# HAITI

Education and Human Resources **Sector Assessment**

**Evaluation du Secteur** de l'Education et des Ressources Humaines

March 1987

mars 1987

I E E S

AMESED

Improving the Efficiency of Educational Systems

Amélioration de l'Efficacité des Systèmes Educatifs

## Volume I

## Tome I

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Synthesis | 1 | Synthèse |
| Economic and Fiscal Analysis | 2 | Analyse Economique et Financière |
| Donor Activities and Coordination | 3 | Coordination et Activités des Donateurs |

Study conducted by the Improving the Efficiency of Educational Systems (IEES) consortium in collaboration with the Ministry of National Education of the Republic of Haiti and with the United States Agency for International Development (USAID)

Etude réalisée par le consortium pour l'Amélioration de l'Efficacité des Systèmes Educatifs (AMESED) en collaboration avec le Ministère de l'Education Nationale de la République d'Haïti et l'Agence Américaine pour le Développement International (USAID)

Improving the Efficiency of Educational Systems (IEES) is an initiative funded in 1984 by the United States Agency for International Development (AID). The principal goals of the IEES Project are to help developing countries improve the performance of their educational systems and strengthen their capabilities for educational planning, management, and research.

To achieve these goals, a consortium of U.S. institutions has been formed to work collaboratively with selected host governments and USAID Missions over the next ten years in devising programs of activity for each collaborating country aimed at improving the efficiency of their educational systems. The consortium consists of the Florida State University (prime contractor), Howard University in Washington, DC, the Institute for International Research (IIR), and the State University of New York at Albany (SUNY/Albany).

There are currently seven countries collaborating with the IEES initiative to improve educational efficiency. Three are in Africa: Botswana, Liberia, and Somalia. The other four countries are Haiti, Indonesia, Nepal, and the Yemen Arab Republic.

IEES produces documents with the goal of promoting research and planning in educational policy issues within IEES-collaborating countries. The IEES Document Clearinghouse at the Florida State University is the center for distributing documents published by the project. Inquiries should be addressed to them at the address below.

Sur l'initiative de l'Agence pour le Développement International (USAID), a été crée en 1984 un projet pour l'"Amélioration de l'Efficacité des Systèmes Educatifs" (AMESED). Ce projet a pour but d'aider les pays en voie de développement à améliorer le fonctionnement de leurs systèmes éducatifs et à renforcer leurs capacités en matière de planification, de gestion, et de recherche dans le domaine éducatif.

Pour réaliser ce but, un consortium d'universités et d'instituts de recherche américains a été constitué. Les membres du consortium sont appelés à collaborer au cours des 10 prochaines années, avec les gouvernements d'un certain nombre de pays en voie de développement et avec les représentations locales de l'USAID afin de réaliser dans chaque pays participant, un programme d'activités visant à améliorer l'efficacité du système éducatif. Le consortium comprend l'Université d'Etat de Floride (FSU), l'Université Howard à Washington DC, l'Institut de Recherche Internationale (IIR), et l'Université d'Etat de New York à Albany (SUNY/Albany).

Actuellement sept pays participent à cet effort. Parmi eux trois sont situés en Afrique. Ce sont: le Liberia, le Botswana, et la Somalie. Les autres pays sont Haïti, l'Indonesie, le Népal, et la République Yéménite Arabe.

L'AMESED édite une série de documents dans le but de promouvoir la recherche et la planification en matière d'éducation dans les pays participant au projet. Le Centre de Documentation de l'AMESED à l'Université d'Etat de Floride est chargé de la distribution de l'ensemble des documents publiés sous l'égide du projet. Les éventuelles commandes de documents doivent être addressées à:

**IEES/AMESED**
Learning Systems Institute
204 Dodd Hall
The Florida State University
Tallahassee, Florida 32306
USA
(904) 644-5442

Agency for International Development
Project No. 936-5823

PN-AAX-491

# HAITI

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REPUBLIQUE D'HAITI

# MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE

LE MINISTRE
DE
L'EDUCATION NATIONALE

No.....

Port-au-Prince, le 17 DEC 1986 19.....

Le Ministère de l'Education Nationale accueille avec intérêt le Projet d'Amélioration de l'Efficacité des Systèmes Educatifs qui dans le cadre de la Coopération Bilatérale a permis la réalisation de l'évaluation du secteur de l'Education et de ses ressources humaines. Il est important de signaler que ce travail représente la première évaluation de cette importance du secteur éducation. Une implantation réussie du Projet Educatif Haitien passe nécessairement par une évaluation et une meilleure utilisation de nos ressources natérielles et humaines.

En ce qui concerne cette première version de l'étude, il convient de faire état des contraintes du terrain dans la collecte des données et des limites de l'approche méthodologique initialement adoptée. Ces considérations ont porté le Ministère de l'Education Nationale à planifier avec les membres de la Florida State University une série de séances de travail au cours desquelles des recommandations importantes ont été faites en vue d'une plus grande participation des instances nationales à toutes les étapes de l'étude, laquelle sera reprise dans un avenir pas très lointain.

Les recommandations ont porté particulièrement sur l'implication directe et nécessaire de l'Université dans l'élaboration et la conduite de l'enquête dans la double perspective de promouvoir la recherche et de contribuer à la formation de nos cadres.

Le Ministère de l'Education Naitonale accorde une place de choix à la recherche pédagogique et à l'échange d'expériences professionnelles. Cette coopération permet une meilleure utilisation de l'assitance technique et contribue au renforcement des capacités d'intervention de nos services.

Le Ministère de l'Education Nationale saisit l'occasion pour signifier sa haute appréciation du travail accompli par les membres et représentants du Consortium d'Universités Américaines. Il leur renouvelle ainsi qu'à l'Agence Américaine pour l'Aide Internationale l'assurance de sa considération distinguée.

Rosny DESROCHES
Ministre
de l'Education Nationale de
la Jeunesse et des Sports

## English Translation
## of letter from the Minister of National Education

Port-au-Prince, 17 December 1986

The Ministry of Education welcomes with great interest the Improving the Efficiency of Educational Systems (IEES) Project which, in the framework of bilateral aid, provided the assistance necessary to conduct this assessment of the education and human resource system in Haiti. It is significant to note that this work represents the first educational evaluation of such magnitude ever undertaken in Haiti. To succeed in bringing to fruition a truly Haitian design for our educational system, careful evaluation and more efficient use of our human and material resources are both essential.

As concerns the studies that served as a basis for this first system-wide evaluation, one must take account of the constraints under which data collection had to take place and the limitations of the initial methodology. Such considerations motivated the Ministry of Education to organize with representatives of the IEES Consortium a series of joint working sessions during which key recommendations concerning greater participation of Haitian counterparts in all stages of future assessments were made. The evaluation will in fact be updated and revised in this manner in the near future.

The recommendations highlighted in particular the necessity of directly involving the University of Haiti in the conception and execution of the new assessment in order both to promote policy research and to contribute to the training of our own staff.

The Ministry of Education accords great importance to instructional research and to the exchange of professional experience. This sort of international cooperation ensures better utilization of technical assistance and helps to reinforce national institutional capacity.

The Ministry of Education wishes to take the opportunity to express its great appreciation for the work carried out by members and representatives of the IEES Consortium. The Ministry reaffirms its cordial regards for them and for the United States Agency for International Development.

Rosny DESROCHES
Minister
of National Education,
Youth, and Sports



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# Acknowledgements

The Improving the Efficiency of Educational Systems (IEES) Project gratefully acknowledges the contributions of the many individuals who generously gave their time and assistance to support the preparation of this Sector Assessment. In addition to the hard work and dedicated efforts of the entire field team, numerous persons in Haiti shared their experiences, information, and wisdom with the team members. These persons are listed in Annex I-B, and we thank each of them.

This assessment would not have been possible without the assistance and endorsement of Gerard Dorcely, the Minister of Education at the time of this study. The Minister himself, his entire Cabinet, officials of the Ministry of Education, and representatives from other ministries of Government met with team members on numerous occasions to help them in many ways. Also, we thank the many educators in the private sector who gave so willingly of their time and offered useful suggestions to the team.

IEES would like to additionally acknowledge and thank the following people, all of whom contributed significantly to producing this assessment:

# Remerciements

Le Projet AMESED (Amélioration de l'Efficacité des Systèmes Educatifs) tient à remercier tous ceux qui, de près ou de loin ont généreusement apporté leur concours à la préparation de cette évaluation sectorielle. En plus de l'important travail et des efforts dévoués de l'équipe chargée de l'évaluation, de nombreuses personnes en Haïti ont partagé leur expérience, leurs connaissances et les renseignements dont elles disposaient avec les membres de l'équipe. Les noms de ces personnes apparaîssent dans l'annexe I-B, qu'elles trouvent ici l'expression de notre profonde gratitude.

Cette évaluation n'aurait pas été possible sans l'assistance et l'appui du Ministre de l'Education, Mr. Gérard Dorcely, et du personel du Département de l'Education Nationale (DEN). Monsieur le Ministre, tous les membres de son Cabinet, de nombreux fonctionnaires du Département de l'Education, et des représentants d'autres ministères du gouvernement ont maintes fois accordé des entrevues aux membres de notre équipe pour les aider de diverses façons. Notre reconnaissance va également aux nombreux enseignants et responsables des écoles du secteur privé qui nous ont reçu et qui ont, à chaque fois, fait des suggestions fort utiles.

Le travail d'enquête, de rédaction et de production du document lui-même a été accompli grâce aux efforts inlassables du personnel technique dont les noms suivent. Nous les remercions tous de leur concours précieux:

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Education Advisor
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**Toni Benson**
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**Consuela Mers**
**Peggy Rogers**
**Josephe Victor**
**Nicole Victor**
**Lola Zook**

**Sector Assessment Field Team:**

**Milton Adams,**
Co-Team Leader, FSU
**Stephen Anzalone,** IIR
**Victor Cleutat,**
Co-Team Leader, IIR
**Peter Easton,** FSU
**Paul Emoungu,** Howard Univ.
**Benoit Millot,** Univ. of Dijon
**Mary Joy Pigozzi,** IIR
**Lela Vandenberg,** Michigan State University

**Human Resource Development Center (Port-au-Prince, Haiti):**

**Wilfrid Dazon,**
Translation Project Coodinator

**Learning Systems Institute at The Florida State University (LSI/FSU):**

**Ibrahima Bah**
**Roger Baptiste**
**Leigh Berdon**
**Aline Bory-Adams**
**Monica Duchnowski**
**Wanda Gandy**
**Alan Hoffman,**
Production Coordinator
**Rennie Kaczorowski**
**Karen Loewen**
**Dreama Purifoy**
**Sandra Steifox**
**Jean Van Dyke,**
Word Processing Director
**Margaret Vanos**

# Préface
(français)

Entre octobre et décembre 1984, une équipe de consultants mise à la disposition du Ministère de l'Education Nationale par l'Agence Américaine pour le Développement Internationale (USAID) a séjourné en Haïti pour mener une enquête sur la situation d'ensemble du système éducatif haïtien et en établir le bilan et le diagnostic. Ce travail a été entrepris dans le cadre du programme AMESED (Amélioration de l'Efficacité des Systèmes Educatifs), une initiative d'une durée de dix ans financée par l'USAID et sous l'égide de laquelle des études semblables ont été réalisées dans plusieurs autres pays en voie du développement.

Le document qui fut le fruit de ce travail a été soumis au Ministère de l'Education Nationale en août 1985 mais, en raison des évènements, n'a pu être revu et corrigé par le personnel du MEN qu'en avril 1986. Il paraît ici pour la première fois sous sa forme définitive. L'original du document a été rédigé en anglais. Une version abrégée en a ensuite été tirée et traduite en français aux Etats-Unis. Le document provisoire diffusé en août 1985 comportait donc un premier tome en anglais et un deuxième de moindre volume en français.

L'équipe AMESED a dû faire face à certaines difficultés qui ont quelque peu circonscrit la portée de son travail. Pour une série de raisons conjonctuelles, il n'a pas été possible de lui adjoindre un groupe d'homologues haïtiens pour partager le travail d'évaluation et d'analyse, quoique de nombreux responsables tant du secteur privé que du secteur public aient été consultés au cours de la mission. L'équipe AMESED s'est également heurtée à un manque général de renseignements sur la situation de l'enseignement privé qui, comme chacun le sait, constitue en Haïti un élément très important du système éducatif. Les auteurs des différents chapitres de ce volume ont tenté de pallier à cette carence en menant des enquêtes sur le terrain, mais le programme d'une mission de courte durée ne se prêtant guère à la collecte exhaustive des données, ils se sont vus obligés de laisser vide des pans entiers du tableau qu'ils dressaient.

Ceci nonobstant, la vue d'ensemble du système éducatif haïtien présentée dans les pages qui suivent peut constituer un apport à la planification de l'éducation en Haïti, et cela autant par sa méthodologie que par son contenu. D'une part, on y trouve rassemblé et synthétisé un ensemble de données quantitatives et qualitatives sur la situation de toutes les branches du système éducatif en fin 1984, présenté de manière à favoriser l'analyse des rapports entre l'éducation et le développement en Haïti. D'autre part, la méthodologie même de l'évaluation place les données ainsi rassemblées dans un contexte des plus pertinents pour le développement du système éducatif haïtien: celui de l'efficacité--à la fois *efficacité interne*, c'est à dire le rapport entre les ressources consacrées aux programmes éducatifs et les résultats pédagogiques obtenus, et *efficacité externe*, c'est à dire l'impact de l'éducation sur le devenir de l'enfant et sur le développement de la société toute entière.



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Une première version de ce document a fait l'objet d'une analyse attentive par des représentants du Ministère de l'Education Nationale et des autres institutions haïtiennes concernées entre le 10 et le 24 avril 1986. Au cours de cette période, une équipe composée de quatre consultants de l'AMESED qui avaient participé à l'étude initiale, s'est réunie à plusieurs reprises avec les responsables des différentes branches du système éducatif haïtien pour revoir et corriger le texte du document initial. Une première rencontre sous la présidence du Ministre de l'Education a eu lieu le 10 avril. Elle a été suivie par une série de séances de travail. Chaque séance portait sur un chapitre donné du document et regroupait un représentant de l'AMESED et un ou plusieurs responsables de la branche du système éducatif en question. Un bref résumé de chacune de ces séances figure en préface aux différents chapitres du texte qui suit. Une dernière séance plénière, tenue le 24 avril 1986, a permis de tirer les conclusions d'ensemble de cet exercice d'évaluation.

Hormis la correction d'un certain nombre d'erreurs dans la présentation statistique ou le développement historique des différents chapitres, les participants ont tenu à faire ressortir plusieurs points de portée plus générale:

- Etant donné le laps de temps qui s'était écoulé entre la réalisation de l'étude et l'examen du document au niveau du Ministère, bon nombre des données statistiques de base étaient devenues périmées. Plutôt que d'essayer de tout actualiser, les participants ont jugé mieux d'éditer le document tel qu'établi, avec les corrections de détail qui seraient nécessaires, et de prévoir la réalisation d'une nouvelle évaluation dans deux ans.

- Le format paraîssait inadéquat, le résumé en français ne représentant pas très fidèlement le texte anglais et comportant en plus un certain nombre d'erreurs de traduction. Pour l'édition définitive du document, il a été préconisé de reprendre le résumé en français et de faire alterner les textes dans les deux langues. Quant à l'approche à adopter à l'avenir, les participants estimaient que de futures évaluations devraient être rédigés directement en français, puis traduites en anglais au besoin.

- Enfin, de l'avis de tous, à l'avenir il serait hautement souhaitable de confier le travail en grande partie à une équipe de chercheurs haïtiens, tout en leur assurant la formation et l'assistance technique nécessaires pour mener le travail à bon terme.

Le travail de correction et de reprise du résumé français du document a été assuré conformément aux recommandations du Ministère, par les traducteurs du Centre de Développement des Ressources Humaines, sis Delmas 55 à Port-au-Prince. Le document a ensuite été divisé en quatre volumes, chacun regroupant plusieurs chapitres et chaque chapitre comportant le texte intégral en anglais précédé du résumé en français.

# Preface

(English)

From October to December 1984, a team of consultants engaged by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and supervised by the Ministry of Education of the Republic of Haiti devoted eight weeks to an assessment of the current state of the Haitian educational system and an evaluation of its priority needs. This work was carried out under the aegis of the Improving the Efficiency of Educational Systems (IEES) Project, a ten-year initiative financed by the Washington offices of USAID that has contributed to similar sector assessments in several other developing countries.

The study that resulted from this effort was submitted to the Ministry of Education in August 1985, but was not fully reviewed and corrected by Ministry personnel until April 1986 because of intervening events. It appears here for the first time in final form.

The original document was written in English. A summary version was then composed and translated into French in the United States. The draft document disseminated in August 1985 included therefore one volume in English and a second and considerably shorter one in French.

The IEES team had to deal with certain difficulties that limited somewhat the scope of its study. For a series of reasons, it was not possible to arrange for a full team of Haitian counterparts to share the work of evaluation and data analysis, though numerous educators from both the public sector and the private sector were consulted during the course of the assessment. The team also discovered a general lack of information about the current status of private education, which constitutes a major element of the Haitian educational system. The authors of the different chapters of this volume made an effort to compensate for this lack of information by carrying out some first-hand data collection in the field. The schedule of a two-month mission did not afford enough time to perform an extensive inventory of the situation, however, and they were consequently unable to fill in certain parts of the picture.

Despite these shortcomings, the overall view of the Haitian educational system presented in the pages to follow may constitute a very worthwhile contribution to the concerns of educational planning in Haiti, by virtue both of its content and of the methodology employed. The study assembles a mass of qualitative and quantitative information on the status of the different branches of the educational system in late 1984 and presents these data in a manner conducive to analysis of the relations between education and development in Haiti. Furthermore, the methodology used places this information in a context that seems particularly pertinent for the development of the Haitian educational system: namely, that of improving efficiency -- both internal efficiency, or the ratio of resources invested in educational programs to the instructional results obtained, and external efficiency, or the impact of the educational experience on the personal and job futures of the students and on the development of society as a whole.



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The draft version of this document was reviewed by representatives of the Ministry of Education and of other concerned Haitian institutions from April 10 to April 24, 1986. During this period, a team composed of four IEES consultants (themselves among the authors of the original assessment) met on several occasions with leaders of the different branches of the Haitian educational system in order to examine and critique the draft text. An inaugural meeting was held on April 10th under the presidency of the Minister of Education. It was followed by a series of work sessions, each one focusing on a single chapter of the assessment and grouping together one of the IEES consultants and one or more representatives of the subsector in question. A brief resume of the conduct and results of each meeting appears as a preface to each related chapter of the final four volume assessment. A final plenary session was held on April 24th to draw overall conslusions from the sector assessment review process.

Over and beyond necessary correction of a certain number of factual errors in the statistical or descriptive data presented in each chapter, participants in this final meeting felt it important to make the following general points about the assessment:

- Given the time that had elapsed between the conduct of the initial assessment and review of the resulting document by the Ministry, a good number of the statistical data used were no longer current. Rather than attempting to update all this information, participants in the meeting felt it preferable to publish the existing document with the necessary corrections of factual error and to devote principal energy to planning for conduct of an entirely new assessment within two years.

- The overall format of the current assessment was judged inadequate, since the French resume was not a very faithful condensation of the English original and included a certain number of translation errors. It was suggested that the French text be corrected and improved before final edition of the current assessment, and that the two versions be presented side by side in a single volume. As for future assessments, all felt that they should be drawn up directly in French, then translated into English as needed.

- Finally, it was generally agreed that every effort should be made in the future to entrust prime responsibility for conduct of such assessments to a team of Haitian educational researchers, while providing them with whatever additional training and technical assistance they might require.

The work of correcting the French resume was carried out, at the suggestion of the Ministry, by staff of the Human Resource Development Center, Delmas 55 in Port-au-Prince. The document was then divided into four volumes, each one containing several related chapters and each chapter including the full English text preceeded by the French summary.

# Résumé

## But

*L'évaluation du secteur de l'éducation et des ressources humaines en Haïti* présentée dans les pages qui suivent décrit l'état du système éducatif haïtien et analyse ses principaux besoins. A partir de cet examen, le document cherche à identifier des voies et moyens qui permettraient de mieux atteindre les objectifs primordiaux du gouvernement dans le domaine de l'éducation, ceci grâce à un usage plus efficace des ressources disponibles ou potentielles et à une coordination plus étroite entre le programme du Gouvernment et les activités des organismes donateurs d'aide. Le texte intégral de l'évaluation est réparti en 4 volumes.

## Principales recommandations

Les recommandations qui découlent de cette évaluation portent sur les cinq points suivants, énumérés par ordre d'importance :

- renforcer l'éducation de base,
- promouvoir le développement de nouvelles compétences techniques, génératrices de revenus,
- renforcer les capacités institutionnelles des organismes d'enseignement publics et privés déjà en place,
- effectuer des études pouvant servir de base à la planification de l'éducation, et
- promouvoir une coordination plus étroite parmi les donateurs.

## Contexte

Haïti est l'un des pays les plus défavorisés du monde : les trois-quarts de sa population de six millions d'habitants subsistent au-dessous du niveau de pauvreté absolue définie par la Banque Mondiale. A l'heure actuelle, les ressources humaines du pays représentent la meilleure base de croissance économique. Toutefois, ces ressources ne peuvent être pleinement mises en valeur que si d'importants ajustements sont effectués dans le système éducatif.

En effet, l'accès à l'éducation est sérieusement limité à tous les niveaux. En 1980 le taux d'alphabétisation n'était que de 23%. L'efficacité et la qualité de l'enseignement sont généralement faibles. En outre, le système éducatif haïtien est caractérisé par une très forte dépendance envers le secteur privé lequel compte 60% environ des élèves inscrits à l'école primaire et 80% de ceux inscrits à l'école secondaire. Une réforme de l'éducation a récemment été lancée pour tenter de remédier aux problèmes d'accès à l'école, de l'inefficacité du système éducatif et de la qualité médiocre de l'enseignement. Pour que cette réforme réussisse il faudrait, cependant que la participation des donateurs et du secteur privé s'intensifie. Dans l'ensemble, la participation des donateurs au financement de l'éducation est particulièrement faible en Haïti. Seulement 5,2% du montant de l'aide externe (environ 8,7 millions de dollars) a été consacrés à l'éducation en 1983.



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## Sources de renseignements

La présente évaluation a été préparée par une équipe de huit personnes qui a travaillé en Haïti pendant une période de huit semaines, entre octobre et décembre 1984. Au cours de cette période, les membres de l'équipe ont eu plus de 250 entretiens avec plusieurs catégories de personnes concernées par le développement du système éducatif haïtien : des fonctionnaires des ministères de l'Education Nationale, de la Santé Publique, du Plan, de l'Agriculture, et des Affaires Sociales ; des directeurs d'écoles primaires et secondaires publiques et privées en milieux urbain et rural ; des doyens de facultés et d'écoles normales ; et des responsables d'institutions d'enseignement technique et professionnel ainsi que des représentants de tous les principaux organismes donateurs. L'équipe a également consulté plus de 265 rapports et documents connexes.

## Présentation du rapport

L'évaluation se compose de quatorze chapitres et deux documents annexes qui portent sur les différentes branches du système éducatif haïtien. Les chapitres et annexes sont regroupés en quatre volumes comme suit :

- Le premier volume traite des problèmes de planification de l'ensemble du système et comprend trois chapitres. Le chapitre 1 comporte la synthèse du rapport tout entier, le chapitre 2 est consacré à l'analyse économique et fiscale de l'éducation en Haïti (examen des coûts, calcul des taux de rendement et analyse de l'offre et la demande de la main-d'oeuvre), tandis que le chapitre 3 est centré sur la question de la coordination des donateurs.

- Le second volume porte sur l'enseignement fondamental et comprend deux chapitres et deux annexes. Le chapitre 4 est consacré à la situation de l'éducation préscolaire en Haïti, le chapitre 5 à l'enseignement primaire, et les annexes A et B traitent respectivement des systèmes d'élaboration et de distribution des manuels scolaires et de l'organisation des programmes de nutrition scolaire.

- Le troisième volume regroupe trois chapitres qui touchent à l'enseignement secondaire et supérieur : le chapitre 6 est consacré à l'enseignement secondaire classique, le chapitre 7 à la formation des enseignants et le chapitre 8 à l'enseignement supérieur.

- Le quatrième volume traite de trois autres types de formation dispensés en Haïti : le chapitre 9 présente une analyse des programmes de formation en matière de gestion, alors que le chapitre 10 est consacré à la formation technique et professionnelle. Le chapitre 11 analyse le secteur de l'éducation non formelle.

Tous les chapitres traitant d'une branche particulière du système éducatif tel l'enseignement primaire ou l'enseignement secondaire, suivent le même cheminement analytique. La première partie du chapitre est consacré à un examen de l'évolution historique de la branche du système éducatif en question ainsi qu'à la présentation des objectifs qui lui ont été fixés dans le cadre du développement national. Ensuite la situation actuelle du sous-système est analysée à travers un certain nombre d'indicateurs de performance. Une fois ce protrait établi, l'ensemble des données ainsi rassemblées est évalué à partir de cinq critères de performance pour apprécier le niveau de fonctionnement du système à l'heure actuelle. Ces

critères sont : l'efficacité interne, l'efficacité externe, le degré d'équité et d'accès à la formation, l'administration et la gestion des programmes, et leurs coûts et financement. L'évaluation des progrès réalisés dans chacun de ces domaines tient compte en même temps des contraintes qui pèsent sur le fonctionnement du système et de ses besoins les plus pressants. Enfin, des conclusions et des recommandations sont formulées dans le but d'identifier les moyens à mettre en oeuvre pour améliorer la qualité et la quantité des résultats pédagogiques, pour renforcer l'efficacité du système et pour orienter les investissements futurs vers des directions particulièrement productives.

## Politique générale

L'analyse de l'ensemble des résultats de l'évaluation a permis d'identifier cinq problèmes d'orientation générale auxquels le gouvernement haïtien doit faire face en matière d'éducation:

1. Il est essentiel d'améliorer l'efficacité et la qualité des divers programmes d'éducation et de formation et—dans la mesure du possible—de les étendre aux couches de la population qui n'en ont pas encore bénéficié. Cependant, étant donné la capacité financière et institutionnelle actuelle du gouvernement, un remaniement structurel profond, ainsi qu'une aide supplémentaire des donateurs d'une part et du secteur privé de l'autre, s'avèrent nécessaires.

2. Les programmes d'éducation et de développement des ressources humaines sont particulièrement difficiles à coordonner à cause du rôle prépondérant qu'y joue le secteur privé. Il est néanmoins important de réaliser une telle coordination pour pouvoir étendre la réforme de l'éducation aux nombreuses écoles primaires et secondaires privées qui n'y participent pas encore.

3. Il ne peut y avoir de véritable développement économique sans un programme efficace de développement de nouvelles compétences productrices de revenus, surtout dans les régions rurales défavorisées.

4. Le manque de données fiables sur la situation des écoles et des programmes rend le contrôle, l'évaluation et la planification des interventions éducatives particulièrement difficiles.

5. Le gouvernement ne dispose, pour le moment, d'aucun système de coordination des multiples interventions des donateurs et du secteur privé dans le domaine de l'éducation.

## Qualité des programmes

Huit questions d'importance relative à la qualité et à la pertinence des programmes d'éducation sont examinées dans le chapitre de synthèse. Ces questions concernent la définition de la politique générale de l'éducation, le développement de nouvelles capacités institutionnelles, le développement de compétences en matière de planification et de gestion, le rôle du secteur privé, l'utilisation des ressources matérielles et financières, la coordination des activités des donateurs, la collecte des données nécessaires à la planification et la langue d'enseignement.



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## Recommandations générales

Le chapitre de synthèse présente cinq recommandations et une série de quatorze activités qui devraient permettre de mettre celles-ci en pratique. Ces recommandations concernent essentiellement les trois points suivants :

1. **Contribuer au développement socio-économique à l'échelle nationale.**

   - Renforcer l'éducation de base.
   - Développer de nouvelles compétences productrices de revenus au moyen d'activités d'éducation non formelle et de programmes d'enseignement technique et professionnel à orientation bien spécifique.
   - Améliorer la coordination des activités des donateurs.

2. **Développer les capacités humaines et institutionnelles des structures responsables de l'organisation du système éducatif.**

   - Renforcer la capacité des institutions publiques et privées déjà existantes.
   - Elaborer des programmes de formation et de perfectionnement de cadres administratifs et de gestionnaires du système éducatif.

3. **Faire meilleur usage des ressources existantes.**

   - Augmenter la disponibilité du matériel didactique.
   - Améliorer et étendre les programmes de nutrition pré-scolaire et primaire.
   - Reprendre et améliorer les programmes de recyclage des instituteurs des écoles primaires publiques et privées.
   - Effectuer des enquêtes et des études pour servir de base à une planification plus rationnelle du système éducatif. Ces études devront porter en priorité sur :
     - l'offre et la demande de main-d'oeuvre,
     - la mise en place de systèmes de collecte des informations pour permettre une meilleure gestion du système éducatif,
     - la méthodologie des programmes d'éducation non formelle qui ont connu le plus de succès en Haïti,
     - la recherche de méthodes d'utilisation de la radio comme appui à l'enseignement dans une variété de contextes, et
     - l'examen de systèmes alternatifs d'enseignement au niveau de l'école primaire.

Un répertoire des sigles et acronymes utilisés dans le texte des différentes chapitres est présenté dans les pages qui suivent. La liste des personnes contactées par l'équipe d'évaluation et la bibliographie des ouvrages consultés figurent en annexe du Volume I (appendices A et B).

# Executive Summary

## Purpose

The *Haiti Education and Human Resources Sector Assessment* describes the current status and needs of the Haitian education and human resources system. On the basis of this analysis, it seeks to identify ways to more effectively focus available and anticipated resources on achieving the Government's underlying objectives, and to encourage closer coordination between Government and the international donor community. The full sector assessment is presented in four volumes.

## Overview of Recommendations

Recommendations based on this assessment address the following five broad objectives, listed by order of importance:

- Strengthening basic education.
- Improving income-producing skills.
- Reinforcing existing public and private educational institutions.
- Conducting planning studies and surveys.
- Improving donor coordination.

## Background

Haiti is one of the poorest countries in the world. Three-fourths of its population of six million live below the level of absolute poverty defined by the World Bank. Human resources constitute the most promising foundation for economic growth in the country. These resources cannot be developed, however, unless major adjustments are made within the present education system.

Educational opportunities are seriously limited at all levels. The literacy rate was only 23 percent in 1980. Access, efficiency, and quality are low at all levels of education. There is a heavy dependence on the private sector, with about 60 percent of primary students and 80 percent of secondary students in private schools. An Education Reform has recently been initiated to address problems of restricted access, low efficiency, and poor quality. The Reform needs increased donor and private sector support, however, if it is to succeed. Donor assistance is particularly low in the education sector. Only 5.2 percent (about $8.7 million) of total external assistance to Haiti was devoted to education in 1983.

## Sources

The assessment was prepared by an eight-person team which worked in Haiti for eight weeks ending in December of 1984. More than 250 interviews were conducted with officials from: the Ministries of Education, Health, Planning, Agriculture, and Social Affairs; public and private primary and secondary schools in urban and rural areas; universities and teacher training institutions; vocational and technical training schools; and all major donors. Over 265 reports and related documents were reviewed.



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## Report Organization

The assessment is composed of fourteen chapters and two substantive annexes that deal with different branches of the Haitian educational system. It is divided into four volumes as follows:

- Volume I deals with overall educational planning issues and contains three chapters: Chapter One is a synthesis of the conclusions of the entire report. Chapter Two presents an economic and fiscal analysis of the Haitian educational system, including data on costs, rates of return, and manpower supply and demand. Chapter Three concerns donor coordination.

- Volume II focuses on the basic levels of the formal educational system and contains two chapters and two annexes. Chapter Four analyzes the current situation of preprimary education in Haiti, and Chapter Five examines the status of primary education. Annex A to Volume II is devoted to the issue of school textbooks, whereas Annex B deals with school feeding programs.

- Volume III concerns secondary and higher education and contains three chapters. Chapter Six deals with classical secondary education. Chapter Seven deals with teacher training. Chapter Eight presents the situation of higher education and university training.

- Volume IV examines three other branches of the Haitian educational system. Chapter Nine focuses on management training, Chapter Ten on vocational-technical education, and Chapter Eleven on nonformal education.

All chapters that deal with particular branches of the Haitian educational system follow a similar pattern of analysis. First, the present status of the branch of education in question is examined, including consideration of historical background current plans and objectives, and various indicators of system performance. Next, this data is analyzed from the point of view of five criteria of system operation: internal efficiency, external efficiency, degree of equity and access, management and supervision, and costs and financing. Progress made in each of these categories is evaluated within the framework of the major constraints under which the system operates and its most pressing needs. Finally, conclusions are drawn and a series of recommendations are made concerning ways to improve the quality and quantity of educational outcomes, to achieve greater system efficiency and to orient future investment in the most productive directions.

## Policy Issues

An analysis of the results of all chapters of the assessment leads to identification of five global policy issues that presently confront Government:

- Education and human resources programs must be improved, expanded, and sustained, but the present institutional and economic capacity of Government cannot support the required activities without significant restructuring and additional assistance from donors and the private sector.

- Coordination of education and human resources activities is especially difficult because of the dominant role of the private sector. This coordination is critically important, particularly for extending the current Education Reform to the many private sector primary and secondary schools.

- Economic growth will not take place without an effective program for developing income-producing skills, especially in the poor rural areas.

- Program planning and monitoring for all subsectors of education is severely restricted by a lack of reliable and current information on status, supply, and demand.

- No plan exists for Government to coordinate the numerous donor and private sector activities in the realm of education in order to focus them on the attainment of national development goals.

## Quality and Relevance Issues

Eight issues of educational development are extensively discussed in the assessment: policy reform, institutional capacity, planning and management capacity, the role of the private sector, resource utilization, donor coordination, information for planning, and the language of instruction.

## Overall Recommendations

Five recommendations and a supporting group of 14 activities are set forth in the synthesis chapter. These recommendations can be grouped under three primary areas of focus.

1. **Contributing to national social and economic development.**

   - Strengthening basic education.
   - Improving income-producing skills through public and private nonformal education programs and targeted programs of vocational and technical education.
   - Improving coordination of donor activities.

2. **Building capacity within the education and human resources sector.**

   - Strengthening existing public and private sector educational institutions.
   - Developing a targeted training program for institutional development.

3. **Making more efficient use of existing resources.**

   - Increasing the availability of instructional materials.
   - Improving and extending the preprimary and primary school feeding programs.
   - Improving inservice training for public and private primary school teachers.
   - Conducting basic planning surveys (manpower supply and demand survey, educational management information system plan, study of successful nonformal education programs, exploration of possible uses of educational radio, examination of alternative primary-level instructional systems).

A glossary of acronyms used in this assessment follows this executive summary. The list of persons contacted and the bibliography of documents consulted in the course of the assessment are included as Appendices A and B to Volume I.



