

An exploration of Peru's education system within a global context.

Through this exploration of education in Peru I hope the reader will gain greater understanding of the recent changes and unique challenges that are facing the country. Referring closely to the internationally recognised key indicators of progress I will consider Peru's developing emphasis on early childhood education and focus on how this may help the country achieve educational goals set by the international community.

An introduction to Peru

Before looking more closely at the issues it is important to consider the current context that Peru finds itself in. Peru is a geographically diverse country with three distinct regions, the coast, the rainforest and the mountains. As recently as the 1980's Peru was in the midst of both an economic and political crisis, with the inflation rate in 1990 recorded as 7649% (Castillo and Humala, 2012 p.74) and thousands of inhabitants being forced to leave their homes in the countryside to live in the cities. Just 21% of the 31 million population are reported to be living in rural areas now (UNESCO, 2018). These rural areas are often remote, difficult to access and the inhabitants may have to deal with the effects of high altitude and extreme weather. The majority of the population are living along the coast, with a large concentration of 10 million inhabitants in the capital city Lima (Collyns, 2017).

According to UNESCO (2018) in 2016 Peru's population was showing an annual growth rate of 1.2%, with 28% of the 31 million under 14 years old, reflecting a young and growing population. Spanish is spoken by 84% of the population (British Council, 2015) with Quechua recognised as the second language with 13% (Collyns, 2016) and 47 other languages making up the remainder of the population (Collyns, 2016).

According to UNESCO (2018) education is compulsory in Peru for children aged 3-16. From figure 1 we can see the large quantity of school-aged children which make up a significant proportion of the population (UNESCO, 2018).

Figure 1

School-age population by education level

Pre-primary	1,804,685
Primary	3,486,038
Secondary	2,816,915

Adapted from UNESCO (2018)

Education policies are set and developed at national and sub-national levels by politicians with policy implementers in the Ministry for Education deciding 'norms and standards' (World Bank, 2007 p. 23).

If we view Peru using Gough and Wood's welfare framework (Gough, 2004) we could suggest that as recent ago as the 1980's when there was political and social unrest (Castillo and Humala, 2012 and British Council, 2015) Peru sat within the 'insecurity regime' (Gough, 2008, p. 32) as terrorism and exclusion severely affected large proportions of the population. Whereas more recently we see Peru within the context of the 'informal security regime' (Gough, 2008, p. 32) where there is uneven development with social policies supported by foreign actors. This framework helps us to understand the current context as the wellbeing, education and health of the population is being heavily supported by the many Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) as seen in a report by the British Council, (2015) and an article by the Department for International Development (2010) which states NGOs are required to support some regions of Peru which 'face similar levels of deprivation to some of the poorest countries in Africa'.

These are all significant factors which I will explore in more depth when discussing the issues affecting education in Peru and the significance of early childhood education as the country looks towards the future.

The Millennium Development Goals

The Millennium Development Goals or MDGs were developed and agreed by 189 world leaders at the United Nations Millennium Declaration Summit in 2000 (United Nations, 2000). In this agreement a range of values, principles and objectives were laid out with the overall aim of creating 'a more peaceful, prosperous and just world' with 8 primary goals to be achieved by 2015. One of these goals was to achieve universal primary education across the globe.

Saith (2007) acknowledges that although the initial intentions of those involved and the overall ideals of the Millennium Development goals were honourable there are limitations as to their relevance in today's dynamic and diverse society. He suggests that by giving countries goals and targets without any policies or processes leads to a goal orientated culture where societies are not looking at the underlying problems. Saith (2006) also questions how such broad and wide-reaching goals can be achieved. Indeed, there are even question marks surrounding the motives and appropriateness for the richer western countries to be declaring that the poorer nations of the world should strive towards less poverty, whilst neglecting to address the disparity in the distribution of wealth within their own countries and of those in developing nations. The millennium development goals do, however, allow us to highlight regions where projects or initiatives have been seemingly successful and allow us to share these stories. They also aid countries in highlighting other vulnerable communities so that they can be identified and targeted with specific interventions (Gyorkos et al, 2009).

Millennium Development Goal two progress Indicators

The Millennium Development Goal two can be assessed using 3 key indicators; enrolment rates, completion of a full course of primary school education and literacy rates for 15-24-year olds (MDGI, 2018). Gyorkos et al (2009) would dispute the validity of such indicators to track progress towards Millennium Development goals arguing instead that they don't 'accurately reflect with-in country variability of progress towards the targets' (p. 645). However, as the MDGs and their indicators are available and consistently used across countries they are worth considering as we continue our exploration of the education in Peru.

