Annually	4, 8, 10 in different years	Census and samples	Yes	Yes
Colombia	Sistema de Evaluación de la Calidad de la Educación (SABER)	1991, 1992, 1997, 1998, 2002, 2003	Some years	5, 9 in all regions; 3, 5, 7, 9 in some regions	Samples until 1999, census 2002–03	Since 1999	No
	Instituto Colombiano para el Fomento de la Educación Superior (ICFES)	Since 1980	Annually	11, high school exit	Universal[c] (Voluntary)	Yes	Yes
	Exámenes de Calidad de la Educación Superior (ECAES)	Since 2003	Annually	College exit (degree specific)	Universal[c]	Yes	Yes
Costa Rica	Prueba Nacionales	1986, 1987, 1989, 1990, 1996, 1997	Some years	6, 9, *bachillerato* (high school)	Sample	Yes	No
		Since 1988	Annual	High school exit	Census	Yes	Yes
Cuba	Sistema de Evaluación de la Calidad de la Educación (SECE)	1996, 1998, 2000, 2002	Every second year	6, 9, 12	Census (schools), sample of students	Yes	No
Dominican Republic	Pruebas Nacionales	Since 1991	Annually	8, 12, and basic adult education	Census	Yes	Yes
Ecuador	APRENDO	1996, 1997	Annually	3, 7, 10	Sample	No	No
El Salvador	Sistema Nacional de Evaluación de los Aprendizajes (SINEA)	Since 2001	Every second year	3, 6, 9	Sample	Yes	No
	Strengthening Achievement in Basic Education (SABE)	1993–98	Annually	K, 3, 4, 5, 6, 9 in different years	Sample	Yes	No
	Prueba de Aprendizaje para Egresados de Educación Media (PAES)	1997	Annually	10, 12	Census	Yes	Yes

Country	*Name of assessment*	*Years*	*Frequency*	*Grades tested*	*Census or samples*	*Based on curriculum*	*High stakes*[a]
Guatemala	Programa Nacional de Evaluación del Rendimiento Escolar (PRONERE)	1998–2001	Annually	3, 6	Sample	No	No
		Since 2004	Annually	1, 3	Sample	No	No
		Since 2005	Annually	9	Census[e]	No	No
Honduras	Unidad Externa de Medición de la Calidad de la Educación (UMCE)	1997, 2000, 2004	Some years	3, 6	Sample	No	No
Mexico	Estándares Nacionales	1997–2004	Annually	2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 in different years	Sample	Yes	No
	Examen de la Calidad y el Logro Educativos (EXCALE)	2005	Annually	3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 in different years	Sample	Yes	No
	Evaluación Nacional del Logro Académico en Centros Escolares (ENLACE)	Since 2006	Annually	3, 4, 5, 6, 9	Census	Yes	No[f]
Nicaragua	Sistema Nacional de Evaluación (SNE)	1996–97, 2002, 2006	Some years	3, 6	Sample	Yes	No
Panama	Sistema Nacional de Evaluación de la Calidad Educativa (SINECE)	Since 1996	Every second year	3, 6, 9, 12	Sample	Yes	No
Paraguay	Sistema Nacional de Evaluación del Proceso Educativo (SNEPE)	Since 1996	Annually	3, 6, 9, 12 in different years	Sample (census in 2001 in Escuela Viva)	Since 2006	No
Peru	Evaluación Nacional (initially named CRECER)	1996, 1998, 2001, 2004	Every second or third year	4, 6, 11	Sample	No	No
	Second-grade reading assessment	Since 2006	Pilot	2	Census[g]	No	No
Uruguay	Programa de Evaluación de Aprendizajes	Since 1996	Every third year	6	Sample plus voluntary option for other schools	Yes	No
Venezuela, R. B. de	Sistema Nacional de Medición y Evaluación del Aprendizaje (SINEA)	1998	Once	6	Sample	Yes	No

Notes: a. "High stakes" means that test results have direct implications for students for passing a grade level, being admitted to university, or being eligible for other benefits.

b. Although SIMECAL was originally meant to be administered annually, limited funding has meant that testing has been conducted sporadically, each time at different grade levels.

c. "Universal" refers to exit exams that test all school leavers but not all students in the system.

d. Primary school assessments were carried out by MINEDUC/PRONERE in 1998–2001 and by USAID/MINEDUC/PRONERE in 2004. Secondary assessments were carried out by MINEDUC/USAC.

e. The 2005 application was intended to be a census, but it ended up being a sample, although not necessarily a representative one, as a result of the nonparticipation of a number of schools.

f. ENLACE is low stakes for students but high stakes for teachers, as it replaced the achievement tests that were part of the *Carrera Magisterial*. At the end of 2013 the government announced that it would not administer ENLACE at the primary level in 2014 while it reviewed the test.

g. The second-grade reading assessment was piloted in 2006. Although meant to be a census, it reached only about half of the population.

Source: Vegas and Petrow, 2008, Table 3.1, pp. 39-45.

Table A.15. Enrollment Rates by Level of Education, Latin America, 2000-2011

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Pre-primary (gross)	56.7	59.2	59.9	61.5	61.7	65.7	67.7	66.7	69.5	70.9	71.3	73.1
Primary (net)	92.7	93.4	93.4	93.4	93.8	94.1	94.2	94.2	94.1	94.1	94.0	93.8
Secondary (net)	66.2	68.3	70.2	68.8	70.8	71.9	72.7	73.5	74.0	74.9	75.7	76.1
Tertiary (gross)	22.8	24.4	26.2	27.6	29.2	30.9	32.4	35.5	38.5	39.6	41.2	42.3

Source: World Bank, EdStats online database, consulted 2/5/14.

Table A. 16. Primary Completion by Country, 2000, 2005 and 2011

	2000	2005	2011
Belize	100.8	105.3	111.5
Colombia	94.9	103.6	111.2
Ecuador	97.5	102.9	108.5
Argentina	99.0	97.9	107.3
Uruguay	97.3	95.5	104.3
Barbados	99.1	91.1	104.0
Vietnam	97.8	92.0	103.2
Korea, Rep.	104.1	99.5	103.0
Spain		103.7	102.3
Honduras	72.2	81.6	101.0
El Salvador	83.0	84.4	99.7
Costa Rica	86.7	93.9	98.7
Cuba	95.9	91.4	98.4
United States	98.7	97.5	97.8
Finland	96.3	100.4	97.4
India	72.9	81.8	96.5
Peru	101.9	101.2	96.1
Panama	91.5	91.8	96.0
Chile	97.8	94.7	94.8
Trinidad and Tobago	93.3	91.9	94.8
Venezuela, RB	83.0	91.7	94.8
Mexico	95.0	96.6	92.7
Bolivia	96.0	98.0	92.3
Guyana	101.9	103.1	91.6
Philippines	86.4	93.9	91.3
Paraguay	91.9	94.8	90.8
Dominican Republic	77.1	85.4	90.6
Suriname		83.9	87.7
Guatemala	57.8	73.8	87.7
Nicaragua	65.8	74.0	80.4
Nigeria		82.6	73.3
Jamaica	87.9	88.0	

Notes: No data for Haiti or Brazil. Primary completion rate is the percentage of students completing the last year of primary school. It is calculated by taking the total number of students in the last grade of primary school, minus the number of repeaters in that grade, divided by the total number of children of official graduation age. Rates can be over 100 percent due to over or underage completers. Comparison countries marked in red.

Source: World Bank, EdStats online database, consulted on 1/5/14.

Table A.17. Public Expenditure on Education as percent GDP, Selected Countries, 2000, 2005, and 2011

	2000	2005	2011
Cuba	7.7	10.6	12.9
Barbados	5.6	6.9	7.5
Honduras	5.0	7.3	7.2
Bolivia	5.5	6.4	6.9
Venezuela		3.7	6.9
Vietnam			6.8
Kenya	5.2	7.3	6.7
Belize	5.0	5.3	6.6
Jamaica	5.0	4.6	6.4
Costa Rica	4.4	4.9	6.3
Brazil	4.0	4.5	5.8
Thailand	5.4	4.2	5.8
Argentina	4.6	3.8	5.8
United States	5.0	5.3	5.6
Mexico	4.9	5.0	5.3
Malaysia	6.0	5.9	5.1
European Union	**5.0**	**5.4**	**5.2**
Latin America & Caribbean	**4.0**	**3.9**	**4.9**
World	**3.9**	**4.4**	**4.7**
Nicaragua	3.0	2.4	4.6
Uruguay	2.4	2.7	4.5
Ecuador	1.2		4.5
Colombia	3.5	4.0	4.4
Chile	3.7	3.2	4.1
Paraguay	4.6	3.4	3.8
Guyana	8.5	8.1	3.6
Panama	5.0	3.8	3.5
El Salvador	2.5	2.7	3.4
India	4.3	3.1	3.2
Guatemala	2.5	3.0	2.9
Philippines	3.3	2.4	2.7
Peru	3.4	2.7	2.6
Dominican Republic	1.9	2.2	2.1

Notes: No data for Haiti or Suriname. All Honduras data is from 2010 PREAL/FEREMA national report, 2010 data for 2008. Guatemala 2000 data is from 2008 PREAL/CIEN national report card. Dominican Republic 2010 data is for 2008, from PREAL/EDUCA 2010 national report card. *Education for All Global Monitoring* regional report for 2014 cites an average figure of 5.5 percent GDP for Latin America. However, Annex Table 9 in the full report shows a figure of 4.8 percent which is consistent with the 4.9 percent cited in EdStats and used in the graph.
Source: World Bank, EdStats online database consulted on 1/19/14.

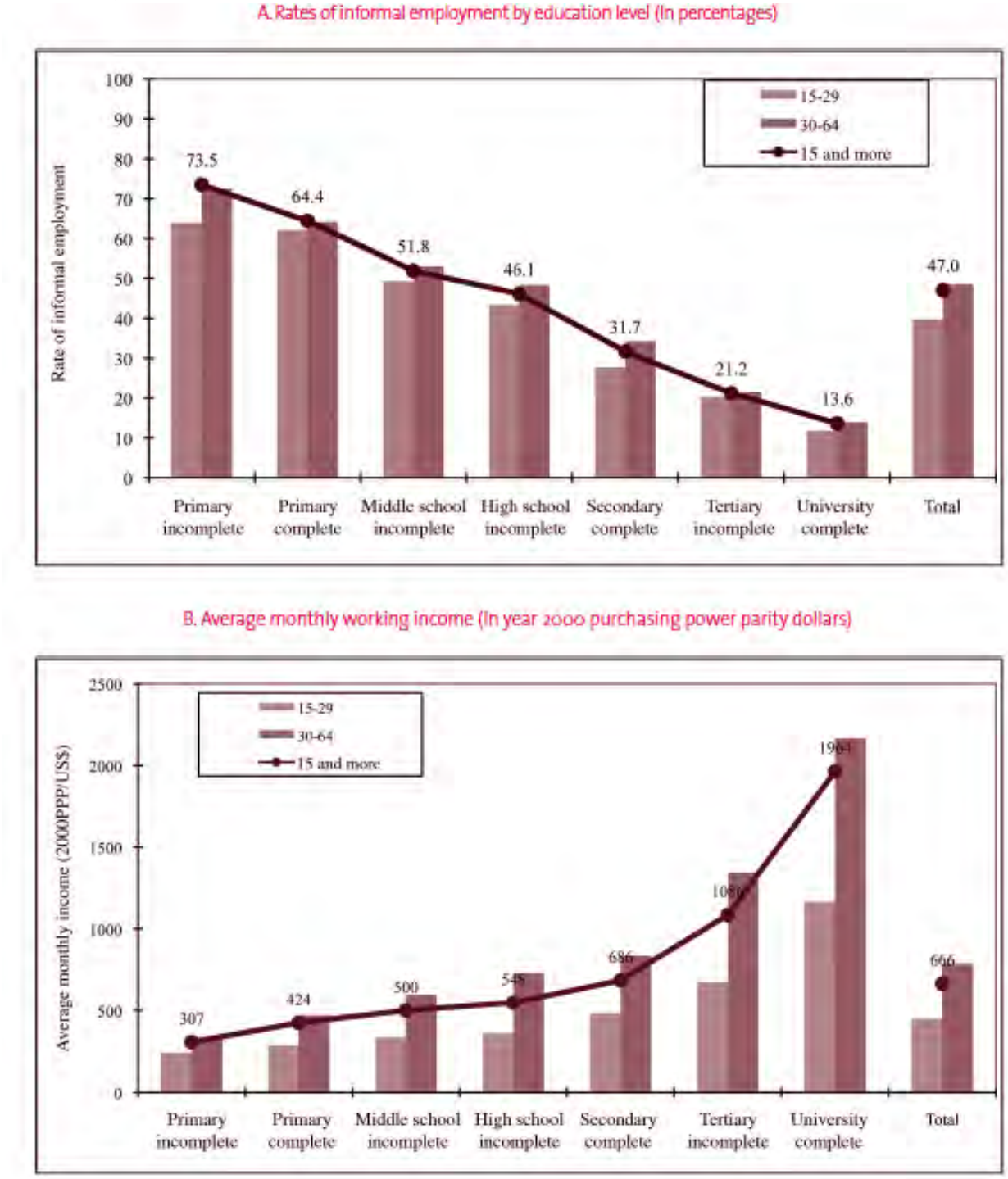
Table A.18. Spending per Pupil, Selected Countries, PPP (constant 2010 US$), 1999 and 2011