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# Acronyms

# Sigles

| | English | Français |
|---|---|---|
| **ACDI** | Canadian International Development Agency (See CIDA) | Agence Canadienne de Développement International |
| **ADIH** | Association of Haiti Industries | Association des Industries d'Haïti |
| **AMG** | Global Missionary Action | Action Missionnaire Globale |
| **AUPELF** | Association of French-Speaking Universities | Association des Universites Partiellement ou Entièrement de Langue Francaise |
| **BID** | Inter-American Development Bank (IDB) | Banque Interaméricaine de Développement |
| **BIRD** | International Bank for Reconstruction and Development/The World Bank (IBRD) | Banque Internationale pour la Reconstruction et le Développement/ La Banque Mondiale |
| **CAC** | Community Action Council | Conseil d'Action Communautaire |
| **CAF** | Resources Training Center | Centre d'Appui aux Formations |
| **CAP** | - | Certificat d'Aptitude Pédagogique |
| **CAPES** | - | Certificat d'Aptitude Pédagogique d'Enseignement Secondaire |
| **CARE** | Concerned Americans for Relief Everywhere | - |
| **CENA** | National Episcopal Literacy Council | Conseil Episcopal National d'Alphabétisation |
| **CEP** | Primary Education Certificate | Certificat d'Etudes Primaires |
| **CES** | Center for Special Education | Centre d'Education Spéciale |
| **CFA** | Rural Training Center | Centres de Formation Agricole et Artisanale |
| **CFPH** | Haitian Professional Training Center | Centre de Formation Professionelle d'Haïti |
| **CFT** | Technical Training Center | Centre de Formation Technique |
| **CHF** | Cooperative Housing Foundation | - |
| **CHISS** | Haitian Center for Studies in Human | Centre Haïtien d'Investigations en Sciences Humaines |
| **CIDA** | Canadian International Development Agency (See ACDI) | Agence Canadienne de Développement International |
| **CINEC** | Community Integrated Nutrition and Education Center | Centre Intégré de Nutrition et d'Education Communautaire |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| **CLAP** | Center of Applied Linguistics | Centre de Linguistique Appliquée |
| **CMA** | Auto Mechanics Center | Centre Mécanique Auto |
| **CMPP** | Model Center for Professional Improvement | Centre Modèle de Perfectionnement Professionnel |
| **CNC** | National Council of Cooperatives | Conseil National de Coopératives |
| **CODEPLA** | Development Planning Committee (Council of Evangelical Churches of Haiti) | Comité de Développement de Planification (Conseil des Eglises Evangéliques d'Haïti) |
| **CODEVA** | Commission for the Development of Artibonite Valley | Commission pour le Développement de la Vallée de l'Artibonite |
| **COHAN** | Haitian-Netherlands Cooperation | Coopération Haïtiano-Néerlandaise |
| **CPF** | Polyvalent Training Center | Centre Polyvalent de Formation |
| **CPFP** | Pilot Center for Professional Training | Centre Pilote de Formation Professionnelle |
| **CPR** | Regional Pedagogical Center | Centre Pédagogique Régional |
| **CRS** | Catholic Relief Services | - |
| **CS** | Satellite Training Center | Centre satellite |
| **CWS** | Church World Services | - |
| **DARNDR** | Ministry of Agriculture, Natural Resources, and Rural Development | Département de l'Agriculture, des Ressources Naturelles et du Développement Rural |
| **DDR** | Division of Rural Development | Division du Développement Rural |
| **DEN** | Ministry of Education | Département de l'Education Nationale |
| **DESE** | Division of Health Education and Training | Division d'Education Sanitaire et d'Entraînement |
| **DETP** | Directorate of Technical and Professional Education | Direction de l'Enseignement Technique et Professionnel |
| **DFC** | Development Finance Corporation | - |
| **DHF** | Division of Family Hygiene | Division d'Hygiene Familiale |
| **DSPP** | Ministry of Public Health and Population | Département de la Santé Publique et de la Population |
| **EASPNH** | Expansion and Improvement of Primary and Teacher Education in Haiti | Expansion et Amélioration du Système d'Enseignement Primaire et Normal en Haïti |
| **EDH** | Electricity of Haiti | Electricité d'Haïti |
| **EF** | Basic Education | Education Fondamentale |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| **EMAV** | Middle School of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine | Ecole Moyenne d'Agriculture et de Médecine Vétérinaire |
| **EMTG** | Middle School of Geology | Ecole Moyenne de Techniciens de Géologie |
| **EN** | Normal School (Primary Teacher Training College) | Ecole Normale |
| **ENI** | Normal Training Schools | Ecoles Normales d'Institutrices |
| **ENS** | Superior Normal School (Secondary Teacher Training School) | Ecole Normale Supérieure |
| **FAC** | French Assistance and Cooperation | Fonds d'Aide et de Coopération |
| **FAMV** | College of Agronomy and Veterinary Medicine | Faculté d'Agronomie et de Médecine Vétérinaire |
| **FAO** | Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations | Organisation des Nations Unies pour l'Alimentation et l'Agriculture |
| **FDI** | Industrial Development Fund | Fonds de Développement Industriel |
| **FHD** | Haitian Development Fund | Fondation Haïtienne du Développement |
| **FIC** | Christian Brothers | Frères d'Instruction Chrétienne |
| **FIU** | Florida International University | - |
| **FMI** | International Monetary Fund (IMF) | Fonds Monétaire International |
| **FNS** | National Federation of Labor Unions | Fédération Nationale des Syndicats |
| **FONDEV** | Haitian-German Development Fund | Fonds Haïtiano-Allemand pour le Développement |
| **FPP** | Foster Parent Program | - |
| **FRG** | Federal Republic of Germany | - |
| **GAC** | Community Action Groups | Groupements d'Action Communautaires |
| **GDP** | Gross Domestic Product | - |
| **GNP** | Gross National Product | - |
| **GPA** | Grade Point Average | - |
| **GPP** | Pilot Project Group | Groupement Projet Pilote |
| **GREAL** | Literacy Research and Experimentation Group | Groupe de Recherche et d'Expérimentation en Alphabétisation |
| **HAMCHAM** | Haitian-American Chamber of Commerce | - |
| **HAVA** | Haitian Association of Voluntary Agencies | - |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| **HDF** | Haitian Development Foundation | |
| **HIET** | Haitian Institute of Electronic Technology | |
| **IBRD** | International Bank for Reconstruction and Development/The World Bank (See BIRD) | Banque Internationale pour la Reconstruction et le Développement/ La Banque Mondiale |
| **ICC** | International Child Care | - |
| **ICTA** | Christian Institution for Technology | Institution Chrétienne de Technologie et d'Agriculture |
| **IDA** | International Development Association | Association internationale de Développement |
| **IDB** | Inter-American Development Bank (See BID) | Banque Interaméricaine de Développement |
| **IDEA** | Diocesan Institute of Adult Education | Institut Diocésan d'Education des Adultes |
| **IEES** | Improving the Efficiency of Educational Systems | - |
| **IHS** | Haitian Institute of Statistics | Institut Haïtien de Statistiques et d'Informatique |
| **IICA** | Inter-American Institute for the Commercialization of Agriculture | Institut Interaméricain pour le Commercialisation Agricole |
| **ILO** | International Labor Organization (See OIT) | Organisation Internationale du Travail |
| **IMF** | International Monetary Fund (See FMI) | Fonds Monétaire International |
| **INAGHEI** | National Institute for Administration, Management, and Higher International Studies | Institut National d'Administration, de Gestion et des Hautes Etudes Internationales |
| **INHCA** | Haitian National Institute of Arts and Culture | Institut National Haïtien de la Culture et des Arts |
| **INFP** | National Institute of Professional Training | Institut National de Formation Professionnelle |
| **IPN** | National Pedagogical Institute | Institut Pédagogique National |
| **IUH** | International University of Haiti | Centre Universitaire d'Haïti |
| **LASPAU** | Latin American Scholarship Program | - |
| **MBCH** | Baptist Mission of Haiti | Mission Baptiste Conservatrice d'Haïti |
| **MCC** | Mennonite Central Committee | - |
| **MPC** | Management and Productivity Center | - |
| **MPF** | French Pedagogical Mission | Mission Pédagogique Française |



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|---|---|---|
| NACRAO | National Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admission Officers | |
| NAFSA | National Association for Foreign Student Affairs | |
| NFE | Nonformal Education | Education Non-Formelle |
| NGO | Nongovernmental Organiza tion (See ONG) | Organisme non-gouvernemental |
| OAS | Organization of American States (See OEA) | Organisation des Etats Américains |
| ODN | Development Organization of the North | Organisme de Développement du Nord |
| ODNO | Development Organization of the North-West | Organisme de Développement du Nord-Ouest |
| ODVA | Development Organization of Artibonite Valley | Organisme de Développement de la Vallee de l'Artibonite |
| OEA | Organization of American States (OAS) | Organisation des Etats Américains |
| OIT | International Labor Organization (ILO) | Organisation Internationale du Travail |
| OMS | World Health Organization (WHO) | Organisation Mondiale de la Santé |
| ONAAC | National Organization for Literacy and Community Action | Office National d'Alphabétisation et d'Action Communautaire |
| ONART | National Office of Artisanry | Office National de l'Artisanat |
| ONEC | National Office of Community Education | Office National de l'Education Communautaire |
| ONG | Nongovernmental Organization (NGO) | Organisme non-gouvernemental |
| ONTRP | National Office of Tourism and Public Relations | Office National du Tourisme et des Relations Publiques |
| ORT | Oral Rehydration Therapy | - |
| PADF | Pan American Development Foundation | - |
| PAHO | Pan-American Health Organization | - |
| PAM | World Food Program (WFP) | Programme d'Alimentation Mondiale |
| PNUD | United Nations Development Program (UNDP) | Programme des Nations Unies pour le Développement |
| PVO | Private Voluntary Organization | - |
| RHDS | Rural Health Delivery System | - |
| SAWS | Seventh Day Adventist World Service | - |
| SCCT | Cooperation and Technical Service | Service de la Coopération Technique |



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|---|---|---|
| **SDR** | Special Drawing Rights | - |
| **SNEM** | National Service of Major Diseases | Service National des Endémies Majeures |
| **SNFP** | National System of Professional Training | Système National de Formation Professionnelle |
| **SYG** | Student years per graduate | - |
| **TBA** | Traditional Birth Attendant | - |
| **TELECO** | Telecommunications of Haiti | Télécommunications d'Haïti |
| **UNDP** | United Nations Development Program (See PNUD) | Programme des Nations Unies pour le Développement |
| **Unesco** | United Nations Education, Science, and Culture Organization | Organisation des Nations Unies pour le Science, l'Education et la Culture |
| **UNFPA** | United Nations Fund for Population Activities | Fond des Nations Unies pour les Activités en Matière de Population |
| **UNICA** | Association of Caribbean Universities and Research Institutes | - |
| **UNICEF** | United Nations Children's Fund | Fonds des Nations Unies pour l'Enfance |
| **UPMDI** | Materials Production and Printing Unit | Unité de Production de Matériel Didactique et d'Impression |
| **URHC** | Roi Henri Christophe University | Université Roi Henry Christophe |
| **USAID** | U.S. Agency for International Development | - |
| **WFP** | World Food Program (See PAM) | Programme d'Alimentation Mondiale |
| **WHO** | World Health Organization (see OMS) | Organisation Mondiale de la Sante |
| **WVI** | World Vision International | Vision Sur le Monde |

*Chapitre*

# 1

Chapter

*Synthèse*

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Synthesis

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EVALUATION DU SECTEUR DE L'EDUCATION ET DES RESSOURCES HUMAINES D'HAITI

## 1.0 SYNTHESE

L'évaluation du secteur de l'éducation et des ressources humaines présentée dans les chapitres qui suivent décrit la situation du système éducatif haïtien et en analyse les principaux besoins. L'objectif primordial consiste à identifier, dans le cadre des buts que le gouvernement s'est fixé dans ce secteur, des méthodes qui permettraient l'utilisation plus efficace des capacités et des ressources, tant présentes que futures du pays.

Les interventions qui s'imposent d'urgence pour atteindre ces buts font l'objet de recommandations. Celles-ci soulignent la nécessité de renforcer l'éducation de base et de promouvoir le développement de nouvelles compétences génératrices de revenu, en développant parallèlement la capacité institutionnelle et individuelle en matière d'analyse, de planification et de gestion nécessaire pour assurer une meilleure utilisation des ressources. Les recommandations formulées aux différents niveaux de cette étude tiennent compte également de l'objectif secondaire de l'évaluation du secteur : à savoir, encourager une coordination encore plus étroite entre le gouvernement et la communauté internationale des donateurs, en vue d'une utilisation plus efficace des ressources tant nationales qu'étrangères dans ce secteur.

Les recommandations font ressortir les impératifs suivants, énoncés par ordre d'importance :

- renforcer l'éducation de base,
- promouvoir le développement de nouvelles compétences techniques génératrices de revenu,
- renforcer les capacités institutionnelles des organismes d'enseignement publics et privés déjà en place,
- effectuer des études pouvant servir de base à une meilleure planification de l'éducation,
- promouvoir une coordination plus étroite parmi les donateurs.

Cette évaluation sectorielle repose sur une hypothèse fondamentale-- à savoir qu'il est essentiel à la fois d'augmenter les investissements dans le domaine de l'éducation et d'orienter ces investissements de façon très judicieuse pour favoriser le développement socio-économique du pays. Il est supposé en outre que la valeur réelle des ressources nationales disponibles pour des investissements en matière d'éducation n'augmentera pas de façon massive dans un avenir prévisible. Aussi est-il indispensable d'utiliser les ressources déjà disponibles de la façon la plus efficace.

La présente évaluation a été effectuée par une équipe de huit consultants qui ont passé deux mois en Haïti en fin 1984. Cette équipe a mené plus de 250 entretiens avec des fonctionnaires et des éducateurs au sein des organismes suivants : ministères de l'Education Nationale, de la Santé Publique, du Plan, des Affaires Sociales et de l'Agriculture, écoles primaires et secondaires publiques et privées en milieu urbain et en milieu rural, universités, écoles normales et écoles de formation professionnelle et technique. Des entretiens ont également eu lieu avec les représentants d'agences bénévoles privées et de tous les principaux donateurs. Des enquêtes ont été menées au sein d'un échantillon de 13 écoles primaires, cinq écoles secondaires et quatre écoles professionnelles et techniques, relevant des secteurs publics et privés. Plus de 200 rapports et documents connexes ont été étudiés.

Les divers chapitres de l'évaluation dont nous présentons ici la synthèse, sont regroupés en quatre volumes. Le premier volume traite des problèmes de planification de l'ensemble du système éducatif haïtien et comprend, en plus de cette synthèse, un chapitre sur l'analyse économique et fiscale du système éducatif (Chapitre 2) et un autre sur la coordination des donateurs (Chapitre 3). Le second volume traite de l'enseignement fondamental et comprend deux chapitres plus deux annexes : le Chapitre 4 est consacré à l'éducation préscolaire, le Chapitre 5 à l'enseignement primaire, et les Annexes IIA et IIB traitent respectivement de l'élaboration des manuels didactiques et des programmes de nutrition scolaire. Le troisième volume regroupe trois chapitres qui touchent à l'enseignement secondaire et supérieur : le Chapitre 6 est consacré à l'enseignement secondaire classique, le Chapitre 7 à la formation des enseignants et le Chapitre 8 à l'enseignement supérieur et universitaire. Le quatrième volume traite de trois autres types de formation dispensés en Haïti : le Chapitre 9 présente une analyse des programmes de formation en matière de gestion, alors que le Chapitre 10 est consacré à la formation technique et professionnelle et le Chapitre 11 à l'éducation nonformelle.

Chacun des chapitres présente une analyse de la situation, du potentiel et des contraintes qui sont propres à la branche du système éducatif en question et présente une série de conclusions et de recommandations. L'objet du présent chapitre de synthèse est triple : identifier les questions de politique générale qui concernent l'ensemble des sous-secteurs, clarifier les problèmes, contraintes et besoins constatés au niveau du système d'ensemble, et formuler des recommandations en matière de planification et d'orientation générale susceptibles de favoriser une utilisation plus efficace des ressources disponibles.

L'analyse des données contenues dans l'ensemble des chapitres met en évidence cinq questions d'orientation générale auxquelles le gouvernement doit faire face dans ce secteur, à savoir :

1. Les programmes d'éducation et de développement des ressources humaines doivent être améliorés, développés, et mieux soutenus pour assurer la croissance socio-économique du pays. Cependant, étant donnés ses priorités actuelles, l'Etat n'a pa la capacité institutionnelle et financière pour entreprendre les activités nécessaires et ne pourra le faire sans un remaniement structurel important et sans une aide supplémentaire des donateurs et du secteur privé.
2. La coordination des activités d'éducation et de formation est d'autant plus difficile à réaliser en Haïti qu'une grande partie du système est entre les mains du secteur privé. Cette situation a une incidence particulièrement critique sur la mise en oeuvre de la Réforme. En plus des difficultés propres à tout effort pour introduire des changements conceptuels et structurels au sein d'un système qui fonctionne déjà, les promoteurs de la Réforme sont obligés de faire face aux problèmes de vulgarisation de ces nouvelles méthodes à travers un secteur privé majoritaire et souvent sceptique. Cet effort est compliqué davantage par les controverses qui entourent encore la question du choix de la langue d'enseignement.
3. Il ne peut y avoir de croissance économique, surtout dans les régions rurales défavorisées, sans un programme efficace visant le développement de nouvelles activités génératrices de revenu. Ce programme doit atteindre les régions reculées et doit être basé sur une bonne connaissance des vrais besoins en main-d'oeuvre de ces zones et des possibilités de création d'emplois.
4. La planification et le contrôle des activités de formation dans tous les sous-secteurs du système éducatif est entravé par une pénurie de données fiables sur la situation actuelle des programmes et sur l'offre et la demande.
5. Il n'y a pas de système permettant au gouvernement de coordonner les multiples activités entreprises par les donateurs et le secteur privé dans le domaine de l'éducation ni d'orienter ces activités vers des objectifs de développement à portée nationale. Une meilleure coordination de ces diverses activités assurerait en même temps une meilleure efficacité de l'aide.

## 1.1 SITUATION ACTUELLE

Haïti figure actuellement parmi les pays les plus pauvres du monde : les trois-quarts de sa population (six millions d'habitants) sont au-dessous du niveau de pauvreté absolue. La richesse est très inégalement répartie. La dégradation de l'environnement naturel se manifeste en particulier par une grave érosion des sols et un déboisement considérable. Les ressources naturelles sont maigres. La pression démographique qui s'exerce sur des terres arables dont la superficie va décroissant, limite les possibilités d'expansion des activités agricoles dont dépendent la plupart des paysans pour assurer leur subsistance. La malnutrition, avec ses multiples effets dévastateurs, surtout chez les enfants de moins de cinq ans, a atteint un taux considéré parmi les plus élevés du monde. Les ressources humaines sont très faibles et le resteront tant que le système d'éducation actuel ne bénéficiera pas d'importantes améliorations. Les ressources dont dispose l'Etat ne sont pas encore suffisantes pour relever ces défis.

Les anciens esclaves haïtiens ont conquis leur indépendance en 1804, mais la classe paysanne qui s'est formée depuis lors n'a pratiquement pas eu d'influence sur le gouvernement dans l'histoire récente du pays. Les pauvres des régions rurales consacrent la majeure partie de leur temps et de leur énergie à subsister au jour le jour. L'accès à l'éducation a toujours été sérieusement limité, sauf pour une élite nantie et puissante de la région de Port-au-Prince.

Le taux national d'alphabétisation était, en 1980, d'environ 23% et il est notoirement bien plus faible dans les régions rurales. La qualité et l'efficacité de l'enseignement primaire et secondaire sont faibles dans l'ensemble. La présence dans le domaine de l'éducation d'un secteur privé relativement bien développé et capable dans certains cas de répondre aux besoins que le gouvernement ne satisfait pas, offre des possibilités notables d'amélioration du système. Par exemple, près de 60% de l'ensemble des élèves du primaire se trouvent dans le secteur privé, qui réunit à la fois les meilleurs et les pires établissements du système scolaire.

Le gouvernement a récemment lancé une réforme de l'enseignement pour remédier aux problèmes que posent la faiblesse des effectifs, le manque d'efficacité et la médiocrité de la qualité de l'enseignement. La présente évaluation sectorielle conclut qu'il est important d'appuyer cette Réforme si l'on tient à améliorer le système éducatif. Moins de la moitié des enfants de six à douze ans sont actuellement scolarisés. L'enseignement primaire est si peu efficace que l'on trouve la moitié environ des élèves dans les deux premières années, en raison des taux élevés de redoublement et d'abandon. La

majorité des enseignants ne sont pas qualifiés ; ceux qui le sont ne sont pas suffisamment préparés. Les possibilités de formation de nouveaux enseignants ou de recyclage des maîtres en poste sont très insuffisantes.

L'enseignement secondaire public est encore plus minoritaire, des élèves du secondaire étants inscrits à des établissements privés. Si la tendance actuelle se poursuit, 90% de l'ensemble des élèves du secondaire relèveront du secteur privé d'ici à 1990. Les programmes du secondaire doivent être révisés pour les adapter à la Réforme, qui prolonge la durée du cycle primaire de six à dix ans.

L'enseignement professionnel et technique (à l'exception de la formation de secrétaires et d'employés de bureau) est peu développé tant dans le secteur public que dans le secteur privé. Des programmes plus pertinents orientés vers la recherche de possibilités d'embauche et de création d'emplois sont nécessaires. Les possibilités de formation et d'acquisition d'expérience dans le domaine de la gestion sont fort restreintes et l'unique établissement gouvernemental existant dans ce sous-secteur n'est pas en mesure de satisfaire les besoins actuels. Quant à l'éducation non formelle, des faiblesses institutionelles notoires nuisent à l'efficacité des programmes réalisés par le secteur public. Les programmes d'éducation non formelle des institutions bénévoles privées semblent pour la plupart plus efficaces que ceux du secteur public.

Cet aperçu de l'état de développement des ressources humaines en Haïti, vu dans son contexte socio-économique, permet de mesurer toute l'importance du défi que représente l'amélioration du système éducatif haïtien. Une approche fragmentée du problème ne suffira pas à relever ce défi. De telles tactiques sont souvent employées par des gouvernements soucieux de répondre à la pression d'un public qui exige des résultats rapides ainsi que par des organismes d'aide préoccupés par leurs propres priorités et intérêts sectoriels. Cependant, elles ne permettent pas la coordination des interventions qui est absolumment nécessaire si l'on veut tirer le meilleur parti du potentiel éducatif du pays et utiliser ses ressources de manière efficace.

L'aide des donateurs au secteur éducatif est relativement faible. En 1983, par exemple, les 8,7 millions de dollars consacrés à l'éducation par les donateurs représentaient seulement 5,2% du montant de l'aide extérieure. Les organismes d'aide multilatéraux tendent à financer des activités qui s'inscrivent dans le cadre de la Réforme de l'Education et les donateurs bilatéraux concentrent leur intervention sur l'enseignement supérieur et les bourses d'études à l'étranger, tandis que les organisations non

gouvernementales oeuvrent plutôt en faveur de l'enseignement préscolaire et primaire, de l'éducation des adultes et du développement rural.

Parmi les programmes importants qui bénéficient d'une asisstance au niveau préscolaire, il y a lieu de citer l'appui de l'USAID/CARE au programme des Centres Intégrés de Nutrition et d'Education Communautaire (CINEC), que le gouvernement a adopté en tant que modèle de programme pour l'ensemble du pays. Le FISE accorde une aide aux programmes préscolaires pour l'acquisition de matériels d'enseignement, d'équipement et de mobilier scolaire. La Banque Mondiale a joué un rôle très actif en finançant des éléments clés de la Réforme de l'Education dans les écoles publiques. Divers donateurs apportent leur concours aux écoles primaires privées à travers toute une gamme de projets. Une meilleure coordination de cette aide pourrait permettre d'inciter les écoles du secteur privé à adopter la Réforme.

Plusieurs donateurs, notamment de grands organismes multilatéraux, appuient la formation des enseignants. Le FISE contribue à l'ameublement des écoles normales. Le service culturel de l'Ambassade de France intervient dans les programmes de recyclage des enseignants déjà en poste dans les établissements qui appliquent le programme de Réforme, et l'Eglise Méthodiste offre des services analogues aux instituteurs ruraux. L'Agence Canadienne pour le Développement International (ACDI) apporte son aide à l'enseignement supérieur dans les domaines de l'agronomie et de la médecine vétérinaire à l'Université d'Etat d'Haïti et divers donateurs octroient des bourses d'études dans des universités américaines.

Les activités d'enseignement professionnel et technique financées par les donateurs comprennent entre autres une aide au Centre de Formation Professionnelle d'Haïti (CFPH). Le Programme pour l'Alimentation Mondiale finance des activités d'alphabétisation non formelle; la Banque Inter-américaine de Développement soutient le développement rural intégré et l'Organisation des Etats Américains contribue à l'éducation des adultes.

Si l'on veut parvenir à des changements significatifs et durables, un autre objectif à long terme s'impose : fournir à Haïti les moyens institutionnels et les capacités de gestion, d'analyse, de planification et de mise en oeuvre nécessaires pour réaliser ses propres projets de développement. Les projets isolés peuvent atténuer les problèmes les plus manifestes et les plus immédiats, mais si ces efforts ne sont pas intégrés tôt ou tard au sein d'une structure permanente, les effets produits risquent d'être éphémères. Le gouvernement doit donner l'exemple dans la mise en oeuvre d'une politique de renforcement institutionnel. Les analyses et les recommandations de la présente évaluation portent essentiellement sur cette nécessité fondamentale.

Les ressources financières nationales resteront insuffisantes au regard des besoins du système éducatif dans l'avenir immédiat. Le développement de l'éducation et des ressources humaines requiert de toute urgence une assistance financière et technique accrue de la part des donateurs internationaux et du secteur privé. Faute d'une telle aide, Haïti n'atteindra pas le niveau de croissance économique nécessaire pour subvenir à ses propres besoins.

Pour que cette assistance extérieure soit efficace, trois conditions doivent être remplies. En premier lieu il s'agit de donner la priorité à l'amélioration de l'éducation de base et au perfectionnement des compétences génératrices de revenu, car ces mesures ont une incidence directe sur la réduction de la pauvreté, et elles sont également liées à des améliorations dans les domaines de la santé, de la nutrition, de la planification familiale, et de l'agriculture. Deuxièmement, l'action des donateurs doit être coordonnée dans le cadre des objectifs et des priorités sectorielles du gouvernement. Enfin, les donateurs doivent être disposés dans l'immédiat à financer les dépenses de fonctionnement de certaines institutions existantes dont l'importance est fondamentale et qui risquent de défaillir sans cet appui. Au prestige de nouveaux projets doit se substituer le bien-fondé d'un engagement en faveur d'un programme d'investissement de ressources nationales et étrangères en vertu duquel les besoins en développement d'Haïti l'emportent sur les intérêts paticuliers des divers bailleurs de fonds.

## 1.2 EDUCATION ET DEVELOPPEMENT

Un système plus efficace de développement des ressources humaines est nécessaire à la croissance socio-économique à l'échelle du pays. Les investissements en ressources humaines ont un rendement économique égal ou supérieur à celui des investissements dans les projets d'infrastructure. Ils auront aussi des effets positifs notables sur l'amélioration de la répartition des revenus, de la santé et de la nutrition et l'instauration de la justice sociale. De plus, la prise de conscience sociale et politique nécessaire à l'édification d'une structure politique souple et juste se produit plus rapidement au sein d'une population alphabétisée et informée. Des études comparatives réalisées à travers le monde par la Banque Mondiale ont démontré qu'une amélioration de 20% du taux d'alphabétisation peut se traduire par une augmentation de 0,5% du taux d'accroissement annuel du produit national brut d'un pays.

Du point de vue du développement, l'éducation pourrait être considérée comme un moyen permettant l'amélioration de plusieurs secteurs à la fois, plutôt qu'isolément. Etant donné leur très grande interaction avec les objectifs de développement dans tous les autres secteurs, les investissements



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en matière de développement de l'éducation et des ressources humaines exerceront des effets prolongés qui peuvent égaler ou surpasser la valeur de leurs bienfaits économiques et monétaires les plus immédiats.

L'existence de cadres de gestion et de cadres techniques qualifiés facilite la croissance économique. Non seulement l'éducation et la formation sont les principaux véhicules de la transmission de compétences et de connaissances, mais elles contribuent à développer au sein de la main-d'oeuvre des attitudes d'autodiscipline indispensables à une production efficace. Cette préparation des gestionnaires et des travailleurs est une composante importante de la croissance économique et de la modernisation.

Les ressources consacrées à l'éducation peuvent également représenter l'un des investissements les plus intéressants et les plus rentables en vue de l'amélioration des pratiques sanitaires, nutritionnelles et de planification familiale en Haïti. L'adoption de nouveaux comportements en matière de santé, d'hygiène, de planification familiale et de nutrition peut être facilitée et maintenue grâce à une formation et à des appuis appropriés. Les améliorations dans le domaine de la nutrition peuvent à leur tour consolider les acquis en matière d'éducation. Il a été démontré, par exemple, qu'en Haïti les programmes d'alimentation au niveau préscolaire et primaire amélioraient la fréquentation scolaire et permettaient aux élèves d'atteindre de meilleurs résultats.

L'éducation des mères a des effets sensibles sur la santé des enfants et des autres membres de la famille. Des études ont démontré, par exemple, que chaque année supplémentaire de formation pour les mères contribue à réduire la mortalité infantile de 9 pour 1000. Apprendre aux mères à préparer les aliments à partir des denrées de base pour en tirer le maximum de valeur nutritive serait paticulièrement utile en Haïti où la malnutrition constitue un problème préoccupant. L'amélioration des pratiques de planification familiale, la propensité des parents à consacrer des ressources à l'éducation de leurs enfants, l'augmentation du nombre des enfants scolarisés dans la famille et de la durée de leur scolarité sont toutes partiellement liées au niveau d'instruction des mères.

L'éducation de base au moins jusqu'à la quatrième année du cycle primaire est considérée comme nécessaire pour contribuer aux améliorations en matière d'agriculture. Des études entreprises à l'échelle mondiale font ressortir que lorsque des techniques agricoles complémentaires (telles que l'utilisation d'engrais, de machines...) sont disponibles, quatre ans d'éducation de base permettent à l'agriculteur d'augmenter de 13% environ la productivité agricole. Les méthodes de culture qu'utilise habituellement le paysan haïtien ne

comprennent pas le labour, la culture en terrasses, l'irrigation, les engrais ou les pesticides. La population pauvre des régions rurales, qui tire sa subsistance de maigres récoltes cultivées sur de petites parcelles à l'aide de techniques primitives, se sent désarmée face aux forces capricieuses de la nature. Une éducation de base peut se révéler particulièrement efficace dans une telle situation. Lorsque des techniques de culture appropriées sont présentées aux petits agriculteurs, leur compréhension, leur acceptation et l'application de ces méthodes dépendront de leur degré d'éducation et de leur volonté de changer. Aussi les investissements au titre de l'éducation de base sont-ils encore plus utiles si l'on veut tirer pleinement parti d'améliorations plus poussée dans l'agriculture, notamment les améliorations dues aux coopératives et aux programmes de crédit.

L'évolution de la conscience sociale et politique est un important effet à long terme de l'éducation. Sans une population instruite, Haïti ne sera pas prête à élaborer et maintenir une structure politique et sociale qui réponde à ses besoins. Pour ce faire il faut pouvoir compter sur une population instruite et dotée d'une conscience politique et sur un ensemble de gestionnaires qualifiés à tous les niveaux du gouvernement. Il faudra, pour y parvenir, mener une action de longue haleine pour améliorer l'éducation à tous les niveaux, du premier degré jusqu'à l'université, y compris la formation professionelle et technique et la formation de gestionnaires.

Dans le cadre de ses priorités budgétaires, le gouvernement consacre actuellement autant de ressources que possible à l'éducation et à la formation. Cette allocation de crédits représente cependant une très faible part du produit national brut, bien moindre que celle que des pays similaires consacrent à ce secteur. Pour améliorer le système d'enseignement, il faudra tirer un meilleur parti des moyens existants et des nouvelles capacités de développement dont on dispose. Les possibilités offertes en la matière pourraient comprendre le renforcement du secteur privé dans les domaines où l'Etat n'intervient pas actuellement et le réexamen de l'équilibre entre l'éducation formelle et non formelle afin d'offrir de nouvelles possibilités d'accès à l'enseignement à une plus grande partie de la population. Les programmes non formels sont particulièrement efficaces en ce qui concerne les résultats à court terme des activités génératrices de revenus et des effets à long terme liés à la création de groupements pour l'acquisition des compétences nécessaires à la résolution de problèmes. L'alphabétisation fonctionnelle est un autre domaine où l'éducation non formelle est très prometteuse.

## 1.3 PROBLEMES

La présente section traite de huit questions liées à l'amélioration de la qualité et à l'adéquation des programmes en matière d'éducation et de développement et des ressources humaines : réforme de la politique générale, capacité institutionnelle, capacité de planification et de gestion, rôle du secteur privé, utilisation des ressources, coordination des activités des donateurs, éléments d'information nécessaires à la planification et langue d'enseignement. De l'examen de ces huit thèmes découleront les différentes recommandations formulées dans la dernière section de ce chapitre.

Réforme de la politique générale. Pour contribuer au développement du système éducatif en Haïti, il faut à la fois appuyer de manière résolue et continue les politiques et stratégies du gouvernement et réaliser progressivement la régionalisation et la décentralisation du système. La Réforme de l'Enseignement, financée en grande partie grâce à l'assistance de la Banque Mondiale, a été mise à exécution en 1982 à l'issue d'une période expérimentale de trois ans. La Réforme a été conçue pour répondre aux problèmes d'efficacité interne et d'adéquation de l'enseignement dont souffre le système d'enseignement primaire en Haïti, pour promouvoir l'équité d'accès à l'éducation. Dans la méthodologie de la Réforme, par exemple, le passage automatique de première en deuxième année et de troisième en quatrième année, la fourniture d'un meilleur matériel didactique aux enfants et d'une formation pédagogique plus rigoureuse aux enseignants doivent permettre d'améliorer sensiblement l'efficacité interne des programmes.

La Réforme introduit un cycle d'éducation de base de 10 ans (4-3-3), suivi d'un cycle secondaire de 3 ans. Un nouveau programme scolaire est en voie d'élaboration, le créole étant appelé à remplacer le français en tant que langue outil de l'enseignement. Des guides de l'élève et de l'enseignant en créole destinés aux premières classes du primaire sont en cours de préparation, pour le nouveau programme scolaire, et ils instituent de nouvelles méthodes d'enseignement. Une nouvelle Charte de l'enseignant a été adoptée afin de rendre la carrière enseignante plus attrayante pour un personnel qualifié. La supervision et l'inspection des écoles seront améliorées.

L'agencement de la Réforme est certes judicieux du point de vue conceptuel et pédagogique, mais il y a eu des défaillances importantes au niveau de la mise en oeuvre. Dans le meilleur des cas il n'est jamais facile d'introduire des changements structurels au sein d'un système qui fonctionne depuis des années selon d'autres normes, et la tâche a été rendue encore plus difficile par un certain manque de clarté au niveau du Ministère de l'Education Nationale concernant l'échelonnement de ces changements. Les milieux enseignants ne

comprennent pas toujours très bien la justification fondamentale et les objectifs de la Réforme. Le secteur privé a mis du temps pour adhérer à la Réforme. Ceci s'explique en partie par le fait que de nombreux directeurs d'école estiment que les parents désirent voir leurs enfants éduqués selon des méthodes plus traditionnelles et dans la langue française qui offre davantage de débouchés. Le Ministère de l'Education Nationale est mal équipé pour gérer la Réforme et l'application de la Charte de l'enseignant a été retardée par manque de crédits.