The first indicator used to measure progress sought to ensure that all children were able to access education. Indeed, the UN see it as a basic human right (United

Nations, 2015a) and report enrolment rates in primary education in developing countries having risen from 83% in 2000 to 91% in 2015 (UN, 2018). According to the United Nations Millennium Development Goals Indicators (MDGI, 2018) Peru has had consistently higher enrolment rates than other developing nations at 100% in 2000, falling to 94.4% in 2013 (the most recent data) with little variance between sexes.

The second indicator of progress is the percentage of children who are completing primary education. The UN report that this percentage has increased worldwide from 85.1% in 2000 to 91.5% in 2015 (MDGI, 2018). However, in Peru the percentage of children starting grade 1 and going on to finish the full course of primary has varied considerably across the years from 67.2% in 1993, to 80.9% in 2000 and up to 90.4% in 2009 before falling back down to 73.9% in 2012 (MDGI, 2018). This variance has occurred across both sexes.

The final indicator of progress shows that there has been a gradual increase in literacy rates in 15-24-year olds in Peru from 95.4% in 1993, to 96.8% in 2003 and up again to 98.7% in 2012. This is considerably higher than the world average which shows an improvement from 87.3% in 2000 to 91.3% in 2015 (MDGI, 2018).

From an initial look at the data we can see that although there has been a recent decrease, enrolment rates in education are relatively high, but completion of the primary course is variable and frequently very low. This, however, looks to have little impact on literacy rates for 15-24-year olds with the data suggesting a steady increase since 1993. It is difficult to understand the full picture if we only use these three indicators to assess education in Peru and as Gyorkos et al (2009) argued, the MDGs were not developed to be so limited. It is therefore important to examine other sources and ways in which we can explore education in Peru whilst keeping in mind the data generated as a result of the MDGs. The World Bank (2007) points out in a country review of Peru, that it is the quality of education that is lacking rather than general accessibility. This conclusion is further supported by the British Council (2015) who state that improving access to quality education is one of the key objectives for the Peruvian Ministry of Education.

Sustainable Development Goal four

In 2012 it began to emerge that world leaders were considering adopting a set of new targets to follow on from the Millennium Development Goals which were due to end in 2015. These were to be known as The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and would build on the successes of the MDGs and promote a 'sustainable trajectory' (Sachs, 2012, p. 2206). There would be a more global focus rather than just on the poorer countries and regions as they would promote sustainability not just economically and socially but in a way that protected the environment. The 17 SDGs were published in 2015 and Goal four pledges to:

'Ensure Inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all.' (United Nations, 2015c, p. 19)

As we can see the scope of this target is far greater than that for MDG two and it has significantly more indicators of progress such as increasing the supply of qualified teachers and the building and upgrading of facilities. One key indicator identified is having 'access to quality early childhood development, care and pre-primary education' (United Nations, 2015c, p.19). This statement emphasises the importance given to the issue of 'quality' and highlights 'early education'. These are the two points that I will now focus on while looking back at how Peru performed on MGD two and looking forward at how it is engaging with SDG four.

Assessing the quality of education in Peru: PISA

The Programme for International Standards Assessment (PISA) was developed in order to assess international education standards across countries 'by testing the skills and knowledge of 15 year-old-students' (OECD, 2018a). Although recognised by governments and policy makers PISA has been criticised, for example, Fischbach et al (2013) question how accurately they predict future outcomes for students. Other criticisms have highlighted cultural biases, problems caused by translations and similarly issues with sampling sizes and selections (Mortimore, 2009 and Froese-Germain, 2010). However, PISA results are still held in high regard with their importance illustrated through Stewart (2013) who states that upcoming PISA results will provide us with the 'most influential set of education test results the world has ever

seen'. This disparity between their perceived importance and potential biases perfectly demonstrates the difficulty we have when deciding how to gauge quality and standards between countries. However, it can be another useful indicator within a context of other data and sources and this is how I shall use it.

