

Regional variation in prevalence (5–19 years)

Blindness and vision loss prevalence, among school-age children (5–19 years) in Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC) ranges from **0.4 percent in Barbados** to **1.1 percent in Argentina**, with a regional average of **0.8 percent**, according to the Global Burden of Disease (GBD)^[1]. This variation reflects differences in implementation of school screening and eyeglass provision: This variation reflects differences in how school vision screening and the provision of eyeglasses are implemented: in Latin America and the Caribbean, regional coverage is estimated at 25–35 percent, compared to 80–90 percent in OECD countries.

Note: The analysis presented in this brief is based on the Global Burden of Disease definition of blindness and visual impairment: **Moderate vision impairment:** presenting visual acuity <6/18 and ≥6/60 in the better-seeing eye; **Severe vision impairment:** presenting visual acuity <6/60 and ≥3/60 in the better-seeing eye; **Blindness:** presenting visual acuity <3/60 or visual field <10° around central fixation in the better-seeing eye; **Presbyopia:** near visual acuity worse than N6 or N8 at 40 cm when best-corrected distance visual acuity is better than 6/12.

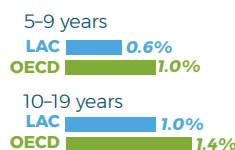
Source: Elaborated based on the Global Burden of Disease database, 2023.

From Primary to Secondary Education: Vision Loss and Blindness Increases 60 percent

The prevalence of vision loss and blindness rises with age in LAC: 0.6 percent at 5–9 years to 1 percent at 10–19 years—a **60 percent increase** between primary and secondary school age children. This rise is driven by uncorrected refractive errors, which account for approximately 70 percent of vision cases in the region. A 2014 analysis reports that the need for corrective glasses increases as students move from primary to secondary education (Ma et al., 2014)^[5]. Weak referral pathways to eye care in many communities compound the problem. Without timely correction, adolescents face higher rates of vision loss. Uncorrected refractive errors, sequelae of prematurity, and eye trauma during adolescence also contribute to the higher prevalence. Vision correction in early school years is associated with improved academic outcomes (Glewwe et al., 2018)^[6].

1.3 million students have vision loss and blindness

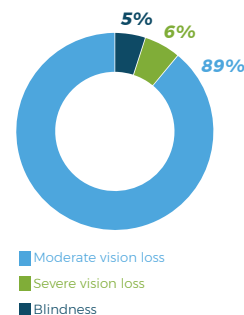
Approximately 1.3 million school-age children (ages 5–19 years) in LAC have vision loss or blindness. Vision loss is less prevalent in LAC than in OECD countries: 0.6 percent vs. 1.0 percent among primary school-age children, and 1.0 percent vs. 1.4 percent among secondary school-age children. These differences should be interpreted with caution: countries with more developed health systems have greater detection capacity, while LAC shows significant underreporting due to limited access to ophthalmological services and school-based screening (Latorre-Arteaga et al., 2016; WHO, 2019)^[2]. Robust health registries in OECD countries facilitate case identification that often remains undiagnosed in LAC (PAHO, 2014)^[3]. Limited access to ophthalmologists, prohibitive costs for glasses, and weaker health infrastructure contribute to systematic detection gaps in LAC (Polack et al., 2012)^[4].



Source: Elaborated based on the Global Burden of Disease database, 2023.

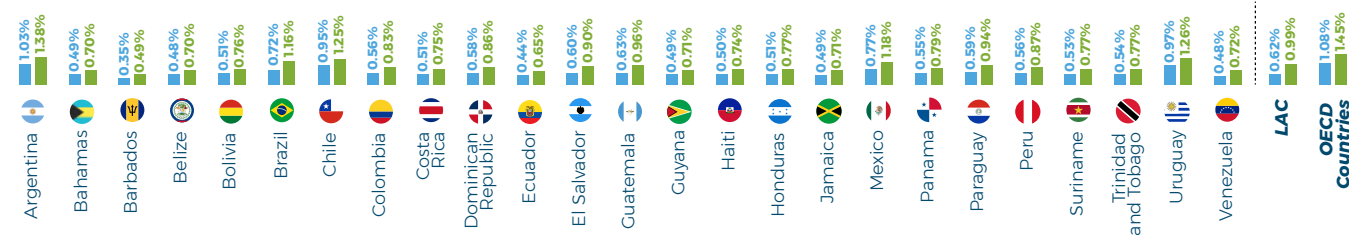
1.1 million (89 percent) have correctable visual impairments