La plupart des éducateurs au fait de la situation et qui en comprennent les objectifs appuient la Réforme-que ce soit au sein du gouvernement, du secteur privé ou de la communauté des bailleurs de fonds. Les insuffisances en matière de gestion et d'exécution sont cependant prises parfois pour des déficiences conceptuelles et la Réforme est un sujet de controverse tant parmi le corps professoral qu'au sein du grand public. Si la raison d'être de la Réforme ne trouve pas créance dans la collectivité, les éducateurs réagiront vraisemblablement en fonction de l'attitude de la collectivité. On se pose des questions sur la capacité du gouvernement à faire naître et à maintenir une attitude favorable envers le Réforme.

Des révisions de politique générale s'imposent dans certaines parties du secteur de l'éducation et des ressources humaines que la Réforme de l'enseignement n'a pas encore touchées, particulièrement dans les domaines de la formation à la gestion, de l'enseignement supérieur et de l'éducation non formelle. Les recommandations formulées dans cette analyse mettent l'accent sur le développement au sein du secteur public de nouvelle capacités de conception et de gestion des éléments de réforme et de révision des politiques d'éducation qui restent à réaliser.

Capacité institutionnelle. Les réformes de politique générale nécessaires à la planification et à la gestion coordonnées et efficaces du secteur réussiront seulement si elles reposent sur de solides fondations institutionnelles. Pour appliquer ces réformes il faudra disposer d'établissements publics et privés efficaces au niveau des différents branches du système éducatif formel ainsi que d' instituts chargés de la formation en gestion et des organismes spécialisés dans l'enseignement non formel. La plupart des analyses et recommandations proposées dans la présente évaluation se concentrent donc sur l'amélioration et le renforcement de l'encadrement institutionnel du système éducatif.

Il existe une infrastructure et des institutions aptes à répondre à bon nombre des exigences du secteur, mais elles sont pour la plupart inefficaces actuellement à cause d'un manque de personnel qualifié et expérimenté et de la

carence de fonds pour financer les dépenses de fonctionnement et d'entretien. Il ne s'agit pas de créer de nouvelles institutions pour remédier à cet état de choses ou de circonvenir le gouvernement en intervenant principalement dans le secteur privé. La meilleure approche à long terme consiste à réhabiliter et à renforcer les institutions existantes dans les secteurs publics et privés, même si, temporairement, il faut pour cela recourir au financement extérieur pour les dépenses de fonctionnement.

Une grande partie des moyens institutionnels dont dispose actuellement Haïti se trouve dans le secteur privé, notamment en ce qui concerne l'enseignement primaire et secondaire. Un moyen efficace de tirer le meilleur parti de la capacité existante réside peut-être dans l'octroi d'une assistance à ces institutions. Un soutien simultané accordé au renforcement et à l'expansion institutionnelle dans le secteur public favorisera davantage la croissance nationale à long terme. Le secteur privé continuera de jouer un rôle important dans l'enseignement dans un avenir prévisible, et l'assistance extérieure devra porter ses efforts sur la mise en place d'un système coordonné qui soutienne sans réserve la réforme de l'enseignement.

Moyens de planification et de gestion. Les faiblesses de l'administration publique entravent sérieusement l'utilisation des ressources et la prestation de services éducatifs en Haïti. Très peu nombreux sont les membres du personnel qui disposent de l'expérience et des aptitudes nécessaires en matière d'analyse, de planification et de gestion pour assurer le bon fonctionnement des institutions. Ces aptitudes peuvent être renforcées par l'organisation de séminaires et d'ateliers de recyclage de courte et de longue durée.

Le corps des inspecteurs ne dispose pas d'un personnel ou de crédits de fonctionnement suffisants pour suivre efficacement les écoles publiques et privées qui relèvent de sa compétence. Le contrôle de ces écoles incombe donc dans une large mesure aux directeurs d'école. Non seulement ces directeurs sont généralement responsables de la politique générale et des opérations courantes, mais ils constituent également le seul lien entre les établissements qu'ils dirigent et toutes les instances supérieures du système éducatif: l'Inspectorat, le Ministère de l'Education Nationale et (pour les écoles privées qui en font partie) les organismes d'enseignement privé.

Il existe très peu de données quantitives sur les directeurs d'école, mais il est généralement admis qu'ils jouent un rôle important dans l'enseignement primaire. De nombreux directeurs n'ont reçu aucune formation qui les prépare à assumer des responsabilités à la fois administratives et pédagogiques. Il arrive souvent, surtout dans les écoles privées non confessionnelles, que les directeurs soient d'anciens enseignants qui ont créé leur propre école et qui,

par conséquent, n'ont pas une meilleure qualification que leurs enseignants eux-mêmes peu qualifiés. Les directeurs reçoivent certaines directives du Ministère de l'Education Nationale, notamment dans les écoles publiques. Cependant ces directives se cantonnent généralement à des principes généraux et ne visent pas les opérations quotidiennes. Elles ne fournissent ni exemples, ni suggestions et n'offrent que très peu l'occasion d'acquérir des connaissances spécialisées en matière de gestion d'établissements scolaires. Certaines écoles du secteur privé qui font partie d'une structure d'ensemble, offrent aux directeurs d'écoles des directives et des conseils quant à la gestion pédagogique et financière de leurs écoles.

Il faudra déterminer au moyen d'une enquête, quels sont les besoins en perfectionnement des directeurs dans certains domaines spécialisés, mais les domaines de formation prioritaires en Haïti comprendront probablement les disciplines suivantes : gestion et administration, analyse économique, planification et gestion financière, analyse des coûts, budgétisation, compatibilité et contrôle financier Ces techniques devront être enseignées en vue d'une application spécifique et non sous forme de cours abstraits ou théoriques. La formation devrait être axée sur un système de "direction par les objectifs" et mettre l'accent également sur une gestion efficace des ressources.

Rôles du secteur privé. Une caractéristique particulière de l'enseignement haïtien est le rôle dominant du secteur privé qui est dans bon nombre de domaines l'élément le plus dynamique du système. Ce secteur comprend des écoles financées par des collectivités locales, des organisations religieuses et des institutions bénévoles privées, ainsi que des établissements gérés à des fins lucratives ou non lucratives. L'expression "secteur privé" englobe donc une vaste gamme d'activités éducatives.

Aux termes d'une loi de 1974, le Ministère de l'Education Nationale exerce sa tutelle sur l'ensemble du système éducatif. Cette loi précise les conditions qui doivent régir le fonctionnement des écoles privées et charge les inspecteurs de l'Etat d'appliquer les règlements. Dans la pratique, le secteur privé échappe en fait à tout contrôle car les inspecteurs sont déjà rarement en mesure de répondre aux besoins des écoles publiques qui relèvent en premier lieu de leurs attributions. Le secteur privé haïtien joue un rôle unique en matière d'éducation, notamment dans les domaines qui font l'objet d'une demande sociale ou d'un intérêt externe élevé. La demande d'enseignement préscolaire, primaire et secondaire a créé une situation où un nombre important (mais qui n'est pas déterminé avec précision) d'élèves du niveau préscolaire et la majorité des élèves du primaire et du secondaire sont inscrits dans des écoles

privées. L'intervention du secteur privé est sensiblement moins importante dans les domaines caractérisés par une demande sociale faible ou des frais d'exploitation élevés, comme certains types d'enseignement professionnel et technique. Les intérêts spéciaux de certains donateurs expliquent les nombreuses activités que patronnent les institutions bénévoles privées et les organisations non-gouvernementales. Plusieurs d'entre ces dernières ne se sont que récemment groupées au sein d'une association haïtienne des agences bénévoles (HAVA).

Il y a lieu de mener des actions et de faire preuve de coordination au sein même du secteur privé pour tirer le meilleur parti de la vaste gamme d'activités et de programmes qu'il comprend et pour les orienter vers la réalisation des objectifs fondamentaux du système éducatif haïtien. Le principal objectif, aux niveaux les plus bas, serait d'encourager les institutions du secteur privé à soutenir la Réforme. Au niveau préscolaire, par exemple, les ressources des programmes CINEC pourraient être allouées aux écoles qui suivent le programme de la Réforme. Au niveau primaire, une campagne d'information sur la Réforme par l'intermédiare des médias et qui serait soutenue par une association d'écoles privées liée au gouvernement, pourrait encourager l'adoption du curriculum, du matériel didactique et des méthodes de la Réforme. Cette approche pourrait s'appuyer sur un programme destiné à fournir aux instituteurs une formation pédagogique ainsi que le matériel didactique de la Réforme en créole.

L'approche à adopter est moins claire en ce qui concerne les organisations non gouvernementales qui s'intéressent à l'éducation non formelle. La structure gouvernementale devant assurer la coordination de leurs activités n'est pas à la hauteur de cette tâche. Une extension significative des opérations au-delà de la vaste gamme actuelle d'activités est peu probable du fait que la capacité d'organisation est déjà largement mise à contribution. Avec l'accroissement des adhésions et du renom de la HAVA, les organisations privées et non gouvernementales dotées de leurs propres programmes d'éducation non formelle pourront peut-être accroître leur efficacité grâce à une meilleure coordination.

Utilisation des ressources. Les capacités et les ressources étant sérieusement limitées, ainsi que l'indiquent les premiers paragraphes du présent chapitre, il est essentiel que toute nouvelle activité parvienne à utiliser les ressources de façon plus efficace. Il convient d'examiner les programmes actuels afin de rendre plus efficaces ceux dont l'importance est la plus vitale. Au niveau primaire, par exemple, il faudrait envisager des solutions alternatives peu onéreuses à l'enseignement de base et à

l'amélioration des manuels des enseignants pour réduire les exigences en matière de formation pédagogique. De nombreuses agglomérations urbaines pourraient tirer profit du recours accru au système des classes alternées, de la double vacation et de taux d'encadrement plus élevés. Le double emploi des installations, parmi les diverses facultés de l'Université d'Etat d'Haïti, pourrait être réduit si l'on prévoyait des locaux centralisés pour les disciplines communes.

Coordination des activités des donateurs. Une coordination plus étroite des interventions des organismes d'aide multilatéraux, bilatéraux et des organismes non gouvernementaux avec les programmes et les priorités de l'Etat peut contribuer à l'utilisation plus efficace des ressources nationales aussi bien qu'extérieures. Les représentants de ces organismes se réunissent chaque mois depuis juin 1983, mais sans la participation de représentants du gouvernement. Bien que certains observateurs soient d'avis que la nature officieuse de ces réunions représente un niveau suffisant de coordination, ce vaste éventail de ressources pourrait cependant être utilisé encore plus efficacement si leur intervention était planifiée dans le cadre d'une stratégie bien formulée et explicite élaborée conjointement par le gouvernement et les donateurs. Une telle stratégie devrait être compatible avec la politique générale et les programmes de l'Etat. Les accords portant sur la coordination devraient être spécifiques et donner des résultats patents susceptibles d'être ouvertement contrôlés. Les accords entre donateurs qui confèrent simplement à chacun d'entre eux une responsabilité principale dans une partie quelconque du secteur ne constituent pas une véritable coordination stratégique. Une telle coopération exigerait des organismes qu'ils renoncent à une partie de leur autonomie pour le plus grand bien du développement national.

Information pour les besoins de la planification. Une planification éclairée constitue la base de programmes efficaces. Or, celle-ci ne saurait avoir lieu sans une base d'information satisfaisante. Haïti souffre d'un manque d'information pour assurer la planification stratégique de l'éducation, allant du niveau préscolaire à l'enseignement non formel en passant par l'enseignement supérieur. Des informations sont nécessaires, au niveau préscolaire, sur les activités et les résultats, notamment au sein du secteur privé. Il n'existe pas, par exemple, d'estimations fiables des effectifs totaux au niveau préscolaire. Pour ce qui est de l'enseignement primaire, on ne dispose pas de données fiables sur les inscriptions totales, le nombre d'écoles, le nombre d'enseignants, ou les taux de progression d'une année à l'autre, que ce soit dans le secteur public ou le secteur privé. L'absence



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virtuelle de statistiques réalistes sur l'offre et la demande de main-d'oeuvre entrave la planification dans le domaine de la formation professionnelle et technique.

Langue d'enseignement. Le français et le créole sont tous deux des langues nationales mais le français est la langue officielle d'Haïti. Le français est traditionnellement associé à la classe dirigeante qui constitue l'élite du pays. Il est utilisé de façon prédominante par seulement 5% environ de la population, alors qu'une autre fraction de 5% utilise les deux langues. Le reste de la population peut avoir quelques connaissances du français mais ne s'en sert pratiquemment pas comme langues de communication. En revanche, tous les Haïtiens parlent et comprennent le créole.

En raison de l'héritage culturel français, la totalité de l'enseignement de type scolaire était censée être dispensée en français jusqu'à l'introduction de la Réforme en 1982. En réalité, la majeure partie de l'enseignement primaire a toujours été donnée en créole. Il est maintenant proposé que le français soit enseigné comme seconde langue à compter de la première année et qu'il soit employé comme langue d'enseignement à partir de la cinquième année dans les écoles relevant de la Réforme. Avant l'introduction de la Réforme, l'importance du français en tant que langue présumée de l'enseignement, et certainement en tant que seule langue d'examen, présentait des obstacles formidables et peu d'avantages tangibles pour les nouveaux élèves, surtout ceux des régions rurales défavorisées. L'emploi du créole comme langue véhiculaire, avec l'aide de matériels pédagogiques en créole récemment mis au point, a déjà permis d'espérer une amélioration sensible de la qualité de l'enseignement au niveau primaire.

Cependant, à moins d'appliquer intégralement la Réforme, ce programme risque de produire des résultats imprévus. L'efficacité du cycle primaire devra être améliorée, pour réduire les taux d'abandon des élevés dans les petites classes, aux niveaux où l'enseignement en français n'a pas encore démarré. Si de nombreux élèves quittent l'école sans avoir appris la langue officielle du pays, on pourrait voir la constitution d'une paysannerie isolée du point de vue linguistique, incapable d'avoir accès à l'information imprimée ou parlée dans toute autre langue que le créole. Des méthodes efficaces d'enseignement du français sont indispensables à la bonne application de la Réforme, exigence difficile si l'on tient compte des niveaux actuels de formation des enseignants. Il n'en reste pas moins que le créole ne doit pas devenir la seule langue fonctionnelle de la population pauvre des campagnes.

## 1.4 RECOMMANDATIONS

Cette section présente cinq recommandations et une série de 14 actions complémentaires. Elles ont été choisies ou adaptées parmi celles mentionnées dans les chapitres traitant des sous-secteurs, ou tirées d'une analyse globale, en fonction de la mesure dans laquelle elles satisfont à trois critères :

- contribuer au développement socio-économique national,
- renforcer les institutions publiques et privées compétentes au sein du secteur, et
- insister sur l'utilisation la plus efficace des ressources existantes.

En ce qui concerne le développement socio-économique, les recommandations formulées ont pour objet de renforcer l'éducation de base, d'améliorer les compétences techniques génératrices de revenu par le biais de programmes publics et privés d'éducation non formelle et de programmes comportant des objectifs spécifiques pour l'enseignement professionel et technique, et de renforcer la coordination entre les activités des donateurs et les programmes et priorités du gouvernement.

Viennent ensuite des recommandations qui visent le renforcement des capacités institutionnelles du système. Sans un tel renforcement, il serait impossible d'assurer la continuité des programmes. A l'appui de ces recommandations, il est proposé une série d'activités de formation.

Bon nombre des actions pratiques proposées font ressortir l'importance de ce qu'on peut appeler le thème principal de cette évaluation, à savoir : utiliser plus efficacement les ressources existantes. Il s'agit notamment d'actions visant à accroître la disponibilité en matériels pédagogiques, à renforcer les programmes de nutrition dans les établissements préscolaires et primaires et à améliorer la formation en cours d'emploi des maîtres de l'enseignement primaire public et privé. Certaines études et enquêtes pouvant servir de base à une meilleure planification du système éducatif sont également proposées comme des moyens pour assurer l'utilisation plus efficace des ressources. Il s'agit entre autres d'une étude de l'offre et de la demande en main-d'oeuvre, de l'élaboration d'un système d'information sur la gestion de l'éducation à des fins de planification, de l'identification de programmes d'éducation non formelle ayant donné de bons résultats, de l'examen de la possibilité d'une utilisation généralisée de la radio éducative à des fins multiples, et de l'examen d'autres systèmes d'enseignement dans le primaire.

Afin de pallier aux problèmes de pauvreté et se sous-emploi dans l'immédiat, tout en contribuant au développement socio-économique du pays à



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long terme, les recommandations qui suivent mettent l'accent sur l'éducation de base et sur les types de formation qui sont susceptibles de transmettre aux participants des compétences et des connaissances génératrices de revenu. Il est proposé d'accorder une assistance accrue à l'éducation de base dans le cadre de la Réforme et d'avoir recours au secteur privé pour des actions précises à court terme dans les domaines où l'Etat dispose de moyens limités, tout en renforçant, à long terme, les capacités institutionnelles de l'Etat, et les compétences techniques de tous les participants.

Les recommandations et les activités proposées sont énoncées par ordre de priorité. Elles ne comprennent pas les actions intéressant l'ensemble du système d'enseignement formel. Une information plus détaillée est donnée dans les chapitres respectifs. Pour tous les niveaux du système éducatif, y compris ceux qui ne sont pas visés par ces recommandations, la priorité des investissements (par ordre décroissant) serait la suivante : enseignement primaire, enseignement préscolaire, formation initiale et en cours d'emploi du personnel enseignant, formation professionnelle et technique, enseignement secondaire et enseignement supérieur.

Recommandation 1 - Renforcer l'éducation de base. L'investissement de ressources dans l'éducation de base se recommande pour plusieurs raisons : ce niveau d'éducation est caractérisé par les meilleurs taux de rendement, les programmes d'éducation de base permettent de contribuer directement à l'allègement de la pauvreté, et ils ont un rapport étroit avec les interventions visant à réduire la taille des familles et à améliorer les pratiques sanitaires, nutritionnelles et agricoles. Ces facteurs, plus les effets des programmes d'éducation de base sur l'augmentation du taux d'alphabétisation expliquent la priorité que nous proposons de donner aux investissements dans cette branche du système éducatif. Trois activités principals découlent de la Recommandations No. 1 :

Action 1-A - Accroître la disponibilité du matériel pédagogique. Le matériel pédagogique représente la composante de l'enseignement primaire ayant le meilleur rapport coût-efficacité. Il faudra compléter pour les manuels scolaires déjà prévus par la Réforme avec d'autres livres et manuels adaptés aux besoins des élèves du primaire et en même temps rendre plus efficace les circuits de distribution de ce matériel tant dans le secteur public que dans le secteur privé. Les manuels de l'enseignant élaborés dans le cadre de la Réforme doivent être révisés afin d'en faciliter l'utilisation par des enseignants ayant reçu une formation limitée. Certaines révisions sont en cours dans le cadre du projet financé par la Banque Mondiale, et toute action dans ce domaine doit être coordonnée étroitement avec les interventions déjà



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prévues. Il convient d'accorder une attention particulière au matériel d'enseignement en français, tant du point de vue de la qualité didactique des livres, que de la disponibilité des textes de lecture dans les bibliothèques scolaires.

Des actions peuvent être menées dans le secteur privé pour encourager l'adoption de la Réforme, en fournissant le matériel d'enseignement approprié, à un prix subventionné ou à titre gratuit aux écoles qui acceptent et utilisent le programme et les méthodes d'enseignement prévus par la Réforme.

Action 1-B - Améliorer et développer les programmes d'alimentation scolaire aux niveaux primaire et préscolaire. La sous-alimentation et les carences nutritionnelles chez les jeunes enfants ont des effets désastreux et durables sur leur développement physique et intellectuel. Ceux-ci peuvent varier d'une baisse modérée des résultats scolaires et de l'assiduité en classe, à une altération de la croissance physique des élèves. La malnutrition est endémique en Haïti et des programmes destinés à l'atténuer sont souhaitables en raison de leur portée humanitaire et des effets qu'ils exercent sur l'amélioration de l'éducation, notamment au niveau préscolaire et pendant les premières années de l'enseignement primaire. L'extension du programme préscolaire des CINEC approuvée et patronnée par le gouvernement, pourrait avoir deux conséquences indirectes très importantes : tout d'abord, ces programmes sont conçus pour préparer les enfants à suivre le curriculum de la Réforme ; deuxièmement, le programme d'alimentation scolaire pourrait servir à sensibiliser et former les mères qui y participent.

Action 1-C - Améliorer la formation en cours d'emploi des maîtres de l'enseignement primaire public et privé. La formation sur le tas des instituteurs a une incidence plus immédiate que la formation initiale, dont les effets ne se font sentir que plusieurs années après. Avant de renforcer les actions de recyclage, il convient de procéder à une analyse des compétences spécifiques nécessaires pour l'enseignement primaire. Des stages d'études pratiques ou séminaires de courte durée, destinés à remédier aux insuffisances professionnelles doivent être organisés, élargissant ainsi les programmes gouvernementaux actuellement en cours. Il importe au plus haut point qu'une telle formation s'inspire directement d'une analyse des déficiences pédagogiques des enseignants actuellement en poste, qu'elle soit étroitement coordonnée avec l'élaboration du matériel didactique de la Réforme et que les stages soient sanctionnés par des examens destinés à vérifier l'acquis des connaissances.

Recommandation 2 - Améliorer les compétences professionnelles génératrices de revenus. L'amélioration des programmes visant à transmettre

des compétences génératrices de revenus contribuera directement à faire reculer la pauvreté en Haïti. Les deux interventions préconisées dans ce domaine devront être conçues et mise en oeuvre en tenant pleinement compte de l'information sur l'offre et la demande de main-d'oeuvre dont il est question plus loin (Recommandation 4).

Action 2-A - Appuyer les programmes publics et privés d'éducation non formelle ayant donné de bons résultats en matière d'amélioration des compétences professionnelles. Une initiative essentielle dans ce domaine serait l'élaboration d'une série de critères permettant de juger du degré de succès des divers programmes existant et donc d'orienter les nouveaux investissements en conséquence. Bien que de nombreux programmes, parmi les plus notoires relèvent du secteur privé, l'analyse en question devra englober les programmes du secteur public également.

Action 2-B - Appuyer un nombre limité de programmes de formation technique et professionnelle qui sont clairement et explicitement articulés sur des besoins réels de main d'oeuvre. Ces activités sont nécessaires à un bon développement économique. Pour être efficace, tout appui accordé à la formation professionnelle et technique doit prendre en compte l'information sur l'offre et la demande de main-d'oeuvre dont il est question plus loin. Aucun investissement important ne doit être fait en vue de l'élaboration de programmes tant que cette information ne sera pas disponible. Cela n'empêche pas que les programmes de perfectionnement des cadres et du personnel de certains programmes clés puissent commencer plus tôt. Le choix devra se fixer en priorité sur les programmes qui s'inscrivent dans le cadre d'une politique véritablement génératrice d'emplois. On pourrait, par exemple, encourager les entreprises du secteur privé qui ont élaboré de programmes de formation particulièrement intéressants et rentables d'en élargir la portée en les offrant à des personnes en dehors de leur propre personnel. On pourrait notamment envisager de subordonner toute autorisation de création d'une nouvelle entreprise à la condition explicite et formelle que la direction de l'entreprise offre des programmes de formation en collaboration avec d'autres établissements de formation professionnelle.

Recommandation 3 - Renforcer les institutions pédagogiques publiques et privées existantes. Les actions découlant de cette recommandation porteront sur le renforcement des moyens et des aptitudes institutionnelles et personnelles en matière d'analyse, de planification et de gestion. Il s'agit de renforcer les institutions de recherche et de formation pédagogiques jugées les plus essentielles à la réussite de la Réforme - dont notamment le Department de l'Education Nationale - eu pourvoyant au perfectionnement de leur

encadrement supérieur et moyen. Pour assurer une démultiplication des effets positifs de la formation et la retransmission en cascade des acquis aux échelons inférieurs du système, l'on doit également prévoir le recyclage du personnel des écoles normales, du rectorat de l'Université d'Etat d'Haïti, de la direction et du personnel des instituts de formation technique et de formation à la gestion, des directeurs d'école, et des moniteurs locaux des programmes d'éducation non formelle.

Action 3-A - Procéder à l'analyse des besoins. L'analyse des besoins de formation dans les principales institutions publiques et privées doit constituer la première étape du programme de perfectionnement du personnel. Elle devra commencer par l'identification des compétences nécessaires pour l'exécution efficace des différentes tâches. Cet inventaire devra mettre l'accent sur les compétences techniques requises à chaque niveau plutôt que sur la qualification académique souhaitée. La deuxième étape comportera un inventaire des compétences des titulaires actuels des postes en question. A la dernière étape, on établira la liste des besoins en formation par niveau et par catégorie de compétence, en indiquant dans chaque groupe le nombre de personnes ayant besoin de suivre un stage.

Action 3-B - Identifier les ressources en formation. Les ressources en formation pour les catégories déterminées dans le cadre de l'Action 3-A devraient être identifiées. Il conviendra, autant que possible, d'utiliser les ressources locales, tant pour réduire les frais par rapport au coût de la formation à l'étranger, que pour renforcer les moyens de formation dont disposent les institutions du pays, même si on doit faire appel à des consultants étrangers pour contribuer aux tâches de planification et d'enseignement. Là ou les ressources locales font défaut, il faudra identifier les instituts et instances étrangers qui ont déjà de l'expérience en matière de formation de cadres moyens et supérieurs pour les pays en voie de développement. L'Institut de Développement Economique de la Banque Mondiale constitue un exemple de ce type d'institution ; il y a lieu de citer également les excellents stages de formation offerts par de nombreuses universités qui ont des programmes d'étude du développement.

Action 3-C - Dispenser la formation ainsi définie. Il faut ensuite mettre en oeuvre les types de formation spécifique indiqués par ce processus d'identification des besoins. Pour que cette formation soit des plus efficaces, il conviendrait d'en faire bénéficier en même temps les personnes qui, bien qu'appartenant à des institutions différentes, ont besoin de suivre un programme analogue. Cette formule a non seulement le mérite de réduire les coûts de formation mais elle offrira également aux haïtiens qui occupent des

emplois similaires l'occasion d'échanger leurs idées.

Outre la stipulation que la formation soit autant que possible dispensée dans le pays, il n'est pas nécessaire de tout confier à un seul institut de formation. Il est prévu que divers types de formation seront financés par différents organismes donateurs internationaux de sorte que certains cours ou séminaires pourront avoir lieu simultanément dans différents pays sous différents auspices. Ce qui importe c'est que la totalité de la formation se déroule dans le cadre d'un plan étroitement coordonné, de façon à assurer un emploi efficace des ressources en matière de formation et pour éviter des omissions et doubles emplois coûteux. Un programme axé sur des objectifs précis ne manquera pas d'accroître la capacité des institutions publiques et privées auxquelles une attention prioritaire doit être accordée.

Recommandation 4 - Effectuer des enquêtes pour servir de base pour la planification. L'absence d'information et de données pertinentes et fiables pour servir de base à la planification du système éducatif a été soulignée plus haut. La Recommandation 4 propose plusieurs actions pour résoudre ce problème, notamment y compris l'étude de systèmes alternatifs d'organisation de l'enseignement dont l'utilisation éventuelle des émissions radiophoniques et d'autres nouvelles technologies éducatives.

Action 4-A - Procéder à une étude de l'offre et de la demande de main-d'oeuvre. Cette étude devrait prendre pour point de départ les activités actuelles de l'Institut National de Formation Professionnelle (INFP) et devrait être menée en coopération avec le Ministère du Plan. Elle devrait être conçue en vue de dégager les éléments d'information nécessaires pour identifier et concevoir des cycles de formation professionnelle axés sur la transmission et/ou le perfectionnement des compétences techniques les plus critiques au développement économique national. Cette étude devra comprendre une analyse des besoins fondée sur des entretiens avec les principaux employeurs et avec des spécialistes de la planification économique du gouvernement.

Action 4-B - Elaborer un système de gestion de l'information. De nombreuses décisions afférentes à la planification doivent actuellement être prises sur la base de renseignements fragmentaires et sujets à caution, et d'avis formulés par les éducateurs. Un système de gestion de l'information conçu, mis en place et faisant appel à la technologie informatique permettrait une planification mieux informée, s'appuyant sur une base de données adéquate. L'information sélectionnée pour cette base de données le sera en fonction des emplois auxquels elle sera destinée. La formation de cadres haïtiens devrait être considérée en vue d'assumer l'utilisation permanente d'un tel système. Le financement éventuel de cette action devra comprendre des fonds pour la

réalisation périodique (si possible, tous les deux ans) d'une enquête sur la situation d'ensemble du système éducatif.

Action 4-C - Identifier les programmes d'éducation non formelle qui ont donné les meilleurs résultats. Cette étude doit se reposer sur une méthodologie d'identification des programmes les plus intéressants et exemplaires. Les résultats de l'étude pourront servir à concentrer les investissements en matière d'éducation non formelle sur des programmes dont l'efficacité a été démontrée et qui ont un rapport direct avec le développement national. Les critères de succès pourront comprendre le contenu des programmes, le nombre de participants, les résultats de l'évaluation, la participation des élèves à la planification et à l'élaboration de projets et la naissance de groupements communautaires ou coopératifs capables de promouvoir le développement local.

Action 4-D - Examiner la possibilité d'utiliser davantage la radio éducative. La radio est un moyen relativement peu coûteux pour diffuser des informations à un grand nombre de personnes. Cette étude de planification doit dresser le bilan de l'expérience acquise jusqu'ici en Haïti dans le domaine radiophonique et examiner les possibilités d'utilisation éventuelle de la radio à l'avenir. Les données de l'étude pourraient être utilisées en vue d'apporter un soutien accru à une vaste gamme de programmes : éducation de base formelle et non formelle ; formation en cours d'emploi des enseignants ; campagnes d'information sur l'éducation, la santé, la nutrition, l'agriculture, et l'éducation des adultes.

Action 4-E - Examiner d'autres systèmes d'enseignement au niveau primaire. Un certain nombre de technologies connexes faisant appel à des formules peu coûteuses sont disponibles pour l'enseignement primaire. Nombre d'entre elles sont axées sur des matériels d'enseignement programmé qui n'exigent que très peu de formation pédagogique et qui ont un coût par élève très bas, sans effet négatif sur les résultats scolaires. Certaines de ces technologies ont été employées pour l'enseignement extra-scolaire. Si l'on tient compte du fait que la moitié environ des enfants haïtiens en âge de fréquenter l'école au niveau primaire n'y sont pas inscrits, et qu'une extension linéaire du modèle actuel pour les éduquer dépassera les ressources disponibles dans un avenir proche, il pourrait être possible d'adapter certaines de ces méthodes en vue de les utiliser en Haïti.

Recommandation 5 - Améliorer la coordination des activités des donateurs. Bien que cette recommandation vienne au dernier rang des priorités, elle représente un domaine où une amélioration pourrait apporter des avantages considérables à long terme.

Recommandation 5 - Améliorer la coordination des activités des donateurs. Bien que cette recommandation vienne au dernier rang des priorités, elle représente un domaine où une amélioration pourrait apporter des avantages considérables à long terme.

Action 5-A - Faire en sorte que le gouvernement coordonne et planifie les réunions mensuelles des donateurs et participe à ces réunions. Cette procédure assurerait une meilleure coordination des activités des donateurs avec les programmes et les priorités du gouvernement et contribuerait à l'utilisation plus rationnelle des ressources nationales et extérieures. Le gouvernement et les donateurs devraient travailler conjointement à l'élaboration d'un plan stratégique global qui devrait comprendre des accords spéciaux sur les mécanismes de coordination, les responsabilités individuelles et les critères nécessaires pour le suivi et l'évaluation des résultats.

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# 1.0 SYNTHESIS*

This sector assessment presents an overview of the current status of education and human resources development in Haiti. The main objective is to identify, within the framework of Government goals for this sector, ways to make more efficient use of Haiti's capacities and resources, both existing and new.

Recommendations are made for interventions that are urgently needed to achieve these goals. These recommendations emphasize the need to strengthen basic education and to improve income-producing skills, in coordination with further development of institutional and individual capacity for analysis, planning, and management for better utilization of resources. The recommendations take into account the secondary objective of the sector assessment, which is to encourage an even closer coordination between Government and the international donor community, to make more efficient use of both domestic and foreign resources in the sector.

The recommendations derived from the assessment emphasize activities that will accomplish the following objectives, in order of their importance:

- strengthen basic education,
- improve income-producing skills,
- strengthen existing public and private educational institutions,
- conduct planning surveys, and
- improve donor coordination.

A fundamental assumption of this sector assessment is that increased investments--carefully selected--in education and human resources development are essential for national social and economic development. A second assumption is that real domestic resources for educational development will not increase massively for the foreseeable future. This situation highlights the great importance of utilizing existing resources efficiently in order to improve and to expand educational services.

This assessment was conducted by an eight-person team of specialists, sponsored by the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID), who spent two months in Haiti between October and December 1984. The information for the assessment is partly based on more than 250 interviews conducted in Haiti. These were held with officials and educators within the Ministries of Education, Health, Planning, and Agriculture; Government, private primary, and secondary schools in urban and rural areas; universities and teacher training institutions; and vocational/technical training schools. Interviews were also held with

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* The draft for this chapter was prepared by Victor J. Cieutat, Institute for International Research, Inc.

representatives of private voluntary agencies and all major donors. Surveys and structured interviews were conducted in a sample of thirteen primary schools, five secondary schools, and four vocational/technical schools, including both the public and the private sector. More than 200 reports and related documents were studied. The material in this report was written as of December 1984.

The assessment is composed of fourteen chapters and two substantive annexes that deal with different branches of the Haitian educational system. It is divided into four volumes. Volume I deals with overall educational planning issues and contains three chapters: Chapter One is a synthesis of the conclusions of the entire report. Chapter Two presents an economic and fiscal analysis of the Haitian educational system, including data on costs, rates of return and manpower supply and demand. chapter Three concerns donor coordination. Volume II focuses on the basic levels of the formal educational system and contains two chapters and two annexes. Chapter Four analyzes the current situation of preprimary education in Haiti, and Chapter five examines the status of primary education. Annex A to Volume II is devoted to the issue of school textbooks, whereas Annex B deals with school feeding programs. Volume III concerns secondary and higher education and contains three chapters. Chapter Seven concerns classical secondary education. Chapter Eight deals with teacher training. Chapter Nine presents the situation of higher education and university training. Volume IV examines three other branches of the Haitian educational system. Chapter Nine focuses on management training, Chapter Ten on vocational-technical education and Chapter Eleven on nonformal education.

The individual chapters of this assessment identify issues, constraints, conclusions, and recommendations specific to each subsector. The purpose of this synthesis chapter is threefold: identification of global policy issues across subsectors; clarification of issues, constraints, and needs found throughout the sector; and formulation of recommendations that address global policy issues and thematic needs within the general framework of making more effective use of existing resources.