If we examine Peru's PISA results from 2015 (the most recently published results) we can see that the country is ranked as one of the lowest at 64th out of 70 countries (OECD, 2018b). This a slight progress from 65th and last position in 2012 (OECD, 2014). Further evidence for this perceived lack of quality comes from The Global Competitiveness Report 2017-2018 (Schwab, 2017) which highlights the key 'pillars' in which Peru scores poorly in, as being health and primary education. In this report the quality of Primary Education is scored particularly low along with the quality of the education system (Schwab, 2017). These were areas that were also considered low in previous competitiveness index scores (Schwab, 2012). The World Bank (2007) also made recommendations to improve the quality of education and education systems by focussing on raising standards and creating more accountability.

Therefore, we have established that although accessible, the quality of education available is perceived to be low when viewed from established worldwide organisations using recognised measures. I shall now examine the possible reasons for this perceived lack of quality alongside the trends outlined by the MDG indicators whilst examining several factors.

Economic implications on education for the poorest communities in Peru

The United Nations (2015b) report which examined the progress of all countries towards the MDGs pointed out that children of poorer families may not be able to complete a full course of primary education due to child labour issues. This is a possible cause for the variable results seen for this MDG indicator in Peru with children needed to work to help provide for younger siblings. With this possibility in mind let's look at the general economic picture in Peru.

According to a recent International Monetary Fund Report (IMF, 2018), Peru is considered one of the top economic performers in Latin America since the turn of the century. Several sources would tend to support this view, with The World Bank

reporting an average GDP growth rate of 3.1% between 2014 to 2017 (World Bank, 2018a) and The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) publishing data showing gross national income increasing from 9,012 US Dollars per capita in 2010 to 11,706 in 2014 (OECD, 2018c). The percentage of the population living in poverty has also significantly decreased in recent years from 52.2% in 2005, to 26.1% in 2013 and extreme poverty down from 30.9% in 2005, to 11.4% in 2013 (World Bank, 2018a).

Dollar and Kraay (2002) looked at data collated from 4 data sources looking at 137 countries over 49 years and found that economic growth leads to all groups benefiting, with even the poorest fifth of society seeing their income rise proportionately with economic growth. The relationship between growth and inequality is not so simple, however, as through Lundberg and Squire's (2003) research we see that the determinant factors behind economic growth and reduction in inequality are not the same. Gyorkos et al (2009) also point out that although there is progress towards reducing poverty in Peru there are still regions that have extreme levels of poverty and haven't seen improvement.

Bils and Klenow (2000) conclude that educational growth is the driver behind economic development. This, however, has not been the case in Peru with the country currently investing just 3.8% of its GDP on education in 2016 (World Bank, 2018b). Although this figure has risen steadily from 2.7% in 2009 it is less than OECD member countries (5.2% in 2014) and neighbouring countries Brazil (5.9% in 2014), Argentina, (5.4% on 2014), Ecuador (5.3% in 2014) and Colombia (4.7% in 2014) (World Bank, 2018b). Cotlear (2006) had previously warned that salaries for public school teachers were at unsustainably low levels and as we have seen from the data above there has been little investment in education to rectify that since. This example of teacher salaries reflects the overall investment in education and is in contrary to Bils and Klenow (2000) who would expect less economic growth as a consequence of less investment in education.

Therefore, from these statistics we could deduce that Peru shows strong economic growth and is investing less than its neighbouring countries in education, however, we should also keep in mind that just because a country is investing heavily in its education system this will not necessarily result in improved educational outcomes for

its population. If we look at the example of Brazil who as we saw before invest nearly 2% more of its GDP in education but are only 1 place above Peru in the overall PISA rankings in 2015 (OECD, 2018b) although this is just one example it emphasises the point that merely investing more money doesn't always lead to significantly better educational outcomes as this neglects the complexity of society.

Having identified a lack of state investment in education in Peru as one of the possible reasons for low quality education in the country, we shall now turn to analysing the opportunities for those accessing the private sector.

Access to quality education: An exploration of the private sector

The fact that a relatively small percentage of state funds is invested in education doesn't mean that there hasn't been any investment at all. A government education policy to promote private investment in education in 1990's led to the creation of for-profit institutions and a lessening of the constraints on who could open schools (British Council 2015). Whilst helping the country meet targets for offering access to education to its children, the decentralisation and marketisation of the education system may also have led to the lowering of educational standards and promoting of inequality within it (Cotlear, 2006).