Severity data indicate that approximately **89 percent of children have moderate vision loss** (treatable with glasses), **6 percent have severe vision loss**, and **5 percent have blindness** - requiring specialized rehabilitation and assistive technologies.



Source: From GBD, 2023.

Age Group Comparison by Country



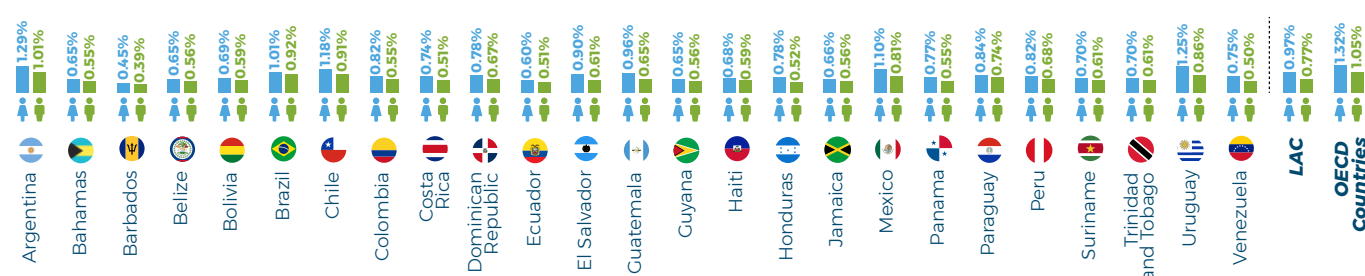
Source: Elaborated based on the Global Burden of Disease database, 2023.

Vision loss and blindness is 25 percent more prevalent among girls

In LAC, vision loss prevalence is higher among girls (**0.9 percent**) than boys (**0.7 percent**), a female-to-male ratio of **1.25:1**^[1]. The female-to-male difference increases with age and is highest at 10–19 years (1.1 percent vs 0.8 percent), corresponding to a ratio of 1.29:1 in this age group.

This pattern is consistent with global evidence showing that sex differences in myopia prevalence emerge at approximately 9 years of age and become more pronounced through adolescence. By 18 years of age, girls are approximately twice as likely as boys to be myopic (Rudnicka et al., 2016)^[7]. In resource-limited settings, unequal access to optical correction can compound gender disparities.

Sex Disparities by Country



Source: Elaborated based on the Global Burden of Disease database, 2023.

Vision loss and blindness among school-age children in LAC

Prevalence of Blindness and Vision Loss: Primary and Secondary Levels of Education, by country and sex.