	Primary		Secondary	
	1999	2011	1999	2011
Argentina	1,418	2,499	1,906	3,826
Barbados	2,092		3,463	5,383
Belize	908		909	
Bolivia	433	915	409	658
Brazil	861	2,218		2,266
Chile	1,499	2,473	1,699	2,480
Colombia		1,043		1,020
Costa Rica	1,395	1,633	1,926	1,612
Dominican Republic		624		583
Ecuador		763		1,288
El Salvador		564		556
Guatemala		401		262
Guyana		260		371
Honduras		735		
Jamaica		1,527		1,736
Mexico	1,508	2,058		2,188
Nicaragua		404		255
Panama	1,151	1,174	1,641	1,504
Paraguay	554	602	748	812
Peru	422	636	566	725
Trinidad and Tobago	1,535	3,265	1,764	2,958
Uruguay		709		1,042
Malaysia	1,108	2,049	1,708	2,895
Indonesia		344		316
Philippines	325	303	285	301
Thailand	1,024	1,892	860	710
Vietnam		701		
Finland	4,866	7,020	7,230	12,083
Spain	4,908	6,353	6,487	7,782
India	203	212	422	375
World		**1,174**		
Developed countries		**6,654**		**7,904**
Lower middle income		**554**		
Latin America and Caribbean	**1,006**	**915**		**1,020**

Notes: All data within 2 years of data listed except Philippines and El Salvador, which are for 2008. Comparison countries are marked in red.

Source: UNESCO *Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2013-2014*, Statistical Tables, Table 9, pp. 380-383. Honduras and Jamaica from UNESCO Global Education Digest 2012, Table 13.

Graph A.5. Rates of Informal Employment and Average Monthly Working Income by Level of Education, 2008



Notes: The duration of school cycles is in accordance with the 1997 International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED-97).
Source: United Nations Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC), 2011, Figure 7, p. 17.

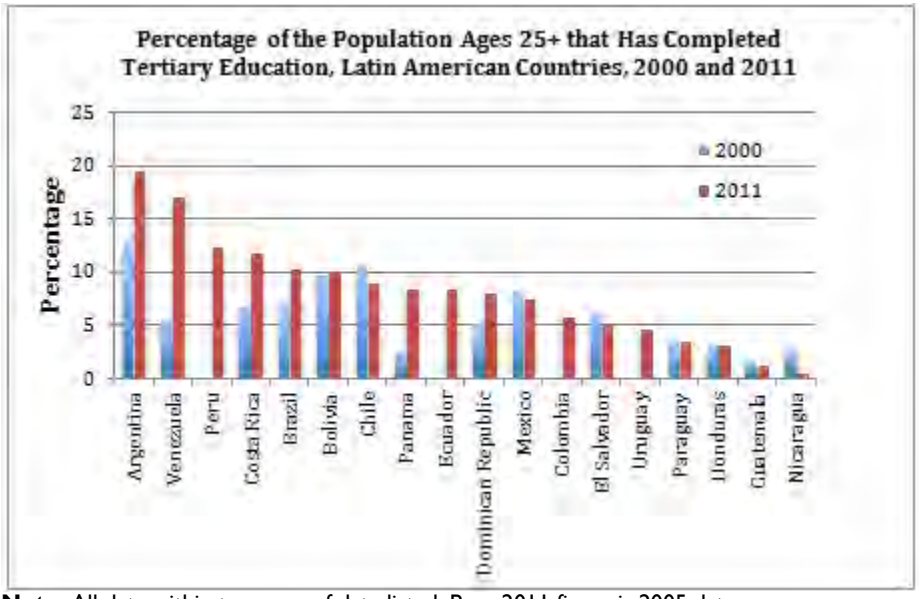
Table A. 19. Net Secondary Enrollment, Selected Countries, 2000, 2005, and 2011

	2000	2005	2011
Korea	95.5	95.7	95.6
Spain	89.7	94.3	95.0
Finland	94.6	96.0	93.0
Guyana	72.8		92.6
Barbados	92.9	90.1	89.7
United States	85.3	89.0	87.5
Cuba	80.1	84.6	86.4
Chile			84.7
Jamaica	77.6	83.4	83.6
Argentina	74.5		83.6
Thailand		67.1	81.7
Peru	65.1	69.3	77.1
Latin America and Caribbean	**66.2**	**71.9**	**76.1**
Colombia		63.2	75.6
Costa Rica			73.3
Venezuela	50.7	62.8	72.6
Ecuador	48.6	53.6	72.2
Uruguay		67.7	72.0
Belize	58.5	66.9	69.8
Bolivia	66.1		68.0
Mexico	54.7	63.8	67.3
Malaysia	66.0	68.4	66.4
Panama	58.7	61.3	64.5
World average	**53.0**	**57.7**	**62.7**
Philippines	49.8	59.0	61.4
Dominican Republic	39.8	51.9	61.2
Paraguay		57.4	61.0
El Salvador	44.2	52.4	59.7
Suriname			57.2
Kenya	33.3	41.0	50.0
Guatemala	26.9	35.5	46.4
Nicaragua	34.7	42.9	45.4

Notes: Data for most recent year within 2 years of date listed. No data for Brazil, Haiti or Honduras. Comparison countries listed in red.

Source: World Bank, EdStats online database, consulted 1-9-14. Bolivia 2011 from UNESCO Global Education Digest 2012.

Graph A.6



Note: All data within two year of date listed. Peru 2011 figure is 2005 data.
Source: Sistema de Información de Tendencias Educativas en América Latina (SITEAL) online database, consulted 1-9-14.

Table A.20. Tertiary Gross Graduation Ratio, Selected Countries, 2000, 2005 and 2011

	2000	2005	2011
Korea	28.1	35.7	51.4
Finland	43.5	53.6	50.9
Cuba	11.1	14.2	49.7
Spain	32.7	35.6	46.4
Latvia	42.7	47.2	43.4
United States	32.0	33.7	37.8
Costa Rica	30.2	21.6	35.4
Thailand	14.9	25.8	30.8
Barbados	16.2		27.5
Panama	21.2	20.8	22.5
Brazil	9.4	18.8	18.8
Philippines	18.4	18.7	18.7
Chile	13.1	16.1	18.4
Venezuela	7.3	11.6	18.3
Mexico	14.4	15.6	18.0
Malaysia	10.7	14.9	17.8
Vietnam			14.1
Colombia	4.5	8.2	13.4
China		10.0	13.0
Argentina	7.0	12.9	12.1
Belize			10.9
El Salvador	6.3	9.5	10.4
Trinidad and Tobago	4.9	5.1	5.1
Guyana		4.8	3.4
Honduras	2.2	3.2	3.2
Guatemala	1.8	1.6	1.6
Nicaragua	3.1		
Paraguay	7.0		
Uruguay	7.1		

Notes: Data shows number of graduates in ISCED level 5A first degree programs (regardless of age) as a percent of the population of theoretical graduation age for that level or programmer during the same academic year. No data for Bolivia, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Haiti, Jamaica, Peru, Suriname. Nicaragua, Paraguay, and Uruguay data for around 2000 only. Brazil and Philippines 2011 data is for 2005. Trinidad and Tobago 2011 data is for 2004. Honduras 2011 is 2003 and Guatemala is 2007. Comparison countries marked in red. **Source:** World Bank, EdStats online database, consulted 1/20/14.

Table A.21. Percentage of Graduates in Science, Agriculture and Engineering vs. Social Sciences, Humanities and Education, Selected Countries, 2000, 2005 and 2011

	2000		2005		2011	
	Social Sciences/ Business/ Law, Humanities and Education	Agriculture, Engineering/ Manufacturing/Construction, and Science	Social Sciences/ Business/ Law, Humanities and Education	Agriculture, Engineering/ Manufacturing/Construction, and Science	Social Sciences/ Business/ Law, Humanities and Education	Agriculture, Engineering/ Manufacturing/Construction, and Science
Thailand					36.6	55.5
Malaysia			46.1	47.7	48.8	37.4
Korea	46.1	42.3	45.8	38.2	46.4	33.1
Vietnam			68.2	26.0	60.4	30.2
Finland	41.1	30.7	42.8	32.2	45.0	29.8
Mexico	64.8	26.0	58.8	29.2	62.6	28.3
Spain	55.8	27.5	49.1	29.1	50.1	26.6
El Salvador	57.8	23.0	60.0	22.7	58.1	24.4
Colombia	65.8	25.4	64.5	26.7	64.9	24.4
Panama	71.6		67.6	19.2	66.3	22.9
Chile			52.5	29.0	51.1	22.6
Uruguay			63.5	14.9	48.8	20.7
Latvia	74.1	17.0	77.2	13.6	62.2	16.7
United States	64.3	19.4	63.1	17.9	60.8	16.5
Argentina			62.3	15.6	61.0	16.2
Ecuador			65.4	15.1	70.5	16.1
Guyana			72.7	19.7	69.3	15.0
Barbados			86.4	12.2	72.4	15.0
Honduras			75.7	18.6	77.1	14.7
Costa Rica	76.3	13.2			71.1	13.5
Brazil	64.9	15.3	66.2	13.9	65.2	13.0
Cuba	48.1	17.5			25.0	4.1
Guatemala	54.9	16.4	63.2	24.1		
Trinidad and Tobago	57.3	33.4	48.9	33.5		

Notes: All data within two years of data listed except for Ecuador 2011 which is data for 2008. No data for Belize, Dominican Republic, Haiti, Jamaica, Nicaragua, Paraguary, Peru, Suriname. Data for Bolivia and Venezuela excluded because 2000 only. Changes in rates for Ecuador should be viewed with caution since 2005 data is for 2007 and 2011 data is for 2008.

Source: World Bank, Edstats online database, consulted 1/20/14

Notes: All data within 2 years of data listed except for Ecuador 2011 which is data for 2008. No data for Belize, Dominican Republic, Haiti, Jamaica, Nicaragua, Paraguay, Peru, Suriname. Data for Bolivia and Venezuela excluded because 2000 only. Changes in rates for Ecuador should be viewed with caution since 2005 data is for 2007 and 2011 data is for 2008.
Source: World Bank, EdStats online database, consulted 1/20/14.

Table A.22. Technical/Vocational Enrollment as percent of Total Secondary Enrollment (ISCED 2 and 3), 2000, 2005, and 2011

	2000	2005	2011
Suriname	46.8	46.9	42.9
Finland	33.5	28.6	31.7
Guatemala	28.7	29.4	28.1
Cuba	25.6	28.7	26.9
Chile	27.2	24.4	23.7
Ecuador	19.2	22.6	21.8
China	15.1	11.8	20.8
Spain	12.6	15.7	17.5
Panama	42.7	38.4	16.2
Mexico	15.0	14.0	15.9
El Salvador	20.7	20.6	15.5
Thailand	18.0	15.1	15.5
Uruguay	19.5	14.5	15.3
Costa Rica	19.1	17.5	15.2
Korea, Rep.	19.0	13.3	10.8
Nicaragua	5.4	5.2	10.1
Paraguay	7.5	8.9	10.1
Argentina	16.2		7.7
Malaysia	6.0	5.9	6.2
Colombia	7.7	6.6	5.6
Venezuela	2.7	3.8	5.3
Guyana		9.6	5.2
South Africa	4.8	4.9	5.1
Belize	4.0	4.3	4.5
Dominican Republic	5.6	4.9	4.4
India	0.9	0.8	0.8
Peru		2.3	0.5
Kenya	0.5	0.8	0.5
Barbados	0.5	0.3	
Bolivia	7.3	4.7	
Jamaica	0.2	0.2	
Trinidad and Tobago		0.8	

Notes: No data for Brazil, Haiti or Honduras. Comparison countries marked in red.
Source: World Bank, EdStats online database consulted 1/9/14.