Tooley and Dixon (2005) would, however, suggest that there is a place for low cost private schools in providing education for children in poorer communities. They looked at large samples of children attending private schools in equally disadvantaged countries and concluded that many were often better off than their government equivalents. These conflicting conclusions demonstrate the complexities between the private and public sectors and their role to play in helping to achieve quality education for all. Robertson and Dale (2013) further highlight these difficulties when viewing the subject from a social justice and political perspective. They make the point that the growth of the neo-liberalist view, limiting the role of the state in education policy making, is a common theme that not only developing countries are tackling. Following their ideas, it would be logical to conclude that it is the responsibility of the schools and the marketplace to improve their competitiveness and therefore their educational outputs in order to improve the quality of education.

A consequence of this lack of investment in teachers, resources and schools by the state has allowed for the private system to drastically increase over the last 20 years in Peru (World Bank, 2007). This has had implications on Peruvian society as suggested by an article by the International Monetary Fund (2016) where it is stated that in Peru there 'has been a rise in economic inequality over the past two decades.' One possible explanation for this is that the rich are able to gain access to a higher level of education, leading to better jobs and living standards. The explosion of private education has largely been focussed in the capital city, Lima, where 40% (Education International, 2018) of the most underprivileged children attend private schools. However, many of these are dubbed 'low-cost schools' and have been shown to have serious deficiencies with both quality of education and equity. Indeed, children attending public schools have been shown to consistently outperform their peers in the 'low-cost' private schools (Education International, 2018).

Cotlear (2006), therefore, has argued that although more state investment would help the situation, the most important factor to address is improving the relations within the 'corporations of providers' (p.2). This refers to the relationships between teachers, middle managers and regional staff from ministries. These relations have led to low expectations of performance and a lack of accountability. Considering this Crouch (2006) recommended Peru establish basic standards, a way to measure these standards and then to invest in the information systems, training staff, and incentives for those who were working in the system.

Access to quality education: An exploration of ethnicity and language

The complexities within Peruvian society and the education system are further highlighted with the nature of the bilingual and multilingual communities that occupy rural and often remote areas of the country. Coming from an indigenous speaking family is thought to be an important indicator of low academic performance (Cueto, 2007). There is also a correlation to show that this group is typically poorer as we see in a UNICEF (2010) report which shows that 78% (p. 17) of indigenous children live in poverty compared to just 40% (p.17) of Spanish speaking children. These factors complicate the issue and mean that it is difficult to tackle just one area of the country's development, with the implication being that a more general social programme is needed to help support people in their communities.

Through two case studies Ames (2011) demonstrated that although the majority of indigenous people in Peru are enrolled in primary school, they are excluded from receiving education like the rest of the population. Ames (2011) suggests the fact that 63% of indigenous children attending school where the only language of instruction is Spanish leads to a degree of exclusion. She goes on to conclude that children are often encouraged to leave their culture and language outside of the class which negatively affects their ability to develop and achieve in school. Although this study only looked at the views of a small sample of indigenous children and it is hard to generalise across the population it could be suggested that this lack of inclusion may be the cause or at least a factor in the low and inconsistent rates recorded for children completing the full primary course. (Ames (2011) also stated that there are no structured programmes either at a national or regional level in Peru to help transition non-Spanish speakers into school life. This is a key factor as it demonstrates the expectation that all non-Spanish speakers should at least have a basic grasp of Spanish before starting school, which for a family living in extreme poverty is difficult.

There may also be a bias towards Spanish speakers and those with more experience of a western ideology in the very tools that we as an international community use to evaluate attainment. If we take the PISA results for example, one could question their relevance for Peruvian Quechua speakers who live in remote regions of the country and have little knowledge or understanding of concepts that may be tested or regarded as being important. A possible consequence of this can be seen in an article by Collyns (2016) where it is reported that the number of Quechua speakers is decreasing with families actively trying not to teach it to their children. An article by Vilchis (2018) also describes the plight of the language and includes predictions that it will continue to decline. This phenomenon would be a stark contrast to what Skutnabb-Kangas (2007, p.137) terms 'basic linguistic human rights' when referring to minorities being entitled to achieve high levels of bilingualism through education.

As we see in Poza's (2013) review of Skutnabb-Kangas and Heugh's (2012) work it is not only the language of instruction that may exclude certain groups but also the content of the education delivered, stating that educators need to incorporate indigenous ways of being and thinking into their practice. The level of education on offer in schools in regions where languages other than Spanish are spoken are frequently of a lower standard than those in predominantly Spanish speaking regions

(Ames, 2011). Skutnabb-Kangas and Heugh's (2012) would suggest that this excludes children in these areas to universal education as they do not consider enrolment to be sufficient to fulfil the MDG two.