		Primary education (5-9 years)		Secondary education (10-19 years)	
Blindness and vision loss		Prevalence		Prevalence	
Countries	Sex	%	Number	%	Number
 Argentina	 Both	1.03	31,121	1.37	95,348
	 Female	1.19	18,041	1.48	52,102
	 Male	0.87	13,080	1.26	43,246
 Bahamas	 Both	0.48	112	0.69	464
	 Female	0.50	57	0.75	254
	 Male	0.46	55	0.64	210
 Barbados	 Both	0.35	46	0.48	165
	 Female	0.36	23	0.52	88
	 Male	0.34	23	0.45	77
 Belize	 Both	0.48	183	0.70	567
	 Female	0.49	93	0.76	305
	 Male	0.46	90	0.64	262
 Bolivia	 Both	0.50	5,413	0.76	15,732
	 Female	0.52	2,740	0.82	8,494
	 Male	0.49	2,673	0.69	7,238
 Brazil	 Both	0.72	96,118	1.16	320,559
	 Female	0.72	47,581	1.20	166,375
	 Male	0.72	48,537	1.11	154,184
 Chile	 Both	0.94	10,215	1.24	30,004
	 Female	1.10	5,893	1.35	16,269
	 Male	0.79	4,322	1.13	13,735
 Colombia	 Both	0.56	18,692	0.83	60,824
	 Female	0.59	10,056	0.98	36,419
	 Male	0.52	8,636	0.67	24,405
 Costa Rica	 Both	0.51	1,674	0.75	5,542
	 Female	0.55	925	0.89	3,327
	 Male	0.47	749	0.60	2,215
 Dominican Republic	 Both	0.58	5,322	0.85	15,836
	 Female	0.59	2,717	0.92	8,734
	 Male	0.56	2,605	0.78	7,102
 Ecuador	 Both	0.44	6,060	0.64	19,876
	 Female	0.45	3,069	0.69	10,714
	 Male	0.43	2,991	0.59	9,162
 El Salvador	 Both	0.59	2,774	0.90	9,348
	 Female	0.64	1,489	1.08	5,595
	 Male	0.55	1,285	0.72	3,753
 Guatemala	 Both	0.63	10,442	0.96	30,771
	 Female	0.68	5,643	1.15	18,719
	 Male	0.58	4,799	0.76	12,052

 Guyana	 Both	0.49	335	0.71	953
	 Female	0.50	171	0.76	515
	 Male	0.47	164	0.65	438
 Haiti	 Both	0.50	7,321	0.73	19,612
	 Female	0.52	3,725	0.79	10,595
	 Male	0.48	3,596	0.67	9,017
 Honduras	 Both	0.50	5,615	0.77	16,278
	 Female	0.55	3,052	0.93	9,936
	 Male	0.46	2,563	0.60	6,342
 Jamaica	 Both	0.48	875	0.71	3,043
	 Female	0.50	447	0.76	1,635
	 Male	0.47	428	0.65	1,408
 Mexico	 Both	0.76	69,439	1.17	244,179
	 Female	0.80	36,593	1.34	142,143
	 Male	0.73	32,846	1.00	102,036
 Panama	 Both	0.54	1,795	0.79	5,263
	 Female	0.58	954	0.93	3,097
	 Male	0.51	841	0.65	2,166
 Paraguay	 Both	0.58	3,115	0.93	10,276
	 Female	0.59	1,588	0.99	5,576
	 Male	0.57	1,527	0.87	4,700
 Peru	 Both	0.55	16,557	0.86	51,494
	 Female	0.58	8,460	0.95	28,121
	 Male	0.53	8,097	0.77	23,373
 Suriname	 Both	0.53	244	0.77	726
	 Female	0.54	122	0.82	381
	 Male	0.52	122	0.72	345
 Trinidad and Tobago	 Both	0.53	434	0.77	1,402
	 Female	0.55	220	0.82	749
	 Male	0.52	214	0.71	653
 Uruguay	 Both	0.96	1,879	1.26	5,484
	 Female	1.17	1,130	1.44	3,157
	 Male	0.76	749	1.07	2,327
 Venezuela	 Both	0.48	8,818	0.72	30,233
	 Female	0.52	4,788	0.87	18,510
	 Male	0.43	4,030	0.56	11,723
LAC	 Both	0.62	304,626	0.99	994,005
	 Female	0.66	159,591	1.11	551,823
	 Male	0.58	145,035	0.86	442,182
OECD Countries	 Both	1.07	710,355	1.44	2,242,794
	 Female	1.22	403,902	1.54	1,206,122
	 Male	0.92	306,453	1.34	1,036,672

Source: Elaborated based on the Global Burden of Disease database, 2023.

Public Policy Recommendations

1. School-Based Prevention Programs

Screen for visual disabilities using tools like the Child Functioning Module – Teacher Version (CFM-TV), and establish referral pathways for assessment and eyeglass provision.

2. Equitable Access to Learning Materials

Ensure that schools provide adapted learning materials (large-print books, screen-reader compatible digital content, high contrast visuals) and make classroom facilities more inclusive through adequate lighting, and seating arrangements.