Analysis and synthesis of information from all chapters of the assessment indicate that five global policy issues face Government in this sector:

1. Education and human resources programs must be improved, expanded, and sustained for national social and economic growth, but, given current Government priorities, the present institutional and financial capacity of Government cannot support the activities that are needed.
2. Coordination of education and human resources activities is difficult, especially when so many are operating within the private sector. This problem is particularly relevant for implementation of the Education



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Reform. In addition to the difficulties associated with making conceptual and structural changes within an operating system, the Reform must win the acceptance and support of the private sector primary and secondary schools that are responsible for a significant majority of the enrollments. A major issue is how to persuade the private schools to support and to adopt the Education Reform, but without hampering their initiative. The language to be used for instruction also poses complex questions related to the Education Reform.

3. Economic growth, especially in the poor rural areas, cannot take place without an effective program for developing income-producing skills. That program must reach remote areas and must be based on accurate estimates of the skills that are needed.
4. Planning for improvement of programs in all subsectors is hampered by a shortage of reliable and current information on status, supply, and demand.
5. No plan exists for Government to closely coordinate the many donor and private sector education and human resources activities with national development goals. Government, donor, and private sector programs would be more effective if their diverse activities were more closely coordinated.

## 1.1 STATUS

Haiti is one of the poorest countries in the world, with three-fourths of its population of almost six million living below the level of absolute poverty. Distribution of wealth is very unequal, concentrated among the few who are very rich and very influential. Dramatic deterioration of the natural environment is particularly evident in serious soil erosion and deforestation. Natural resources are scarce; population pressure on the limited and decreasing arable land places limits on any hope for major expansion of the agricultural activities upon which most of the rural peasants depend for a living. Malnutrition resulting from poverty, with its many devastating effects, especially on children under the age of five, occurs at one of the highest rates in the world. Human resources are severely underdeveloped, and will remain so until major improvements are made in the present education system. Government institutional resources needed to meet these development challenges are inadequate.

Haitian former slaves successfully fought for independence in 1804, but the peasant class that developed since that time has had no significant influence on Government in recent history. The rural poor spend most of their time and

energy on day-to-day survival within a marginally supportive environment, and many exhibit a helpless and fatalistic attitude toward life. This realistic fatalism is based on years of suffering from natural disasters and oppressive government within a social and economic environment over which they have had no control; such an attitude is not contradicted by the beliefs of the dominant religion within the country.

Educational opportunities have always been severely limited, except for the wealthy and powerful elite in the Port-au-Prince area. The national literacy rate was estimated to be about 23% in 1980; it is known to be significantly lower in rural areas than in urban areas. Capacity, efficiency, and quality of education are low at the primary and secondary levels, with heavy dependence on the private sector. The presence of a fairly vigorous private sector in education, that can respond to needs Government is not currently meeting, offers significant opportunities for improvement in the system. About 60% of all children in primary schools, for example, are in the private sector, which contains some of the best--and the worst--schools in the system.

At the primary level there are serious problems and constraints. Government has recently begun an Education Reform to overcome the problems of limited enrollment, low efficiency, and low quality; this sector assessment concludes that support of this Reform is imperative for improvements in the education system. At present, however, fewer than half of the children in the 6 to 12 age range are enrolled in school and the quality of their instruction is low. The primary system is so inefficient, for example, that about half of the students are in the first two grades because of high dropout and repetition rates. The majority of teachers are untrained; those who are trained are not well prepared, and there is insufficient capacity for training of new teachers or inservice training of present teachers.

Government-sponsored secondary education is severely limited, with a large proportion of the schools (84%) within the private sector. If current enrollment trends continue, approximately 90% of all secondary students will be in the private sector by 1990. The curriculum of the secondary cycle needs revision to be fully coordinated with the Reform, which is extending the length of the primary cycle from 6 to 10 years.

Vocational/technical training (except for secretarial and office related training) is poorly developed in both the public and the private sectors, and both sectors need more relevant programs directed at employment opportunities and job creation. Opportunities for management training and experience are severely limited, and the single Government institution in this subsector is not meeting needs. Nonformal education in the public sector is not effective



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because of institutional weaknesses, and programs of private voluntary organizations are generally regarded as being more effective in this subsector.

The above overview of the status of education and human resources development, within its general social and economic context, presents a formidable challenge to Government, the private sector, multilateral and bilateral donor agencies, and individuals concerned with improvement within this important sector. A fragmented approach to managing change will not work. Such an approach, often taken by a government responding to public pressure for short-term results and by donor agencies responding to their internal project and sector priorities, lacks the coordination and focus essential to effectively address the wide range of opportunities for sectorwide improvement.

Haiti receives a relatively small amount of donor assistance in the education and human resources sector. In 1983, for example, only 5.2% or about $8.7 million, of total external assistance was expended for education. In general, multilateral donors assist activities that support the Education Reform, the bilaterals concentrate on higher education and overseas scholarships, and the nongovernmental organizations tend to work in preprimary, primary, and adult education and rural development.

Significant donor assisted programs at the preprimary level include the USAID/CARE support for the Community Integrated Nutrition and Education Centers (CINEC) program, which has been adopted by Government as the nationwide model program at this level. UNICEF provides assistance to preprimary activities for teaching aids, equipment, and school furniture.

In primary education the World Bank has played a very active role, supporting key components of the Education Reform operating within Government schools. A variety of donors have been supporting private sector primary schools in a wide range of projects. Attention to private sector primary education could be a significant opportunity for donor involvement to encourage adoption of the Education Reform.

Several donors, including large multilaterals, have been supporting teacher education. UNICEF provides some assistance in furnishing teacher training institutions. The French Embassy Cultural Service provides assistance for inservice teacher education within the Reform schools, and the Methodist church provides similar services for rural teachers.

In higher education donor assistance is received from the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) for instruction in Agronomy and Veterinary Medicine at the State University of Haiti, and various donors provide scholarships for studies at American universities. Vocational/technical education activities supported by donors include assistance to the Center for



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Professional Training (CFP). Nonformal literacy training activities are supported by the World Food Program. The Inter-American Development Bank assists with integrated rural development. The Organization of American States helps with adult education.

Efforts to bring about permanent and effective changes within the sector must address the long-term objective of ensuring that Haiti has the necessary institutional and managerial capacity for analysis, planning, and implementation. Government must become the leader in making these changes. Individual projects may alleviate highly visible problems in the immediate future, but unless their services are incorporated into the permanent structure they will make little contribution to sustained improvement within the sector. The analyses and recommendations of this assessment focus on this fundamental requirement.

Domestic financial resources will remain scarce in the immediate future. Increased foreign financial and technical assistance from the international donor community and the private sector is urgently needed for the development of education and human resources. Without this development, Haiti will not reach the level of economic growth needed to support its own system.

For this external assistance to be effective, three conditions must exist. First, improvements in basic education and related development of income-producing skills must be given highest priority, because they have direct effects on reducing poverty and they are linked with improvements in family planning, health, nutrition, and agriculture. Second, donor coordination must be explicitly implemented within the framework of Government sectoral goals and priorities. Finally, donors must be willing in the short-term to contribute ample financial assistance to cover the recurrent costs of certain existing institutions that are of fundamental importance. The glamour of new projects must be exchanged for the elegance of a commitment to a fully coordinated program for investment of domestic and foreign resources--a program that gives Haitian development requirements priority over specific interests of individual donors.

## 1.2 EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT

A more effective system for developing human resources is necessary for national social and economic development in Haiti. Economic returns to investments in human resources have been extensively documented and proven beyond doubt to equal or to exceed investments in physical infrastructure projects. The far-reaching modernizing effects of education, particularly of generalized primary education, have been established.

In addition to increases in monetary returns, human resources investments in Haiti will also have significant positive outcomes for improved distribution of income, health and nutrition, and social equity. Moreover, the social and political awareness necessary for building a responsive and just political structure will evolve more rapidly from a literate and informed population.

From a development point of view, education might best be regarded as a means of improving many sectors simultaneously, rather than as a separate sector in itself. Because they interact so broadly with development objectives in all sectors, investments in Haitian education and human resources development will have effects beyond their immediate outcomes. Their long-term outcomes make such investments imperative and attractive in a global approach to development; these effects may in fact equal or exceed the value of their more immediate economic and monetary results.

Economic growth is facilitated by the existence of a trained managerial and technical labor force. Education and training are the major vehicles for transmitting acquired skills and knowledge. In addition, formal training contributes toward developing in a labor force those attitudes, habits, and self-discipline skills that are essential for effective production. This preparation of managers and workers is a major component of economic growth and modernization. The potential economic contribution of education in Haiti is suggested by worldwide comparative studies reported by the World Bank, which have shown that a 20% improvement in literacy was accompanied by a 0.5% increase in the annual rate of growth for a nation's gross domestic product.

Resources spent on general education may be one of Haiti's most attractive and effective investments for improving health, nutrition, and family planning practices. Improvements in behavior related to health, hygiene, family planning, and nutrition can be accelerated and sustained with the proper educational instruction and support. Improvements in nutrition, in turn, can also enhance education. In Haiti, for example, school feeding programs at the preprimary and primary level have been shown to improve school attendance and achievement.

The education of mothers has significant effects on the health of children and other family members. Studies have shown, for example, that for each extra year of schooling for mothers, the death of infants and children is reduced by nine per 1,000. Educating mothers to prepare food to obtain the maximum nutritional benefit from limited supplies would be particularly beneficial in Haiti, where malnutrition is a serious problem. Preparing the common bean in a pureed sauce as opposed to the more customary practice of serving them whole, for example, would increase the nutritive value of this food for young children.

Education of mothers is also positively correlated with improved family planning practices, willingness to invest in education, the number of children in the family that attend school, and the length of time the children remain in school.

Basic education to at least the fourth year of the primary cycle is widely regarded as necessary to support improvements in agriculture. According to worldwide studies, where complementary agricultural inputs are available, four years of basic education will increase farm productivity by about 13%. The farming practiced by the Haitian peasant typically does not include plowing, terracing, irrigation, fertilizers, or pesticides. A history of natural disasters has caused the rural poor, living from the meager crops of small plots of land farmed with primitive techniques, to feel helpless with respect to the capricious forces of nature. Basic education can be particularly effective in such a situation. When appropriate agricultural techniques are introduced to small farmers, their understanding, acceptance, and application of these techniques will depend upon their basic level of education and their receptivity to attitude change. Investments in education at the basic level thus can contribute to introducing and to disseminating improved agricultural practices. Such educational investments are even more helpful if full benefits are to be derived from more complex improvements in agriculture, such as those associated with cooperatives and credit plans.

Changes in social and political awareness are a significant long-term effect of education. Without an educated population, Haiti will not be prepared to develop and to support a political and social structure that is responsive to its own needs. Such an outcome depends upon having an educated and politically aware population and a cadre of highly skilled managers at all levels of Government. This will require a long-term effort to improve education at all levels, from primary through university, and will include training in vocational, technical, and managerial skills.

Within the framework of its budget priorities, the Haitian Government is currently spending as much as it can afford on education and training for its immediate future. This allocation represents a smaller portion of the gross domestic product than is spent by some comparable countries. Improving the effectiveness of the educational system will require making better use of existing and limited new capacities. Opportunities for improvement might include strengthening the private sector in areas not now served by Government, and a reexamination of the balance between formal and nonformal education in order to extend educational opportunities to a larger population. Nonformal education programs are particularly effective for short-term results emphasizing income-producing activities, and for long-term programs related to forming



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groups acquiring problem-solving skills. Functional literacy is another area where nonformal education has great potential.

## 1.3 ISSUES

This section discusses eight issues related to improvement of the quality and relevance of education and human resources programs. The issues are policy reform, institutional capacity, planning and management capacity, the private sector role, resource utilization, donor coordination, information for planning, and the language of instruction. Each has influenced the derivation of the guidelines and activities recommended in the following section.

Policy Reform. Progress within the education sector will depend on strong and consistent support for Government policies and priorities, taking place within a general framework of regionalization and decentralization. The Education Reform was implemented in 1982, after a three-year experimental period, with the World Bank supporting many of its activities. The Reform addresses needs in the areas of internal efficiency and relevance of the educational system, as well as concerns about equity and access. Internal efficiency will be increased, for example, by improved instructional materials and teacher training accompanied by automatic promotion between grades one, two and three, and four.

The Reform is introducing a 10-year cycle of basic education (4-3-3), to be followed by a three-year secondary cycle. A new curriculum is being developed, with Creole replacing French as the initial language of instruction. Textbooks and teacher guides in Creole for the early primary grades are being prepared to accompany the new curriculum, introducing new and more effective teaching methods. A new Teacher Charter has been prepared to make a teaching career more attractive to qualified staff. There will be improved school supervision and inspection.

The design of the Reform is conceptually and pedagogically sound as far as it goes, but implementation has been uneven. It is difficult to introduce structural changes in an operating system, and the Ministry of Education has not been clear about the proposed phasing of these changes. Acceptance within the private sector has been slow, partly because many school directors believe that parents want their children to be educated by the more traditional methods and with the more marketable French language. The Ministry of Education lacks the capacity to manage the Reform, and implementation of the Teacher Charter has been delayed because of the lack of funds. The rationale and objectives of the Reform are not always well understood in the educational community; this will impede its implementation, particularly in the private sector.



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Most informed educators who understand its objectives endorse the Reform--in Government, in the private sector, and in the donor community. Weaknesses in management and implementation, however, are sometimes confused with conceptual weaknesses, and the Reform is a controversial topic among many Haitian teachers and the general public. If there is a lack of acceptance of the rationale of the Reform by the community at large, educators are likely to react in terms of the community attitude. Many individuals express concern over the prospects of Government maintaining long-term support for the Reform at the highest levels.

Policy reforms are needed in parts of the education and human resources sector not yet affected by the Reform. These lacks are most notably felt in the areas of management training, higher education, and nonformal education. Recommendations in this assessment emphasize the development of a capacity to design and to manage these reforms within Government.

Institutional Capacity. The policy reforms required for coordinated and effective sectoral planning and management must be based on a sound institutional foundation. Implementation of these reforms will require effective public and private institutions at the level of schools, teacher training institutes, universities, technical and managerial training institutes, and agencies working in nonformal education. The analysis and recommendations within this assessment focus on these institutional frameworks.

While there are existing infrastructure and institutions to meet many of the sector requirements, most are not currently effective due to the lack of trained and experienced manpower, as well as the lack of sufficient funds for operations and maintenance. The appropriate response to this situation is not the development of additional institutions. Nor is it to circumvent Government by working mainly in the private sector. The most effective long-term response is to rehabilitate and to strengthen the existing institutions within the public and private sectors, even if this requires external funding of recurrent costs for a limited time.

Much of the present institutional capacity in Haiti is within the private sector. This is especially the case with primary and secondary education. Assistance to these institutions may be an effective means for making better use of present capacity. A simultaneous emphasis on institutional growth in the public sector will make a greater contribution to national growth and development in the long-term. The private sector will continue to have a significant role in Haitian education for the foreseeable future, and external assistance should focus on the development of a coordinated system which fully supports the policies of the Education Reform.



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Planning and Management Capacity. The use of resources and the delivery of educational services in Haiti are severely limited by weaknesses in public administration. Staff having the analytic, planning, and managerial experience and capabilities needed for effective institutional operations are in short supply. This capability can be enhanced through a combination of seminars and workshops for inservice, short-term, and long-term training.

The inspectorate does not have sufficient staff or operational funds to effectively monitor the public and private schools that are its responsibility. Management of public and private schools thus largely devolves upon the school directors, who generally are responsible for policy and for day-to-day operations. The directors also are the link between the school and the Ministry of Education, the inspectorate, and the school system if the school is operated within one.

No quantitative information is available on directors, but it is generally recognized that they have an important role in providing primary education, for it is they who provide the school leadership. Many directors have not received training to support their joint administrative and pedagogical responsibilities. In many cases, especially in private schools with no religious affiliation, the directors are former teachers who have started their own school. Thus, many directors have qualifications no higher than those of their poorly trained teachers.

Directors receive some guidance from the Ministry of Education, particularly in the case of public schools. This guidance is usually at the policy level, however, and does not address day-to-day operations. Nor does it provide examples, suggestions, or opportunities for learning skills related to school management. In the private schools that are affiliated with systems, there tends to be some guidance for school directors as the system often provides a structure that supports both management and pedagogy in the schools. Compassion International, for example, requires participating schools to have fairly tight fiscal management and related accounting procedures. Several of the mission-supported systems also provide inservice training for school directors.

The relative needs for improving the various skills of directors would have to be identified by a survey, but priority areas in Haiti would probably include some training in management and administration, school management, economic analysis, financial planning and management, cost analysis, budgeting, accounting, and fiscal control. These skills should be taught with specific applications in mind, and not as academic or theoretical courses. Emphasis

should be on skill and experience combinations that focus on setting priorities and objectives within a policy framework, and on managing resources efficiently.

Private Sector Role. A distinguishing feature of the Haitian educational system is the presence of an active and growing private sector. It includes schools supported by local communities, religious organizations, and private voluntary organizations as well as those managed on a private profit or nonprofit basis. The term "private sector" thus encompasses a wide range of educational activities.

A 1974 law made the Ministry of Education responsible for all education, including activities in the private sector. This law specifies the conditions under which private sector schools may operate and makes Government inspectors responsible for enforcing the regulations. In practice, the private sector is virtually unmonitored because inspectors are rarely able to meet even the needs of the public schools which are their first responsibility.

The Haitian private sector has a unique role in education, particularly in areas of high social demand or high external interest. The demand for preprimary, primary, and secondary education has resulted in a situation where a large (but not precisely determined) number of preprimary students and the majority of the primary and secondary students are in private schools. In areas of low social demand and high operational costs, such as some types of vocational/technical education, the private sector is significantly less active. The special interests of particular donors account for numerous activities sponsored by private voluntary organizations and nongovernmental organizations. Some of these latter groups have only recently become organized in the Haitian Association of Voluntary Agencies (HAVA).

Activities and coordination within the sector are needed to utilize the existing broad range of private sector operations to further general educational goals. The major objective at the preprimary and primary levels should be to encourage private sector institutions to support the implementation of the Reform. At the preprimary level, for example, availability of resources for the Community Integrated Nutrition and Education Centers (CINEC) model could be allocated to schools that follow the Reform curriculum. At the primary level, a media campaign on the Reform, supported by an association of private schools linked to Government, could encourage adoption of the curriculum, materials, and methods of the Reform. This approach could be supported by an incentive program providing teacher training and supplementary instructional materials in Creole in support of the Reform.

Direction is less clear in the area of nongovernmental organizations working in nonformal education. The present Government structure for their

coordination has not been effective. Significant expansion of the organizational operations beyond the present broad range of activities is not likely because demands on organizational capacity are already substantial. There is some hope that, as HAVA builds its membership, private and nongovernmental organizations with nonformal education programs will be able to increase their effectiveness through closer coordination.

Resource Utilization. The severe limitations on existing and new capacities and resources, as discussed in the opening paragraphs of this chapter, demand that new activities focus on using resources more efficiently. Current programs should be examined so that those most critical within the sector can be made more efficient. At the primary level, for example, this could be accomplished throughout the country by exploring low-cost alternatives to basic education and improving teacher guides that lessen demand on teacher training. Many urban areas could benefit from increasing the use of double shifts and from higher student/teacher ratios. At the State University of Haiti, as discussed more fully in the chapter on Higher Education, costly duplication of facilities among the various colleges could be reduced by having a central site for common areas of instruction.

Donor Coordination. More effective use of both domestic and foreign resources can be promoted by a closer coordination of multilateral, bilateral, and private voluntary donor activities with Government programs and priorities. Representatives of these donors have been meeting monthly since June 1983, but Government does not participate in these meetings. Their informal nature is believed by some observers to comprise a sufficient level of coordination. This wide range of resources could be utilized even more effectively, however, if allocation was arranged within a well-formulated and explicit strategy jointly developed by Government and donors.

Such a strategy should be consistent with and supportive of Government policies and programs. Agreements about coordination should be specific and have observable results that can be openly monitored. Donor agreements that merely give individual donors prime responsibility within a portion of the sector do not constitute fully strategic coordination. Such cooperation would be unusual, and would require agencies to surrender some of their autonomy to serve the greater good of national development.

Information for Planning. Informed planning is the basis for effective programs, and such planning cannot be done without an adequate base of information. There is a pervasive shortage of information for strategic educational planning in Haiti, extending from the preprimary level through nonformal education. At the preprimary level information is needed on

activities and outcomes, particularly within the private sector; there is no reliable estimate, for example, of the total enrollments in preprimary. At the primary level there is no reliable information on total enrollments, number of schools, number of teachers, or progression rates between grades, in either the public or the private sector. The virtual absence of realistic statistics on manpower supply and demand hampers planning in the important area of vocational/technical training.

Language of Instruction. French is the official language of Haiti, and French and Creole are both national languages. French is the language that traditionally has been associated with membership in the elite ruling class. French is used predominantly by only about 5% of the population, and about another 5% use both languages. The remainder of the population may have some small knowledge of French but it is not a functional language for them. Creole is spoken and understood by all Haitians.

Because of the French cultural heritage, however, all formal instruction was supposedly in French until the Reform was introduced in 1982. In reality, most primary instruction has always been in Creole. It is now proposed that French be taught as a second language beginning in the first grade, and that it be the language of instruction from the fifth grade on within the Reform schools. Prior to the Reform, the emphasis on French as the language of instruction, and certainly as the only language of examination, presented formidable obstacles and few tangible benefits to new students, especially those in the poor rural areas. The use of Creole as the language of instruction, accompanied by newly developed instructional materials in Creole, has already improved instruction at the primary level.

Unless the Reform is fully implemented, however, this program may have unplanned outcomes. The efficiency of the primary cycle will have to be improved, in order to reduce or to eliminate the high dropout rates at the lower grades, when instruction in French has not yet begun. If many students leave school not having learned Haiti's official language--the one used by those in power--this could produce a linguistically isolated peasantry unable to access printed or spoken materials in any language other than Creole. Effective methods for the teaching of French are essential to successful implementation of the Reform--a difficult requirement, given current levels of teacher training. Nevertheless, Creole must not become the only functional language of the rural poor.

## 1.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

This section presents five recommendations and a suggested set of 14 supporting activities. They were selected or adapted from those within the

subsector chapters, or derived from an overall analysis, according to the extent to which they meet three criteria: contributing to national social and economic development, strengthening relevant public and private institutions within the sector, and emphasizing the most efficient use of existing resources.

Regarding national social and economic development, recommendations are made for the purposes of: strengthening basic education, improving income-producing skills through public and private nonformal education programs and targeted programs in vocational/technical education, and improving coordination of donor activities with Government programs and priorities.

Recommendations that affect relevant capacity building within the sector, which are critical for the continued operation of essential programs, will strengthen existing public and private sector educational institutions. The suggested series of specific activities lead to a targeted training program for institutional development.

Many activities supporting these basic recommendations emphasize the thematic approach of this assessment: making more efficient use of existing resources. These include activities that increase the availability of instructional materials, improve and extend the preprimary and primary school feeding programs, and improve the inservice training for public and private primary school teachers. Basic planning surveys are also recommended in the light of this criterion. They will improve the efficiency of resource use through activities related to a manpower supply and demand survey, the development and implementation of an educational management information system for planning purposes, the identification of successful nonformal education programs, exploration of the possible wide use of educational radio for multiple purposes (e.g., in-school and out-of-school basic education; inservice teacher training; information campaigns for educational services to support health, nutrition, and agriculture), and the examination of alternative primary-level instructional systems.

The recommendations emphasize improvement of basic education and income-producing skills for the alleviation of poverty in the short-term and for social and economic growth of the country in the long-term. Support for basic education is recommended within the framework of the Education Reform. The recommendations support the use of the private sector for short-term activities in areas where Government has limited capacity, while building Government institutional and individual capacities in these areas for the long-term.

The recommendations are given in order of priority. They do not include activities for the entire formal system. For all levels of the formal system, including those not addressed within these recommendations, the priority for

investments (in decreasing order) would be the following: primary education, preprimary education, inservice and preservice teacher training, vocational/technical training, secondary education, and higher education.

Recommendation 1 - Strengthen Basic Education.

Resources spent for basic education have a high rate of return, alleviate poverty, and have extensive linkages with other sectors that produce benefits with respect to reducing family size and improving health, nutrition, and agricultural practices. These outcomes, along with increases that basic education produces in the literacy rate, make this the most attractive investment for national economic and social development. Three activities are identified to support Recommendation 1.

Activity 1A. Increase the availability of instructional materials.

Instructional materials comprise the single most cost-effective component of primary education. The range of instructional materials that support the Reform curriculum should be extended to include supplementary books, and their distribution should be improved in both the public and the private sector. The teacher guides prepared under the Reform need revision so they can be used more effectively by teachers with limited formal teacher training. Some revisions are being made within the project sponsored by the World Bank, and any activity in this area should be coordinated closely with this work. Particular attention should be given to materials for instruction in French, considering not only the instructional quality of the books but also the availability of reading materials in school libraries (which is known to be very effective in developing second language skills).

Activities related to the availability of textbook and instructional materials can be employed within the private sector to encourage adoption and support of the Reform, by making Reform-oriented materials available on a subsidized or free basis only to those schools that endorse and use the Reform curriculum and teaching methods.

Activity 1B. Improve and extend preprimary and primary school feeding programs.

Early deficiencies in nutrition have devastating and long-term effects on children. These range from moderate reductions in school achievement and class attendance to impairment of physical growth and brain functioning. Malnutrition is pervasive in Haiti, and programs that alleviate it are desirable because of both their humanitarian appeal and their effects on educational improvement, especially in preschool and during early primary years.



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Extension of the CINEC preprimary program endorsed and sponsored by Government could have two very significant outcomes, in addition to the direct educational and humanitarian benefits. First, these programs are designed to prepare children for the the Reform curriculum. Second, the feeding program could be used as a vehicle to educate mothers participating in the program; this could have significant positive results, as discussed earlier in this chapter.

Activity 1C. Improve inservice training for public and private primary teachers.

Inservice training of primary teachers has a more immediate impact than preservice improvements, which may take several years to produce results. Enhanced inservice training activities should begin with an analysis of skills required for primary school teaching. Short workshops or seminars to address skill deficiencies should be developed, expanding present Government programs of this nature. It is very important that such training focus on identified skill deficiencies among Haitian primary teachers, be closely coordinated with materials of the Reform, and utilize competency-based examinations at course completion.

Recommendation 2 - Improve Income-Producing Skills.

The improvement of income-producing skills will directly contribute to reducing poverty in Haiti. The two activities emphasized in this area will have to be closely coordinated with the manpower supply and demand information discussed below under Recommendation 4.

Activity 2A. Support successful public and private nonformal education programs that improve income-producing skills.

This would require the development of guidelines for investment, based on criteria derived from an analysis of successful programs. Although many of the better-known programs are in the private sector, the program analysis should include public sector programs as well as private efforts.

Activity 2B. Support targeted programs in vocational/technical education.

These activities are necessary for successful economic development. To be effective, any vocational/technical training support should be based on the manpower supply and demand information discussed below. No significant investments in program development should be made until these results are available, although training to improve the management and staff of some key programs could begin earlier. Priority in selecting programs should be given to those supporting policies that create employment.

Private sector firms with particularly relevant training programs, for example, could be encouraged to make these programs available to persons not employed by them. One approach might be to give permission for the beginning of a new business only with an explicit understanding that training programs would be shared with other establishments that conduct training.

Recommendation 3 - Strengthen Existing Public and Private Educational Institutions.

Activities in support of this recommendation focus on strengthening the capacities of Haitian institutions and individuals for analysis, planning, and management to utilize resources more efficiently. They will seek to strengthen institutions within the sector by improving individual staff skills in critical areas. Institutions selected for staff training should be those identified by Government as being most important to the Reform. Major emphasis is expected to be on the upper-level and middle-level staff of the Ministry of Education. Training where benefits will be multiplied as the trainees pass on their new skills would also include staff of teacher training institutions, the rectorship of the State University of Haiti, management and staff of technical and managerial training institutes, school directors, and field workers in nonformal education programs. Three activities are suggested within Recommendation 3: conduct needs analysis, identify training resources, and implement targeted training.

Activity 3A. Conduct needs analysis.

The first step in the program of staff development must be an analysis of training needs in key public and private institutions within the sector. It should begin by identifying the skills needed for effective job performance; care must be taken that this inventory address skill requirements rather than credentials. The second step is an inventory of skills of incumbents in positions selected for upgrading. The third and final step, based on the first two, will list the training requirements by skill level and skill category, with some indication of the numbers of persons needing training within each group.

Activity 3B. Identify training resources.

The second activity should be the identification of training resources for the skill categories identified in Activity 3A. Local resources should be used whenever possible, both to reduce costs compared with out-of-country training and to build the training capacity of local institutions. They should be used for this training even if external consultants have to be brought in to assist with the planning and instruction. Where local resources are not available, existing foreign programs for training the staff of developing country



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institutions should be identified. An example of this type of institution is the Economic Development Institute of the World Bank. Also, many universities with programs of development studies have excellent training programs.

Activity 3C. Implement the targeted training.

The third and final step in the sequence for Recommendation 3 is the implementation of the training that has been specifically targeted. Such training can be most efficient if individuals from different institutions, who require similar kinds of training, receive it at the same time. Not only does this reduce training costs, but also it will give Haitians working on similar assignments and problems the opportunity to exchange views with one another.

Beyond the stipulation that as much of the training as possible take place locally, unitary sponsorship is not necessary. It is expected that various types of training will be supported by different members of the international donor community. Thus, some courses, workshops, or seminars may take place simultaneously in different countries under different sponsorship. What is important to the success of Recommendation 3 is that all training take place within the framework of a closely coordinated plan, ensuring the most efficient use of the training resources and avoiding costly duplications and omissions. Moreover, having a clearly focused program will ensure that it increases the capacity of the public and private sector institutions that need to be given priority attention.

Recommendation 4 - Conduct Basic Planning Surveys.

Earlier discussions emphasized the lack of suitable and accurate planning information within the sector. Recommendation 4 suggests activities to address this problem as well as to explore the possible use of radio and alternative instructional systems.

Activity 4A. Prepare a manpower supply and demand survey.

This survey should build upon present activities of the National Institute for Professional Training (INFP) and be conducted in cooperation with the Ministry of Planning. It should be designed to produce information required for developing skills to support national economic development. It should include an analysis of projected needs, based on interviews with major employers and with economic planners in Government.

Activity 4B. Develop an educational management information system.

Many planning decisions now have to be made on the basis of incomplete and unreliable information and the opinion of educators. To provide an information base for well-informed planning, a management information system should be

designed and implemented. The information for the system should be selected on the basis of the uses to which it will be put and should take advantage of appropriate computer technology. This activity should include staff training for Haitians so that the capacity will be fully utilized on a permanent basis. Any funding for this activity should include provision for a national education survey on a recurring basis, possibly every two years.

Activity 4C. Identify successful nonformal education programs.

This survey should be based on a set of guidelines for identifying programs that are successful, and the results could be used to focus investments for nonformal education on those programs that are effectively operating in content areas that will support national development. Criteria for success might include content, number of participants, information on evaluation, participation of learners in project planning and development, and formation of groups with a focus on the development of problem-solving skills.

Activity 4D. Explore the further use of radio for education.

This planning survey should explore the past and present experience with radio in Haiti and examine its potential for possible future use. Radio is a relatively inexpensive means of delivering information to large numbers of people. Survey information could be used to support further a wide range of programs: in-school and out-of-school basic education; inservice teacher training; information campaigns in education, health, nutrition, and agriculture; and adult education.

Activity 4E. Examine alternative instructional systems at the primary level.

A number of related technologies involving low-cost approaches are available for education at the primary level. Many of these technologies focus on programmed instructional materials that require very little formal teacher training, and that have demonstrated very low costs per student with no decline in achievement. Some of these technologies have been used for out-of-school students. Given the fact that about half of the children of primary school age in Haiti are not in school, and that a linear extension of the present model to accommodate them will not be affordable in the foreseeable future, some of these technologies may be adaptable for use in Haiti.

Recommendation 5 - Improve Donor Coordination.

While this is the lowest priority recommendation derived from the sector assessment, it represents an area where improvement could bring significant long-term benefits.

Activity 5A. Have Government coordinate, plan, and participate in the monthly meetings of donors.

This procedure would ensure a better coordination of donor activities with Government programs and priorities and improve the utilization of domestic and foreign resources. Government and donors should join in creating an overall strategic plan, which should include specific agreements about coordinating mechanisms, responsibilities, and criteria for monitoring and evaluating performance.

*Chapitre*

# 2

Chapter

# *Analyse Economique et Financière*

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# Economic and Fiscal Analysis

## AVANT PROPOS

Le chapitre 2, "Analyse Economique et Fiscale", a été revu et corrigé à Port-au-Prince le 15 avril 1986 par :

| | |
|---|---|
| Mr. Joseph Herns Hewey | Directeur de la Planification au Ministère de l'Education National. |
| Mr. Max Paul | Cadre au bureau du développement des ressources humaines. |
| Mr. Gary Perrodin | Chef de la section Evaluation de la division Planification du Ministère de l'Education. |
| Mr. Jérôme Jean-Noel | Chef du service de Coopération Extérieure de la division Planification du Ministère de l'Education. |

Mr. Peter Easton, AMESED/Université d'Etat de Floride, a pris part aux discussions en tant que facilitateur. La première partie de la séance a été consacrée à un certain nombre de corrections de détails et de présentation des données statistiques. Dans l'ensemble, les observateurs ont estimé que le chapitre présente de nombreuses informations statistiques for utiles pour une meilleure compréhension de la situation économique du système éducatif haïtien, surtout en ce qui concerne l'analyse des coûts unitaires. Toutefois, ils ont estimé qu'une plus grande attention aurait du être accordée à l'analyse et à l'interprétation des aspects suivants :

- Les inconvénients issus de la lourde dépendance actuelle du secteur éducatif envers l'aide extérieure.
- Les conséquences négatives de la faiblesse de l'engagement budgétaire en matière d'éducation.
- La nature restrictive de l'assistance au développement fournit par les partenaires bi et multilatéraux.

Les observateurs ont également estimé que l'analyse de l'offre et de la demande présentée dans ce chapitre contenait un certain nombre de limitations dues au fait que tout changement dans la stratégie de développement ou dans le climat économique extérieure pourrait avoir de sérieuses répercussions sur les conclusions offertes dans ce chapitre.

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## 2.0 ANALYSE ECONOMIQUE ET FINANCIERE

Dans les pays en voie de développement comme Haïti, le besoin d'une analyse économique de l'éducation se fait sentir de façon d'autant plus aiguë que les ressources disponibles pour promouvoir son développement sont sévèrement limitées et que l'enseignement est obligé de les disputer à d'autres secteurs économiques et sociaux dont la situation est tout aussi critique. Devant cet état de choses, une évaluation des coûts et des bénéfices des différents types de programmes d'éducation semble pouvoir être très utile aux responsables chargés de définir la politique du gouvernement. Cependant on ne peut ni ne doit fonder les décisions sur un seul type d'évaluation économique. Ni une analyse de l'offre et de la demande de main-d'oeuvre, en vue de la planification de l'enseignement, ni l'analyse des coûts et rendements des programmes, ni une estimation de la capacité financière du système éducatif ne peuvent répondre à toutes les questions que doivent se poser les personnes impliquées dans la définition de la politique de l'éducation. Même envisagées ensemble, ces trois méthodes doivent être complétées par une analyse plus large des relations entre l'éducation, l'évolution du marché de l'emploi, la stratégie de développement, la structure des incitations économiques, et les modèles sociaux dominants.