Poza (2013) found that many nations and communities are able to successfully implement education systems whilst maintaining traditions, culture and language and that the West can learn from such systems. According to Figuero and Barron (2005) however, this is certainly not how minority ethnic groups are seen when they state that "the indigenous populations are second rate citizens" (Figuero and Barron, 2005 p. 2.) when referring to the multi-ethnic and hierarchical nature of Peruvian society.

The importance of early childhood education in meeting Sustainable Development Goal four

According to Essa (2013) early childhood education starts at age three and continues to age eight. Efforts to improve the quality of education in Peru have often focussed on the provision of quality education for this group (Young Lives, 2012). The reasons for this are highlighted by Hartinger et al (2017) who emphasise the importance of brain development during this period in a person's life and Lee et al (2011) who point out that the brain's ability to adapt and change is at its optimum until the age of three where there are far greater 'critical periods' (Siddiqi et al 2011 p.117), or periods when there the brain is able to undergo rapid growth. Indeed, Myers (1995) suggests that early childhood development plays an important role in determining life outcomes and more recently Britto et al (2017) showed that quality early education is key in a child's development.

In light of this established perceived importance of early education we can examine a fairly big government-initiated project in Peru known as the Wawa Wasi programme (Cueto et al, 2009). Initially created in 1993 the programme aimed to aid young children's development (ages 3-6) in the poorest regions of the country. They looked at several factors such as health, nutrition, safety and early childhood learning. Through the programme a mother figure (Mother-Career) from the community is selected who will take charge of the children's education either through establishing a classroom in her house or depending on the community in an institution or local building. This person should be able to read and write and is supported with both initial and yearly training and by field coordinators who are posted in regional offices. By

2007, Cueto et al (2009 p.4) reported that there were 6,005 such Wawa Wasi projects working with 52,299 children demonstrating the grand scale of this initiative. Programmes such as these could help to explain the high rates of enrolment in education that we saw in Peru earlier, as Myers (1995) suggests that early childhood schooling habits tend to lead to children attending school later in childhood.

Cueto et al (2009) took an in-depth review of both the programme itself and other studies that had sought to analyse its effectiveness. Their key findings were that although there were generally positive perceptions of the programme in the communities and that the children were provided with nutritious food the overall educational benefits were lacking. They suggest that not enough emphasis is placed on this area and that the level of expertise that the Mother-Carers possess needs to be developed. They also noted the range of learning materials and availability of toys should be improved. Cueto et al (2009) do however note that their relatively small sample size limits their ability to make conclusive generalisations regarding the overall effectiveness of the programme.

Hartinger et al (2017) conducted a study to look at how the Wawa Wasi programme could be improved and developed. They recorded significant skill development gains for children in groups who had access to their 'early child development intervention' Hartinger et al (2017, p.217). The intervention was employed in 258 households across 25 communities with initial and ongoing training for mothers over the course of a year. All children significantly improved in overall performance suggesting that the Wawa Wasi model of early education can be successful. Unfortunately, again we are unable to generalise these results due to the relatively small sample size with further research needed.

The role of early childhood education teachers

Cueto et al's (2009) recommendations highlight the need to raise standards of those teaching in early childhood settings. Indeed, this is an issue identified by the Peruvian government as they have developed several policies over the last two decades with the aim of raising standards as described in a Young Lives (2012) policy brief. The implementation of these policies, however, has been controversial with many teachers seeing them as an attack on the profession, leading to strikes and disputes (Reuters, 2017). This has further muddied the water as children have been denied access to

any type of education often for weeks on end in recent years (Reuters, 2017). The country is therefore faced with a problem in how to raise standards and accountability as recommended by Contlear (2006) without alienating the very people who need to implement changes. It could be argued that this top-down governmental approach is what is causing the problem and that by funding regionally directed interventions such as those conducted by Hartinger et al (2017) a more productive solution could be found.