Table A.23. Technical/Vocational Enrollment as percent of Total Enrollment in Upper Secondary (ISCED 3), Selected Countries, 2000, 2005, and 2011

	2000	2005	2011
Guatemala	90.0	89.8	83.8
Honduras		64.8	81.8
Finland	55.9	53.2	57.0
Suriname	63.1	61.3	54.2
Cuba	57.7	56.6	53.1
Ecuador	44.7	53.1	50.1
El Salvador	58.1	57.8	46.2
China	53.0		45.5
Spain	33.5	42.6	45.3
Panama	59.2	51.0	44.8
Thailand		38.5	36.3
Chile	45.3	38.6	36.1
Uruguay	18.4	19.1	30.1
Paraguay	19.6	21.9	24.1
Korea	36.1	28.4	21.3
Argentina	43.0		20.3
Colombia	30.4	25.6	20.3
Belize	18.5	18.9	20.3
Costa Rica	25.7	23.4	18.0
Brazil	4.9	7.7	15.1
Venezuela	9.7	12.5	15.1
Guyana	16.4	14.6	9.7
Mexico	13.0	10.2	9.0
South Africa	8.9	8.5	8.9
Dominican Republic	8.9	8.1	7.0
Nicaragua	15.8	14.1	4.6
India	2.1	2.0	
Malaysia	15.4	13.7	
Vietnam	8.5	14.3	
Barbados	0.7	0.4	
Bolivia	5.0		
Jamaica	0.6	0.5	

Notes: No data for Haiti, Peru or Trinidad and Tobago. Honduras 2005 and 2011 data is for two consecutive years (2007 and 2008) and should be viewed with caution, esp. in light of the large jump over the course of one year. Comparison countries are marked in red.

Source: World Bank, EdStats online database consulted 1/9/14.

Table A. 24. Percentage of Out-of-School Children of Primary School Age, Selected Countries, 2000, 2005 and 2011

	2000	2005	2011
Uruguay		2.4	0.2
Belize	0.6	1.9	0.2
Spain	0.1	0.3	0.3
Vietnam	4.1	9.7	0.6
Korea	0.2	0.6	1.0
India	14.4		1.1
Trinidad and Tobago	1.7	6.3	1.3
Finland	0.3	2.5	1.7
Cuba	2.1	5.0	1.8
Honduras	11.6	8.1	2.7
Mexico	1.8	4.6	2.8
Barbados	5.3	8.6	2.9
Ecuador	1.7	0.6	3.0
Peru	0.0	0.4	3.7
Thailand		6.1	4.4
Guatemala	13.2	4.7	4.7
Costa Rica			5.0
El Salvador	15.3	5.4	5.0
Venezuela	11.0	7.4	5.5
Nicaragua	17.3	6.1	6.8
Chile		5.1	6.9
United States	3.4	5.8	7.1
Panama	5.1	3.4	7.7
Suriname	8.9	9.9	7.7
Dominican Republic	16.1	16.6	9.1
South Africa	5.5	5.1	9.5
Colombia	3.5	4.0	10.2
Philippines	10.9	10.5	11.4
Paraguay	2.1	5.1	15.9
Bolivia	6.4	6.7	16.6
Guyana		2.5	20.3
Argentina	0.6	0.9	
Jamaica	6.3	8.4	

Notes: All data within 2 years of date listed. Comparison countries marked in red. No data for Brazil or Haiti.
Source: World Bank, EdStats online database, consulted on 1-10-14.

Table A.25. Percentage of Out-of-School Children of Lower Secondary School Age, Selected Countries, 2000, 2005 and 2011

	2000	2005	2011
Spain	1.6	0.3	0.1
Korea, Rep.	0.9	1.7	0.7
Argentina	2.8		1.1
United States	2.5	1.0	1.5
Finland	2.2	0.0	2.3
Chile		5.8	2.8
Cuba	4.0	3.1	3.3
Thailand		4.7	3.8
Colombia	14.6	14.6	5.1
Philippines		7.5	5.8
Peru	2.8	3.7	6.0
Guyana			6.4
Barbados	5.2	5.8	6.5
Belize	5.8	4.1	7.8
Bolivia	7.4	8.5	8.8
Malaysia	7.4	8.2	8.9
Dominican Republic	16.6	8.9	9.0
El Salvador	23.0	11.4	9.2
Ecuador	26.6	23.0	9.7
Venezuela, RB	24.5	12.8	9.8
Costa Rica			11.0
Paraguay	19.0	12.0	12.6
Jamaica	10.0	2.9	12.8
Mexico	17.9	10.8	13.4
Panama	15.5	19.4	14.0
Suriname			15.7
Nicaragua	33.5	26.1	17.7
Guatemala	41.9	29.4	20.3
Uruguay		8.3	22.5
India			22.8

Notes: All data within 2 years of date listed. No data for Brazil, Haiti, Honduras, Trinidad and Tobago. Comparison countries marked in red. Both the World Bank and the UNESCO-UIS database report an out-of-school rate for Uruguay of approximately 23 percent in 2010. This is substantially higher than the 8 percent rate reported in 2007 and 2008 and no other data for Uruguay is reported. Consequentially rates for Uruguay should be viewed with caution.

Source: World Bank, EdStats online database, consulted 1/10/14.

Table A.26. Percentage of Young People Ages 15-24 that Do Not Study and Are Economically Active, Latin American Countries, 2000, 2005 and 2011

	2000	2005	2011
Venezuela	38.1	35.9	19.7
Dominican Republic	30.9	32.1	23.7
Chile	30.1	30.0	26.7
Argentina	31.7	31.5	28.8
Costa Rica	39.1	34.0	29.4
Bolivia	34.9	30.5	29.5
Ecuador	43.7	41.2	31.2
Paraguay	44.0		35.1
Peru	41.8	31.0	35.5
El Salvador	39.2	39.8	36.1
Panama	36.4		36.6
Uruguay	41.0	35.2	37.3
Colombia		47.8	38.5
Nicaragua	36.4	40.6	39.0
Brazil	37.9	40.1	40.0
Honduras	48.0	42.0	40.0
Mexico	41.2	41.5	41.0
Guatemala	48.3		42.5

Notes: Data shows percentage of young people (ages 15-24) who are outside the education system and have a relationship with the labor market, either because they work more than one hour a week or because they are actively looking for a job. Employment also includes assisting in family activities whether paid or unpaid.
Source: Sistema de Información de Tendencias Educativas en América Latina (SITEAL) online database, consulted on 1/10/14.

Table A.27. Percentage of Young People Ages 15-24 that Study and Are Economically Active, Latin American Countries, 2000, 2005 and 2011

	2000	2005	2011
El Salvador	5.9	7.1	7.9
Mexico	7.7	7.9	8.0
Honduras	7.4	9.8	8.1
Venezuela	4.8	7.6	8.6
Chile	4.1	7.7	8.8
Nicaragua	8.8	12.6	10.4
Panama	11.6	10.7	10.9
Ecuador	13.8	16.1	10.9
Colombia		12.8	10.9
Argentina	12.2	13.3	12.0
Guatemala	12.4	13.1	12.7
Dominican Republic	23.0	21.5	16.2
Costa Rica	11.5	15.0	16.8
Uruguay	18.6	17.9	16.9
Brazil	23.9	23.9	19.2
Paraguay	18.8	22.4	22.6
Bolivia	16.7	19.2	23.5
Peru	17.5	23.1	27.3

Notes: Data show the percentage of young people (ages 15-24) that study and also have a relationship with the labor market be it because they are employed at least 1 hour a week or are actively looking for employment. Employment also includes assisting in family activities whether paid or unpaid.
Source: Sistema de Información de Tendencias Educativas en América Latina (SITEAL) online database, consulted on 1/10/14.

Table A.28. Percentage of Young People Ages 15-24 that Neither Work Nor Study, Latin American Countries, 2000, 2005 and 2011 (SITEAL)

	2000	2005	2011
Bolivia	10.7	9.8	9.5
Venezuela	24.2	16.7	10.6
Peru	13.9	9.7	11.3
Uruguay	9.5	10.6	11.5
Argentina	11.8	12.9	11.9
Costa Rica	19.8	13.8	12.3
Paraguay	15.5	12.3	13.0
Ecuador	15.9	12.0	13.5
Brazil	13.5	12.4	13.6
Colombia		12.7	15.1
Panama	14.7	14.9	15.2
Chile	17.4	13.7	15.7
Mexico	20.2	19.5	17.3
Dominican Republic	10.5	11.3	17.9
El Salvador	23.7	21.9	21.3
Nicaragua	23.7	22.7	22.8
Guatemala	24.9	23.0	23.6
Honduras	22.6	24.6	25.7

Notes: All data within 2 years of date listed unless otherwise noted.
Source: Sistema de Información de Tendencias Educativas en América Latina (SITEAL) online database, consulted 1/10/14.

Table A.29 Percentage of Young People Ages 15-24 that Neither Work nor Study, Latin American Countries, 2005 and 2011 (ILO)

	2005	2011
Bolivia	27.7	12.7
Paraguay	19.4	16.9
Ecuador	17.5	17.0
Costa Rica	18.7	17.4
Chile	17.7	17.5
Venezuela	20.5	18.0
Argentina	19.8	18.4
Brazil	18.7	19.0
Nicaragua	22.7	19.5
Uruguay	20.6	19.7
Peru	26.4	20.2
Latin America	**21.1**	**20.3**
Dominican Republic	20.6	20.3
Panama	20.9	21.0
Mexico	21.1	21.9
Colombia	27.3	23.4
El Salvador	27.0	24.2
Guatemala		25.1
Honduras	32.5	27.5

Notes: Chile 2011 is 2009 data as 2011 data is not comparable with earlier years. Nicaragua 2005 is data for 2006 and 2011 is data for 2010. Uruguay 2005 is data for 2006. Argentina figures are for 31 greater urban areas. Colombia 2005 data correspond to the second quarter. Ecuador data correspond to the fourth quarter of each year. Mexico data correspond to the second quarter of each year.
Source: ILO, 2013, Trabajo Decente y Juventud en América Latina, Appendix Table 13, pp.214-215.

Table A.30. Percentage of Young People Ages 15-24 that Neither Work Nor Study by Geographic Areas, Latin American Countries, 2000, 2005 and 2011

	Area	2000	2005	2011
Bolivia	Urban	10.5	9.6	9.3
	Rural	11.3	10.3	10.1
Gap		0.9	0.7	0.8
Brazil	Urban	13.2	12.2	13.2
	Rural	14.9	13.6	15.9
Gap		1.6	1.4	2.7
Colombia	Urban		10.4	13.4
	Rural		19.3	22.7
Gap			8.9	9.4
Costa Rica	Urban	15.1	11.0	9.3
	Rural	24.4	18.0	16.7
Gap		9.3	6.9	7.3
Chile	Urban	16.1	13.0	15.3
	Rural	25.6	22.3	18.6
Gap		9.4	9.2	3.3
Dominican Republic	Urban	10.5	6.6	16.7
	Rural		14.6	20.5
Gap			8.0	3.8
Ecuador	Urban	15.6	11.5	12.3
	Rural	16.6	13.0	16.1
Gap		1.1	1.4	3.9
El Salvador	Urban	18.8	17.4	16.1
	Rural	30.5	28.3	29.4
Gap		11.6	11.0	13.3
Guatemala	Urban	15.5	16.4	17.7
	Rural	31.2	29.7	29.4
Gap		15.7	13.3	11.7
Honduras	Urban	16.8	16.9	18.6
	Rural	28.7	32.2	31.9
Gap		12.0	15.3	13.4
Mexico	Urban	17.7	17.2	14.8
	Rural	28.4	27.5	25.8
Gap		10.7	10.3	11.0
Nicaragua	Urban	19.0	20.6	19.5
	Rural	30.5	25.6	27.3
Gap		11.5	4.9	7.8
Panama	Urban	10.8	11.1	12.1
	Rural	21.8	22.5	21.0
Gap		11.0	11.4	8.9
Paraguay	Urban	11.4	11.2	9.0
	Rural	21.0	14.1	18.7
Gap		9.5	3.0	9.8
Peru	Urban	14.6	10.0	11.7
	Rural	12.5	9.2	10.2
Gap		-2.1	-0.8	-1.5
Uruguay	Urban	9.5	10.6	10.9
	Rural			15.8
Gap				5.0

Notes: All data within 2 years of date listed unless otherwise noted. Data for Argentina and Venezuela is available for urban areas only. Gap figures calculated using original data that goes out several decimal places. Any differences from straight subtraction in the table are due to rounding.

Source: Sistema de Información de Tendencias Educativas en América Latina (SITEAL) online database, consulted 1/10/14.