3. Professional Training

Train teachers to (a) identify early signs of visual impairment, (b) use adaptable teaching tools, and (c) apply inclusive strategies so students with vision disabilities fully participate in class.

4. System Integration for Inclusion

Coordinate with the Ministry of Health, social protection agencies, and relevant partners (e.g., NGOs) to ensure effective referral pathways across health and social services.

See Better, Learn Better

US\$ 30–50
per child
(median cost)

Includes screening (US\$ 5–15), refraction, eyeglasses (US\$ 25–35 per pair), and one follow-up (US\$ 5), covering the full scope of school vision programs.

Risk of repetition
1.5–2.0× higher,
cost **US\$1,500–3,000**
per year.

Source: The calculation was made based on data from these sources (World Health Organization, 2019; Ma et al., 2014; Glewwe, Park, & Zhao, 2016). [2:5:8]

GBD projected prevalence

0.9%
of the population
(ages 5–19)

1,298,631



0.1%

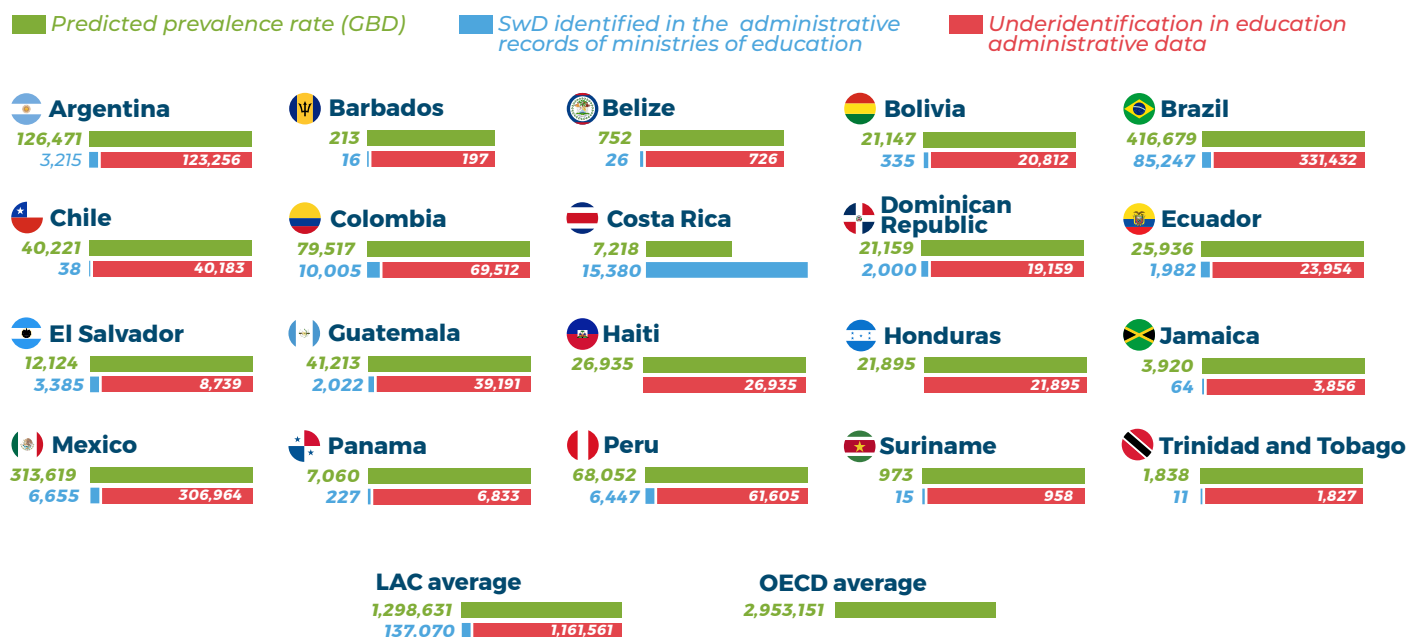
SwD identified by the
education system
(ages 5–19).