### 2.1 PRINCIPAUX PROBLEMES ECONOMIQUES

De nombreux obstacles limitent les possibilités d'intervention du gouvernement haïtien dans le domaine de l'éducation et notamment sa capacité d'améliorer le système éducatif national. Certains ont pour origine le faible rôle du secteur public dans l'éducation. D'autres relèvent de facteurs économiques et institutionnels qui entravent l'activité du gouvernement. Parmi les problèmes les plus persistants, on peut citer les suivants :

- Une importante population rurale et une agriculture vulnérable. La faible productivité dûe à la rareté et à l'éparpillement des terres arables, à l'utilisation de techniques agricoles archaïques, et au manque de formation s'ajoutent à l'érosion et à une double vulnerabilité aux factuers naturels (sécheresse, cyclones) et aux facteurs externes (fluctuations des coûts du café) pour rendre l'agriculture haïtienne particulièrement fragile. Le morcellement des terres par le système d'héritage contribue également à accentuer cette tendance.
- Manque de moyens de communication. L'isolement de la population rurale accentué par la topographie naturelle rend très difficile la

circulation des personnes, des biens et des services. Un réseau routier déficient maintient isolée la population de régions entières.

- Une population rurale appauvrie et sous-employée. Le revenu national réel par habitant diminue depuis trois ans, le revenu annuel par habitant en milieu rural a baissé au cours des dix dernières années et la croissance de la production agricole est inférieure à celle de la population. Quarante pour cent en moyenne de la population est sous-employée. L'état d'indigence extrême qui caractérise la plus grande partie de la population rurale laisse beaucoup de doutes quant à la possibilité des paysans de contribuer davantage aux frais d'éducation et de santé.
- Une aire métropolitaine surpeuplée où sont concentrés à la fois les services publics et les activités économiques, et qui constitue presque le seul marché du pays. La production de revenus par les industries et établissements commerciaux de la capitale fait naître à son tour une forte demande de biens et de services. Quoique l'élite soit la principale bénéficiare de la production du secteur "moderne" de l'économie, une couche de plus en plus grande de la population urbaine en retire des avantages.
- La faiblesse de l'appareil administratif. Sa capacité limitée en matière de planification, de gestion et d'évaluation constitue depuis longtemps un frein majeur à l'élaboration de politiques cohérentes, dynamiques et à long terme.
- Les capacités d'investissement limitées du secteur public en matière de développement entraînent à leur tour une dépendance croissante vis à vis de l'aide étrangère. L'efficacité et même le volume de l'aide étrangère sont de plus en plus remis en question parce que la capacité d'absorption du pays est saturée.
- La vulnérabilité du secteur industriel moderne, tant les industries d'assemblage que celles orientées vers le marché local. Les industries d'assemblage constituent un élément décisif pour le développement d'un véritable secteur moderne et générateur de revenus. L'absence d'un code industriel, le manque de protection sociale, des charges fiscales trop lourdes, et l'insuffisance des services de logement et d'alimentation à l'intention des ouvriers rendent les conditions de travail de ceux-ci très difficiles. Le manque de cadres moyens compétents constitue un sérieux handicap pour le développement de la productivité de la main-d'oeuvre et il en résulte un ralentissement du développement des activités orientées vers

l'exportation. Le fait que le secteur d'assemblage soit resté une activité relativement isolée est un signe inquiétant.

- En dernier lieu, le problème fondamental de la distribution des revenus. Le Produit National Brut (PNB) par habitant a diminué de plus de 2% par an entre 1979 et 1983 et l'inégalité de la distribution des revenus et la population rurale s'est accentuée au detriment de celle-ci. Cette inégalité se manifeste aussi au sein de la population urbaine et à l'intérieur du secteur moderne lui-même. En particulier, les salaires de la fonction publique sont beaucoup plus bas que ceux des entreprises privées. De sérieux obstacles empêchent une meilleure répartition des ressources produites par le secteur moderne parmi toutes les couches de la population.

Plusieurs problèmes directement liés à l'économie de l'éducation méritent également d'être mentionnés :

- Les frais de scolarité dans la plupart des écoles primaires - à l'exception des écoles de très bas niveau ou des écoles fortement subventionnées - ne sont pas à la portée d'une grande partie de la population, en particulier celle des régions rurales.
- La demande en éducation est très forte, et les parents ainsi que les élèves acceptent des sacrifices personnels et financiers considérables (jusqu'à 40% du revenu familial dans certains cas) pour scolariser quelques-uns des enfants.
- Les organismes non gouvernementaux (ONG) qui interviennent dans le domaine de l'éducation ne peuvent pas offrir suffisamment de places à un prix subventionné pour satisfaire la demande, car le nombre des parents désireux d'envoyer leurs enfants à ces écoles dépasse largement les capacités d'accueil.
- La contribution financière du gouvernement à l'éducation est relativement faible : actuellement, elle se situe entre 1% et 1,5% du Produit Intérieur Brut (PIB) par rapport à une moyenne de 4% ou plus dans les autres pays en voie de développement.
- Les taux d'abandon scolaire sont très élevés (69% à l'école primaire, 70% à l'école secondaire, et similaires partout ailleurs).
- Le manque d'informations précises relatives aux flux d'élèves, aux coûts réels de scolarité (particulièrement dans le secteur privé), et aux budgets familiaux fausse l'étude et le diagnostic des déficiences économiques du système éducatif.

## 2.2 CAPACITE FINANCIERE

Le développement d'un système éducatif efficace ne peut d'accouplir sans la mobilisation effective des ressources privées et des ressources publiques. La quantité des ressources disponibles est à sont tour hautement dépendante de la performance de l'économie. Les taux de croissance globaux et sectoriels, et l'afflux de l'aide étrangère à l'investissement ont tous été surestimés dans le Plan Quinquennal 1981-1986, mais des prévisions plus réalistes ont été faites pour 1984-1986. Les nouvelles prévisions sont basées sur un taux de croissance de 3% du PIB en chiffres réels pour les deux prochaines années. La plus grande partie de cette croissance devra provenir des exportations, dont on prévoit une augmentation annuelle de 6%. Ces prévisions peuvent être considérées comme étant à peu près valables pour la période allant de 1986 à 1990. En d'autres termes, on peut supposer que les tendances qui ont contibué à modifier la structure du PIB au cours des récentes années vont se poursuivre jusqu'à la fin de la décennie. Ces tendances incluent une faible réduction de la contribution de l'agricuture et de l'industrie au PIB, une contribution stable des autres secteurs de l'économie.

Si le PIB augmente à un rythme de 3% par an au cours de la prochaine période quinquennale, on peut supposer que les revenus publics augmenteront à un taux à peu près équivalent--soit 3% par an en dollars réels et 11% par an en termes nominaux, compte tenu d'un annuel d'inflation estimé à 80%. Ce même taux de croissance de 11% peut être raisonnablement appliqué aux dépenses budgétaires.

Cette hypothèse est différente de celle adoptée par l'UNESCO dans ses récentes prévisions des coûts récurrents de l'enseignement primaire public. Ces prévisions sont basées sur une série d'hypothèses concernant le taux de croissance du budget du gouvernement. Les taux retenus varient de 2% (dans la plupart des scénarios) à 9% (dans les cas les plus optimistes). Afin de permettre des comparaisons entre les projections faites par l'UNESCO et celles que découlent de nos propres hypothèses, nous retiendrons comme alternative au taux de 11% calculé ci-dessus, un taux de croissance de 5%, correspondant à l'hypothèse moyenne de l'étude de l'UNESCO. En joignant ces deux hypothèses concernant l'augmentation des revenus publics à deux autres concernant l'évolution de la part du budget du gouvernement alloué à l'éducation (premièrement, qu'elle reste stationnaire au niveau de 14% actuellement observé et deuxièmement qu'elle augmente de 1,5% par an) on en arrive à la matrice de projections alternatives présentée sur le Tableau 2.1.

A l'intérieur de cette série d'hypothèses, H5--qui allie une croissance de 11% du budget du gouvernement à une stabilité des dépenses publiques en matière

Tableau 2.1

Hypothèses alternatives concernant l'évolution du budget général du gouvernement et du budget de l'éducation, 1984-85 @ 1989-90

| Budget | Hypothèse | 1984-85 | 1985-86 | 1986-87 | 1987-88 | 1988-89 | 1989-90 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Croissance du Budget du Général | H1 - Taux de croissance annuelle, 5% | 138 | 145 | 152 | 160 | 168 | 176 |
| | H2 - Taux de croissance annuelle, 11% | 138 | 153 | 170 | 184 | 210 | 233 |
| Croissance du Budget de l'Education | H3 - Croissance annuelle du budget général, 5% ; La part de l'éducation reste stationnaire @ 14%. | 18 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 24 | 25 |
| | H4 - Croissance annuelle du budget général, 5% ; La part de l'éducation augmente de 1.5% par an. | 19 | 22 | 26 | 30 | 34 | 38 |
| | H5 - Croissance annuelle du budget 11% ; La part de l'éducation reste stationnaire @ 14%. | 19 | 22 | 24 | 26 | 29 | 33 |
| | H6 - Croissance annuelle du budget général, 11% ; La part de l'éducation augmente de 1.5% par an. | 19 | 24 | 29 | 35 | 42 | 50 |

d'éducation--est la plus proche de la réalité actuelle. Si le secteur public doit garder au moins son quota d'inscriptions à l'échelle nationale, on devrait cependant accorder la préférence à une croissance de type H6.

En utilisant une approche complémentaire, on peut faire une estimation de la participation relative des secteurs publics et privés au financement de l'éducation. Les vingt-six millions de dollars dépensés pour l'éducation primaire sont réparties de la façon suivante :

Parents : 71% (dont 47% dans les écoles privées et 23% dans les écoles publiques), et

Gouvernement : 29% (entièrement dans les écoles publiques).

Bien que préliminaires, ces estimations montrent à quel point les familles sont profondément impliquées dans le financement de l'éducation de leurs enfants. Même dans le système public d'enseignement primaire, 44% des frais sont à la charge des parents.

Les projections faites au-dessus concernant essentiellement le budget de fonctionnement du système éducatif. Il est plus difficile de faire des prévisions budgétaires en matière d'investissement à cause de l'ampleur et parfois de la nature aléatoire de l'aide étrangère aux projets de développement. En fait, en raison de l'incapacité du gouvernement à l'heure actuelle de garantir des fonds de contrepartie pour les projets financés par l'aide étrangère, la réduction ou même la suppression de certains projets d'investissement n'est pas impossible. Dans ces conditions, il faut adopter une hypothèse conservatrice quant au taux de croissance des dépenses d'investissement--une hypothèse correspondant à un taux annuel de 4% pour les sources de financement internes et externes de 1986-87 jusqu'en 1989-90. Quant au secteur privé, le maintien de la tendance des cinq dernières années aboutirait à un taux de croissance de 20% pour la même période (tableau 2.2).

Tableau 2.2

**Projection des dépenses d'investissement en l'éducation**
**1984-85 à 1989-90**
**(milliers de dollars courants)**

| Secteur | 1984-85 | 1985-86 | 1986-87 | 1987-88 | 1988-89 | 1989-90 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Public | 1,968 | 2,052 | 2,134 | 2,219 | 2,308 | 2,401 |
| Etranger | 9,389 | 9,970 | 10,181 | 10,588 | 11,012 | 11,452 |
| Privé national | 2,248 | 2,788 | 3,345 | 4,014 | 4,817 | 5,781 |
| Total | 13,606 | 14,629 | 15,661 | 16,822 | 18,137 | 19,634 |

Source: Calculé par le Ministère du Plan, Plan Biennal 1984-86 - Parité Globale et Régionale Tome I.

Si ces tendances persistent, la contribution de l'investissement du secteur privé dans l'enseignement sera 2,4 fois supérieure à celle du gouvernement vers la fin de 1989-90.

La capacité du secteur privé à contribuer au développement de l'éducation dépend de deux facteurs essentiels :

- l'évolution de l'assistance humanitaire (généralement d'origine étrangère); et
- le niveau réel de la demande privée solvable qui cette demande est suffisamment forte, elle entraînera la création de nouvelles écoles, la possibilité de bénéfices jouant son rôle de stimulant jusqu'à ce que la demande soit satisfaite. (De façon générale, en milieu rural les revenus sont bien trop faibles pour permettre à la population de financer de leurs propres moyens une expansion significative du système éducatif. Cependant, dans la zone métropolitaine, il semble que les familles disposent encore d'une marge financière, qui leur permettrait d'investir dans l'éducation de leurs enfants, et dans cette zone on peut donc s'attendre à une expansion de l'enseignement privé.

## 2.3 OFFRE ET DEMANDE DE MAIN-D'OEUVRE

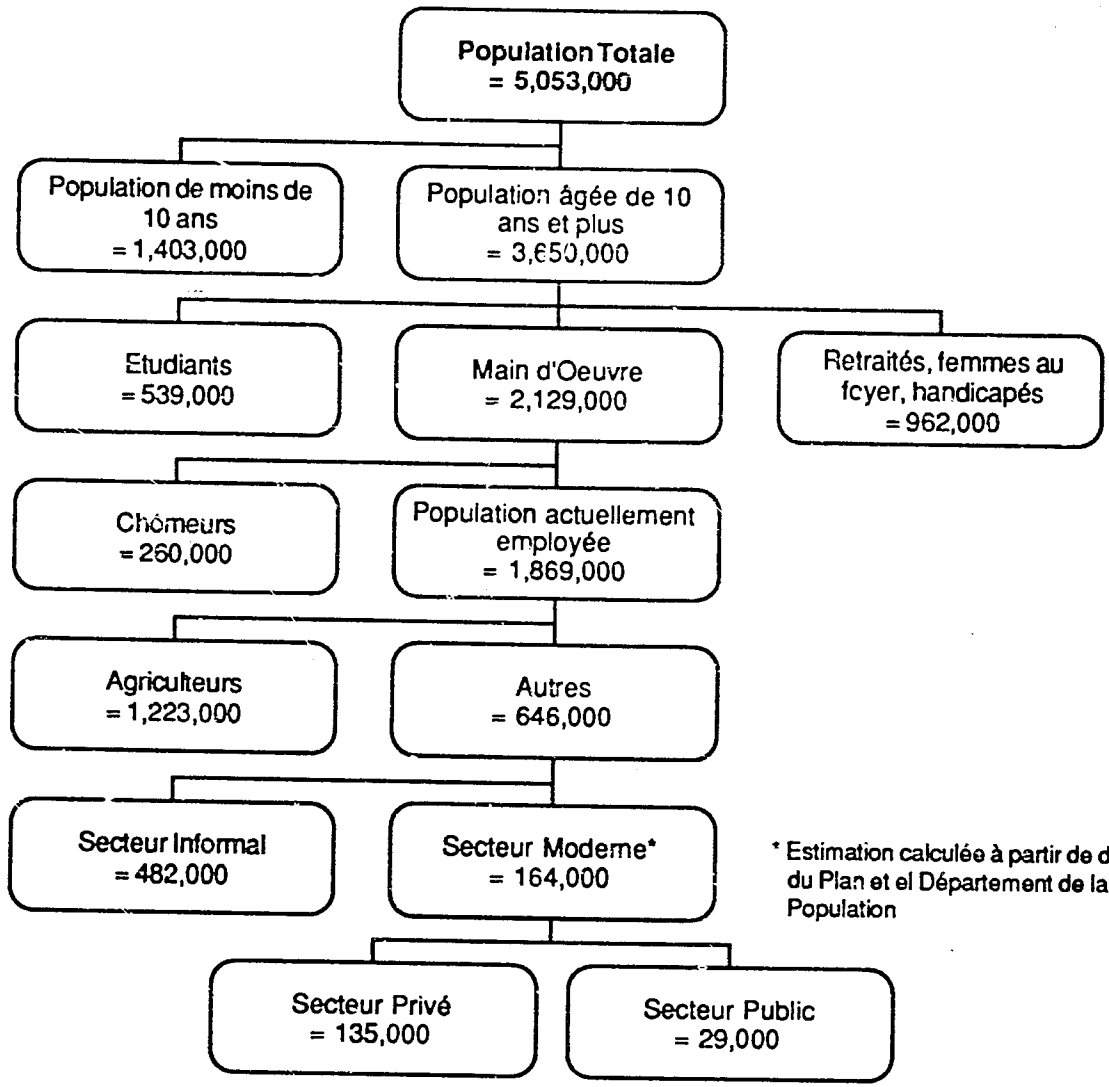
L'analyse de l'offre et de la demande de main-d'oeuvre fournit un lien naturel entre une vue d'ensemble de la situation économique et une évaluation du secteur éducatif, étant donné que l'amélioration des compétences et de la productivité de la main-d'oeuvre constitue un objectif essentiel de l'éducation.

Les modèles de planification de l'enseignement, basés sur l'analyse de l'offre et de la demande de main-d'oeuvre, sont utiles pour indiquer l'ampleur et la nature de ces flux dans le secteur formel de l'économie. Elles peuvent également fournir des indications permettant de gérer l'offre de spécialistes dans des domaines techniques particuliers qui nécessitent une formation très précise et doivent donc faire l'objet d'une planification centrale (enseignants, médecins, ingénieurs etc.). Mais cette approche doit être completée par un examen minutieux de la structure du marché de l'emploi et par une analyse des coûts.

### 2.3.1 La Main-d'oeuvre

La notion d'un "marché de l'emploi" n'est pas facilement applicable dans des pays comme Haïti, où les salariés constituent une petite minorité de la population active. En raison de la difficulté d'étudier les rapports de travail dans le secteur informel et le secteur rural de l'économie, la plupart des informations quantitatives disponibles se rapportent seulement au secteur moderne. Le schéma 2.1 présente la structure de l'emploi de la population haïtienne à l'heure actuelle.

Schéma 2.1
Structure de la population par type d'emploi en 1982




* Estimation calculée à partir de données fournie par le Ministère du Plan et el Département de la Santé Publique et de la Population

Les données les plus récentes concernant la "population active" proviennent du recensement de 1982. En comparant ces données avec les résultats du recensement de 1971, on peut se faire une idée approximative de la croissance démographique (tableau 2.3). Alors que la population totale a augmenté de 19,3% entre 1970 et 1982, la population active (comprenant toutes les personnes âgées de plus de dix ans, qui étaient effectivement employées ou à la recherche d'un emploi) a diminué de 6,3%. Une réduction du taux d'emploi de la population rurale est en partie responsable de cette diminution globale.

Tableau 2.3

Structure de la population active et changements dans le temps, par zone géographique, 1971 et 1982

| | 1971 | | 1982 | | Pourcentage |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Nombre | Pourcentage | Nombre | Pourcentage | de Chngment |
| Aire Métropolitaine | | | | | |
| Hommes | 98,948 | 4.3 | 151,153 | 7.1 | 53.4 |
| Femmes | 129,665 | 5.7 | 164,183 | 7.7 | 26.6 |
| Total | 228,613 | 10.0 | 315,336 | 14.8 | 38.7 |
| Zone Urbaine (5,000 et plus) | | | | | |
| Hommes | 49,579 | 2.2 | 67,374 | 3.2 | 35.9 |
| Femmes | 58,403 | 2.6 | 67,790 | 3.2 | 16.1 |
| Total | 107,982 | 4.8 | 135,164 | 6.4 | 25.2 |
| Zone Rurale | | | | | |
| Hommes | 1,048,251 | 46.1 | 1,033,888 | 48.8 | - 0.9 |
| Femmes | 887,586 | 39.1 | 640,269 | 30.0 | -27.9 |
| Total | 1,935,837 | 85.2 | 1,679,157 | 78.8 | -13.3 |
| Tout le Pays | | | | | |
| Hommes | 1,196,778 | 52.1 | 1,257,415 | 59.0 | 5.1 |
| Femmes | 1,075,654 | 47.3 | 872,242 | 41.0 | -18.9 |
| Total | 2,272,432 | 100.0 | 2,129,657 | 100.0 | - 6.3 |

Source : Courbage, Y. L'Activité Economique en 1982, Ministère du Plan et Institut Haïtien de Statistiques, 1984. (Toutes les données sont tirées du recensement 1971 et 1982.)

Une caractéristique intéressante des données du recensement actuel est que la main-d'oeuvre est sous-représentée dans les régions urbaines par rapport à l'ensemble de la population. Alors que 20,6% de la population totale vit dans les zones urbaines et métropolitaines, on n'y retrouve que 15,5%

de la main-d'oeuvre. Le fait que le taux de scolarisation en zone urbaine soit plus élevé qu'en milieu rural peut expliquer en partie cette divergence.

Le secteur industriel et la fonction publique n'absorbe que 6,6% de la main-d'oeuvre, mais il semble être l'une des branches les plus productives, représentant 19% du PIB (tableau 2.4). Par contre, les 66% de la main-d'oeuvre qui travaillent dans le secteur agricole ne produisent que 34% du PIB global.

Tableau 2.4
Structure du Produit National Brut et
de la force de travail par secteur, 1982
(en pourcentage)

| Secteur | Force de travail | PNB |
|---|---|---|
| Agriculture et Exploitation Minière | 66.3 | 34.5 |
| Production et Service Publics | 6.6 | 18.8 |
| Construction | 1.3 | 5.5 |
| Commerces, Hôtels, et Restaurants | 15.3 | 19.4 |
| Transports et Communications | 0.9 | 2.1 |
| Services Financiers | 0.2 | 0.3 |
| Autres Services | 9.4 | 19.4 |
| Total | 100.0 | 100.0 |

Ces données ont d'importantes implications pour la stratégie de développement. Trois sujets méritent d'être étudiés de plus près : (a) la composition de la population migrante et la capacité d'absorption du secteur moderne, (b) des moyens innovateurs pour encourager la création de nouvelles industries locales, et (c) des structures de formation professionnelle adaptées et souples.

Le niveau d'éducation de la main-d'oeuvre est généralement faible : 73% n'ont reçu aucune formation et moins de 20% ont terminé l'école primaire. Les personnes les plus scolarisées travaillent dans le secteur financier et dans les services. Le secteur industriel se situe dans une position intermédiaire, 40% de sa main-d'oeuvre ayant terminé l'école primaire.

Même chez les employeurs le niveau d'éducation n'est pas très élevé. On trouve une plus forte proportion de travailleurs scolarisés parmi les salariés des régions urbaines, mais même à ce niveau les résultats laissent à désirer. La stratégie nationale de développement s'appuie en grande partie sur ce noyau de travailleurs du secteur moderne, mais à peine 2% d'entre eux ont reçu une formation professionnelle de quelque type que ce soit.



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### 2.3.2 Prévisions de la demande de main-d'oeuvre

Il n'existe pas de prévisions de la demande de main-d'oeuvre absolumment dignes de foi. Faute de ceci, on est obligé de comparer entre elles plusieurs estimations partielles faites selon des méthodes divergentes pour en déduire des données pouvant servir de base à la planification.

Avant la publication des résultats du recensement de 1982, le Ministère du Plan avait établi une première série de prévisions basées sur une comparaison entre les données disponibles en 1981 concernant la production, la main-d'oeuvre, et les prévisions antérieures. Une estimation de la demande totale d'emploi par an établie sur ces bases prévoyait 42.000 postes à pourvoir par an entre 1986 et 1990, ce qui entraînerait la création de 210.000 emplois durant toute cette période (tableau 2.5). Le secteur traditionnel est supposé fournir plus des deux tiers de ces nouveaux emplois.

Tableau 2.5

Projection des besoins de main-d'oeuvre par secteur

Prévision I

1985-90

| Secteur | Secteur Traditionnel | Secteur Moderne | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| Agriculture | 68,000 | 18,000 | 86,000 |
| Exploitations Minières | 1,000 | --- | 1,000 |
| Manufactures | 22,000 | 10,000 | 32,000 |
| Services Publics | --- | 1,000 | 1,000 |
| Construction | 17,000 | 3,000 | 20,000 |
| Transports | 11,000 | 6,000 | 17,000 |
| Services Financiers | --- | 1,000 | 1,000 |
| Autres Services | 28,000 | 14,000 | 42,000 |
| Total | 151,000 | 59,000 | 210,000 |

Source : Ministère du Plan, Bureau de la Programmation Economique et Sociale, Main-d'Oeuvre, Emploi et Ressources Humaines, 1982.

Sur la base de la structure de la main-d'oeuvre par type d'emploi, on peut prévoir quels seront les besoins en ouvriers par niveau de qualifications dans le secteur moderne au cours de la prochaine période quinquennale (tableau 2.6). La plupart des besoins évalués de cette façon concerne les travailleurs non qualifiés ou semi-qualifiés (75% de l'ensemble des besoins). Pour traduire cette structure de l'emploi en une évaluation des besoins en formation, le

Tableau 2.6

Prévisions des besoins en main-d'oeuvre par secteur et type d'occupation (Prévision I) : Secteur Moderne, 1985-90

| Secteur | OCCUPATIONS | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Cadres Supérieurs | Cadres Moyens | | Ouvrier Qualifié | Ouvrier Peu Qualifié | Ouvrier Non-Qualifié | Total |
| | | Tech. | Admin. | | | | |
| Agriculture | 540 | 540 | 900 | 1,620 | 4,500 | 9,900 | 18,000 |
| Mines | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Manufacture | 500 | 400 | 700 | 1,350 | 3,800 | 3,250 | 10,000 |
| Services Publics | 50 | 40 | 70 | 135 | 380 | 325 | 1,000 |
| Construction | 105 | 75 | 150 | 330 | 900 | 1,440 | 3,000 |
| Commerce | 210 | 150 | 300 | 660 | 1,800 | 2,880 | 6,000 |
| Transports | 210 | 150 | 300 | 660 | 1,800 | 2,880 | 6,000 |
| Services Financiers | 60 | 20 | 85 | 120 | 500 | 215 | 1,000 |
| Autres Services | 840 | 280 | 1,190 | 1,680 | 7,000 | 3,010 | 14,000 |
| Total | 2,515 | 1,655 | 3,695 | 6,555 | 20,680 | 23,900 | 59,000 |

Source : Ministère du Plan, Bureau de la Programmation Economique et Sociale, Main-d'Oeuvre, Emploi et Ressources Humaines, 1982.

Ministère du Plan s'est servi d'un tableau d'équivalences qui définit les rapports entre les types d'occupation et le niveau de formation requis. Puisque les travailleurs non qualifiés ne figurent pas dans ces projections, la demande totale de main-d'oeuvre qualifiée qui est réduite à 30.000 unités, réparties comme suit :

| | |
|---|---|
| Enseignement primaire | 59% |
| Secondaire (technique) | 8% |
| Secondaire (générale) | 22% |
| Post-secondaire (professionnelle) | 5% |
| Enseignement supérieur | 6% |

La récente publication des données du recensement de 1982 permet deux autres séries de prévisions, dénommées respectivement "Prévision I" et "Prévision III" pour les distinguer de celles déjà présentées au Tableau 2.6. La Prévision II part des données du recensement mais est basée sur l'hypothèse plutôt conservatrice que la structure et la productivité de la main-d'eouvre resteront essentiellement identiques à la situation constatée en 1982. Selon ce scénario, les besoins de main-d'oeuvre augmenteraient à un rythme moins rapide que celui de l'offre, qui est déterminé par la démographie (1,4% par an, contre 1,7 à 1,9% par an). L'industrie et le commerce semblent être les principaux secteurs générateurs d'emploi. Le premier est essentiellement un secteur moderne alors que le second est constitué principalement d'activités traditionnelles. Comme il fallait s'y attendre de par la nature même des hypothèses qui sous-tendent cette approche, les besoins de formation que l'on obtient de cette façon sont très modestes. Seulement un tiers des besoins pour la période 1985-1990 toucherait les ouvriers qualifiés. La demande en main-d'oeuvre qualifiée, ayant au moins suivi l'enseignement secondaire, reste très faible.

La Prévision II est basée par contre sur des hypothèses un peu plus optimistes :

- d'une part qu'une amélioration de la productivité agricole aura pour résultat de diminuer les besoins de main-d'oeuvre non-qualifiée dans ce secteur :
- d'autre part, qu'une partie de l'excédent de main-d'oeuvre agricole ainsi créé recevra une éducation de base, avec dans certains cas une formation technique, et sera résorbée par le secteur industriel.

Selon ce scénario, la demande de travailleurs ayant une formation technique ou professionnelle serait multipliée par 5,5, tandis que celle d'ouvriers non-qualifiés serait réduite de plus de la moitié provoquant, au total, une diminution de 30% de la demande de main-d'oeuvre.

La comparaison de ces trois scénarios (Prévision I. II et III) montre combien les estimations de la demande de main-d'oeuvre peuvent varier en fonction des hypothèses adoptées et fait ressortir l'importance d'une meilleure connaissance des vrais objectifs et besoins des employeurs.

### 2.3.3 Prévisions de l'offre de main-d'oeuvre

Nous venons d'examiner de façon approximative la nature et l'ampleur des nouvelles demandes de main-d'oeuvre qui pourront naître au cours de la prochaine période quinquennale. Pour évaluer la nature et l'ampleur de l'offre supplémentaire de main-d'oeuvre qui verra le jour au cours de la même période, il faut analyser les flux d'effectifs dans le système éducatif--le nombre d'inscriptions, d'abandons et de diplômés d'année en année.

Les prévisions de l'offre de main-d'oeuvre présentées dans le Tableau 2.7 correspondent aux estimations du Ministère du Plan sur la base de 791.000 élèves inscrits dans les écoles en 1981-82.

Tableau 2.7

Inscriptions Prévues (a)

1985-90

| Niveau d'Education | 1985-86 | 1986-87 | 1987-88 | 1988-89 | 1989-90 | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Primaire | 829,700 | 862,900 | 897,400 | 933,300 | 970,600 | 4,493,900 |
| Secondaire (b) | 156,200 | 171,800 | 189,000 | 207,900 | 228,700 | 953,600 |
| Formation des Enseignants (c) | 870 | 880 | 900 | 910 | 930 | 4,490 |
| Technique et Professionnel | 50,300 | 60,220 | 72,380 | 87,150 | 104,830 | 374,880 |
| Enseignement Supérieur | 5,710 | 6,190 | 6,710 | 7,290 | 7,900 | 33,800 |
| Total | 1,042,780 | 1,101,990 | 1,166,390 | 1,236,550 | 1,312,960 | 5,860,670 |

(a) Estimations établies en supposant que les instituts privés garderont la même part des inscriptions totales.

(b) Les chiffres cités comprennent les centres d'enseignement ménagers (68% du total des inscriptions).

(c) Estimations établies sur la base d'un taux de croissance constant identique à celui constaté entre 1981-82 et 1983-84.

Source : Ministère de l'Education, Plan Biennal d'Education 1984-86, avril 1984.

Dans le Plan Quinquennal, les résultats suivants sont prévus pour la période 1985-90 :

- 743.000 nouvelles inscriptions en première année d'école primaire (soit environ 149.000 par an),
- 128.000 nouvelles inscriptions en première année d'école secondaire (soit 27.000 par an), et
- 3.000 nouvelles inscriptions en première année d'enseignement supérieur (soit 600 par an).

En termes de rendements 512.000 personnes (soit 102.000 par an) sortiront du système éducatif au cours de cette même période. Ils constitueront la nouvelle réserve de main-d'oeuvre qualifiée pour la période allant de 1985 à 1990. Une fraction d'entre eux seulement auront terminé le cycle complet de formation dans lequel ils étaient inscrits. Un total de 227.000 élèves quitteront l'école primaire avant la cinquième année. A peine alphabétisés, ils risquent de retomber dans l'analphabétisme complet quelques années plus tard s'ils n'ont pas la possiblité de mettre en pratique les compétences qu'ils ont acquises. Quarante mille autres élèves abandonneront leurs études au niveau du CM1 ou du CM2.

En plus de ces abandons (totalisant 54.000 par an pendant une durée de cinq ans) l'enseignement primaire délivrera 53.000 diplômes par an, aux élèves qui ont terminé avec succès les 6 années requises par le système traditionnel (7 années dans les écoles touchées par la Réforme de l'Enseignement). Si on s'appuie sur le taux actuel d'admission à l'école secondaire (62% des enfants sortant du primaire), le nombre de ceux qui quittent le système éducatif définitivement avec seulement un certificat d'études primaires sera de 20.000 par an, ce qui représente 13% des nouvelles inscriptions à l'école primaire au cours de la même période.

Produisant autant d'abandons que de diplômés, le système d'enseignement primaire ne constitue pas à l'heure actuelle une ressources très sure et solide pour le marché de l'emploi. Au niveau secondaire, 24.000 élèves abandonnent leurs études chaque année sans avoir terminé le cycle. Plus de 14.000 d'entre eux auront reçu moins de quatre ans de formation secondaire (niveau troisième) ou l'équivalent du cycle complet d'"éducation de base" proposé dans la Réforme. En comparaison, le nombre annuel de bacheliers (ceux qui sont admis aux deux parties du baccalauréat) sera de 4.000. En d'autres termes, au niveau de l'école secondaire, il y aura six échecs pour un diplômé.

En dernier lieu, un demi millier de diplômés de l'enseignement supérieur viendront s'ajouter chaque année à l'offre de main-d'oeuvre. A ce niveau, la



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recherche d'un emploi dépasse le cadre restreint de l'économie haïtienne. L'expérience démontre qu'au sein de ce petit groupe (qui doit être comparé aux 100.000 ou 150.000 élèves qui rentrent en primaire chaque année) une bonne partie finit par émigrer.

2.3.4 Equilibre entre l'offre et la demande de main-d'oeuvre

La comparaison des statistiques concernant l'offre et la demande est la dernière étape nécessaire à l'analyse des besoins en main-d'oeuvre en vue d'une planification de l'enseignement. Cette comparaison est effectuée au Tableau 2.8, qui aligne d'une part les résultats des prévisions II et III faites plus haut et d'autre part les données concernant le nombre de nouveaux arrivants sur le marché de l'emploi qu'on vient de calculer. Le Tableau 2.8 fait apparaître un excédent de 330.000 à 400.000 demandeurs d'emploi, composé principalement de ceux qui ont abandonné leurs études en cours de cycle primaire ou secondaire. On retrouve ces excédents à tous les niveaux, à l'exception de la Prévision III où l'on relève un léger déficit dans la formation professionnelle.

Pour mieux comprendre à quel point ces résultats dépendent des hypothèses adoptées, il suffit de comparer les données ci-dessus aux résultats d'une analyse de l'équilibre entre l'offre et la demande de main-d'oeuvre dans le secteur moderne établie en 1980 par le Ministère du Plan. Bien que les statistiques du Ministère du Plan diffèrent considérablement de celles que nous venons de présenter, elles font également apparaître un excédent global, et seulement un léger déficit au niveau des postes de direction. En se basant sur la Prévision I et en supposant que tous les diplômés de l'école primaire cherchent un emploi dans le secteur moderne, on retrouve de nouveau l'existence d'un excédent général. Alors que le nombre de diplômés dépasse de loin le nombre d'emplois disponibles au niveau primaire et secondaire, l'offre et la demande semblent par contre relativement bien équilibrées au niveau technique et post-secondaire.