Table A.31.Teenage mothers (percent of women ages 15-19 who have had children or are currently pregnant)
Table A.31.Teenage mothers (percent of women ages 15-19 who have had children or are currently pregnant)

Country	Rate	Year (~ 2009)
Dominican Republic	20.6	2007 DHS
Haiti	14.2	2012 DHS
Jamaica	13.7	2008-09 RHS
El Salvador	22.8	2008 RHS
Guatemala	21.8	2008-09 RHS
Honduras	24	2011-12 DHS
Nicaragua	25.2	2006-07 RHS
Bolivia	17.9	2008 DHS
Colombia	19.5	2010 DHS
Ecuador	19.4	2004 RHS
Guyana	18	2009 DHS
Paraguay	11.6	2008 RHS
Peru	13.7	2010 DHS
Burkina Faso	23.6	2010 DHS
Ghana	13.3	2008 DHS
Kenya	17.7	2008-09 DHS
Senegal	17.5	2008-09 MIS
Zimbabwe	21.2	2005-06 DHS
Cambodia	8.2	2010 DHS
Indonesia	9.5	2012 DHS
Philippines	9.9	2008 DHS

Source: Measure DHS online database, consulted 12/5/2013.

Table A.32

Adolescent fertility rate (births per 1,000 women ages 15-19)												
Country Name	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Argentina	64.3	62.5	60.7	59.9	59.2	58.4	57.7	56.9	56.4	55.9	55.4	54.9
Barbados	51.1	50.8	50.5	50.3	50.1	49.9	49.7	49.4	49.2	49.0	48.8	48.6
Belize	97.2	94.2	91.2	88.7	86.2	83.7	81.2	78.7	77.3	75.8	74.3	72.9
Bolivia	85.4	84.9	84.4	83.2	81.9	80.7	79.4	78.2	76.9	75.7	74.4	73.1
Brazil	87.5	86.7	86.0	83.9	81.8	79.7	77.7	75.6	74.6	73.7	72.7	71.8
Chile	63.7	62.7	61.6	61.0	60.4	59.8	59.1	58.5	57.9	57.2	56.6	55.9
Colombia	94.1	94.9	95.7	91.4	87.1	82.9	78.6	74.3	73.1	72.0	70.8	69.7
Costa Rica	81.0	78.7	76.4	74.3	72.1	70.0	67.8	65.6	64.7	63.7	62.7	61.8
Cuba	57.3	53.8	50.3	49.3	48.3	47.2	46.2	45.2	44.8	44.4	43.9	43.5
Dominican Republic	110.2	109.9	109.6	109.4	109.2	109.1	108.9	108.7	106.9	105.1	103.2	101.4
Ecuador	84.6	84.8	85.0	84.7	84.4	84.1	83.8	83.5	82.2	80.9	79.6	78.3
El Salvador	99.7	95.8	91.9	90.1	88.2	86.4	84.6	82.7	81.4	80.0	78.7	77.3
Guatemala	117.7	116.5	115.4	113.8	112.1	110.5	108.8	107.2	105.2	103.2	101.2	99.2
Guyana	84.7	87.3	90.0	92.2	94.4	96.6	98.8	101.0	98.5	96.0	93.5	91.0
Haiti	56.2	54.4	52.5	51.3	50.1	48.8	47.6	46.4	45.5	44.6	43.7	42.9
Honduras	107.3	104.9	102.5	100.6	98.7	96.9	95.0	93.1	91.3	89.4	87.6	85.8
Jamaica	88.6	87.0	85.4	83.8	82.2	80.6	78.9	77.3	75.9	74.4	73.0	71.5
Mexico	77.2	75.7	74.2	73.2	72.3	71.3	70.3	69.3	68.2	67.0	65.8	64.6
Nicaragua	124.7	122.0	119.4	118.0	116.7	115.4	114.0	112.7	110.3	107.9	105.6	103.2
Panama	93.0	92.1	91.1	89.8	88.5	87.2	85.9	84.6	83.4	82.2	81.0	79.7
Paraguay	86.1	84.2	82.3	80.3	78.3	76.3	74.3	72.3	71.2	70.2	69.1	68.0
Peru	65.1	63.3	61.5	60.1	58.8	57.4	56.1	54.7	53.9	53.1	52.3	51.5
Trinidad and Tobago	40.8	39.6	38.4	38.4	38.3	38.2	38.2	38.1	37.4	36.8	36.1	35.5
Uruguay	65.0	64.3	63.5	63.0	62.5	62.1	61.6	61.1	60.5	60.0	59.4	58.9
Venezuela, RB	92.9	92.5	92.1	91.7	91.2	90.8	90.3	89.9	88.6	87.2	85.9	84.6
East Asia & Pacific	18.0	17.9	17.8	17.6	17.5	17.6	17.8	18.2	18.3	18.5	18.6	18.8
Europe & Central Asia	26.5	25.6	24.6	24.6	24.5	24.4	24.3	24.1	23.3	22.4	21.5	20.7
Latin America & Caribbean	83.4	82.3	81.2	79.6	78.0	76.4	74.8	73.2	72.2	71.1	70.1	69.1
World	**57.5**	**56.0**	**54.4**	**52.8**	**51.4**	**50.2**	**49.2**	**48.4**	**47.8**	**47.3**	**46.7**	**46.0**
Middle East & North Africa	42.9	40.9	39.0	38.3	37.6	37.0	36.4	35.7	35.4	35.1	34.9	34.6
Sub-Saharan Africa	126.8	125.8	125.0	123.3	121.7	120.1	118.6	117.0	115.3	113.6	111.8	110.0
Source: World Bank, Databank (social indicators),consulted 1/15/2014												

Table A.33

Percentage of Women Married by Age Range and Recent Year

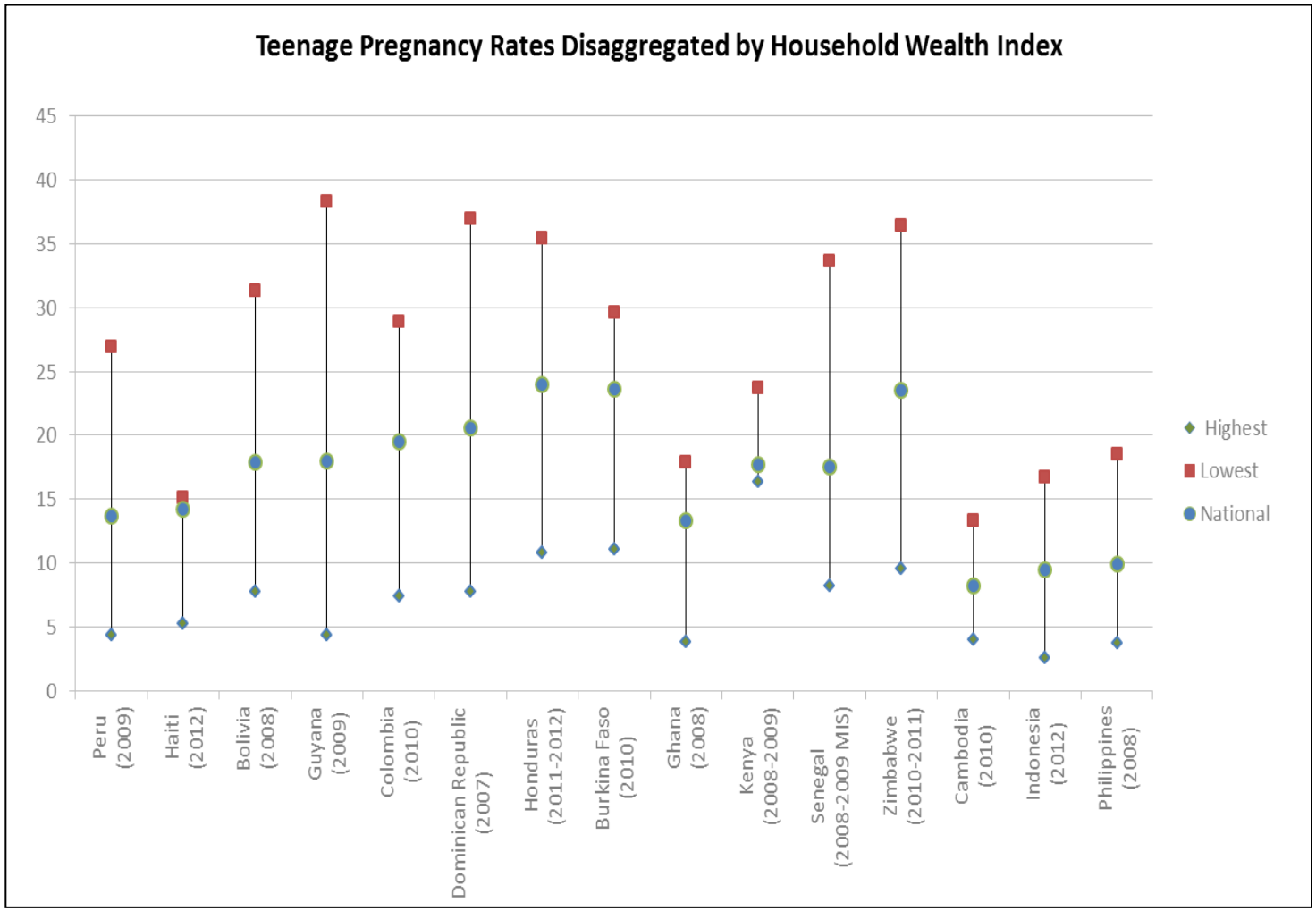
Country	Year	15-19	20-24
Chile	2011	0.3	5.4
Jamaica	2001	0.4	6.8
Colombia	2010	0.6	6
Dominican Republic	2007	0.8	6.8
Uruguay	2011	0.8	5.8
Panama	2010	0.9	6.8
Argentina	2010	1.1	7.5
Peru	2007	1.4	7.8
Bolivia	2008	1.8	14.8
Costa Rica	2011	2	13.2
Honduras	2005	2	13.2
El Salvador	2007	2.2	13.6
Trinidad and Tobago	2000	2.5	18.1
Paraguay	2004	2.7	18.8
Suriname	2004	3.2	15.6
Nicaragua	2007	3.3	15.3
Brazil	2010	3.9	17.8
Venezuela	2001	3.9	16.8
Ecuador	2010	4.3	19.8
Mexico	2010	4.6	22.2
Guyana	2009	4.7	23.9
Cuba	2002	5.1	19.5
Haiti	2006	5.7	29.9
Guatemala	2002	7.4	33.1

Percentage of Men Married by Age Range and Recent Year

Country	Year	15-19	20-24
Dominican Republic	2007	0.1	2.1
Uruguay	2011	0.1	2.7
Chile	2011	0.2	2.5
Guyana	2009	0.2	10.7
Jamaica	2001	0.2	2.7
Panama	2010	0.2	3.2
Argentina	2010	0.4	3.7
Colombia	2005	0.4	3.5
Haiti	2006	0.4	8.3
Trinidad and Tobago	2000	0.4	6.6
Costa Rica	2011	0.5	6.1
Suriname	2004	0.5	4.9
El Salvador	2007	0.6	7.5
Paraguay	2002	0.6	8.4
Peru	2007	0.6	3.8
Venezuela	2001	0.8	9
Honduras	2001	0.9	10.6
Bolivia	2008	0.9	9.1
Brazil	2010	1	9.4
Nicaragua	2005	1	10.8
Ecuador	2010	1.3	11.9
Cuba	2002	1.4	8.6
Mexico	2010	1.4	14.5
Guatemala	1994	3.8	25.4

Source : UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division, consulted 12/05/2013

Graph A.7



Source: Measure DHS online database, consulted 12/5/2013.

Table A.34. Percentage of Young People Who Have Used Cannabis

Country/ Territory	Coverage (age/grade)	percent of young people who ever used	Year of Estimate
Argentina	13 - 17	10.9	2007
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	13 - 18	6.2	2009
Brazil	10 - 19	5.7	2010
Chile[a]	(SS) 15 - 16	25.9	2009
Colombia[a]	11-18	7.0	2011
Costa Rica	15- 16	9.97	2011
Dominican Republic	12 - 18	1.7	2008
Ecuador	University	11.4	2009
El Salvador[b]	17 - 25	13.6	2010
Guatemala	12 - 19	2.0	2004
Guyana	12 - 18	6.8	2002
Haiti	15 - 16	3.0	2005
Honduras[c]	13 - 25	3.4	2008
Jamaica	Ages 11 - 19	25.1	2006
Mexico	12 - 17	2.40	2011
Nicaragua	15 - 16	4.8	2003
Paraguay	15 - 16	3.9	2005
Peru[a]	15 - 16	3.3	2010
Puerto Rico[d]	(SS) Grades 9 - 12	12.5	2005
Suriname	Secondary/ High School	6.8	2006
Trinidad and Tobago	(SS) 13, 15, & 17	12.0	2006
Uruguay[a]	13 - 17	16.2	2009
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)[a]	15-17	3.2	2011
Indonesia[a]	15-19	1.9	2011
Kenya	(HHS) age 15 - 17	1.1	2007
South Africa	(SS) grades 8- 10	23.6	2011
Thailand[e]	Youth (undefined)	4.4	2003
Zambia[f]	(SS) grades 7 - 10	35.3	2004

a) Herb
b) Cannabis
c) Select Regions (Central District)
d) Youth Risk Behavior Survey Ages not specified
e) Ages not specified
f) GSHS

Source: UNODC online database, consulted 12/5/13.