137,070



The Hidden Numbers: Underreported Vision Loss Among School-Age Children in LAC

Contrasting education administrative data on SwD with GBD prevalence rates.



Source: Elaborated based on the Global Burden of Disease database and education administrative data, 2023.

Why school vision programs matter?

School-based vision screening and eyeglass provision are not only highly cost-effective interventions, but also powerful tools for advancing equity. In LAC, approximately **70 percent of childhood vision loss** is caused by uncorrected refractive errors that are preventable or treatable with corrective glasses, cataract surgery, or early control of retinopathy of prematurity.

Uncorrected vision undermines educational attainment, lowering primary and secondary completion rates. Children from Afro-descendant, Indigenous, rural, and low-income backgrounds, and especially girls, face **higher prevalence and lower access to correction**, compounding education inequalities (Furtado et al., 2023) ^[9]. Implementing culturally sensitive, gender-responsive, universally subsidized school vision programs can help close these gaps and support upward social mobility for millions of children.

Methodological Note: The prevalence estimates presented in this brief are derived from the Global Burden of Disease (GBD) 2023, which uses statistical modeling (DisMod-MR) to generate country-specific estimates. While GBD represents the most comprehensive available source for global health estimates, primary survey data on vision loss and blindness for ages 5–19 are sparse in Latin America and the Caribbean. Country-specific estimates should be interpreted as model-derived predictions informed by available regional data, not as direct prevalence measurements from national surveys.

References: [1] Compiled by the Global Burden of Disease (GBD) study from population-based surveys, censuses, vital statistics, and related databases using standardized modeling methods, widely considered the most comprehensive source of global health estimates (GBD, 2023). GBD 2023 Disease and Injury Incidence and Prevalence Collaborators. (2023). Global Burden of Disease Study 2023 results. Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation. [2] Latorre-Arteaga, S., Gilman, R. H., Meza, B., Silva, J. C., & Gagnon, M. (2016). Visual health screening by schoolteachers in remote communities of Peru: Implementation research. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*, 94(9), 652–659. and World Health Organization. (2019). *World report on vision*. WHO. [3] Pan American Health Organization. (2014). *Plan of action for the prevention of blindness and visual impairment*. PAHO. [4] Polack, S., Yorston, D., López-Rubio, S., Polack, A., & Foster, A. (2012). Rapid assessment of avoidable blindness and diabetic retinopathy in Chiapas, Mexico. *Ophthalmology*, 119(5), 1033–1040. [5] Ma, X., Zhou, Z., Yi, H., Pang, X., Shi, Y., Chen, Q., Meltzer, M., LeCuyer, N., Zhang, L., & Rozelle, S. (2014). Effect of providing free glasses on children's educational outcomes in China: Cluster randomized controlled trial. *BMJ*, 349, g5740. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.g5740> [6] Glewwe, P., Hannemann, A., & West, J. (2018). The impact of providing vision screening and free eyeglasses on academic outcomes: Evidence from a randomized trial in Title I elementary schools in Florida. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*, 37(2), 265–300. <https://doi.org/10.1002/pam.22043> [7] Rudnicka, A. R., Kapetanakis, V. V., Wathern, A. K., Logan, N. S., Gilmartin, B., Whincup, P. H., Cook, D. G., & Owen, C. G. (2016). Global variations and time trends in the prevalence of childhood myopia: A systematic review and quantitative meta-analysis. *British Journal of Ophthalmology*, 100(7), 882–890. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bjophthalmol-2015-307724> [8] Glewwe, P., Park, A., & Zhao, M. (2016). A better vision for development: Eyeglasses and academic performance in rural primary schools in China. *Journal of Development Economics*, 122, 170–182. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdeveco.2016.05.007> [9] Furtado, J. M., Lansingh, V. C., Carter, M. J., Milanés, F., Peña, B. N., Gheris, H. A., López, E., Morgan, I. G., & Silva, J. C. (2012). Causes of blindness and visual impairment in Latin America. *Survey of Ophthalmology*, 57(2), 149–177. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.survophthal.2011.07.002>

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