Bien qu'il soit difficile de trouver un point commun dans ces différentes estimations, trois facteurs semblent prédominer :

1. Durant cette période entre 150.000 et 300.000 personnes non qualifiées arriveront sur le marché de l'emploi et seront en toute probabilité condamnées à des états alternés de chômage et de sous-emploi.
2. Il y aura un excédent de diplômés à tous les niveaux, hormis celui des gestionnaires. Cependant on doit faire une distinction entre "besoins de main-d'oeuvre" et "demande de main-d'oeuvre". Le pays peut avoir un besoin réel de personnes qualifiées pour contribuer à son développement, mais si l'économie et la structure sociale ne sont pas en mesure de créer les emplois correspondants et d'en assurer la



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Tableau 2.8

Projection de l'offre et de la demande en main-d'oeuvre

(Base - Prévision II et III) : pour l'ensemble des secteurs

1985-90

| Niveau | Demande: Prévision II | Demande: Prévision III | Offre | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Sans éducation | 118,000 | 46,410 | | |
| Enseignement Primaire | 41,650 | 42,590 | Abandons, enseignement primaire | 268,000 |
| | | | Elèves quittant l'école après avoir terminé l'enseignement primaire | 99,700 |
| Enseignement Secondaire | 16,650 | 15,850 | Abandons, enseignement secondaire | 118,100 |
| | | | Elèves quittant l'école après avoir terminé l'enseignement secondaire | 23,000 |
| Formation Professionnelle | 1,250 | 6,850 | Formation Professionnelle | 4,600 |
| Enseignement Supérieur | 1,550 | 1,400 | Enseignement Supérieur | 2,600 |
| Total | 179,100 | 113,100 | | 516,000 |



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rentabilité, dans ce cas, ces besoins ne représentent pas une "demande" au sens technique du terme et n'entrent donc pas dans la plupart des prévisions économiques.

3. Actuellement, le système des écoles techniques est apparemment incapable de fournir au secteur industriel le type de main-d'oeuvre dont il a besoin.

## 2.4 TAUX DE RENDEMENT DE L'EDUCATION

Cette section analysera la "rentabilité" des investissements dans l'éducation, en mettant d'abord l'accent sur les coûts et les bénéfices de l'enseignement.

### 2.4.1 Les coûts et les bénéfices de l'éducation

L'éducation implique des sacrifices financiers et personnels. Les gens acceptent ces sacrifices au moins en partie parce qu'ils s'attendent à des récompenses dans l'avenir. Plus les bénéfices relatifs aux sacrifices consentis pour l'éducation sont importants, plus la demande individuelle en éducation est élevée.

Au niveau social, l'investissement public dans l'éducation implique également des sacrifices. Les fonds dépensés pour fournir des services éducatifs ne peuvent pas être consacrés à la réalisation d'autres objectifs socio-économiques ou politiques. A ce niveau également, plus les bénéfices attendus dépassent les coûts escomptés d'un programme de formation donné, plus grand sera le désir des autorités publiques d'investir dans ce domaine (par rapport aux autres emplois possibles des mêmes ressources). En outre, les mêmes critères interviendront dans le choix des différents types d'investissement en éducation.

#### 2.4.1.1 Les coûts de l'éducation

La présente section examine les coûts aux différents niveaux et dans les différentes branches du système éducatif et analyse l'efficacité interne de ces programmes en termes économiques. La section suivante (2.4.1.2) traite des bénéfices de l'éducation, c'est à dire de son efficacité externe.

Les coûts par année-élève et par diplômé sont utiles à la planification de l'éducation étant donné qu'ils constituent un indicateur de l'efficacité interne des programmes. Les coûts de l'éducation incluent :

1. les frais récurrents (salaires, matériel, fournitures, etc.) à la charge des différents partenaires (étudiants, parents, gouvernement, et donateurs)
2. les frais d'amortissement du capital (locaux, dépréciation du coût de location des équipements, etc.) à la charge des différents partenaires ;



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3. les coûts d'opportunité pour tous les participants--comme la valeur du travail bénévole ou l'argent que les élèves auraient pu gagner s'ils ne fréquentaient pas l'école ; et
4. d'autres coûts non monétaires tels les conséquences psychiques ou culturelles d'une expérience scolaire qui déprécie la langue maternelle ou la culture locale.

Cette analyse économique tient compte uniquement des coûts directs (catégories 1 et 2 ci-dessus). Les investissements en capitaux sont très difficiles à évaluer, étant donné que la dépréciation et l'amortissement sont rarement pris en compte dans l'élaboration des budgets d'éducation et que des données concernant les investissements en capitaux ne sont pas généralement recueillies. Le calcul des coûts unitaires est donc fait sur la base d'estimations fort approximatives des dépenses en capital. Cette analyse ne tiendra compte ni des coûts d'opportunité ni des autres coûts non-monétaires évoqués ci-dessus pour mettre l'accent sur la détermination des coûts directs. Cependant on reviendra à la question des coûts d'opportunité plus loin, dans la partie de ce chapitre consacrée à l'analyse des taux de rendement (voir 2.4.2).

Deux sous-secteurs du système d'éducation sont exclus de cette analyse étant donné qu'il existe très peu d'information sur leurs coûts : la formation des gestionnaires et l'éducation non formelle. Il faut espérer qu'à l'avenir les responsables de ces programmes seront en mesure de collecter les données nécessaires à l'analyse des coûts.

Des coûts unitaires par étudiant sont présentés pour l'enseignement primaire, l'enseignement secondaire, la formation professionnelle et technique, la formation des enseignants, et l'enseignement supérieur. Le système éducatif haïtien est caractérisé à tous les niveaux par une très grande variété de types d'écoles, chacun ayant ses propres frais d'écolage, charges associées et systèmes de paiement. En conséquence, les coûts unitaires varient pratiquement autant à l'intérieur de chacune des branches du système éducatif qu'entre les différentes branches.

Les coûts actuels des différents types et niveaux d'éducation sont résumés dans le Tableau 2.9. Etant donné la grande diversité des coûts à l'intérieur de chacune des branches du système éducatif, le calcul d'un "coût moyen" pour l'enseignement primaire ou secondaire, par exemple, n'aurait pratiquement pas de sens. Aussi le tableau s'attache-t-il à mettre en évidence les coûts qui caractérisent les principaux types d'enseignement que l'on peut rencontrer à chaque niveau. Le tableau indique également la part des frais prise en charge

Tableau 2.9

Sommaire des coûts unitaires annuels par étudiant

(en dollars 1984)

| Cycle | Genre d'école | Coûts aux étudiants/ parents | Coûts au Gouvernement | Coûts aux organismes d'aide | Coût Total | Ratio par coût unit. de l'enseign. prim. pub. (a) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Primaire | Public (urbain et rural) | $ 26 | $ 44 | $ 33 | $ 103 | 1,00 |
| | Privée rurale | 36 | 0 | 0 | 36 | 0,35 |
| | ONG rurales | 13 | 0 | 94 | 107 | 1,04 |
| | Privées urbaines, faible qualité | 82 | 0 | 0 | 82 | 0,80 |
| | Privées urbaines, qualité moyenne | 160 | 0 | 0 | 160 | 1,55 |
| | Privées urbaines, haute qualité | 265 | 0 | 0 | 265 | 2,57 |
| Secondaire | Publique (lycée) | 63 | 101 | 34 | 198 | 1,92 |
| | Privée, faible qualité | 167 | 0 | 0 | 167 | 1,62 |
| | Privée, haute qualité | 460 | 0 | 0 | 460 | 4,47 |
| Professionnel/ Technique | Premier degré, publiques | 17 | 554 | 198 | 769 | 7,47 |
| | Second degré, semi-publiques | 438 | 652 | 672 | 1.762 | 17,11 |
| | ONG second degré, technique | 100 | 0 | 1.251 | 1.351 | 13,12 |
| | Ecoles privées de gestion | 348 | 0 | 0 | 348 | 3,38 |
| Formation des enseignants | Ecole Normale | 0 | 703 | 186 | 889 | 8,63 |
| | Ecole normale supérieure | 0 | 627 | 186 | 813 | 7,89 |
| Supérieur | Univ. Médicale d'Haiti | 368 | 430 | 171 | 969 | 9,41 |
| | Autres écoles, Univ. d'Haiti | 138 | 430 | 171 | 739 | 7,17 |
| | Univ. Privée | 592 | 372 | 220 | 1.189 | 11,57 |

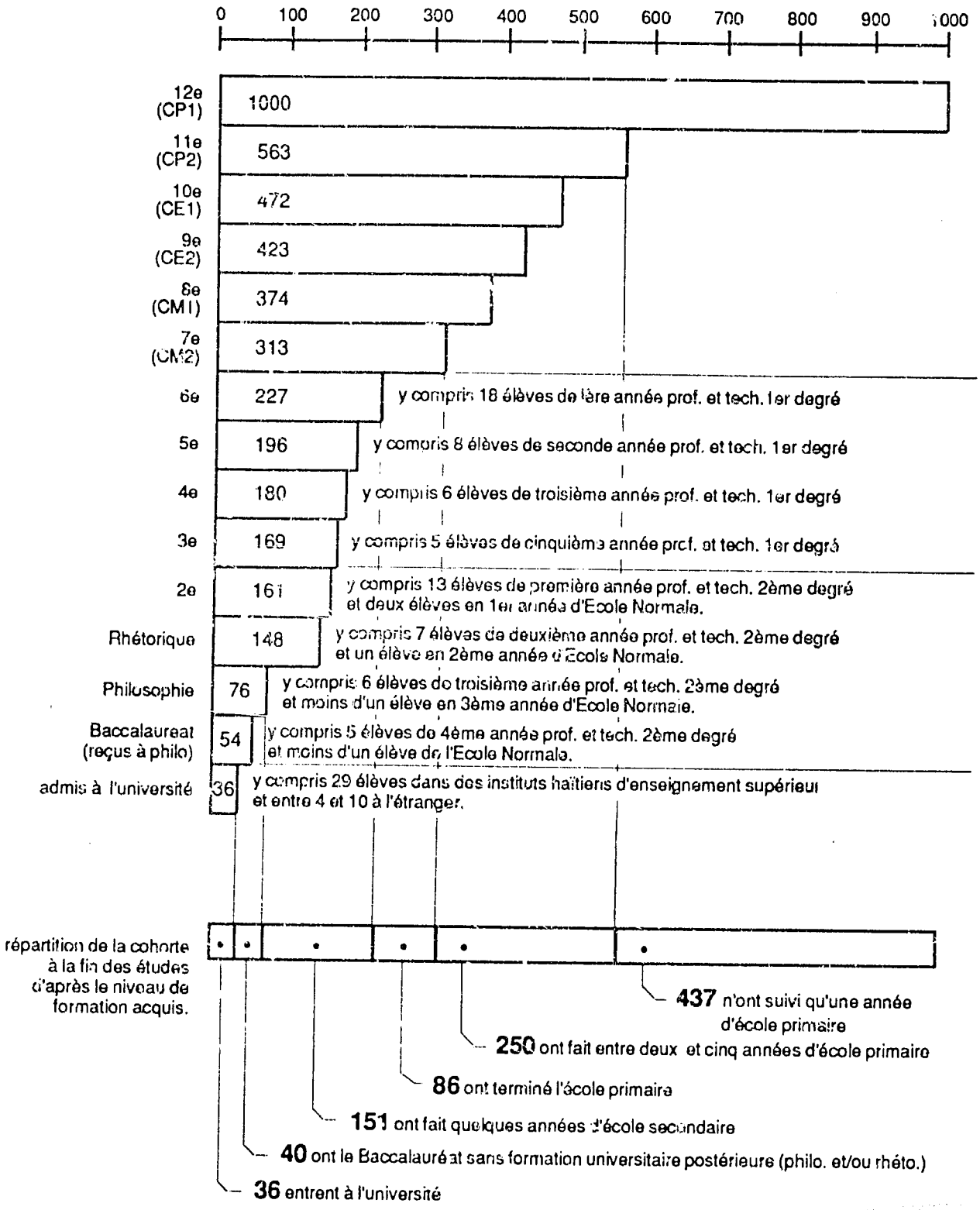
(a) Rapport entre le montant du coût unitaire annuel dans le cycle en question et le coût unitaire annuel de l'enseignement primaire public.

par chacun des partenaires (parents, gouvernement, ONG, etc.). Les données exposées dans le Tableau 2.9 font ressortir les points suivants :

- Le ratio des coûts unitaires de l'enseignement public secondaire et universitaire par rapport à celui de l'enseignement public primaire est comparable aux ratios observés en Amérique Latine et bien en dessous de ceux établis pour l'Afrique.
- La disparité des coûts à chaque niveau du système éducatif est presque aussi grande que celle qu'on retrouve entre les différents niveaux, en particulier si l'on considère la partie des frais qui est à la charge des intéressés eux-mêmes. Le ratio des coûts individuels dans l'enseignement primaire privé entre les écoles les plus coûteuses et les moins chères est plus de 20 pour 1, alors que le ratio entre les coûts individuels moyens privés de l'enseignement supérieur et ceux de l'enseignement primaire est d'environ 4 pour 1.
- Au niveau de l'enseignement secondaire, ce sont les parents qui prennent en charge la plus grande partie des coûts, alors qu'au niveau de l'enseignement supérieur le gouvernement est le principal bailleur de fonds. Les donateurs interviennent le plus massivement au niveau de l'enseignement primaire et de la formation technique et professionnelle.
- A presque tous les niveaux, les écoles privées offrent à la fois l'enseignement le moins coûteux et le plus coûteux, même si cela ne représente pas forcément le type d'enseignement le moins cher pour les étudiants ou leurs parents. La qualité de l'enseignement semble être à peu près proportionnelle au coût, si bien que les familles à faibles revenus peuvent difficilement bénéficier d'un enseignement privé de bonne qualité.

Les coûts unitaires à eux seuls ne constituent pas un indicateur valable de l'efficacité interne de l'enseignement. Il faut tenir compte également du nombre d'années/élève nécessaire pour obtenir un diplômé, et ce calcul nécessite à son tour une étude des flux des élèves. Pour effectuer celle-ci, un modèle de flux a été établi pour chacun des principaux secteurs du système formel, à l'exception de l'enseignement supérieur où les données disponibles sont insuffisantes. Ensuite on aligne ces différents modèles pour retracer l'itinéraire d'un groupe de 1000 élèves entrant à l'école primaire. Le schéma 2.2 présente les résultats d'une analyse de ce genre effectuée à partir des données disponibles sur les taux de passage, de redoublement et d'abandons aux différents niveaux du système éducatif. Là, il apparaît que 313 élèves sur une cohorte initiale de 1000 élèves terminent l'école primaire, 54 terminent l'école secondaire, et 36 entrent à l'université. Les résultats sont encore

Schéma 2.2
Modèle général des flux d'éléves dans le système éducatif haïtien :
à partir d'un groupe de 1000 enfants qui entrent
en première année d'école primaire



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plus faibles vus sous l'angle de la population toute entière : sur 1000 enfants du même âge, seuls 600 environ entrent à l'école primaire et 202 la terminent. Le nombre de ceux qui terminent l'école secondaire et de ceux qui entrent à l'université est respectivement de 32 et de 22 pour le même effectif initial de 1.000.

A partir des modèles de flux il est possible de déterminer le nombre d'années/élève nécessaires à l'obtention d'un diplômé dans une branche donné du système éducatif. En multipliant le coût unitaire par le nombre d'années/élève et par diplômé on obtient une estimation du coût total du cycle en question. Le Tableau 2.10 présente des données sur l'ensemble de ces variables pour les différentes branches du système d'éducation formelle.

Le dernier indice qui figure dans la colonne de droite du tableau (indice d'efficacité relative) représente le rapport du nombre d'années d'étude que comprend chaque cycle de formation au nombre d'années/élève par diplômé. Cet indice fournit une idée approximative de l'efficacité interne des différents types et niveaux d'éducation.

2.4.1.2. Bénéfices de l'éducation

Lorsque les bénéfices monétaires de l'éducation soit évalués deux distinctions doivent être faites : en premier lieu, entre les bénéfices sociaux et les bénéfices individuels de l'éducation ; et, en second lieu, entre l'éducation en tant qu'investissement et l'éducation en tant que produit de consommation. Les bénéfices individuels de l'éducation comprennent toutes les formes de mieux-être personnel obtenues pendant et après l'expérience éducative qui en sont les conséquences directes. L'idée des bénéfices sociaux, par contre, englobe toutes les améliorations du niveau de vie de l'ensemble de la société résultant de la formation des personnes en question. Le bien-être social est une fonction non seulement de la somme des bénéfices individuels réalisés grâce à cette formation, mais également de leur répartition.

L'éducation est recherchée à la fois en tant que produit de consommation et en tant qu'investissement productif, bien qu'il ne soit pas toujours facile de faire une distinction entre ces deux types de bénéfice. Il est évident que l'éducation constitue un investissement dans la mesure où les participants acceptent d'y consacrer des sommes importantes dans l'espoir d'en tirer des bénéfices futurs que cela soit sous forme d'augmentation de la productivité, d'augmentation de revenu ou de rehaussement de prestige social ou politique.

Par contre quand l'éducation est considérée comme un bien de consommation, on fait référence plutôt aux avantages non-monétaires qu'elle procure : l'accès à la culture, l'épanouissement personnel, l'enrichissement intellectuel, etc.



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Tableau 2.10

Résumé des coûts par diplôme des différentes branches du système éducatif Haïtien

| CYCLE | TYPE D'ECOLE | COUT UNITAIRE ANNUEL (PAR ELEVE) | NOMBRE D'ANNEES DANS LE CYCLE COMPLET | NOMBRE MOYEN D'ANNEES POUR ETRE DIPLOME | COUT MOYEN DU DIPLOME | ANNEES-ELEVES PAR DIPLOME | COUT TOTAL DU CYCLE | RATIO AU COUT MOYEN DE L'ENS. PRIMAIRE PUBLIC | INDICE D'EFFICTE. RELATIVE |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Enseignement primaire | Public (urbain et rural) | $103 | 6 | 7,1 | $731 | 12,5 | $1.287 | 1,00 | 0,48 |
| | Privé rural (à but lucratif) | $36 | 6 | (8,0) | ($288) | (15,0) | $540 | (0,42) | (0,38) |
| | Privé rural (ONG) | $107 | 6 | (6,5) | ($696) | (11,0) | $1.284 | (1,00) | (0,50) |
| | Privé urbain faible qualité | $82 | 6 | (7,6) | ($623) | (14,0) | ($1.148) | (0,89) | (0,43) |
| | Privé urbain qualité moyenne | $160 | 6 | (6,9) | ($1.104) | (12,0) | ($1.920) | (1,49) | (0,50) |
| | Privé urbain haute qualité | $265 | 6 | (6,2) | ($1.643) | (8,0) | ($2.385) | (1,85) | (0,67) |
| Enseignt. Secondr. Général | 4 classes inférieures: Public | ($105) | 4 | | $814 | | ($1.036) | 0,80 | |
| | 4 classes inférieures: Privé: faible qualité | ($150) | 4 | 4,4 | $663 | (5,6) | ($840) | 0,63 | 0,71 |
| | 4 classes inférieures: Privé: haute qualité | ($400) | 4 | | $1.760 | | ($2.240) | 1,74 | |
| | 3 classes supérieures: Public | ($205) | 3 | | $800 | | ($1.804) | 1,40 | |
| | 3 classes supérieures: Privé: faible qualité | ($180) | 3 | 3,9 | $702 | 8,8 | ($1.584) | 1,23 | 0,34 |
| | 3 classes supérieures: Privé: haute qualité | ($500) | 3 | | $1.950 | | ($4.400) | 3,41 | |
| | Toutes classes: Public | $198 | 7 | | $1.643 | | ($5.148) | 4,00 | |
| | Toutes classes: Privé: faible qualité | $167 | 7 | 8,3 | $1.386 | 2,6 | ($4.342) | 3,37 | 0,27 |
| | Toutes classes: Privé: haute qualité | $460 | 7 | | $3.818 | | ($11.960) | 9,29 | |
| Enseignement secondaire technique et professionnel | Premier degré public | $769 | 4 | 4,0 | $3.076 | 7,8 | $5.998 | 4,66 | 0,51 |
| | Second degré semi-public | $1.762 | 3 | 3,0 | $5.286 | 4,0 | $7.048 | 5,48 | 0,75 |
| | Second degré ONG | $1.351 | 3 | ND | ND | ND | ND | ND | ND |
| | Ecoles de commerce (privé) | $348 | 2 | ND | ND | ND | ND | ND | ND |
| Formation des enseignants | Ecole normale inférieure | $889 | 3 | 3,0 | $2.667 | (6,5) | ($5.778) | 4,49 | (0,46) |
| | Ecole Normale Supérieure | $813 | 3 | 3,0 | $2.439 | (6,5) | ($3.284) | 4,11 | (0,46) |
| Enseignement supérieur | Univ d'Haïti (médecine) | $969 | 6 | ND | ND | (7,5) | ($7.268) | 5,65 | (0,80) |
| | Univ d'Haïti (autres) | $739 | 4 | ND | ND | 14,3 | ($568) | 8,21 | (0,28) |
| | Universités privées | $1.189 | 4 | ND | ND | ND | ND | ND | ND |

ND = Non disponibles  N.B. Les parenthèses indiquent une estimation par extrapolation ou interpolation.

(a) Nombre d'années qu'il faut à l'élève moyen pour obtenir un diplôme.

(b) Les coûts dans ce tableau sont exprimés en dollars constants et n'ont pas été cumulés à un taux d'intérêt composé.

(c) Calcul dérivé du modèle de flux d'élèves et basé sur le nombre de personnes au sein d'une cohorte de 1.000 élèves qui réussissent à obtenir un diplôme par rapport au nombre total d'années-élève que les membres de cette même cohorte (y compris les abandonnants) consacrent au cycle en question.

(d) Rapport entre les coûts par diplômé du cycle en question et le coût moyen par diplômé dans l'enseignement primaire public.



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De ce point de vue, l'éducation est semblable à un produit que l'on achète et qui est une source de plaisir sans cesse renouvelé.

L'analyse économique est un outil précieux dans l'évaluation des bienfaits de l'éducation, même si elle ne mesure que ses avantages économiques et financiers, car ceux-ci ont incontestablement une grande importance à la fois pour les parties directement intéressées (parents et élèves) et pour les responsables chargés de la planification de l'éducation. Il est d'ailleurs relativement facile de quantifier les avantages monétaires que l'éducation procure. Les revenus acquis par un individu après l'obtention d'un diplôme et tout au long de sa vie sont en principe mesurables. Certes, ces données sont moins indicatives de l'utilités de la formation pour le groupe social que de son utilité pour l'individu en question. Néanmoins, elles donnent une idée approximative de la valeur que la société accorde aux différents diplômes ainsi que de l'importance relative des différents degrés et types d'éducation.

Pour déterminer les bénéfices monétaires de l'éducation, on a besoin de données concernant les revenus des diplômés de chaque cycle ainsi que les revenus de ceux qui ont abandonné leurs études avant la fin du cycle. Le Tableau 2.11 représente une simulation de la répartition des travailleurs haïtiens ayant différents niveaux de qualification scolaire à travers les diverses catégories d'occupations et de revenus.

Pour chaque groupe, on a calculé un revenu moyen sur l'ensemble de la vie professionnelle. Les niveaux de revenu associés à chaque échelon professionnel représentent une estimation du salaire moyen auquel le travailleur aurait droit tout au long de sa carrière. Cette moyenne est établie en tenant compte des périodes éventuelles de chômage. Trois estimations du revenu moyen apparaissent en bas du Tableau 2.11. La première (H1) est calculée selon l'hypothèse que chaque diplômé obtient un emploi approprié à sa formation sur place en Haïti. Les deuxième et troisième estimations partent d'hypothèses plus réalistes et tiennent compte des itinéraires professionnels probables des diplômés à chaque niveau, dont bon nombre n'obtiennent pas à l'heure actuelle un emploi correspondant à leur compétence théorique.

### 2.4.2 Analyse des taux de rendement

Il y a plusieurs méthodes pour comparer les coûts aux bénéfices de l'éducation. L'analyse des taux de rendement est l'une des méthodes les plus utilisées. Dans cette approche, les coûts de l'éducation sont considérés comme un investissement et les bénéfices représentent le rendement de cet investissement sur une période donnée. Une brève analyse des taux de rendement des différents niveaux et cycles du système éducatif haïtien est présentée dans cette section. On fera une distinction à chaque niveau entre les taux de

Tableau 2.11

Simulation de la répartition des diplômés des différentes branches du système éducatif haïtien à travers les catégories professionnelles et calcul des revenus moyens

| CATEGORIES PROFESSIONNELLES | REVENU ANNUEL MOYEN | REPARTITION DES DIPLOMES DES DIFFERENTS NIVEAUX D'EDUCATION A TRAVERS CATEGORIES D'EMPLOI (en %) | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | AUCUNE FORMATION | CERTIF. D'ENS. PRIM. | 3EME | ENSEIGNMT TECH/PROF 1ER DEGRE | ECOLE NORMALE | LYCEE | ENSEIGNMT PROF/TECH 2EME DEGRE | ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR | | |
| | | | | | | | | | GENERAL | ECOLE DE MEDECINE | GESTION |
| **Non qualifié** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Secteur rural | $300 | 70 | 10 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Secteur urbain | 3400 | 30 | 30 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| **Semi qualifié** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Secteur rural | $500 | -- | 10 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Sect urb pub | $800 | -- | 10 | 10 | 10 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Sect urb priv | $720 | -- | 30 | 10 | 40 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| **Petits employés de bureaux** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Secteur rural | $600 | -- | 10 | 20 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Sect urb pub | $1.000 | -- | -- | 20 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Sect urb priv | $1.500 | -- | -- | 40 | -- | 10 | 20 | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| **Métiers manuels qualifiés** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Secteur rural | $1.200 | -- | -- | -- | 10 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Secteur urbain | $1.800 | -- | -- | -- | 40 | -- | -- | 10 | -- | -- | -- |
| **Employés** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Sect urb pub | $2.400 | -- | -- | -- | -- | 10 | 20 | -- | | | |
| Sect urb priv | $3.500 | -- | -- | -- | -- | 30 | 30 | -- | 20 | -- | 20 |
| **Enseignants** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Sect urb/rural | $1.800 | -- | -- | -- | -- | 50 | 30 | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| **Métiers techniques qualifiés** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Secteur public | $3.600 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | 20 | -- | -- | -- |
| Secteur privé | $4.800 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | 45 | -- | -- | -- |
| Emigration | $8.000 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | 25 | -- | -- | -- |
| **Professeurs** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Secteur public | $5.000 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | 20 | -- | -- |
| Secteur privé | $7.500 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | 20 | -- | -- |
| **Professions médicales** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Secteur public | $7.500 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | 10 | -- |
| Secteur privé | $12.000 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | 40 | -- |
| Emigration | $20.000 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | 50 | -- |
| **Direction et gestion** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Secteur public | $7.500 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | 10 | -- | 20 |
| Secteur privé | $12.000 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | 10 | -- | 30 |
| Emigration | $20.000 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | 10 | -- | 30 |
| **Salaire moyen annuel (a)** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| H1 | | $330 | $700 | $2.200 | $1.500 | $1.800 | $2.950 | $4.200 | $6.250 | $10.250 | $10.250 |
| H2 avec émigration | | $330 | $556 | $1.072 | $1.208 | $2.340 | $2.610 | $5.060 | $7.390 | $15.550 | $17.600 |
| H2 sans émigration | | $330 | $556 | $1.072 | $1.208 | $2.340 | $2.610 | $3.360 | $5.690 | $7.050 | $6.700 |

(a) Hypothèse 1 (H1)--salaire moyen calculé en supposant que chaque diplôme obtient un emploi approprié à sa formation.
Hypothèse 2 (H2)--salaire moyen calculé de façon plus réaliste en tenant compte de la probabilité d'emploi à chaque niveau. H2 est calculé deux fois, la première fois en incluant les salaires des travailleurs émigrés et la deuxième fois en les excluant du calcul, sauf une somme équivalant à 30% du salaire considéré comme représentant l'argent renvoyé en Haïti par les émigrés.

rendement individuel et social. Cette analyse doit permettre d'identifier des tendances significatives dans le fonctionnement du système éducatif et de faciliter le choix des domaines où de nouveaux investissements privés ou publics seraient indiqués. Les taux de rendement constituent un indicateur partiel de l'efficacité "externe" de l'éducation.

Les taux sont calculés au moyen de la méthode abrégée, qui consiste à évaluer l'écart moyen entre les profils de revenus de personnes ayant eu accès à différents niveaux d'éducation. Etant donné la nature approximative de l'approche utilisée et des données dont on dispose, cette méthode permet d'aboutir à des résultats d'un degré de précision et de fiabilité acceptable. A titre indicatif, les taux de rendement calculés de cette façon sont présentés dans le Tableau 2.12. Notons qu'ils sont tous calculés à partir de la deuxième série de données du Tableau 2.12 (H2)--c'est à dire, ils tiennent compte du niveau très élevé de chômage et de sous-emploi qui caractérise l'économie à l'heure actuelle. Les taux sont calculés à partir de la date d'obtention du diplôme, c'est-à-dire que la méthode compare la valeur des coûts et bénéfices escomptés par rapport au moment où l'élève quitte l'école. Pour y parvenir, les coûts sont cumulés jusqu'à la fin du cycle de formation à un taux d'intérêts composés correspondant au taux pratiqué à l'heure actuelle sur les marchés financiers en Haïti. Les revenus que l'étudiant aurait pu gagner s'il avait travaillé plutôt que d'aller à l'école ("coûts d'opportunité") sont inclus dans le calcul des coûts, car ils font partie du prix effectivement payé par les étudiants ou par leurs familles, même s'ils ne représentent pas un versement en espèces. Pour calculer le montant de l'ensemble des coûts sociaux, les frais pris en charge par le gouvernement et les donateurs sont ajoutés aux coûts individuels.

L'examen des données relatives aux taux de rendement de l'éducation permet de faire les observations suivantes :

- Les taux de rendement individuels sont du même ordre de grandeur que ceux constatés dans les autres pays en voie de développement (avec toutefois quelques différences de configuration qui seront examinées tout à l'heure) mais les taux de rendement sociaux sont bien plus bas.
- Les taux de rendement individuels pour les diplômés sont relativement élevés et dépassent généralement les 12% d'intérêt adopté dans ces calculs comme le coût d'opportunité du capital. Cependant il faut en même temps tenir compte du fait que les taux de rendement apparaîtront sensiblement plus bas aux yeux des étudiants commençant un cycle de formation donné dans la mesure où ils ne sont pas certains de l'achever et de recevoir le diplôme correspondant à cause du haut degré

Tableau 2.12

Résumé des Taux de Rendement des Différentes Branches du Système Educatif Haïtien (H2)

(en Pourcentage)

| Niveau de Formation | Taux de Rendement Individuels | | | | | | Taux de Rendement Sociaux (Emigrés Exclus) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Intervalle des Taux Pour Diplômés | Taux Moyen Pour Diplômés | Probabilité d'Obtention de Diplôme | Facteur de Correction | Intervalle de Variation des Taux Estimés Pour Inscrits | Taux Moyens Estimés Pour Inscrits | Intervalle de Variation des Taux | Taux Moyen |
| Certificat Primaire | 6-71 | 25 | .31 | .66 | 4-47 | 16 | 8-19 | 12 |
| 3e | 12-25 | 19 | .78 | .89 | 11-22 | 17 | 12-19 | 16 |
| Enseignement Professionnel/ Technique 1er degré | 36 | 36 | .25 | .62 | 22 | 22 | 9 | 9 |
| Enseignement Professionnel/ Technique 2e degré | 94-134 | 109 | .55 | .78 | 73-105 | 85 | 15-28 | 22 |
| Ecole Normale (a) | 49 | 49 | .35 | .68 | 33 | 33 | 17 | 17 |
| Lycée (b) | 35-52 | 42 | .33 | .67 | 23-35 | 28 | 25-32 | 28 |
| Université | 21-93 | 68 | ND | ND | ND | ND | 8-22 | 15 |

(a) Taux de rendement individuel à l'école normale calculé en supposant que la plupart d'entre eux chercheront un travail en dehors de l'enseignement

(b) Facteur de correction du lycée basé sur la probabilité qu'un élève entrant en 11ème recevra un diplôme complet d'école secondaire (second baccalauréat)

ND = Non Disponibles



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de déperdition qui caractérise l'ensemble du système éducatif. Pour estimer l'importance et l'impact de ce phénomène sur les taux de rendement effectivement anticipés par les candidats à la formation, les résultats pour chaque cycle de formation présentés dans les deuxième et troisième colonnes du Tableau 2.12 sont multipliés par un coefficient de correction. Ce coefficient est situé à mi-chemin entre la probabilité objective qu'un étudiant nouvellement inscrit dans le cycle en question obtiendra un diplôme à la fin de celui-ci (calculé d'après le modèle de flux exposé ci-avant) et la valeur "1,00" - c'est à dire, la certitude d'obtenir le diplôme. En multipliant les taux de rendement individuel des diplômés par ce coefficient, on obtient une meilleure idée des taux de rendement tels qu'effectivement aperçus par ceux qui envisagent de se faire inscrire et donc des facteurs qui déterminent la demande d'éducation à ce niveau.

- Les taux de rendement individuels semblent les meilleurs pour les étudiants des institutions de qualité qui sont fortement subventionnées par les ONG.
- La structure des taux de rendement individuels et collectifs est plus ou moins l'inverse de celle observée à l'heure actuelle dans la plupart des autres pays en voie de développement. Sur le plan individuel, l'enseignement primaire et l'enseignement secondaire inférieur (jusqu'en 3e) sont caractérisés par les taux les plus bas, suivis de l'enseignement secondaire supérieur, alors que l'enseignement technique et professionnel du second degré et l'enseignement supérieur ont les taux les plus élevés. Quant au rendement social, l'enseignement primaire et l'enseignement secondaire inférieur ont toujours les taux les plus bas mais partagent ce rang avec l'enseignement supérieur. Les taux les plus élevés sont ceux de l'enseignement secondaire supérieur et l'enseignement technique et professionnel. (Il est à noter qu'on ne tient pas compte ici de la valeur des cycles inférieurs comme voie d'accès aux cycles supérieurs plus rentables.)
- Les taux de rendement individuel pour presque toutes les branches du système éducatif sont nettement plus bas quand on tient compte non pas du type d'emploi pour lequel l'étudiant est censé être préparé, mais plutôt des possibilités réelles sur le marché de l'emploi. Ceci est particulièrement vrai pour les diplômés de l'enseignement secondaire (tant général que technique) étant donné le manque de débouchés correspondant à leur niveau de qualification. Seuls les diplômés des écoles normales font exception à cette règle--étant donné le niveau

très bas des salaires dans l'enseignement, ceux qui ne trouvent (ou ne prennent) jamais de poste dans l'enseignement sont souvent mieux rémunérés que ceux qui suivent cette carrière.

## 2.5 CONCLUSIONS ET PROBLEMES RELATIFS A LA POLITIQUE EDUCATIVE

Il y a plusieurs contraintes économiques importantes dont il faut tenir compte dans la planification de l'éducation et du développement des ressources humaines en Haïti :

- l'existence d'un secteur traditionnel important, essentiellement agricole qui doit faire face à de sérieux problèmes dûs à la fragilité de l'environnement et à la pression démographique ;
- une population rurale importante qui vit pour la plupart dans un état d'isolement, de sous-emploi et de pauvreté plus ou moins grave ;
- un secteur industriel moderne en expansion qui reste cependant très vulnérable ;
- un secteur public dont les capacités limitées de financement ne lui permettent pas d'investir beaucoup dans les activités de développement ; et
- un problème omniprésent de répartition inéquitable des revenus.