Table A.35. Percentage of Young People Who Have Used Opioids

Country/ Territory	Coverage (age/grade)	Life-time percent of young people who ever used	Year of Estimate
Argentina	15 - 16	0.7	2011
Barbados	(SS) ages 13, 15, & 17	1.0	2006
Belize	(SS) ages 13, 15, & 17	1.2	2002
Bolivia		1.0	2004
Brazil[a]	10 - 19	0.3	2010
Chile[a]	(SS) 15 - 16	3.5	2009

Colombia[a]	11-18	0.5	2011
Dominican Republic	12 - 18	0.2	2008
Ecuador	12 - 17	0.9	2005
El Salvador	17 - 25	1.1	2010
Grenada	15 - 16	0.7	2005
Guatemala	12 - 19	0.3	2004
Guyana	12 - 18	0.7	2002
Haiti	15 - 16	3.0	2005
Jamaica	Ages 11 - 19	1.7	2006
Mexico	12 - 17	0.1	2011
Panama	13 - 15	0.4	1997
Paraguay	Youth (undefined)	0.3	2005
Peru	(SS) ages 13-17	1.0	2005
Puerto Rico	(SS) Grades 9 - 12	1.6	2005
Suriname	Secondary/ High School	0.5	2006
Trinidad and Tobago	11 - 24	0.6	2002
Uruguay	13 - 17	0.5	2003
Venezuela[a]	(SS) 12 - 18	0.4	2009
Indonesia[a]	15 - 19	0.2	2011
Thailand	13 - 18	0.2	2005
South Africa[a]	(SS) grades 8- 10	0.8	2011
United States of America[a]	(SS) Grade 10	1.2	2011

a) Heroin

Source: UNODC online database, consulted 12/5/13.

Table A.36. Percentage of Young People Who Have Used Cocaine

Country/ Territory	Coverage (age/grade)	percent of young people who ever used	Year of Estimate
Argentina[c]	15 - 16	4.8	2011
Barbados	(SS) ages 13, 15, & 17	2	2006
Belize	(SS) ages 13, 15, & 17	1.4	2002
Bolivia[c]	13 - 18	3.1	2008
Brazil[e]	19-Oct	2.5	2010
Chile[c]	15 - 16	8.5	2009
Colombia[e]	18-Nov	2.8	2011
Costa Rica	(SS) Grade 10	2	2009
Dominican Republic	18-Dec	0.8	2008
Ecuador[e]	University	2.1	2009
El Salvador[c]	17 - 25	4.9	2010
Grenada[b]	15 - 16	0.9	2005
Guatemala	19-Dec	1.3	2004
Guyana[f]	18-Dec	0.7	2002
Haiti	15 - 16	3.2	2005
Honduras[d]	13 - 25	2.8	2008
Jamaica	Ages 11 - 19	3.2	2006
Mexico	17-Dec	0.73	2011
Nicaragua	18-Dec	2.3	2004
Paraguay	15 - 16	1.1	2005

Peru[c]	15 - 16	1.4	2006
Puerto Rico	(SS) Grades 9 - 12	2.1	2005
Trinidad and Tobago	(SS) ages 13, 15, & 17	0.8	2006
Uruguay[c]	13 - 17	4	2009
Venezuela[c]	(SS) 12 - 18	0.8	2009
Indonesia[g]	15 -19	0.15	2011
Thailand[h]	Youth (undefined)	0.3	2003
South Africa[a]	(SS) grades 8- 10	1	2011
United States of America[c]	(SS) Grade 10	3.3	2011

a) Cocaine type
b) Crack
c) Cocaine
d) Crack; Central District
e) Cocaine salts
f) Limited geography
g) Cocaine and cocaine salts
h) Cocaine, any (HCl and/ or Crack); Ages not specified

Source: UNODC online database, consulted 12/5/13.

Table A.37. Percentage of Young People Who Have Used Amphetamines

Country/ Territory	Coverage (age/grade)	percent of young people who ever used	Year of Estimate
Argentina	15 - 16	2.8	2011
Belize[a]	(SS) ages 13, 15, & 17	4.6	2002
Bolivia[b]	13 - 18	9.1	2008
Brazil[c]	10 - 19	2.2	2010
Chile[d]	(SS) 15 - 16	6.8	2009
Colombia[c]	11-18	0.3	2011
Costa Rica[e]	(SS) Grade 10	9.6	2009
Dominican Republic	12 - 18	0.6	2008
Ecuador[f]	University	0.4	2009
El Salvador	17 - 25	1.9	2010
Grenada[a]	15 - 16	3.4	2005
Guatemala[f]	12 - 19	7.3	2002
Guyana	12 - 18	2.0	2002
Haiti[a]	Secondary/ High School	24.4	2005
Honduras[g]	13-25	4.3	2008
Jamaica[a]	Ages 11 - 19	6.3	2006
Mexico[f]	12 - 17	0.03	2011
Paraguay	15 - 16	4.1	2005
Peru	15 - 16	1.2	2005
Puerto Rico[h]	(SS) Grades 9 - 12	1.9	2005
Suriname[a]	Secondary/ High School	4.8	2006
Trinidad and Tobago[a]	(SS) ages 13, 15, & 17	3.4	2006
Uruguay[d]	13 - 17	3.0	2009
Venezuela[c]	15 - 17	1.3	2011
Indonesia[f]	15 - 19	0.2	2011
South Africa	(SS) grades 8- 10	2.0	2011
United States of America[e]	Grade 10	10.6	2010

a) Stimulants (inclds Amphetamines)

b) Stimulants
c) Prescription stimulants
d) Amphetamine-type stimulants (ATS)
e) Any amphetamines without prescription
f) Amphetamine
g) Stimulants (inclds Amphetamines); Central District
h) Methamphetamine/ Youth Risk Behavior Survey
f) Amphetamine

Source: UNODC online database, consulted 12/5/13.

Table A.38. Percentage of Young People Who Have Used Ecstasy

Country/ Territory	Coverage (age/grade)	percent of young people who ever used	Year of Estimate
Argentina	15 - 16	2.3	2011
Barbados	(SS) ages 13, 15, & 17	1.8	2006
Belize	(SS) ages 13, 15, & 17	1.2	2002
Bolivia	13 - 18	1.6	2008
Brazil	10 - 19	1.3	2010
Chile	(SS) 15 - 16	3.7	2009
Colombia	11-18	1.2	2011
Costa Rica	14 - 17	2.1	2009
Dominican Republic	12 - 18	0.5	2008
Ecuador	University	1.18	2009
El Salvador	17 - 25	0.52	2010
Guatemala	12 - 19	0.32	2004
Guyana	12 - 18	0.9	2002
Haiti	15 - 16	3	2005
Honduras	12 - 17	0.24	2005
Jamaica	Ages 11 - 19	3	2006
Nicaragua	12 - 18	0.5	2004
Paraguay	15 - 16	0.5	2005
Peru	11 - 17	1.2	2007
Puerto Rico[a]	(SS) Grades 9 - 12	2.2	2005
Suriname	Secondary/ High School	1.2	2006
Trinidad and Tobago	(SS) ages 13, 15, & 17	0.87	2006
Uruguay	13 - 17	1.2	2009
Venezuela	(SS) 12 - 18	0.53	2009
Indonesia	15 -19	0.29	2011
South Africa	(SS) grades 8- 10	1.0	2011
Thailand[b]	Youth (undefined)	0.3	2003
United States of America	Grade 10	6.6	2011

a) Youth Risk Behavior Survey
b) Ages not specified

Source: UNODC online database, consulted 12/5/13.

Table A.39: **Number of Young Adults Ages 18-24 Held in Prisons, Latin American Countries 2002 and 2011**

Countries	2010	2006
Panama	283	614
Belize*	337	420
Trinidad and Tobago^*	213	192
Costa Rica	105	26
Uruguay	320	200
Guyana^	665	516
El Salvador	806	507
Peru^^	2769	2381
Colombia**	1584	462
Argentina	15545	13418
Mexico	3767	1168
Brazil	126929	80047

Notes: Young adults held in prisons means the total of young adults, between 18 and 24 years of age, held in prisons, penal institutions or correctional institutions on a specified day and should exclude non-criminal prisoners held for administrative purposes, including persons held pending investigation into their immigration status and foreign citizens without a legal right to stay held prior to removal.
Source: OAS, Observatory on Citizen Security online database, consulted 12/13.

Table A.40. Child victims of homicide

Country	Difference	2010	2007
Chile	-2.663	0.821	3.484
Jamaica	-0.569	5.874	6.443
Colombia	0.102	1.352	1.25
El Salvador	0.35	1.723	1.373
Panama	0.438	2.24	1.802
Trinidad and Tobago	1.651	1.907	0.256
Costa Rica	2.657	4.554	1.897

Source: OAS, Observatory on Citizen Security online database, consulted 12/13.

Table A.41 Youth literacy rate (percent population ages 15-24), by gender, 2000-2015

	Gender	2000	2005	2011	2015
Argentina	F	99.1		99.4	99.3
	M	98.7		99.0	99.0
Gap		-0.4		-0.4	-0.3
Bolivia	F	96.1	99.1	99.1	99.0
	M	98.5	99.8	99.7	99.1
Gap		2.4	0.6	0.6	0.1
Brazil	F	95.7	97.9	98.3	99.4
	M	92.7	95.8	96.7	97.9
Gap		-3.1	-2.1	-1.6	-1.5
Chile	F	99.2		98.9	99.4
	M	98.8		98.9	99.1
Gap		-0.4		0.0	-0.3
Colombia	F		98.4	98.7	99.3
	M		97.5	97.8	97.1
Gap			-0.9	-1.0	-2.2
Costa Rica	F	98.0		98.7	
	M	97.2		97.9	
Gap		-0.8		-0.8	
Cuba	F	100.0		100.0	99.9
	M	100.0		100.0	99.9
Gap		0.0		0.0	0.0
Dominican Republic	F	95.4	96.9	98.1	98.0
	M	93.0	94.6	96.1	93.9
Gap		-2.4	-2.3	-2.0	-4.1
Ecuador	F	96.5	95.6	98.8	97.1
	M	96.4	95.2	98.6	96.3
Gap		-0.1	-0.4	-0.2	-0.8
El Salvador	F		91.0	96.4	96.2
	M		86.9	95.7	95.1
Gap			-4.1	-0.7	-1.1
Guatemala	F	78.4		85.6	84.6
	M	86.4		89.3	89.4
Gap		8.0		3.8	4.8
Guyana	F			93.7	
	M			92.4	
Gap				-1.2	
Haiti	F	80.7	70.5		
	M	82.7	74.4		
Gap		2.0	3.9		
Honduras	F	90.9	95.1	96.9	94.3
	M	86.9	92.7	94.9	88.2
Gap		-4.0	-2.4	-2.0	-6.1
Jamaica	F	96.3		98.5	
	M	87.3		92.9	
Gap		-9.0		-5.6	
Mexico	F	96.5	97.6	98.5	98.8
	M	96.8	97.6	98.4	98.9
Gap		0.3	0.0	-0.1	0.1
Nicaragua	F	88.8	88.8		94.8
	M	83.6	85.2		87.1
Gap		-5.2	-3.7		-7.7
Panama	F	95.6		97.3	96.2
	M	96.5		97.9	96.6
Gap		0.9		0.6	0.4
Paraguay	F		98.8	98.7	97.2
	M		98.8	98.5	97.0
Gap			0.0	-0.2	-0.2
Peru	F		96.3		97.9

	Gender	2000	2005	2011	2015
	M		97.9		97.8
Gap			1.6		-0.1
Suriname	F		94.1	98.8	92.8
	M		95.6	98.0	91.4
Gap			1.5	-0.8	-1.4
Trinidad and Tobago	F		99.5	99.6	
	M		99.5	99.6	
Gap			0.0	0.0	
Uruguay	F		99.1	99.2	
	M		98.3	98.4	
Gap			-0.8	-0.9	
Venezuela, RB	F	98.1	98.8	98.8	98.8
	M	96.3	98.0	98.3	96.9
Gap		-1.7	-0.9	-0.5	-1.9

Notes: Data for most recent year within 2 years of date listed. No data for 2012. Data for 2015 is projected. LAC countries not included had no data available.
Source: World Bank, EdStats online database, consulted 1/5/14.