The role of parents in early childhood education and development

Boo (2016) conducted a study looking at the effects of socio-economic status on early language development and found that there are stark differences between children in low and high socio-economic groups. With the children from the higher socioeconomic group scoring better. Significantly these differences are greater in Peru than the other countries examined (Ethiopia, India and Vietnam) with parental language levels and parental practises highlighted as key indicators of children's development. Manrique Millones et al (2015) demonstrated that this trend continues later in childhood when they noted a marked difference between IQ and socioeconomic status. They also conclude parents as a critical factor when they revealed that the level of education received by parents was an important issue. Children from lower socio-economic groups were more negatively affected by having parents who had not received an education than the children in the higher socio-economic group. Whilst providing us with interesting findings we must remember that these findings were determined using small sample sizes and that the tests used may not have been the most appropriate. For example, Stanovich (2009) would argue that an IQ test is not the most accurate way to assess intelligence. However, they are useful in providing a general trend and add to the context of education in Peru. Walker et al (2007) also determined that it was an area to examine and although they reported findings from their parental interventions were biased by attempts to improve maternal sensitivity at the same time, they did report a beneficial effect on cognitive simulation. This finding alongside Hartinger et al's (2017) findings show that when more expertise is giving to care givers (often parents) we see an improvement in educational outcomes for early childhood development.

Engagement towards Sustainable Development Goal 4

The extent to which Peru has been successful in moving towards SDG 4 is still unclear but Benavides et al (2016) have stated that significant efforts have been made to improve the quality of early education. They report that the Ministry of Education has adopted a new measure to assess the quality of early education and have highlighted the issue in 'The National Strategy on Development and Inclusion' (Benavides et al, 2016, p.25). Unfortunately, at this time the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals Indicators (SDGI, 2018) are unable to provide data to demonstrate how successful these have been.

Conclusions: Implications for practice in Peru

Although there are differences between regions and within socioeconomic groups the data shows that Peru has high rates of enrolment in education, relatively good literacy and a big variance year on year with regards to children completing the full course of primary (MDGI, 2018). On face value the first two indicators imply that Peru made positive steps towards meeting MDG two, but as we have seen when we look more closely there are many factors that we must keep in mind. The key factor identified is the overall quality of education that the schools, nurseries and communities can provide (Crouch, 2006). This is reflected in the PISA ranking outcomes and is highlighted through findings in The Global Competitiveness Report 2017-2018 (Schwab, 2017). Whether or not we accept these indicators as being truly reflective of the quality of education in Peru it could be argued that every country should welcome the objective of raising standards.

We have also seen the differences in the quality of education across the country with those living in cities more likely to receive a better education than those in rural communities. Other determining factors include ethnicity, language, socio-economic group and parental input, with children from poorer communities who don't speak Spanish not having access to the same opportunities as richer Spanish speakers.

Early childhood education has been identified as having an important role to play in developing the education system in Peru and as we have seen through the Wawa

Wasi programme there have been successful projects, albeit with significant room for improvement as we see through Cueto et al (2009) and more recently Hartinger et al (2017). Their recommendations for more training, higher quality resources and availability of those resources will be important factors as Peru moves towards SDG four. These also sit closely alongside the World Bank (2007) recommendations to improve standards and accountability, as although issued over 10 years ago, are still areas that have been identified as weaknesses (Schwab, 2017).

Through various sources we have seen that the challenges facing Peru are complex and often interrelated which implies that any move to progress and move towards the SDGs requires effective cooperation between all stakeholders particularly those at the heart of the communities. Starting at the local level as we saw with the Wawa Wasi initiative the social inequalities can be highlighted with the hope of ensuring that opportunities and access can be more equal with education and early childhood education as key drivers.

Conclusions: Implications for practice in the UK

As noted previously the SDG's were developed with a wider objective of achieving global targets, it is therefore relevant to examine the example of Peru and how it provides a context for the challenges facing the UK. For example, whilst poverty in the UK is not comparable to the levels recorded for Peru (World Bank, 2018a), the recommendations of a more holistic and community based approach are certainly aspects that could be developed and transferred to the UK. By encouraging communities to engage and giving them the tools to play a role in the education of their children, progress could be made to inclusive system. A second example is with regards to ensuring that early childhood education in the UK is inclusive in terms of languages spoken. As identified earlier, efforts have to made to ensure that those who speak indigenous languages in Peru are included both socially and in terms of curriculum content. This is a similar consideration for practitioners in the UK with children often entering early childhood settings with little or no English as they speak other languages at home. Whilst it could be argued that these issues vary in terms of severity and could be tackled differently in Peru and the UK the fact is that there are similarities with some of the issues to be faced by both countries.

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