L'éducation à elle seule ne peut surmonter ces obstacles. D'ailleurs, pour permettre au système d'éducation d'avoir un plus grand impact sur le développement des ressources humaines, il faudrait trouver des moyens d'éliminer une partie de ces contraintes. Cependant l'analyse précédente fait ressortir plusieurs domaines dans lesquels des améliorations apportées au fonctionnement du système éducatif pourraient avoir un impact sensible sur le développement du pays :

- Les coûts de l'éducation primaire sont bien au-dessus des moyens de la majorité de la population. Une aide individuelle supplémentaire sous forme de bourses ou de prêts aurait pour résultat de permettre à un plus grand nombre d'enfants d'être scolarisés.
- La demande en éducation (particulièrement au niveau primaire) est élevée et ni le gouvernement ni les ONG ne peuvent fournir suffisamment de places à des prix subventionnés pour la satisfaire.
- L'apport financier du gouvernement à l'éducation est relativement faible en comparaison avec d'autres pays en voie de développement.
- Bien que les taux de rendement <u>individuel</u> de la plupart des cycles d'éducation soient relativement élevés, les taux de rendement <u>social</u> - et donc les bénéfices monétaires que la société haïtienne tire de ses

investissements en éducation - semblent plutôt faibles. Ceci est dû au sous-emploi chronique de la main-d'oeuvre qualifiée (ou susceptible de l'être) et à l'émigration massive des personnes les mieux formées.

- Les programmes de formation technique et professionnelle sont caractérisés par un taux de rendement relativement élevé, ce qui fait penser que le lien entre l'enseignement fondamental et ses applications possibles mérite d'être renforcé dans les domaines techniques de la production et de l'emploi.
- La faible capacité d'absorption de la main-d'oeuvre qualifiée, qui caractérise l'économie à l'heure actuelle constitue un obstacle majeur au développement tant du système éducatif que du pays tout entier. Il serait essentiel de mettre sur pied des programmes de formation technique et d'apprentissage liés à la création de nouveaux emplois.
- Les institutions privées demeureront l'une des principales sources de services éducatifs dans l'avenir le plus proche. Le secteur privé devrait être utilisé au maximum pour soutenir et compléter les efforts du secteur public.
- Les données sur les coûts et les bénéfices de l'éducation font largement défaut. Pour faciliter la planification de l'éducation et la prise de décisions en matière de politique éducative, il serait hautement souhaitable de disposer de plusieurs types de recherche, et d'enquêtes, notamment des études de suivi et des analyses des flux d'élèves dans les différentes branches du système scolaire, ainsi que des études des frais scolaires et des budgets familiaux.

## CHAPTER PREFACE

Chapter 2, "Economic and Fiscal Analysis," was reviewed in Port-au-Prince on April 15, 1986 by the following persons:

| | |
|---|---|
| Mr. Joseph Herns Henry | Director of Planning, Ministry of Education (MOE). |
| Mr. Max Paul | Human Resources Development Officer, Ministry of Planning. |
| Mr. Gary Perrodin | Chief of the Evaluation Section, Planning Division, MOE. |
| Mr. Jerôme Jean-Noël | Chief of the Service of External Cooperation, Planning Division, MOE. |

Mr. Peter Easton of IEES/Florida State University participated in the discussions as facilitator. Corrections of factual detail and statistical presentation were made at the outset of the review session.

The reviewers felt that the chapter presented a good deal of useful data and some valuable insight into the economic situation of the Haitian educational system, particularly in respect to unit costs. They regretted, however, that more had not been done to interpret and analyze three critical aspects of the situation portrayed:

- the disadvantages of current heavy dependence on foreign aid in the education sector;
- the negative consequences of weak budgetary commitment to education; and
- the restrictive nature of development assistance from many bilateral and multilateral partners.

Reviewers also felt that the manpower supply and demand analysis in the chapter had a number of inherent limitations, since changes in development strategy or external economic climate could radically modify the conclusions drawn.

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## 2.0 ECONOMIC AND FISCAL ANALYSIS*

The need for an economic analysis of education is very great for developing countries like Haiti where resources are severely limited and where other urgent social needs and economic activities compete with education for scarce revenues. In this context, an assessment of the present and future costs and benefits of alternate forms of educational development is useful for policymakers. Economic analysis provides a means of evaluating the relative cost-effectiveness of different educational systems and projects, and can furnish useful information on the benefits or "returns" to investments in education.

### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

Economic analysis does not replace the critical process by which policymakers decide on the course of educational development. Even when a detailed economic strategy is adopted, it does not dictate a rigid pattern of educational development.

Economic analysis of education requires a combination of approaches. Neither a manpower requirement approach, nor a cost-benefit analysis of programs, nor estimates of the fiscal capacity of the systems responsible for financing education, can provide all the answers to questions raised by policymakers. These three methods should be applied concurrently, and their results and predictions interpreted with caution. It is important to supplement them with a broader analysis of the relationships among education, labor market behavior, development strategy, the structure of economic incentives, and prevailing social patterns. The entire discussion, moreover, needs to be placed in the proper historical perspective.

The economic analysis in this chapter follows these principles. It examines the Haitian educational system from five complementary perspectives:

1. The historical context in which the system has developed (Section 2.2).
2. The demographic circumstances (Section 2.3), the current economic situation (Section 2.4), and the strategy of economic development presently followed by Government (Section 2.5).
3. The prospects for economic growth, and the probable future capacity of Government and the population to finance educational expansion (Section 2.6).
4. The degree of correspondence between the numbers and qualifications of students produced by the educational system and the numbers and

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* The draft of this chapter was prepared by Benoit Millot, University of Dijon, and Peter A. Easton, Florida State University.

qualifications of workers needed by different branches of the economy, now and in the future (Section 2.7).

5. The costs per student and per graduate of the different types of education (Section 2.8) and the relative benefits--to the individual and to society--of these training systems (Section 2.9).

Section 2.10 covers private education and its potential. The final section (2.11) presents general conclusions and recommendations. All figures are in U.S. dollars; one dollar equals five gourdes.

## 2.2 HISTORICAL CONTEXT

This section presents a few important facts as a background for analysis of the present state of the economy and the educational system.

### 2.2.1 Extended Isolation

After independence in 1804 and the departure of most French colonists, Haiti had few relationships with Latin America, North America, Europe, or even other Caribbean countries. A prominent exception is the Dominican Republic, with which there have been frequent conflicts. Haiti's isolation, also partly due to the use of two languages (French and Creole) which are not widely spoken in neighboring countries, has produced a long and rich cultural tradition that is unique.

### 2.2.2 Political Unrest

Long periods of political unrest and internal strife plagued the country throughout the 19th and early 20th centuries. Agitation, coups and political instability, mostly caused by efforts of the elite to maintain political and economic power, hampered the nation-building process. At the same time, the policies and practices of foreign powers impinged severely on national development, as illustrated by the United States occupation of the country from 1915 to 1934.

### 2.2.3 Underdeveloped Administrative Capacity

Under such unsettled conditions, the country was not able to develop a strong administrative capacity. Government has traditionally been mistrusted by the populace and no strong administrative tradition or norms have emerged. The dispersed pattern of settlement, widespread resistance to central control, and the difficulties of communication in the interior make it difficult for Government to maintain contact with the rural population or develop an understanding of the needs of the rural poor.

### 2.2.4 Limited Public Investment

Once the most productive colony of the French Empire, independent Haiti had no further external investments of consequence until the last quarter of



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the 19th century. In addition, the new nation had to pay a sizable indemnity to France. These circumstances strained public finances for half a century. This period nevertheless saw the creation of a national bank and the first investments in infrastructure and communications. Subsequent political events, however, did not allow the economy to continue to build on these initial investments. Not until the 1970s did increases in exports and external assistance make it possible for economic growth to begin again.

### 2.2.5 The Language Problem

One lasting effect of Haiti's colonial heritage is the French language. The use of French--the official language--versus the use of Creole is still a major issue in Haiti, posed most sharply at present by the implementation of the Education Reform. French language facility is a prerequisite for upward social mobility. Since schooling is the other condition, any attempt to disassociate these two (e.g., teaching in Creole) tends to generate strong reactions. In short, instructional arguments on the language issue are at odds with political and sociological arguments. As documented in Chapter 5, the Reform is an attempt to reconcile this issue.

### 2.2.6 Influence of U.S. Involvement

During their occupation of the country (1915-34), American forces built roads and public buildings, improved agriculture, and organized a vocational school system in rural areas under the Ministry of Agriculture. They also effectively stopped the development of secondary cities by requiring all export and import traffic to pass through the capital as a means of suppressing peasant resistance to the occupation. The institutional management techniques that the Americans tried to introduce were not maintained after their departure. The buildings remain, as do remnants of the vocational schools, but Haiti was also left with a dual education system split between two competing ministries and paralleled by widespread and unregulated private educational activities.

Renewed involvement of the U.S. in Haiti, during the 1950s and late 1970s, included a range of assistance projects with agriculture as the major area of emphasis. There have more recently been substantial private investments in the industrial sector in the wake of the Caribbean Basin Initiative, and conditional assistance has been given to help Government comply with International Monetary Fund (IMF) covenants.

## 2.3 DEMOGRAPHIC BACKGROUND

Demography has direct effects on both education and employment. Haiti has been rich in census data since its very beginning. Immediately after independence Haiti had a population of fewer than 500,000 according to the first census

carried out by the Dessalines government in 1805. Subsequent censuses (Table 2.1) showed only a moderate growth rate. The first doubling of the population occurred between 1804 and 1864 (Geffrard's census). Significant increases in the growth rate did not really appear until the 1950s. By 1971, the census indicated a population of 4.3 million.

Population estimates throughout the 19th century were characterized by a high degree of approximation. Even the 1982 census has some statistical uncertainty, because Haiti is a country where people are extremely scattered, its borders with the neighboring Dominican Republic are porous, and internal mobility is high. Accuracy is also difficult in the case of a metropolitan area like Port-au-Prince, whose boundaries and internal composition are continually changing.

The official 1982 estimate of 5.05 million is controversial, but may be reasonably accurate. Many believe that this figure is an underestimate, but there is no real basis for accepting the alternative estimates, some of which are as high as 7 million. Moreover, the 1982 census figures agree with projections from the 1971 census. Although this is more of an argument for internal consistency in successive estimations than for their actual validity, it does provide some basis for using the official 1982 data.

The population is characterized by these features:

- A very high proportion of young people, with almost half of the population under 20 years of age (Table 2.2).
- A low proportion of males, the only exception being in the 45 to 59 age bracket.
- A population still predominantly rural (79%) (Table 2.3). Many people live in the capital (14%), but very few live in all the other cities (6%).

These features are the result of a number of dynamic trends that can be summarized as follows:

- Crude birth rates and fertility rates (already lower than the average in low-income countries) are declining (Table 2.4).
- Mortality rates, although diminishing, are still high, even compared with those of other low-income countries.
- Emigration is quite high. The Haitian Institute of Statistics (Institut Haïtien de Statistique et d'Informatique - IHS) estimates average annual departures at between 20,000 and 25,000. The total number of expatriates is assumed to be one million, of whom half live in the United States. Political, economic, and social aspects of emigration indirectly affect most of the resident population. Indeed, emigration raises intricate problems for educators because substantial numbers of highly skilled Haitians have left the country. Studies of



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TABLE 2.1

Census of the Haitian Population, 1789-2000

| Year | Population | Source |
|---|---|---|
| 1789 | 30 - 40,000 White | Moreau de Saint Mery: 40,000 |
| | | Malenfant: 30,000 |
| | 28 - 60,000 Free | Moreau de Saint Mery: 28,000 |
| | | Th. Madiou: 56,000 |
| | 450 - 500,000 Black | Moreau de Saint Mery: 452,000 |
| 1805 | 380,000 | 1st. Census of Dessalines |
| 1810 | 429,255 | Estimation IHS* (Guide Economique de la Republique d'Haiti 1977, pp. 48-49) |
| 1820 | 500,067 | Estimation IHS |
| 1824 | 715,000 | Boyer's Census |
| 1830 | 582,028 | Estimation IHS |
| 1832 | 575,000 (125,000 in Dominican Rep.) | Bouzon, Justin, L'Empereur Soulouque et son Empire |
| 1840 | 676,725 | Estimation IHS |
| 1840 | 700,000 (130,000 in Dominican Rep.) | Candler, John, Brief Notices of Haiti |
| 1850 | 785,859 | Estimation IHS |
| 1860 | 911,330 | Estimation IHS |
| 1864 | 1,100,000 | Geffrard's Census |
| 1870 | 1,055,142 | Estimation IHS |
| 1880 | 1,219,412 | Estimation IHS |
| 1882 | 1,200,000 | Janvier, Louis-Joseph, La Republique d'Haiti... |
| 1890 | 1,406,327 | Estimation IHS |

TABLE 2.1 (continued)

Census of the Haitian Population, 1789-2000

| Year | Population | Source |
|---|---|---|
| 1900 | 1,618,048 | Estimation IHS |
| 1900 | 1,250,000 | Mgr/Jan, Diocese du Cap-Haitien... |
| 1907 | 1,500,000 | Vaval, Duracine, Coup d'Oeil sur l'Etat Economique |
| 1910 | 1,856,641 | Estimation IHS |
| 1910 | 2,310,000 | Firmin, Anenor, Lettres de Saint Thomas |
| 1914 | 1,960,000 | Catholic Clergy |
| 1915 | 2,000,000 | Millspaugh, Arthur, Haiti Under American Control |
| 1919 | 1,631,250 | Dartiguenave's Census |
| 1920 | 2,124,189 | Estimation IHS |
| 1924 | 2,050,000 | Union Panamericaine |
| 1929 | 2,500,000 | Davis, H.P., Black democracy... |
| 1930 | 2,421,766 | Estimation IHS |
| 1932 | 2,485,000 | U.S. Marine Corps |
| 1940 | 2,750,963 | Estimation IHS |
| 1950 | 3,097,220 | 1950 Census |
| 1969 | 4,768,101 | Estimation mission OEA |
| 1971 | 4,329,991 | 1971 Census |
| 1978 | 4,832,000 | IHS |
| 1982 | 5,053,000 | IHS Census |
| 2000 | 7,200,000 | Projections IHS |

* Haitian Institute of Statistics

Source: J. Barros, Haiti de 1804 a nos Jours. Paris: L'Harmattan, 1984.

TABLE 2.2

Structure of the Population, by Age Groups and Gender, 1982

| Age Group | Males (%) | Females (%) | Total (%) | Ratio of Males to Females |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Less than 1 year | 2.9 | 2.9 | 2.9 | .954 |
| 01 - 04 | 11.6 | 11.5 | 11.5 | .956 |
| 05 - 09 | 13.4 | 13.2 | 13.3 | .960 |
| 10 - 14 | 11.8 | 11.1 | 11.5 | .999 |
| 15 - 19 | 10.3 | 10.0 | 10.1 | .969 |
| 20 - 24 | 8.7 | 9.3 | 9.1 | .874 |
| 25 - 29 | 7.1 | 8.4 | 7.8 | .788 |
| 30 - 34 | 5.6 | 5.7 | 5.6 | .918 |
| 35 - 39 | 5.2 | 5.4 | 5.3 | .908 |
| 40 - 44 | 4.5 | 4.7 | 4.6 | .901 |
| 45 - 49 | 4.4 | 4.0 | 4.2 | 1.028 |
| 50 - 54 | 3.8 | 3.2 | 3.5 | 1.108 |
| 55 - 59 | 2.4 | 2.2 | 2.3 | 1.056 |
| 60 - 64 | 2.5 | 2.4 | 2.4 | .998 |
| 65 | 5.7 | 6.0 | 5.9 | .898 |
| Total | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | .941 |

Source: Haitian Institute of Statistics, Resultats anticipes du Recensement General.

TABLE 2.3

Structure of the Population by Area of Residence and Gender, 1982

| Area | Males | Females | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| Metropolitan | 314,480 | 405,111 | 719,591 |
| Cities (greater than 5,000 inhabitants) | 142,909 | 179,603 | 322,512 |
| Rural areas | 1,992,161 | 2,018,925 | 4,011,086 |
| Total | 2,449,550 | 2,603,639 | 5,053,189 |

Source: Haitian Institute of Statistics. Resultats Anticipes du Recensement General.

Table 2.4

Some Demographic Indicators: Haiti and Low-Income Economies, 1960-82

| Indicator | Haiti | | | Low-Income Economies(a) | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1960-70 | 1970-82 | 1980-2000 (projected) | 1960-70 | 1970-82 | 1980-2000 (projected) |
| Average annual growth (%) | 1.6 | 1.7 | 1.8 | 2.5 | 2.6 | 2.9 |
| | 1960 | 1982 | | 1960 | 1982 | |
| Crude birth rate (per 1,000) | 39.0 | 32.0 | | 47.0 | 44.0 | |
| Crude death rate (per 1,000) | 19.0 | 13.0(b) | | 24.0 | 16.0 | |
| Total fertility rate | 4.6 | 3.7 | | 6.1 | 5.2 | |
| Life expectancy at birth | | | | | | |
| Males | 45.0 | 53.0 | | 42.0 | 50.0 | |
| Females | 45.0 | 56.0 | | 43.0 | 52.0 | |
| Infant mortality rate under 1 (per 1,000) | 182.0 | 110.0 | | 163.0 | 114.0 | |
| Child death rate (1 to 4) (per 1,000) | 47.0 | 17.0 | | 31.0 | 19.0 | |
| | 1960-82 | | | 1960-82 | | |
| Percentage change in crude birth rate | -17.4 | | | -7.2 | | |
| Percentage change in crude death rate | -35.7 | | | -32.8 | | |

(a) Excludes India, China, and countries whose population is under one million; refers to 33 countries whose GNP per capita was under $400 in 1982 (World Bank classification).
(b) The Haitian Institute of Statistics estimates the crude death rate in 1982 at 17%.

Source: World Development Report, 1984.

the causes and consequences of emigration would be very useful. Also helpful would be systematic information on the structure of the emigrant population.

- This emigration, taken together with the slackening birth rates, accounts for the relatively modest growth of the resident population.

Another important trend in Haitian demography is rural exodus. It is estimated that half of the natural growth in rural areas is siphoned off by emigration. Rural exodus is rarely a two- and even less a three-stage process. Small cities do not benefit from the migratory movement from rural areas, and some of them have even experienced declines in population. The metropolitan area of Port-au-Prince is almost the only destination of those who abandon rural life.

The consequences of this internal migration are numerous and complex. On the one hand, rural out-migration is not sufficient to solve the lack of arable land per agricultural worker. On the other, it creates explosive urbanization problems in the metropolitan area, which is not equipped to absorb so many newcomers. This phenomenon is also a challenge to educators, who must try to adjust the supply of school facilities both in rural areas and in the mushrooming metropolitan area.

## 2.4 MAIN ECONOMIC INDICATORS

This section describes the current economic context within which educational policy decisions are made. Principal indicators are presented to clarify how the country produces and spends its resources, how public funds are generated and utilized, and what position Haiti presently occupies relative to the world economy.

### 2.4.1 Production

The Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is a useful indicator for assessing economic performance in current market prices, although it captures only very partial aspects of reality. GDP in Haiti has risen from $909.4 million in FY 1977 to $1,619.6 million in FY 1983 (estimation). This sharp increase is partly nominal because prices have gone up at the same time. The implicit GDP deflator used by the Haitian Institute of Statistics and the IMF to correct for rising prices is as follows:

| | |
|---|---|
| 1976 | 100.0 |
| 1977 | 111.8 |
| 1978 | 108.0 |
| 1979 | 112.7 |
| 1980 | 131.3 |

| | |
|---|---|
| 1981 | 144.3 |
| 1982 | 158.0 |
| 1983 | 169.1 (estimation) |

Even with the depreciation reflected by the above deflators, the annual increase of real GDP was still quite substantial in 1977, 1978, and 1979 (respectively 4.8%, 7.3%, and 6.4%). Good weather raised coffee production and favorable external circumstances encouraged foreign private investments in the assembly industries during this period. These unusually favorable conditions were of short duration. Beginning in 1980, there was a decline in foreign (especially U.S.) demand, a collapse of international prices for coffee, and a severe hurricane. As a result, economic growth as measured by annual changes in real GDP (Table 2.5), was negative for 1981 and 1982.

TABLE 2.5

Percentage Change in Gross Domestic Product, 1979-83

| Indicator | 1979 | 1980 | 1981 | 1982 | 1983 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| GDP at current market prices | 11.9 | 24.0 | 8.9 | 8.0 | 8.1 |
| GDP at constant 1976 market prices | 7.3 | 6.4 | -0.9 | -1.3 | 1.0 |

Source: IMF estimates

The 1977-79 surge of economic growth created a climate of expansion. Imports and public expenditures increased, fueled by an exceptional rise in tax revenues. These revenues dropped dramatically in 1981, but public investment and imports kept rising. The unfortunate consequence of 2 years of economic expansion was the adoption of a less stringent monetary and budgetary policy, leading to an imbalance in public finances (see Section 2.4.2, below).

A partial recovery started in 1983 and the growth of real GDP is now positive once again. Export-oriented industries, sustained by an increasing U.S. demand, are the major sources of this recovery. Agriculture, however, remains virtually stagnant. Over the 1982/83 period, the constant-price value of production in the primary and secondary sectors progressed only slightly, whereas it increased by 15.5% in the service sector.

As a result of these changes, the sectoral structure of national output has been steadily changing (Tables 2.6 and 2.7). The proportion of agriculture is declining, and the bauxite mines have closed. Agriculture in 1983 accounted for one-third of the GDP, versus 40% a decade earlier, even though it is estimated that two-thirds of the labor force is employed in this sector (see Section 2.7.2 below). Agriculture's share in national value added does not exceed 32%. The 1980 hurricane and the 1982 drought can be discounted as short-

TABLE 2.6

Gross Domestic Product by Source, 1978-82
(Millions of dollars, October 1976 prices)

| Sector | 1978 | 1979 | 1980 | 1981 | 1982 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Primary | | | | | |
| Agriculture | $321 | $327 | $339 | $340 | $326 |
| Mining | 14 | 14 | 13 | 11 | 14 |
| Subtotal | 335 | 341 | 352 | 351 | 340 |
| Secondary | | | | | |
| Manufacturing | 154 | 170 | 194 | 176 | 178 |
| Construction | 51 | 56 | 58 | 57 | 54 |
| Subtotal | 205 | 226 | 252 | 233 | 231 |
| Service | | | | | |
| Utilities | 6 | 7 | 7 | 8 | 8 |
| Transport and communications | 21 | 20 | 21 | 18 | 21 |
| Commerce | 107 | 174 | 189 | 187 | 184 |
| Financial services | 2 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 3 |
| Restaurants and hotels | 6 | 8 | 6 | 5 | 6 |
| Housing | 48 | 49 | 50 | 51 | 52 |
| Government | 26 | 29 | 30 | 33 | 29 |
| Other | 78 | 98 | 103 | 108 | 110 |
| Subtotal | 348 | 387 | 409 | 412 | 412 |
| Total: GDP at factor costs(a) | 889 | 954 | 1,012 | 996 | 984 |
| Taxes and duties on imports | 37 | 40 | 44 | 51 | 0 |
| Total: GDP at market prices | $926 | $993 | $1,056 | $1,047 | $1,033 |

(a) Totals may not be exact because item entries have been rounded.

Source: Haitian Institute of Statistics and IMF estimates.

TABLE 2.7

Percentage Distribution of Gross Domestic Product,

by Source, 1978-82

| Sector | 1978 | 1979 | 1980 | 1981 | 1982 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Primary | | | | | |
| Agriculture | 34.6 | 32.8 | 32.1 | 32.4 | 31.5 |
| Mining | 1.5 | 1.4 | 1.3 | 1.1 | 1.4 |
| Subtotal | 36.1 | 34.2 | 33.4 | 33.5 | 32.9 |
| Secondary | | | | | |
| Manufacturing | 16.7 | 17.2 | 18.4 | 16.8 | 17.2 |
| Construction | 5.5 | 5.6 | 5.4 | 5.4 | 5.2 |
| Subtotal | 22.2 | 22.8 | 23.8 | 22.2 | 22.4 |
| Service | | | | | |
| Utilities | 0.6 | 0.7 | 0.7 | 0.7 | 0.7 |
| Transport and communications | 2.2 | 2.0 | 2.0 | 1.8 | 2.0 |
| Commerce | 17.4 | 17.5 | 17.9 | 17.8 | 17.8 |
| Financial services | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.3 |
| Restaurants and hotels | 0.7 | 0.8 | 0.5 | 0.5 | 0.6 |
| Housing | 5.2 | 4.9 | 4.7 | 4.8 | 5.0 |
| Government | 2.8 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 3.2 | 2.8 |
| Other | 8.4 | 9.8 | 9.7 | 10.3 | 10.7 |
| Subtotal | 37.5 | 38.9 | 38.6 | 39.4 | 39.9 |
| GDP at factor costs (a) | 95.8 | 95.9 | 95.8 | 95.1 | 95.2 |
| Taxes and duties on imports | 4.0 | 4.0 | 4.2 | 4.9 | 4.8 |
| GDP at market prices | 99.9 | 99.9 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |

(a) Totals may not be exact because item entries have been rounded.

Source: Haitian Institute of Statistics and IMF estimates.



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term and transient factors, but low productivity, over-utilization of arable land, and continuing subdivision of farmland are long-term factors that make a reversal of the role of agriculture unlikely in the foreseeable future. Sugarcane, once a significant source of exports, is now used mostly for domestic purposes. The main export crop is coffee, which in 1983 accounted for 59% of exports. However, coffee production has been fluctuating from year to year. Other export products include sisal, oils, cotton, and meat. At the same time, the production of sugar cane, sweet potatoes, rice, and corn have increased along an uneven course. The country, however, is not self-sufficient in food, and the factors already mentioned suggest that it will not become so in the near future.

Manufacturing and construction maintained their contribution to national output, at 17% and 5% respectively, in the 1978-82 period. Internal changes are noticeable, however, within the secondary sector. Light assembly production (principally electronics and textiles) for export, which uses imported materials, has been subject to large and abrupt fluctuations because of its dependence on external markets. Industries using domestic materials have grown in importance, especially if their performance is measured in terms of value added. In the import-substitution sector, a few large private, mixed, or state-owned firms dominate the cement and agro-industry market. Small industries using local techniques are still underrepresented; many obstacles hamper their development, including the lack of a skilled labor force.

The service sector is the only one whose contribution to the national product increased substantially over this period. It now generates almost 40% of GDP. This sector is made up of a heterogeneous set of activities, though commerce is the most important component. Many of these activities belong to the informal economy and are characterized by low productivity. Within this group, the importance of personal services is expanding. Services are highly sensitive to both internal (incomes) and external (tourism) factors. Although rising since 1981/82, the number of tourists in 1982/83 (126,000) was still below the level of the 1979-81 period, and revenues from tourism were still declining in 1983/84.

The only clear recent sign of expansion comes from the export-oriented manufacturing sector. Exports from this sector increased by 14% between the first half of 1982/83 and the first half of 1983/84 (Bulletin de la Banque de la République d'Haïti, October 7, 1984).

On the whole, Haiti stands apart in the Latin American region. Its per capita production is only one-fifth of the average for the region and the primary sector accounts for a much greater portion of economic activity (Table 2.8). Haiti occupies a singular position, therefore, in the Caribbean as well



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as in the entire Latin American region. The fact that Haiti's relatively poor economic performance is paralleled by equally weak education achievements must be noted as well. Given the country's relative lack of mineral resources and its limited agricultural capacity, human resources offer the most promise for Haiti with respect to economic growth and development. However, investments in education are needed for this to take place.

TABLE 2.8

Basic Economic Indicators for Guyana, Haiti, Dominican Republic, and Latin America, 1983

| Indicator | Guyana | Haiti | Dominican Republic | Latin America |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total Gross Domestic Product (millions of dollars, 1982) | $576 | $1,633 | $7,235 | $609,576 |
| Per capita Gross Domestic Product (dollars, 1982) | 712 | 310 | 1,213 | 1,674 |
| Value added, by sector (%) | | | | |
| Primary | 25.7 | 32.3 | 21.1 | 14.2 |
| Secondary | 26.5 | 23.5 | 26.6 | 30.4 |
| Services | 47.8 | 44.2 | 52.3 | 55.4 |
| Total | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| Gross Domestic Product change (%) 1970-83 | -5.4 | 54.2 | 114.8 | 75.7 |

Source: Inter-American Development Bank (IDB), 1984 Report.

Expenditures of Gross Domestic Product are shown in Table 2.9. Consumption grew steadily through 1981 before dropping in 1982. However, the most interesting fact is the sharp increase in public investment in 1981, followed by an equally rapid decline the following year. Private investors, who generally respond more quickly than Government to market signals, anticipated the decline of external demand and dramatically reduced their activities starting in 1981.

The net balance of goods and services has reflected this fluctuation. Over recent years, the country has experienced simultaneously a rapid rise in imports and a reduction of export revenues. This has led to major balance of payments deficits, with considerable impact on the condition of public finances.

### 2.4.2 Public Finances

The relative weight of public finance in an economy, although not a direct index of development, reflects the commitment of Government in economic life and its control and influence over the wealth produced. The way public funds

TABLE 2.9

Gross Domestic Product by Expenditure, 1978-82(a)

(Millions of Dollars, 1976)

| | 1978 | 1979 | 1980 | 1981 | 1982 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Expenditures | | | | | |
| Consumption | 858 | 921 | 973 | 1,008 | 961 |
| Investment | | | | | |
| Public | 99 | 86 | 79 | 146 | 92 |
| Private | 42 | 50 | 66 | 36 | 31 |
| Subtotal | 141 | 135 | 145 | 182 | 123 |
| Total | 1,000 | 1,056 | 1,118 | 1,189 | 1,083 |
| Exports | 167 | 175 | 229 | 196 | 208 |
| Imports | -242 | -238 | -293 | -323 | -274 |
| Gross Domestic Product at market prices | 924 | 992 | 1,054 | 1,062 | 1,018 |
| Net factor payment abroad | -14 | -11 | -10 | - 8 | - 8 |
| Gross National Product at market prices | 911 | 981 | 1,044 | 1,053 | 1,009 |

(a) Totals may not be exact because items have been rounded.

Source: World Bank Economic Note for the Haitian Subgroup, 1983.



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are spent gives an indication of the direction of a nation's economic and social progress.

According to the World Development Report, 1984, Haitian Government revenues represented 11.3% of the country's national product in 1981. (IMF, IDB, and national accounts give a lower ratio, in the 9% to 10% bracket, for the 1981-83 period.) If this percentage is used to estimate public sector participation in an economy, Haiti ranks low compared to other developing countries. The same year, according to the same source, the proportion was 8.5% for Bolivia, 14.5% for the Dominican Republic, 20.1% for Costa Rica, 16.7% for low-income countries (specified as in Table 2.4, note(a)), and 21.8% for lower middle-income countries. Regardless of what specifically is being done with public funds, these figures suggest that Government contributes to only a relatively small fraction of the national economy. This statement should be borne in mind when analyzing the nation's education policy.

Public sector spending is carried out by the Treasury, semi-public firms, and state-owned enterprises. Expenditures financed through concessional assistance as well as grants in aid from external donors may also be considered components of public finance. As Table 2.10 indicates, the overspending that crested in 1981 led to an overall deficit of $144 million (9.5% of the GDP). (This overall public sector deficit should not be confused with the current deficit of the Central Government, which in 1981 represented 3% of the GDP.)

Up to 66% of the funds to absorb these deficits have been financed from external sources. Government also has sought additional credit from the Central Bank to meet its obligations. As a consequence, demand for foreign exchange increased sharply and foreign exchange reserves fell to a dangerously low level. The major instrument that has been used to remedy these imbalances is a 1983 stand-by arrangement with the IMF authorizing $60 million in Special Drawing Rights (SDR).

The accompanying austerity program focused on stabilization by improved management of public finances: rationalization and control of expenditures, more efficient collection of revenues, and adjustment of monetary and foreign exchange policies. A 25% reduction in current Treasury expenditures (wages excepted) and a reduction of Government investment are the more visible and dramatic parts of the stabilization program. It is hoped that the thorough reorganization of public finance which took place simultaneously will have long-term beneficial effects. Separation of the commercial and banking functions of the Central Bank, progressive elimination of earmarked taxes, and efforts to eliminate the extra-budgetary expenditures that formerly were disbursed through a variety of sub-accounts are all examples of recent

TABLE 2.10

Overall Public Sector Operations, 1978-83(a)

(Millions of Dollars)

| | 1979 | 1980 | 1981 | 1982 | 1983 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Receipts | | | | | |
| General Government(b) | 114 | 138 | 132 | 165 | 172 |
| Public enterprises | 12 | 12 | 19 | 14 | 23 |
| Grants in aid | 32 | 37 | 44 | 52 | 65 |
| Total receipts | 158 | 188 | 195 | 231 | 260 |
| Expenditures | | | | | |
| General Government (current expenses) | 106 | 147 | 164 | 167 | 163 |
| Public sector capital | 96 | 114 | 177 | 147 | 160 |
| Other | 1 | 4 | -2 | -4 | -- |
| Total expenditures | 204 | 265 | 339 | 310 | 322 |
| Overall public sector Deficit | -46 | -78 | -144 | -87 | -62 |
| External financing | 33 | 35 | 95 | 38 | 48 |
| Domestic financing | 12 | 43 | 49 | 48 | 14 |

(a) Totals may not be exact because items have been rounded.

(b) Consists of General Government current revenues and transfers from public enterprises.

Source: Ministry of Finance and Economic Affairs, Bank of the Republic of Haiti, and IMF estimates.



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promising reforms. All these reforms, it should be noted, have a high human resource component and imply comprehensive inservice training activities of some variety.

2.4.2.1 Current Operations

Revenues. Total current revenues declined in 1981, but are now recovering as a result of the cited stabilization measures (Table 2.11). On the tax revenue side, these measures include a new income tax law, a reference price procedure for estimating coffee exports, a diesel fuel tax, increased import duties on luxury goods, and a general sales tax. The sales tax is determined by value added and designed to replace several excise taxes. Although the full effects of these new measures are not yet felt, the structure of public current revenues has already drastically changed (Table 2.12). These changes are threefold:

- Value-added taxes now make a substantial contribution to Government revenues.
- Import duties now provide more revenue than export duties.
- At the aggregate level, there has been a shift from taxes on international trade to taxes on domestic operations.