Table A.42 Adult Literacy Rate (percent population ages 15+), by gender, 2000-2015

	Gender	2000	2005	2011	2015
Argentina	F	97.2		97.9	98.2
	M	97.2		97.8	98.0
Gap		0.0		-0.1	-0.2
Bolivia	F	80.7	86.0	86.8	90.0
	M	93.1	96.0	95.8	96.8
Gap		12.4	10.1	9.0	6.8
Brazil	F	86.5	88.8	90.7	92.6
	M	86.2	88.4	90.1	91.9
Gap		-0.3	-0.4	-0.6	-0.7
Chile	F	98.5		98.5	97.2
	M	98.6		98.6	97.3
Gap		0.1		0.1	0.1
Colombia	F		92.9	93.7	95.6
	M		92.8	93.5	94.8
Gap			-0.1	-0.2	-0.8
Costa Rica	F	95.1		96.5	
	M	94.7		96.0	
Gap		-0.4		-0.4	
Cuba	F	99.8		99.8	99.9
	M	99.8		99.8	99.9
Gap		0.0		0.0	0.0
Dominican Republic	F	87.2	88.3	90.2	93.3
	M	86.8	88.2	90.0	92.0
Gap		-0.4	-0.1	-0.2	-1.3
Ecuador	F	89.7	81.7	90.2	93.4
	M	92.3	87.3	93.1	94.8
Gap		2.6	5.6	2.8	1.4
El Salvador	F		78.4	82.3	86.8
	M		81.5	87.1	90.3
Gap			3.2	4.8	3.5
Guatemala	F	63.3		71.1	72.9
	M	75.4		81.2	83.2
Gap		12.1		10.1	10.3
Guyana	F			87.3	
	M			82.4	
Gap				-4.8	
Haiti	F	54.9	44.6		
	M	63.1	53.4		
Gap		8.2	8.8		
Honduras	F	80.2	83.5	84.9	87.2
	M	79.8	83.7	85.3	84.8
Gap		-0.4	0.3	0.4	-2.4
Jamaica	F	85.9		91.8	
	M	74.1		82.1	
Gap		-11.8		-9.7	
Mexico	F	88.7	90.2	92.3	93.4
	M	92.6	93.2	94.8	95.8
Gap		3.9	3.0	2.4	2.4
Nicaragua	F	76.6	77.9		85.4
	M	76.8	78.1		82.6
Gap		0.2	0.2		-2.8
Panama	F	91.2		93.5	93.7
	M	92.5		94.7	95.0
Gap		1.3		1.2	1.3
Paraguay	F		93.5	92.9	94.2
	M		95.7	94.8	95.4
Gap			2.3	1.9	1.2
Peru	F		82.5		88.9

	Gender	2000	2005	2011	2015
	M		93.7		96.0
Gap			11.3		7.1
Suriname	F		87.2	94.0	87.5
	M		92.0	95.4	92.6
Gap			4.8	1.4	5.1
Trinidad and Tobago	F		97.8	98.5	
	M		99.0	99.2	
Gap			1.2	0.7	
Uruguay	F		98.1	98.5	
	M		97.4	97.6	
Gap			-0.6	-0.9	
Venezuela, RB	F	92.7	94.9	95.4	96.0
	M	93.3	95.4	95.7	95.4
Gap		0.5	0.5	0.3	-0.6

Notes: Data for most recent year within 2 years of date listed. No data for 2012. Data for 2015 is projected. LAC countries not included had no data available.
Source: World Bank, EdStats online database, consulted 1/5/14.

Table A.43 Secondary Net Enrollment Rate By Gender, Selected Countries, 2000, 2005 and 2011

	Gender	2000	2005	2011
Argentina	F			87.6
	M			79.7
Barbados	F	95.5	93.6	96.3
	M	90.5	86.9	83.8
Belize	F	60.1	68.5	72.8
	M	56.9	65.4	66.9
Bolivia	F		68.0	68.7
	M		69.8	67.8
Chile[↑↑]	F		86.0	86.4
	M		83.3	83.0
Colombia	F		66.4	78.4
	M		60.0	73.0
Costa Rica	F			76.0
	M			70.9
Cuba	F	81.7	85.8	86.5
	M	78.6	83.5	86.4
Dominican Republic	F	44.1	57.1	65.7
	M	35.5	46.8	56.9
Ecuador	F	49.4	54.2	73.0
	M	47.9	53.0	71.4
El Salvador	F	44.4	53.5	60.5
	M	44.0	51.3	58.9
Guatemala	F	25.6	34.2	44.5
	M	28.3	36.8	48.3
Guyana	F			100.0
	M			86.0
Jamaica	F	78.7	85.5	86.8
	M	76.5	81.4	80.4
Mexico	F	54.0	63.6	68.8
	M	55.5	64.1	65.9

	Gender	2000	2005	2011
Nicaragua	F	37.6	45.6	48.5
	M	32.0	40.2	42.4
Panama	F	61.5	64.2	67.5
	M	56.0	58.5	61.7
Paraguay	F	52.9	59.1	63.3
	M	50.3	55.7	58.8
Peru	F	64.0	68.9	77.5
	M	66.2	69.8	76.8
Trinidad and Tobago	F		75.2	
	M		70.2	
Uruguay	F			76.1
	M			68.1
Venezuela	F	55.6	67.2	76.5
	M	46.1	58.5	68.9
Finland	F	95.4	96.2	93.2
	M	93.9	95.7	92.7
Korea, Rep.	F	95.3	95.4	95.1
	M	95.6	95.9	96.1
Malaysia	F	69.0	69.8	65.6
	M	63.1	66.9	67.2
Philippines	F	55.3	64.7	66.7
	M	46.5	53.5	56.3
Spain	F	91.0	96.0	95.8
	M	88.4	92.7	94.3
Thailand	F		70.6	85.6
	M		63.8	77.9
United States	F	86.6	90.5	88.2
	M	84.1	87.7	86.8
East Asia & Pacific	**F**	**56.4**	**65.1**	**74.3**
	M	**58.5**	**63.9**	**71.8**
High income	**F**	**87.6**	**89.3**	**90.6**
	M	**86.6**	**88.2**	**89.9**
Latin America & Caribbean	**F**	**67.9**	**73.9**	**78.2**
	M	**64.6**	**69.9**	**74.1**
Middle East & North Africa	**F**	**58.2**	**62.8**	**67.6**
	M	**65.3**	**69.2**	**72.9**
South Asia	**F**	**33.4**	**41.6**	**46.4**
	M	**44.3**	**48.7**	**53.6**
Sub-Saharan Africa	**F**	**17.9**	**21.2**	
	M	**22.5**	**26.7**	
World	**F**	**50.7**	**56.4**	**61.2**
	M	**55.1**	**58.9**	**64.1**

Notes: All data within 2 years of data listed, except South Asia 2011 average, which is 2008 data. No data for Brazil, Haiti, or Honduras. Comparison countries in red. Note that in every Latin American country with data, girls have higher secondary enrollment rates than boys, except in Cuba, where rates are essentially equal, and in Guatemala where rates favor boys. Gaps in favor of girls in several countries are substantial.

Source: World Bank, EdStats online database, consulted 1/9/14.

Table A.44 Tertiary Gross Enrollment Rates by Gender, Selected Countries, 2000, 2005 and 2011

Country	Gender	2000	2005	2011
Argentina	F	64.7	76.1	90.3
	M	41.7	52.2	59.8
Barbados	F	61.4	80.8	88.1
	M	21.6	34.5	35.9
Belize	F	18.6	19.7	28.9
	M	11.5	12.5	16.9
Bolivia	F		34.4	
	M		40.9	
Chile	F	35.6	46.6	73.9
	M	38.8	48.7	67.2
Colombia	F	24.9	31.1	44.7
	M	22.9	28.8	40.8
Costa Rica	F		28.5	48.5
	M		22.6	37.6
Cuba	F	24.0	78.6	100.4
	M	20.1	45.8	61.2
Dominican Republic	F		40.9	
	M		25.8	
Ecuador	F			41.7
	M			36.2
El Salvador	F	22.0	22.7	26.1
	M	19.3	19.6	22.9
Guatemala	F	8.0	17.9	
	M	11.0	17.9	
Guyana	F		14.6	17.2
	M		7.1	7.3
Honduras	F	16.6	19.9	22.0
	M	13.2	14.2	19.2
Jamaica	F	19.8		35.3
	M	10.9		15.4
Mexico	F	18.8	23.0	27.1
	M	19.7	23.6	28.3
Nicaragua	F	18.0	18.6	
	M	16.6	17.1	
Panama	F	52.3	52.5	51.2
	M	30.4	31.7	32.7
Paraguay	F	18.2	27.0	40.4
	M	13.3	23.9	28.8
Peru	F	31.0	33.8	44.6
	M	31.8	33.0	40.8
Trinidad and Tobago	F	7.3	13.4	
	M	4.9	10.6	
Uruguay	F	44.0	57.9	80.4
	M	25.0	33.2	46.5
Venezuela	F	33.7	41.1	98.7
	M	23.0	38.2	58.2
China	F		17.4	25.7
	M		19.2	23.1

Country	Gender	2000	2005	2011
Finland	F	90.5	100.6	105.6
	M	74.7	83.4	85.9
India	F	7.5	9.0	20.3
	M	11.4	12.8	26.0
Korea, Rep.	F	59.3	73.0	85.3
	M	96.4	112.0	114.4
Latvia	F	73.0	101.7	84.0
	M	40.8	56.9	51.3
Malaysia	F	26.5	30.9	40.8
	M	25.0	24.9	33.2
Kenya	F	1.9	2.2	3.3
	M	3.6	3.7	4.8
Philippines	F	31.9	30.4	31.3
	M	28.9	24.7	25.3
Spain	F	63.6	73.3	91.3
	M	54.1	60.2	74.4
Thailand	F	38.2	46.9	58.8
	M	32.1	41.5	46.4
United States	F	77.7	95.7	111.3
	M	58.5	67.7	80.1
Vietnam	F	7.8	13.2	24.6
	M	10.8	18.5	24.2
East Asia & Pacific	**F**	**14.5**	**22.3**	**31.2**
	M	**16.9**	**24.3**	**29.1**
High income	**F**	**60.2**	**73.7**	**82.0**
	M	**52.0**	**59.5**	**65.3**
Latin America & Caribbean	**F**	**24.7**	**33.8**	**47.4**
	M	**20.9**	**28.1**	**37.4**
Middle East & North Africa	**F**	**18.8**	**23.5**	**31.9**
	M	**21.9**	**23.9**	**30.8**
South Asia	**F**	**6.3**	**7.7**	**13.4**
	M	**9.7**	**11.0**	**18.2**
Sub-Saharan Africa	**F**	**3.5**	**4.5**	**5.8**
	M	**5.2**	**6.9**	**9.4**
World	**F**	**19.0**	**24.7**	**31.3**
	M	**19.0**	**23.6**	**29.0**

Notes: Data for ISCED 5 & 6. All data within 2 years of date listed except Ecuador and Venezuela 2011 are data for 2008. Comparison countries in red. In all LAC countries girls have higher tertiary enrollment rates than boys, except Guatemala (2005) were gender rates were the same, and Mexico and Bolivia (2005) where rates favor boys.

Source: World Bank, EdStats online database, consulted 1/9/14.

Table A.45. Percentage of Private Enrolment (Primary), Latin American Countries, 2000 and 2011

	2000	2011
Guyana	0.9	6.5
Mexico	7.4	8.3
Costa Rica	6.9	8.5
Bolivia	20.7	8.5
United States	11.6	8.7

Honduras	6.1	9.5
El Salvador	11.2	10.1
Guatemala	12.8	10.2
Jamaica	5.2	10.9
Barbados	9.8	11.2
Panama	9.9	12.0
World	**10.4**	**13.9**
Nicaragua	16.0	15.6
Uruguay	14.0	16.1
Latin America & Caribbean	**14.0**	**17.5**
Venezuela	14.4	17.5
Paraguay	14.9	18.3
Colombia	18.7	18.5
Dominican Republic	14.4	23.3
Peru	13.0	23.5
Argentina	20.6	24.8
Ecuador	21.8	25.8
Chile	46.5	59.1
Trinidad and Tobago	71.5	72.1
Belize	87.2	82.4
Note: Data within 2 years of date listed except Honduras 2000 is for 2005. No data for Haiti.		

Source: World Bank, EdStats online database consulted on 1/5/13.

Table A. 46. Percentage of Private Enrolment (Secondary), Latin American Countries, 2000 and 2011

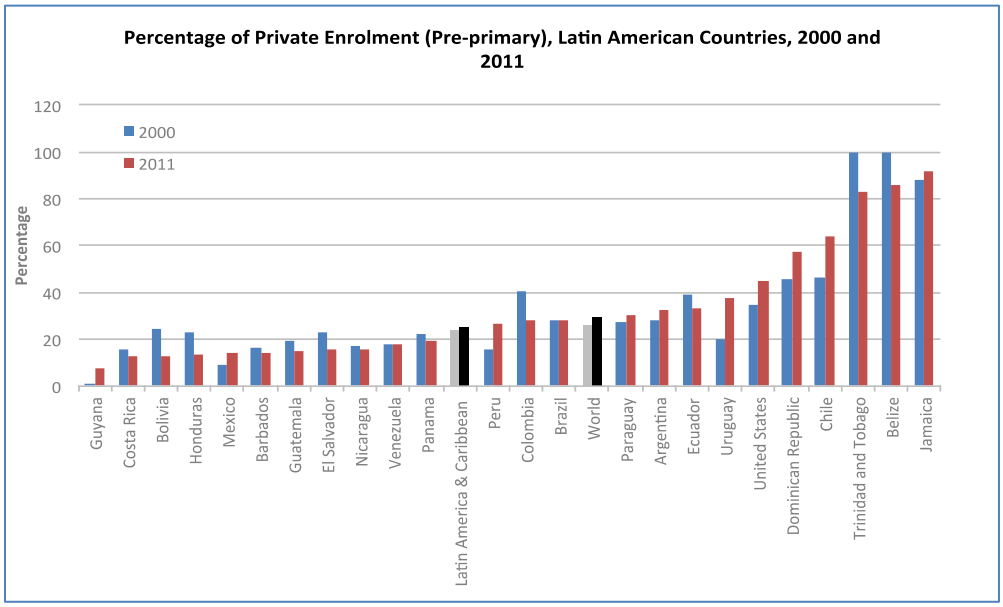
	2000	2011
Barbados	6.3	5.3
Jamaica	2.4	5.7
United States	9.7	8.3
Guyana	1.8	8.7
Costa Rica	13.2	9.6
Bolivia	29.2	13.1
Mexico	16.0	13.3
Brazil	11.0	14.3
Uruguay	11.8	14.5
Panama	15.7	16.2
El Salvador	23.0	16.3
Latin America & Caribbean	**17.5**	**19.3**
Colombia	30.1	20.4
Dominican Republic	23.3	20.8
Paraguay	27.6	21.6
Nicaragua	30.5	21.8
World	**19.5**	**22.3**
Peru	16.9	26.0
Honduras	27.4	26.9
Trinidad and Tobago	8.1	27.0
Argentina	26.8	27.8

Venezuela	27.2	28.4
Ecuador	24.0	30.1
Chile	48.2	59.0
Guatemala	73.5	60.3
Belize	76.5	63.0

Note: Data within 2 years of date listed except Guyana 2000 is for 2003. Honduras 2000 is for 2006. Trinidad and Tobago 2011 is for 2004. No data for Haiti.

Source: World Bank, EdStats online database consulted on 1/5/13.

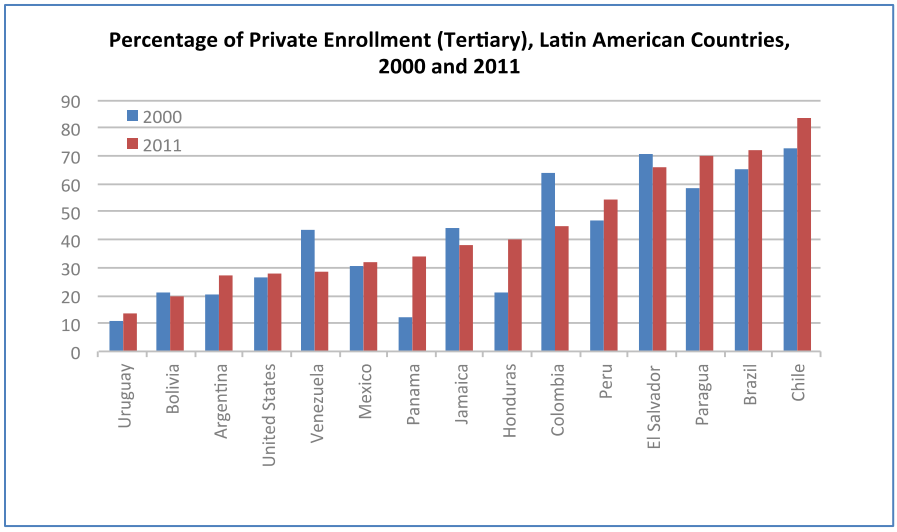
Graph A.8



Note: Data within 2 years of date listed except Honduras 2000 is for 2004 and Trinidad and Tobago 2011 is for 2007. No data for Haiti.

Source: World Bank, EdStats online database consulted on 1/5/13.

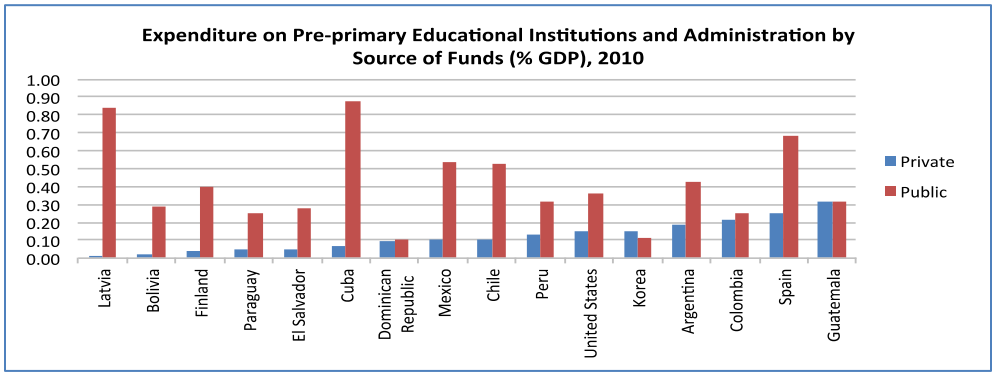
Graph A.9



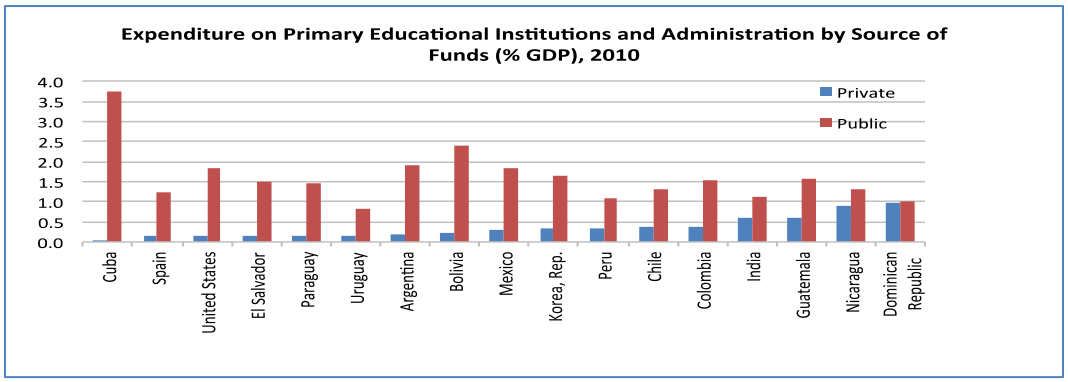
Note: Data within 2 years of date listed except Bolivia 2011 is for 2007. Peru 2000 is for 2006. No data for Haiti.

Source: World Bank, EdStats online database consulted on 1/5/13.

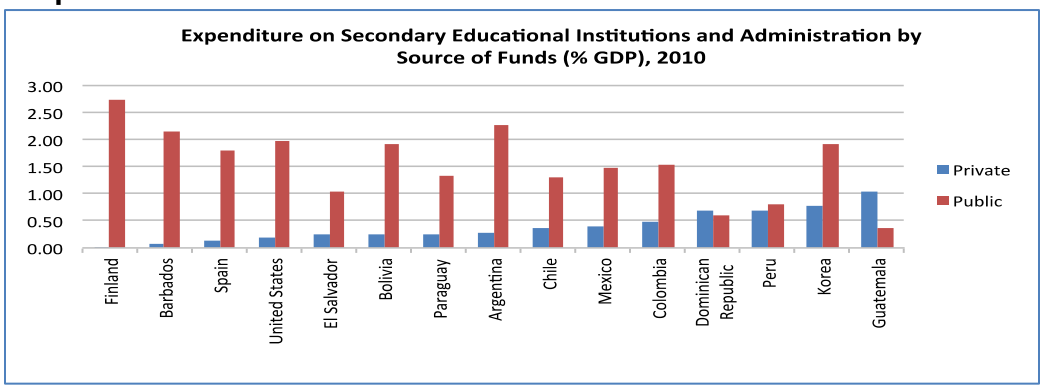
Graph A.10



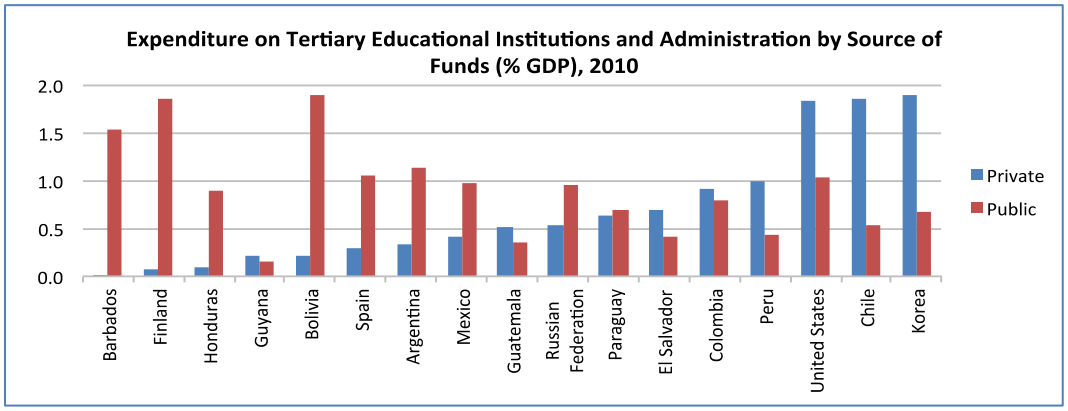
Graph A.11



Graph A.12

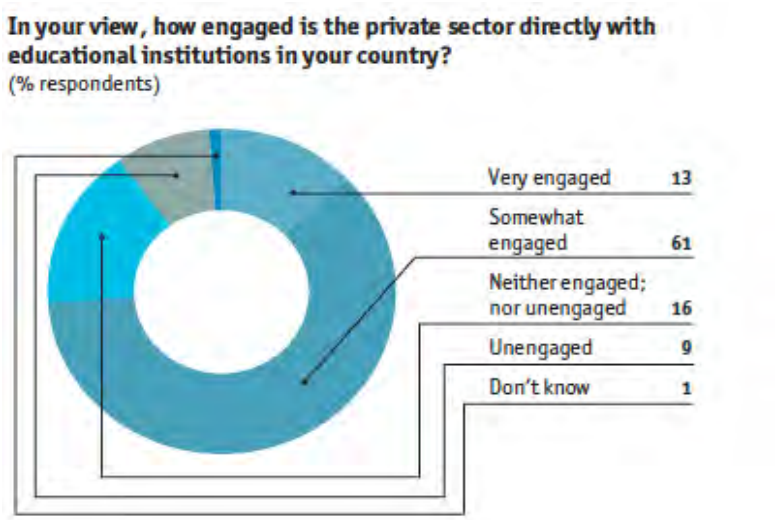


Graph A.13



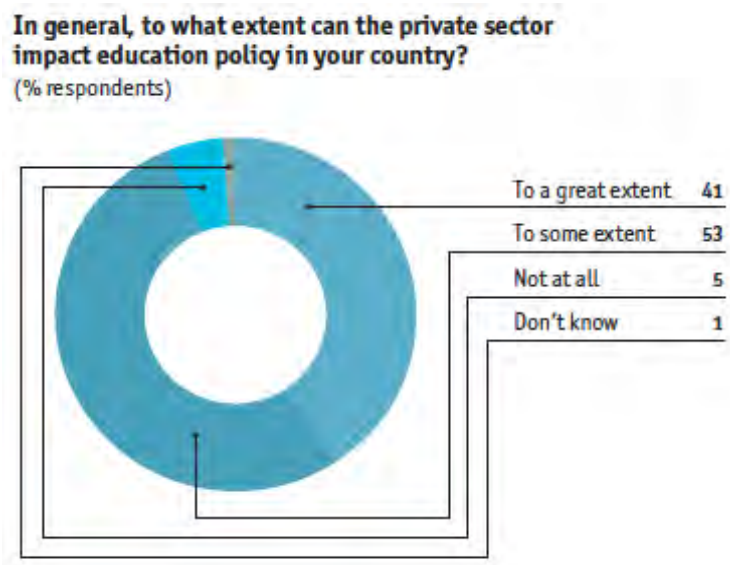
Source: World Bank, EdStats online database, consulted 2/1/14.

Graph A.14 How Engaged is the Private Sector in Your Country (Opinion Survey), 2009



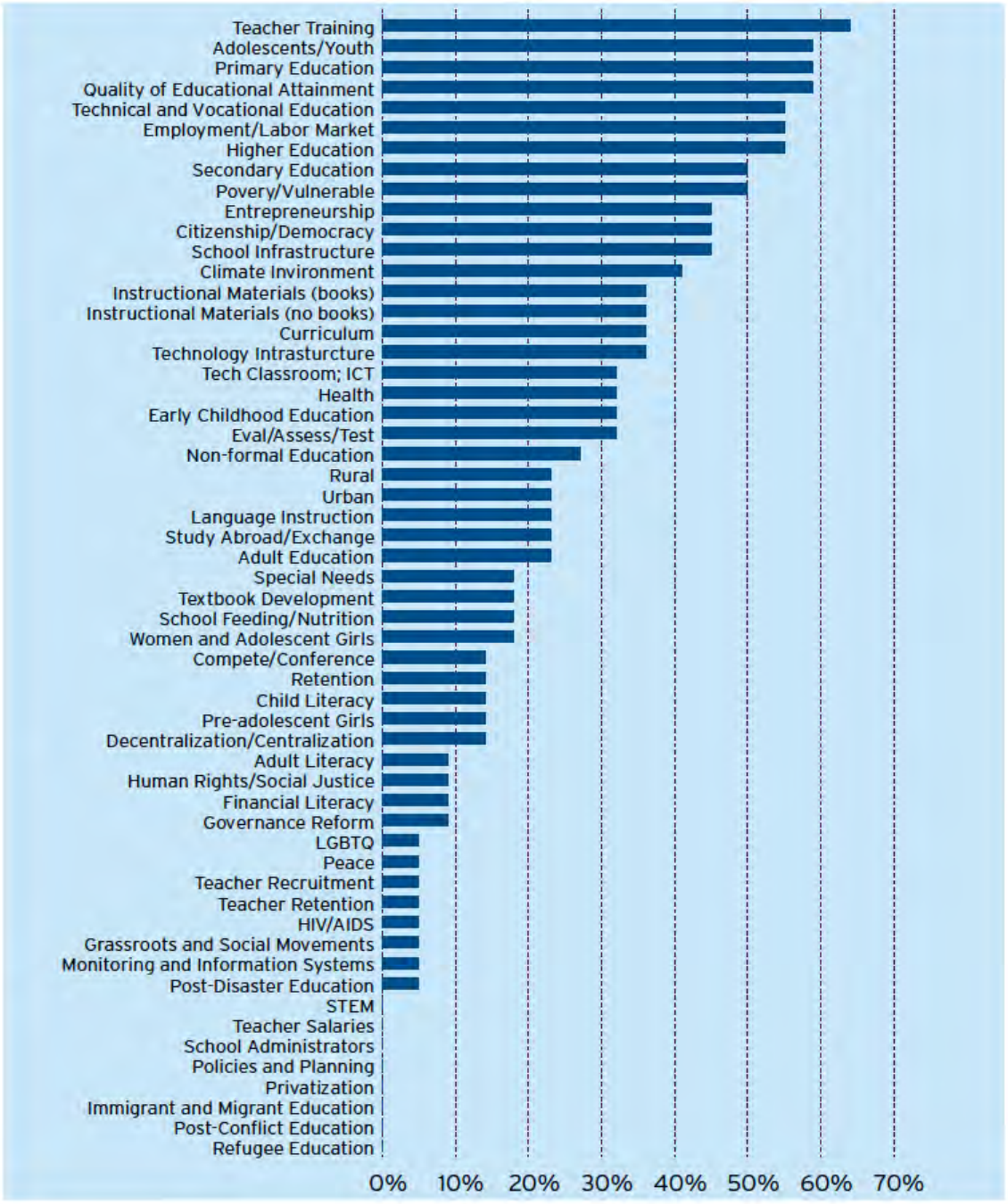
Source: Andreasson, 2009.

Graph A.15. Ability of Private Sector to Influence Education Policy (Opinion Survey), 2009



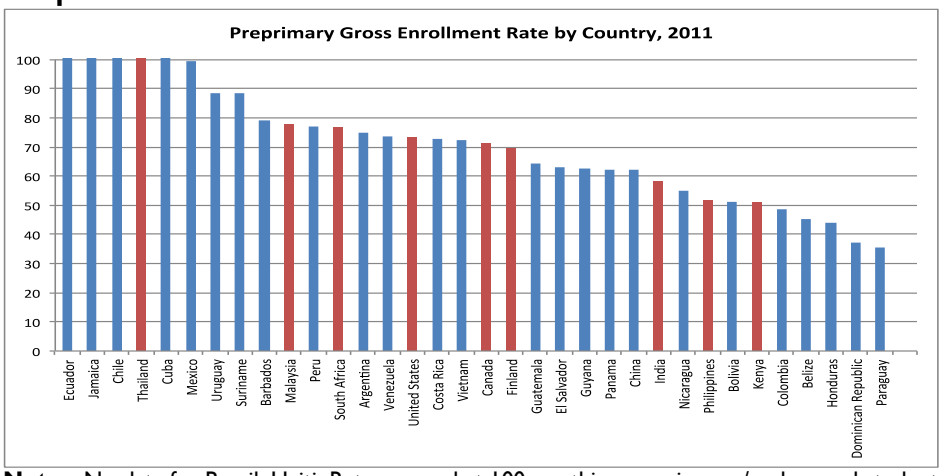
Source: Adreasson, 2009.

Graph A.16. Multilatina Investment in Education in Latin America by Topic Area, 2010



Note: While the study of US Fortune 500 companies' investments in education highlighted a strong support of science, technology, engineering and math (STEM) education, areas typically associated with 21st century skills and a competitive knowledge economy, none of the multilatinas invested in these skills specifically.
Source: Van Fleet and Sanchez Zinny, 2012, Figure 9, p.13.

Graph A.17



Notes: No data for Brazil, Haiti. Rates capped at 100; anything over is over/under-aged students. Comparison countries in red.
Source: World Bank, EdStats online database, consulted 2/9/14.

Table A.47. Preprimary Gross Enrollment ratio by Country, 2000, 2005, and 2011

	2000	2005	2011
Ecuador	65.4	76.6	139.6
Jamaica	83.4	87.8	113.1
Chile	77.9	81.3	111.6
Thailand	92.7	95.4	110.3
Cuba	104.2	110.6	103.8
Mexico	70.1	83.9	99.4
Uruguay	63.4	75.9	88.7
Suriname	84.6	79.2	88.5
Barbados	70.2	86.3	79.1
Malaysia	51.4	63.4	77.7
Peru	58.9	62.9	77.1
South Africa	32.5	46.3	76.5
Argentina	60.1	66.2	75.1
Venezuela	48.7	58.0	73.8
United States	58.7	63.5	73.3
Costa Rica	46.8	69.5	72.7
Vietnam	40.1	60.6	72.2
Canada	63.3	67.5	71.3
Finland	48.5	60.0	69.5
Guatemala	51.0	58.1	64.4
El Salvador	42.5	55.1	63.0
Guyana	96.5	83.0	62.6
Panama	42.8	58.6	62.2
China	38.6	47.3	62.0
India	24.6	39.8	58.1
Nicaragua	28.6	39.5	55.0
Philippines	25.5	37.6	51.5
Bolivia	45.1	48.8	51.2
Kenya	43.3	49.9	51.1
Colombia	39.8	41.7	48.6
Belize	27.7	30.8	45.2
Honduras	21.6	33.8	43.9
Dominican Republic	33.3	32.2	37.3
Paraguay	31.2	34.3	35.4
Trinidad and Tobago	60.2	87.8	

Notes: No data for Brazil or Haiti. Anything over 100 represents over/under age students. Comparison countries in red.
Source: World Bank, EdStats online database, consulted 2/9/14.

Table A.48. National Education Plans

Country	Year passed (years covered)	Basic Education*	EFA-specific plans	Education Sector	National Education Plan	Link
National Education Plans						
Barbados					none	
Bolivia	2003 (2004-2015)			x	Estrategia de la Educacion Boliviana 2004-2015 (Documento Preliminar)	http://planipolis.iiep.unesco.org/upload/Bolivia/Bolivia%20Estrategia%20de%20la%20educacion%202004-2015.pdf
Brazil*	2007			x	The Plan for the Development of Education: Reasons, Principles and Programs	http://portal.mec.gov.br/arquivos/livro/livro_ingles.pdf
Colombia*	(2010-2014)			x	Plan Sectorial 2010-2014	http://www.mineducacion.gov.co/1621/articles-293647_archivo_pdf_plansectorial.pdf
Cuba					none	
Dominican Republic*	2008 (2008-2018)			x	Plan Decenal de Educacion 2008-2018	http://www.minerd.gob.do/idec/Documents/PLAN%20DECENAL%20DE%20EDUCACI%E2%80%A1N%202008-2018.pdf
Ecuador*	2003 (2003-2015)		x	x	Plan Nacional Educación para Todos 2003-2015	http://datatopics.worldbank.org/hnp/files/edstats/ECUefa03.pdf
El Salvador*	2005 (-2021)	x		x	Plan Nacional de Educación 2021: educacion prescholar y basica en la red solidaria	http://planipolis.iiep.unesco.org/upload/El%20Salvador/El_Salvador_Plan2021_red_solidaria.pdf
Guatemala*	2012	x		x	Estrategia para una Educación de Calidad para la Niñez y juventud Guatemalteca	http://www.mineduc.gob.gt/PORTAL/contenido/anuncios/estrategiaCalidadEducativa/documents/Documento_Estrategia_para_una_Educaci%C3%B3n_de_Calidad_final_completa.pdf
Guyana	2008 (2008-2013)			x	Education Strategic Plan 2008-2013: Meeting the Quality Imperative	http://www.globalpartnership.org/media/library/Country_Documents/Guyana/2008-13-Guyana-Education-Sector-Plan.pdf
Haiti*	2007		x	x	La Strategie Nationale D'Action pour l'education pour tous [French]	http://www.globalpartnership.org/media/library/haiti_esp_sept07.pdf
Honduras	(2003-2015)		x	x	Proposal for Fast Track Initiative Education for All 2003-2015	http://www.globalpartnership.org/media/library/Honduras_Education_Plan.pdf

Country	Year passed (years covered)	Basic Education*	EFA-specific plans	Education Sector	National Education Plan	Link
Jamaica	2012 (2011-2020)			X	National Education Strategic Plan: 2011-2020	http://www.caribbeanelections.com/eDocs/strategy/jm_strategy/jm_education_strategic_plan_2011_2020.pdf
Mexico*					none	
Nicaragua*	2007 (2011-2015)			X	Plan Estratégico de Educación 2011-2015	http://www.mined.gob.ni/Documents/Document/2013/pee2011_2015.pdf
Panama	(2009-2014)			X	Plan Estratégico del Ministerio de Educación, 2009 -2014	http://www.meduca.gob.pa/files/general/PLAN_ESTRATEGICO_MEDUCA_2009_-_2014.pdf
Paraguay*	2002 (2003-2015)		X	X	Plan Educacional Nanduti 2003-2015	http://planipolis.iiep.unesco.org/upload/Paraguay/Paraguay%20Plan%20Nanduti.pdf
Peru*	2005 (2005-2015)		X	X	Plan Nacional de Educación para Todos 2005-2015	http://datatopics.worldbank.org/hnp/files/edstats/PERefa05.pdf
Argentina	(2012-2016)			X	Plan Nacional de Educación Obligatoria y Formación Docente 2012-2016	http://www.me.gov.ar/doc_pdf/PlanNacionalde.pdf
Belize	2012 (2011-2016)			X	Belize Education Sector Strategy 2011-2016	http://moe.gov.bz/index.php/belize-education-sector-strategy
Chile					none	
Costa Rica	(2010-2014)			X	Lineas Estratégicas del MEP 2010-2014	http://www.mep.go.cr/sites/default/files/page/adjuntos/lineas-estrategicas-mep.pdf
Trinidad and Tobago	2012 (2011-2015)			X	Education Sector Strategic Plan: 2011-2015	http://www.moe.gov.tt/spotlightPDFs/MOE_Stategic_Action_Plan_2011_2015.pdf
Uruguay	(2010-2030)			X	Plan Nacional de Educación 2010-2030	http://www.anep.edu.uy/anep/phocadownload/Publicaciones/LibrosDigitales/documento%20del%20plan%20nacional%20de%20educacin%202010%20-%202030.pdf
Venezuela	2003		X		Plan Educación para Todos Venezuela	http://planipolis.iiep.unesco.org/upload/Venezuela/Venezuela%20EFA%20Plan.pdf

Sources: Various, listed in links.

*These are stand-alone plans outside of the Education Sector Plans