TABLE 2.11

Government Current Revenues, 1978-83

(Millions of Dollars)

| | 1979 | 1980 | 1981 | 1982 | 1983 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Internal revenue | | | | | |
| General sales tax | - | - | - | - | 18 |
| Taxes on profit | 13 | 14 | 18 | 19 | 22 |
| Taxes on income | 3 | 3 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Taxes on property | 2 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 3 |
| Taxes on goods and services | 17 | 19 | 29 | 37 | 38 |
| Other taxes | 7 | 9 | 9 | 11 | 12 |
| Other revenue | 14 | 10 | 11 | 17 | 10 |
| Subtotal | 55 | 57 | 75 | 92 | 110 |
| Taxes on international trade | | | | | |
| Export taxes | 19 | 32 | 10 | 16 | 12 |
| • Coffee | (10) | (23) | (9) | (9) | (12) |
| • Bauxite | (9) | (9) | (1) | (7) | - |
| Import duties | 39 | 48 | 47 | 41 | 43 |
| Subtotal | 59 | 80 | 56 | 57 | 55 |
| Total current revenue | 114 | 137 | 131 | 149 | 165 |

Source: Ministry of Finance and Economic Affairs

TABLE 2.12

Indicators of the Structure of Government Current Revenues, 1979 and 1983

(percent)

| | | 1979 | 1983 |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | Internal revenues/Total current revenues | 48.2 | 66.3 |
| 2. | Taxes on international trade/Total current revenues | 51.8 | 33.7 |
| 3. | 1 + 2 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| 4. | Import duties/Total taxes on international trade | 66.3 | 76.4 |
| 5. | Export taxes/Total taxes on international trade | 33.7 | 23.6 |
| 6. | 4 + 5 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| 7. | All sales taxes/Total internal revenues | 30.5 | 51.3 |
| 8. | Taxes on profit, income, property/ Total internal revenues | 32.2 | 28.7 |

Source: Table 2.11

Further changes are expected with the implementation of tax assessment procedures, which could significantly reduce the widespread evasion of income tax. However, economic growth remains the single most important factor to be considered in estimating future tax revenues (see Section 2.5 below).

Expenditures. The presentation of Government current expenditures in official documents has improved markedly in the last few years. Previously, the documents revealed a number of extra-budgetary expenditures which made both accountability and a clear understanding of the fiscal situation very difficult. These extra-budgetary expenditures have been significantly reduced. The difference between voted expenditures (as they appear in the Loi de Finances) and actual expenditures is small and regular. During the last two fiscal years for which data are available, total actual expenditures have been kept slightly under the level of projected expenditures for most branches of Government. The exceptions have been the Ministry of Finance, the Ministry of Interior, and the Ministry of Health (Table 2.13).

However, the actual outlays from the Autonomous Fund for Amortization (Caisse Autonome d'Amortissement) to service the public debt--both domestic and external--have exceeded the projected amounts. This factor has been the main source of the deficit on current account.

A functional breakdown of expenditures for FY 1982/83 to FY 1984/85 (Table 2.14) reveals two important tendencies:

- A virtual standstill in real spending over the entire 1982-85 period, once increases in prices are taken into account.

TABLE 2.13

Ratio of Actural Current Expenditures to Projected Current Expenditures, FY 1982/83 and 1983/84

(percent)

| Branch | FY 1982/83 | FY 1983/84 |
|---|---|---|
| 1. Presidency | .984 | .992 |
| 2. Assembly | .997 | .967 |
| 3. Finance | 1.012 | 1.021 |
| 4. Agriculture | .999 | .995 |
| 5. Public Works | .959 | .924 |
| 6. Foreign Affairs | .999 | .901 |
| 7. Education | 1.002 | .984 |
| 8. Social Affairs | .960 | .972 |
| 9. Commerce | .987 | .869 |
| 10. Religious Affairs | .987 | 1.000 |
| 11. Justice | .991 | .990 |
| 12. Information | .990 | .988 |
| 13. Interior | 1.000 | 1.125 |
| 14. Health | 1.013 | 1.019 |
| 15. Defense | .999 | .993 |
| 16. Mines | .997 | .972 |
| 17. Planning | .981 | .964 |
| 18. Sports | .989 | .987 |
| 19. Total | .998 | .988 |
| 20. Autonomous Fund for Amortization | 1.126 | 1.053 |
| 21. Total Current Expenditures | 1.037 | 1.005 |

Source: Ministry of Finance



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Table 2.14

Functional Classification of Government Ordinary Expenditures, 1982-83 to 1984-85 (a)

| Branch | FY 1982-83 Amount ($000) | FY 1982-83 Percent of Total | FY 1983-84 Amount ($000) | FY 1983-84 Percent of Total | FY 1984-85 Amount ($000) | FY 1984-85 Percent of Total | Percent of change, 1982-83 1984-85 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| General Public Services | | | | | | | |
| Presidency | 1,997 | 1.8 | 3,303 | 2.4 | 3,339 | 2.4 | 67.2 |
| Assembly | 947 | 0.9 | 1,006 | 0.7 | 1,131 | 0.8 | 19.4 |
| Foreign Affairs | 3,240 | 3.0 | 7,696 | 5.6 | 7,696 | 5.6 | 137.6 |
| Religious Affairs | 642 | 0.6 | 675 | 0.5 | 791 | 0.6 | 23.1 |
| Justice | 2,032 | 1.9 | 2,434 | 1.8 | 3,710 | 2.7 | 82.6 |
| Information | 6,071 | 5.6 | 6,435 | 4.7 | 6,555 | 4.7 | 8.0 |
| Interior and Police | 4,839 | 4.5 | 7,133 | 5.2 | 8,133 | 5.9 | 68.1 |
| Defense | 15,800 | 14.6 | 17,800 | 13.0 | 19,236 | 13.9 | 21.8 |
| Subtotal | 35,568 | 32.9 | 232,409 | 34.0 | 252,956 | 36.6 | 42.2 |
| Economic Services | | | | | | | |
| Finance and Economic Affairs | 16,813 | 15.5 | 19,063 | 14.0 | 16,640 | 12.0 | -1.0 |
| Planning | 2,336 | 2.2 | 4,116 | 3.0 | 4,549 | 3.3 | 94.7 |
| Agriculture and Natural Resources | 5,567 | 5.1 | 6,295 | 4.6 | 6,495 | 4.7 | 16.7 |
| Public works, Transportation, and Communication | 6,612 | 6.1 | 14,797 | 10.8 | 14,016 | 10.2 | 112.0 |
| Commerce | 2,590 | 2.4 | 3,165 | 2.3 | 2,781 | 2.0 | 7.4 |
| Mining | 1,310 | 1.2 | 1,383 | 1.0 | 1,383 | 1.0 | 5.6 |
| Subtotal | 35,227 | 32.5 | 48,818 | 35.8 | 45,863 | 33.2 | 30.2 |
| Social Services | | | | | | | |
| Education | 17,433 | 16.1 | 18,960 | 13.9 | 19,260 | 13.9 | 10.5 |
| Social Affairs | 2,774 | 2.6 | 3,370 | 2.5 | 3,370 | 2.4 | 21.5 |
| Health and Population | 16,082 | 14.8 | 17,600 | 12.9 | 17,900 | 13.0 | 11.3 |
| Sports | 1,177 | 1.1 | 1,235 | 0.9 | 1,235 | 0.9 | 5.0 |
| Subtotal | 37,465 | 34.6 | 41,166 | 30.2 | 41,766 | 30.2 | 11.5 |
| Total Services Current Expenditures | 108,260 | 100.0 | 136,466 | 100.0 | 138,220 | 100.0 | 27.7 |

(a) Totals may not be exact because items have been rounded.

Source: Budgets Generaux des Exercices, 1982-83, 1983-84, 1984-85, Le Moniteur.

- The growing importance of allocations for general public services (especially for the Ministry of Interior, the police, and the Ministry of Defense) at the expense of both economic and social services outlays.

At the same time, however, two contrary tendencies are evident in the 1982/83 to 1984/85 period. Most sizable increases in expenditures occurred between FY 1982/83 and FY 1983/84 (e.g., Foreign Affairs, Presidency, Planning, Public Works). Expenditures in FY 1984/85, on the other hand, remain for the most part at the same nominal level as the previous fiscal year (only Interior and Police, Defense, and Justice kept increasing). From the perspective of current public expenditures, therefore, the policy of budgetary austerity is still in force, and there are no signs to suggest that major changes should be expected in the near future. The strong commitment of Government to impose a slowdown has been widely and consistently followed, with a few exceptions dictated by urgent needs or unforeseeable events. For example, extraordinary expenditures were made for basic needs in May 1984. Popular expression of these needs had taken a violent form and forced Government to react promptly, generating an exceptional increase in current spending.

With respect to public expenditures on health and education, Haiti ranks closer to lower-middle income countries than to low-income countries as defined by the World Bank. However, it fares less well than most of the Latin American and Caribbean countries (Table 2.15).

TABLE 2.15

Defense, Education, and Health as a Percentage of Central Government Expenditures, Selected Countries, 1981

| Country | Defense | Education | Health | Education & Health |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Bolivia | 22.7 | 24.4 | 7.2 | 31.6 |
| Costa Rica | 2.6 | 23.7 | 29.7 | 53.4 |
| Dominican Republic | 8.9 | 13.9 | 9.7 | 23.6 |
| Ecuador | 11.8 | 30.1 | 7.9 | 38.0 |
| Haiti | 14.6 | 13.9 | 9.7 | 23.6 |
| Peru | 13.8 | 11.3 | 5.3 | 16.6 |
| Low-income countries(a) | 15.4 | 11.5 | 4.4 | 15.9 |
| Lower-middle income countries(b) | 17.4 | 18.8 | 4.2 | 23.0 |

(a) Defined in Table 2.4, note (a)

(b) Countries whose GNP per capita ranged from $440 (Sudan) to $1,600 (Paraguay), 1982.

Source: World Development Report, 1984 and Ministry of Finance.

2.4.2.2 The Education Budget

Over the last 10 years, Government has devoted from 13% to 16% of its current budget (14% in 1983) to education. As noted earlier, general government expenditures are less than 10% of national production. As a consequence, the share of public expenditures for education in the GDP was as low as 1.5% in 1980 (Unesco Statistical Yearbook 1983). In the same year, the corresponding shares were: 7.8% in Costa Rica, 5.8% in Ecuador, 3.4% in Trinidad, 2.0% in the Dominican Republic, and 7.1% in Jamaica. These figures reflect Haiti's unusually low level of public spending for education. This holds for a comparison with all other countries of Latin America (average rate of 4.0%) or with other low-income countries of the world (4.0%). These comparisons, however, cannot be interpreted without reference to the fact that the private sector is responsible for a large part of the supply of education in Haiti, a situation fully documented in other chapters of this assessment.

Primary education accounts for the largest portion of the education budget, though its current proportional share of nearly two-thirds is shrinking. Secondary education has maintained about the same share, while the proportional allotments of vocational, university, and literacy programs have all increased slightly (Table 2.16).

About 90% of total expenditures in the current education budget are for salaries, which leaves very little margin for funding other types of educational inputs. The branch of the system with the heaviest load of personal expenses is secondary education, where about 95% of total expenditures are devoted to salaries (Table 2.17). Primary education follows close behind with about 93%. These figures suggest that any salary increase for teachers or any major recruitment of new personnel cannot be achieved without major increases in the general budget.

2.4.2.3 Development Operations

The budget for development expenditures is significantly larger than the current expenditure budget. It resumed its growth in FY 1984 at a rate greater than inflation. This reflects the commitment of Government to provide the country with the basic infrastructure needed to support private initiative (Table 2.18).

Over the last 2 years, the productive sectors of the economy have been the major beneficiaries of increases in Government investment funds. Specific priorities have been given to communications, industry, and tourism (Table 2.18). Social sectors fared less well, as their general levels of investment declined.

TABLE 2.16

Ministry of Education Recurrent Expenditure Budget by Main Activities, 1982/83 to 1984/85(a)

| Activity | 1982/83 Amount ($000) | 1982/83 Per-cent | 1983/84 Amount ($000) | 1983/84 Per-cent | 1984/85 Amount ($000) | 1984/85 Per-cent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| General Services and Examinations | 899 | 5.1 | 1,122 | 5.3 | 1,275 | 6.6 |
| Primary Education | 11,438 | 65.6 | 12,015 | 63.4 | 11,978 | 62.2 |
| Secondary Education | 1,649 | 9.5 | 1,779 | 9.4 | 1,806 | 9.4 |
| Vocational and Technical Education(b) | 1,529 | 8.8 | 1,705 | 9.0 | 1,726 | 9.0 |
| University | 925 | 5.3 | 1,273 | 6.7 | 1,373 | 7.1 |
| National Organization for Literacy and Community Action (ONAAC) | 806 | 4.6 | 1,045 | 5.5 | 1,101 | 5.7 |
| Others(c) | 186 | 1.1 | 21 | 0.1 | --- | --- |
| Total | 17,433 | 100.0 | 18,960 | 100.0 | 19,260 | 100.0 |

(a) Totals may not be exact because items have been rounded.

(b) Includes National Institute for Professional Training and Pilot Center for Professional Training.

(c) In 1982-83, includes National Library, Conservatoire de Musique, Académie des Beaux-Arts, Commission Haïtienne de Coopération avec l'Unesco, Conservatoire National d'Art Dramatique, Musée de la Nation; In 1983/84, includes Conservatoire de Musique, Conservatoire National d'Art Dramatique.

Source: Budgets Généraux des Exercises, 1982/83, 1983/84, and 1984/85, Le Moniteur.

TABLE 2.17

Ministry of Education Recurrent Expenditures Budget, by Activities and Type of Expenditures, 1984/85

| Activity | Personnel | | Other Current Expenditures | | Total Current Expenditures | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Amount ($000) | Per-cent | Amount ($000) | Per-cent | Amount ($000) | Per-cent |
| General Services | 717 | 65.5 | 378 | 34.5 | 1,095 | 5.7 |
| Primary Education | 11,203 | 93.5 | 774 | 6.5 | 11,978 | 62.2 |
| Secondary Education | 1,722 | 95.3 | 84 | 4.7 | 1,806 | 9.4 |
| Vocational/technical Ed. | 976 | 81.8 | 217 | 18.2 | 1,193 | 6.2 |
| Examinations | --- | --- | 180 | 100.0 | 180 | 84.4 |
| Subtotal | 14,619 | 90.0 | 1,633 | 10.0 | 16,252 | 0.9 |
| State University of Haiti | 1,248 | 90.9 | 125 | 9.1 | 1,373 | 7.1 |
| National Organization for Literacy and Community Action (ONAAC) | 968 | 87.9 | 133 | 12.1 | 1,101 | 5.7 |
| Institute of Professional Training | 184 | 76.2 | 57 | 23.8 | 241 | 1.3 |
| Pilot Center for Professional Training | 213 | 73.0 | 79 | 27.0 | 292 | 1.5 |
| Subtotal Institutions | 2,613 | 86.9 | 394 | 13.1 | 3,007 | 15.6 |
| Total | 17,232 | 89.5 | 2,028 | 10.5 | 19,260 | 100.0 |

Source: Budget Général de l'Exercice, 1984/85.

TABLE 2.18

Sectoral Allocation of Public Investment

FY 1983/84 and 1984/85(a)

| Sector | 1983/84 ($000) | 1984/85 ($000) | Percent Annual Change |
|---|---|---|---|
| Productive | | | |
| Agriculture | $38,510 | $44,960 | 16.7 |
| Mining | 2,645 | 1,948 | -26.3 |
| Industry | 3,012 | 8,486 | 181.2 |
| Tourism | 340 | 750 | 120.6 |
| Subtotal | 44,507 | 56,144 | 26.1 |
| Infrastructure | | | |
| Energy | 34,401 | 28,167 | -18.1 |
| Water Supply | 8,567 | 9,527 | 11.2 |
| Transportation | 32,403 | 32,519 | 0.4 |
| Communications | 8,443 | 32,610 | 286.2 |
| Subtotal | 83,814 | 102,822 | 22.7 |
| Social | | | |
| Urban Development | 30,869 | 28,777 | -6.8 |
| Education | 10,162 | 11,357 | 11.8 |
| Health | 19,318 | 24,843 | 28.6 |
| Community Development | 19,345 | 8,102 | -58.1 |
| Other | 219,503 | 17,068 | 48.6 |
| Subtotal | 91,182 | 90,148 | -1.1 |
| TOTAL | $219,503 | $249,113 | 13.5 |

(a) Includes national and external resources. Totals may not be exact because the figures have been rounded.

Source: Ministry of Planning, Budget Economique et Programme d'Investissements publics par secteur par Région de Planification pour l'Exercice, 1984-1985.

An examination of productive sector expenditures over a longer period (1981/82 to 1984/85), shows that agriculture has received the largest share of the development budget (Table 2.19). This indicates a strong government commitment to creating conditions for more productive agriculture and eventual food self-sufficiency.



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TABLE 2.19

Sectoral Classification of Development Expenditures

FY 1981/82 to FY 1984/85

(Percent)

| Sector | 1981/82 | 1982/83 | 1983/84 | 1984/85 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Productive | | | | |
| Agriculture | 13.0 | 16.4 | 17.5 | 17.0 |
| Mining | 0.7 | 0.8 | 1.2 | 1.1 |
| Industry | 13.0 | 2.6 | 1.4 | 1.6 |
| Tourism | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.3 |
| Subtotal | 26.9 | 20.0 | 20.3 | 20.0 |
| Infrastructure | | | | |
| Energy | 16.6 | 18.4 | 15.7 | 16.0 |
| Water Supply | 2.5 | 3.9 | 3.9 | 4.1 |
| Transportation | 20.6 | 16.4 | 14.8 | 15.0 |
| Communications | 3.4 | 3.1 | 3.8 | 4.0 |
| Subtotal | 43.1 | 41.8 | 38.2 | 39.1 |
| Social | | | | |
| Urban Development | 6.7 | 14.5 | 14.1 | 14.2 |
| Education | 3.4 | 4.9 | 4.6 | 5.0 |
| Health | 4.1 | 8.0 | 8.8 | 8.4 |
| Community Development | 10.6 | 7.0 | 8.8 | 8.0 |
| Other | 5.2 | 3.8 | 5.2 | 5.3 |
| Subtotal | 30.0 | 38.2 | 41.5 | 40.9 |
| Total | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |

Source: World Bank, Haiti: Review of Economic Development Activities, 1984.

Two other major changes have taken place over the same period. One is the marked decrease in the share of the industrial sector in the development budget, which indicates Government's interest in shifting business initiative to the private sector. The other is a rise in the share of public investment for urban development, an indication of the severe needs which the capital has to face. On the whole, investments in social sectors grew markedly between FY 1981 to FY 1985. Education, however, still lags behind with only 5% of the development budget in FY 1984/85, although this is an increase from 3.4% in FY 1981/82.



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Considering current and development expenditures together yields some additional insight into Government fiscal policy. There is, moreover, some justification for combining the two since development funds may in fact be transferred to current operations in the form of supplementary salaries.

Some development projects have no explicit current expenditures counterpart and some administrative services are not related to any development project. Thus, combining the recurrent and development budgets changes the balance of resource allocation (Table 2.20). What can be singled out again, though, is the dominant position of agriculture (16%) and of concern for infrastructure (24%), the two fields of activity central for development of the Haitian economy. As for social services, they receive about one-third (30%) of total public funds, with education getting only 8% of the total.

Analysis of the way development expenditures are financed shows that Government currently has little control over the pattern of resource allocation that will shape the nation's future. Less than 31% of total development resources derive from internal sources (Table 2.21). If PL-480 Title I funds are removed from the category of internal resources, only 23% of the development budget comes from national funds. This fact points out the key importance of Government's capacity to be closely involved in the planning and design of externally funded development projects.

### 2.4.3 External Assistance

Foreign assistance was very limited in the 1960s but resumed in the 1970s. World Bank and Inter-American Development Bank (IDB) loans, and increased commitments from bilateral and other multilateral donors, raised external assistance to a high point of commitments in 1979 (Table 2.22). Funding then leveled off for 2 years, a period marked by a measure of political liberalization. After a period of economic austerity, and efforts to rationalize the administrative structure, external funding has begun to increase again.

Precise estimates of total external assistance are difficult to make because of the activities of many nongovernmental organizations, especially the private voluntary organizations. Many of these do not report to official authorities, either domestic or external. Moreover, their programs are widely scattered and include many non-monetized components.

Depending on the way external assistance is defined, and the method used to measure volunteer work, estimates of total external assistance in 1981 range from $69 million to $99 million. Whatever methodology is used, nonofficial assistance clearly is an important component in the total. The bulk of foreign aid comes from bilateral sources, with USAID accounting for more than 25% of the total (Table 2.23). IDB and the World Bank are the second and third most substantial donors.

TABLE 2.20

Total (Current and Development) Public Expenditures, FY 1984/85

| Sector(a) | Current Expenditures ($000) | Development Expenditures ($000) | Total ($000) | Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Productive | | | | |
| Agriculture & Community Development | 6,495 | 53,062 | 59,557 | 16 |
| Mining and Energy | 1,383 | 30,115 | 31,497 | 8 |
| Finance, industry & commerce | 19,421 | 8,486 | 27,906 | 7 |
| Tourism | --- | 750 | 750 | 0 |
| Subtotal | 27,298 | 92,412 | 119,711 | 32 |
| Infrastructure | | | | |
| Public works, transportation, communication, and water supply | 14,016 | 74,655 | 88,671 | 24 |
| Social | | | | |
| Urban development | --- | 28,777 | 28,777 | 8 |
| Education | 19,260 | 11,357 | 30,617 | 8 |
| Health | 17,900 | 24,843 | 42,743 | 11 |
| Social affairs & sports | 4,606 | 917 | 5,523 | 1 |
| Planning | 4,549 | 960 | 5,509 | 1 |
| Promotion of other administrations and Regional promotion | --- | 15,191 | 15,191 | 4 |
| Subtotal | 46,315 | 66,854 | 113,169 | 30 |
| Subtotal: Sectors | 87,629 | 233,921 | 321,550 | 86 |
| General public services | 50,591 | --- | 50,591 | 14 |
| TOTAL | $138,220 | $233,921 | $372,141 | 100 |

(a) Definition of sectors differs from both Table 2.11 and Table 2.12. Totals may not be exact because items have been rounded.

Source: Ministry of Finance and, Ministry of Planning Budgets de Fonctionnement et Budgets de développement.

TABLE 2.21

Development Expenditures by Source of Financing

FY 1983/84

| Source | Amount(a) ($000) | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| Public Treasurer | $19,200 | 8.7 |
| PL-480/Title 1 | 17,000 | 7.7 |
| Public enterprises and autonomous national agencies | | |
| EDH | 10,603 | 4.8 |
| TELECO | 7,866 | 3.6 |
| APN | 2,271 | 1.0 |
| USND | 3,500 | 1.6 |
| ODVA | 577 | 0.3 |
| AAPN | 500 | 0.2 |
| Subtotal | 25,317 | 11.5 |
| Other national resources | 6,307 | 2.9 |
| Subtotal national resources | 67,824 | 30.9 |
| External resources | 151,679 | 69.1 |
| TOTAL | 219,503 | 100.0 |

(a) Totals may not be exact because items have been rounded.

Source: Ministry of Planning, Exposé du Département du Plan sur le Programme d'Investissements Publics pour la Période 83-86, February 1984.



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TABLE 2.22

Official Foreign Assistance

Commitments, Disbursements, and Share in the Development Budget, 1970-81

| Year | Foreign Assistance Commitments(a) ($ millions) | Foreign Assistance Disbursement(a) ($ millions) | Proportion of Development Expenditures Funded by Foreign Assistance (%) |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1970 | 8.9 | 4.6 | 40.0 |
| 1971 | 8.0 | 6.5 | 40.0 |
| 1972 | 9.4 | 8.0 | 43.0 |
| 1973 | 20.2 | 9.0 | 50.8 |
| 1974 | 50.0 | 14.9 | 45.7 |
| 1975 | 48.5 | 36.0 | 62.4 |
| 1976 | 83.7 | 62.0 | 70.9 |
| 1977 | 78.7 | 79.7 | 74.5 |
| 1978 | 89.4 | 82.3 | 57.1 |
| 1979 | 106.4 | 80.1 | 57.8 |
| 1980 | 64.7 | 84.0 | 72.6 |
| 1981 | 92.3 | 83.3 | 73.3 |

(a) Excludes assistance funded by private organizations.

Source: J. Walker, Foreign Assistance and Haiti's Economic Development, USAID, Haiti, 1983.

TABLE 2.23

External Assistance to Haiti, by Donors
1983
(Millions of Dollars)

| Donors | Amount $ 000 | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| Multilateral Assistance | | |
| UN System | | |
| IBRD | 22,682 | 13.6 |
| UNDP | 4,093 | 2.9 |
| WFP | 1,922 | 1.1 |
| UNICEF | 1,613 | 1.0 |
| FAO | 1,139 | 0.7 |
| WHO | 1,103 | 0.7 |
| Other UN agencies | 2,432 | 1.5 |
| Subtotal | 34,984 | 21.0 |
| Other Multilateral Agencies | | |
| IDB | 23,564 | 14.1 |
| IICA | 7,205 | 4.3 |
| OAS | 823 | .5 |
| Subtotal | 31,592 | 18.9 |
| TOTAL Multilateral | 66,576 | 39.9 |
| Bilateral Assistance | | |
| USAID | 44,378 | 26.6 |
| FRG | 10,394 | 6.2 |
| Canada | 10,380 | 6.2 |
| France | 7,667 | 4.6 |
| Taiwan | 4,880 | 2.9 |
| TOTAL Bilateral | 77,699 | 46.5 |
| Nongovernmental Organizations | | |
| CARE | 9,301 | 5.6 |
| CRS | 3,242 | 1.9 |
| SAWS | 2,387 | 1.4 |
| FONDEV | 1,413 | 0.9 |
| Methodist Church | 1,180 | 0.7 |
| Baptist Mission | 1,164 | 0.7 |
| Other NGOs | 4,002 | 2.4 |
| TOTAL NGOs | 22,689 | 13.6 |
| Total External Assistance | 166,964 | 100.0 |

Source: UNDP, Rapport sur l'Assistance Externe en Haïti, 1983.



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The focus of assistance depends on the central policy of each funding agency as well as on local considerations. Except for agriculture, natural resources, and education, which attract multilateral and bilateral donors equally, funding agencies tend to specialize in given fields (Table 2.24). As an example, the bulk of resources provided by nongovernmental organizations goes for humanitarian relief.

An overview of how external assistance is related to Government development policy is presented in Table 2.25. A few points can be made about the development patterns:

- Sectoral allocations of internal and external resources are reasonably parallel with the exception of communications, where Government resources account for 94% of total investment. This suggests an overall consistency in the general policy of development.
- The degree of dependence on external assistance is high (69% for the total) and affects all activities except communications.
- Dependence is highest in the areas of water supply (85%), education (84%), and community development (84%), three sectors which directly concern the standard of living of the population and where social demand is growing.

Under these circumstances, external assistance exerts powerful leverage on activities that are strategic for development. This is why Government capacity to coordinate and balance the allocation of external funding and to coordinate it with national goals, is so important. Overlapping and conflicting efforts by different external funding agencies, combined with a lack of coordination by Governmental planners, can prevent the country from reaping the full benefits of foreign assistance. The problem of a consistent salary supplement policy, the issue of insufficient national counterpart financing, and the uneven record of inter-donor coordination are other obstacles to fully efficient external assistance (see Chapter 3 on Donor Coordination).

Many of these problems would be alleviated by a strong Government coordinating body and by training Government agents to anticipate funding needs and patterns and to properly coordinate and staff projects. Human resources development is necessary for long-term economic and social development and this process must start at the management level.

### 2.4.4 Balance of Payments and External Debt

The evolution of the balance of payments reflects Haiti's position relative to foreign countries and the ability of its economy to react to changes occurring worldwide, especially in the Western hemisphere. This adaptability is

TABLE 2.24

External Assistance to Haiti, by Sector and Groups of Donors, 1983

| Sector | Multilateral ($000) | Bilateral ($000) | Total ($000) | Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Commerce (a) | 1,346 | 34,956 | 36,302 | 21.8 |
| Agriculture | 15,520 | 12,943 | 28,463 | 17.1 |
| Natural Resources | 11,794 | 15,434 | 27,228 | 16.4 |
| Health | 17,300 | 9,438 | 26,738 | 16.1 |
| Humanitarian Relief | 7 | 11,752 | 11,759 | 7.1 |
| Transport and Communications | 8,379 | 2,187 | 10,566 | 6.3 |
| Education | 3,424 | 5,232 | 8,656 | 5.2 |
| Urban Rehabilitation | 1,395 | 6,244 | 7,639 | 4.6 |
| Industry | 4,821 | 1,537 | 6,358 | 3.8 |
| Planning and Development Policy | 1,218 | 96 | 1,314 | 0.8 |
| Other (Employment, Culture, Population, Science and Technology, Justice) | 1,374 | 34 | 1,408 | 0.8 |
| Total | 66,578 | 99,853 | 166,431 | 100.0 |

(a) Includes PL-480 Food Aid.

Source: UNDP report on external assistance to Haiti, 1983



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TABLE 2.25

Total Development Expenditures, by Sector and by Source of Funds and Degree of Dependence on External Resources, 1983/84 (a)

(Percent)

| Sector | Source of Funds | | | Proportion of Total Development Resources Financed by External Resources |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | National Resources | External Resources | Total Development | |
| Agriculture | 13.5 | 19.4 | 17.5 | .763 |
| Mining | 0.8 | 1.4 | 1.2 | .788 |
| Energy | 17.9 | 14.7 | 15.7 | .646 |
| Industry | 1.4 | 1.4 | 1.4 | .685 |
| Water Supply | 1.9 | 4.8 | 3.9 | .853 |
| Transportation | 20.1 | 12.3 | 14.8 | .578 |
| Communications | 11.8 | 0.3 | 3.8 | .053 |
| Urban Development | 12.2 | 14.9 | 14.1 | .732 |
| Education | 2.4 | 5.6 | 4.6 | .842 |
| Health | 8.9 | 8.8 | 8.8 | .689 |
| Community Development | 4.6 | 10.7 | 8.8 | .838 |
| Tourism | 0.5 | -- | 0.2 | .000 |
| Other Administrations | 4.0 | 5.7 | 5.2 | .764 |
| Total | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | .691 |

(a) Official funding only.

Source: Ministry of Planning, Budget de Développement, 1983-84.



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constrained by the effects of domestic problems such as fiscal imbalances and various basic goods shortages.

After several favorable years, a sharp deterioration in the balance of payments took place in 1980 under the pressure of a series of unfavorable factors (e.g., falling coffee prices, a small coffee crop, a sharp rise in imports for public investment, decreasing U.S. demand for products assembled in Haiti). The goods and services deficit soared to 19% of GDP in 1981, while the overall balance deficit peaked at 3.7% of GDP the same year (Table 2.26). Here again, the prompt adoption of a policy of austerity, together with crisis support from the IMF and from USAID Title I Program, provided quick results, and in 1983 the merchandise balance deficit was reduced to less than 12% of GDP. The service balance has not fared as well. Positive items come from tourism revenues. However, because of the lack of proper infrastructure, coupled with the effects of the bad image Haiti acquired during the emigration of the boat people, tourism has leveled off. A few signs of recovery have been observed in 1984. Negative items are mostly linked with imports.

TABLE 2.26

Balance of Payments, 1979-84

(Millions of dollars)

| | 1979 | 1980 | 1981 | 1982 | 1983 Estim. | 1984 Projec. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Merchandise Balance | -76.2 | -101.1 | -203.9 | -101.8 | -124.1 | -129.3 |
| Exports f.o.b. | 143.9 | 217.9 | 156.2 | 182.0 | 190.5 | 199.2 |
| Imports f.o.b. | -220.1 | -319.0 | -360.1 | -283.8 | -314.6 | -328.5 |
| Service Balance | 48.5 | -89.2 | -82.3 | -88.2 | -82.8 | -87.4 |
| Travel | 32.2 | 35.9 | 43.8 | 39.5 | 46.1 | --- |
| Investment incomes and other services | -80.7 | -125.1 | -126.1 | -127.7 | -128.9 | --- |
| Transfers | 75.8 | 82.4 | 120.3 | 113.9 | 125.3 | 131.0 |
| Private | 34.1 | 52.0 | 64.8 | 49.7 | 49.7 | --- |
| Public | 41.7 | 30.4 | 55.5 | 64.2 | 75.6 | --- |
| Current Account Balance | -48.9 | -107.9 | -165.9 | -76.1 | -81.6 | -85.7 |
| Capital Movements (net) | 52.7 | 78.2 | 122.6 | 56.6 | 78.2 | 95.7 |
| (Private) | (19.3) | (29.9) | (19.5) | (22.0) | (31.7) | (39.2) |
| (Public) | (33.4) | (48.3) | (103.1) | (37.6) | (46.5) | (56.5) |
| Overall Balance | 4.6 | -29.7 | -43.3 | -19.5 | -3.4 | 10.0 |

Source: World Bank and International Monetary Fund

Similar ups and downs have marked the evolution of public transfers (grants from foreign sources). Private transfers, which are mainly remittances from Haitians working abroad, are hovering around $100 million per year (gross transfers). On the very rough assumption that 1,000,000 expatriated Haitians send remittances back to the country, this makes their individual annual contribution equivalent to $100, which represents slightly less than $20 per Haitian resident, or two-fifths of per capita foreign assistance.

On the capital side of the balance of payments, while private ventures have steadily developed in the last 5 years, there have been sharp fluctuations in public disbursements, reflecting various stages in the conflict between the great needs of the country and its limited capacity to absorb foreign funds.

The consequences of Haiti's economic relationship with other countries are seen in the debt figures. While the domestic (public) deficit rose from 4% of GDP in FY 1978/79 to 5.6% in 1979/80, the external public debt increased sharply from $253 million in 1978/79 to $417 million in FY 1980/81. Although the volume of the debt has not been reduced, the burden of interest payments and amortization remains small relative to other countries of the region, when compared either to GNP or to export value (Table 2.27).

TABLE 2.27

External Public Debt and Debt Service Ratios: Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Haiti, Jamaica, and Low-Income Economies, 1982

| | Costa Rica | Dominican Republic | Haiti | Jamaica | Low-Income Economies (China and India Excluded)(a) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| External public debt outstanding and disbursed (millions of dollars) | $2,475 | $1,620 | $405 | $1,511 | $28.7 |
| External public debt outstanding and disbursed as percentage of GNP | 111.7 | 21.2 | 25.0 | 49.9 | 28.7 |
| Interest payment on external public debt (millions of dollars) | $82 | $109 | $ 8 | $ 128 | --- |
| Debt service as percentage of GNP | 6.2 | 3.3 | 1.2 | 8.0 | 1.6 |
| Debt service as percentage of exports of goods and services | 12.5 | 18.7 | 5.1 | 16.8 | 9.9 |

(a) Includes the 32 countries in which GNP per capita is below $400 (World Bank classification).

Source: World Development Report, 1984.

## 2.5 GOVERNMENT DEVELOPMENT STRATEGY

The future capacity of Government to meet the challenge of restoring, expanding, and improving the national system of education faces many obstacles. Some relate to the traditionally weak involvement of the public sector in education. Others concern economic and institutional factors that constitute serious impediments to more participation by public authorities in educational activities. In this section, obstacles will be discussed, together with future prospects and recent Government efforts to achieve its educational objectives.

### 2.5.1 Major Issues

Most of the major issues concerning government development strategy have been at least partially discussed in previous subsections, and others will be discussed later. At this point the issues are presented only in summary form.

- A large rural population and vulnerable agriculture. Low productivity due to scarce and scattered arable land, archaic agricultural techniques, and lack of training combines with soil erosion and a twofold dependence on natural factors (drought, hurricanes) and external factors (e.g., coffee price fluctuations) severely hamper rural development. Continuing subdivision of land by inheritance, the lack of a reliable credit system, and a dearth of possibilities and incentives for investing worsen the situation.
- Lack of communications. The isolation of the rural population is attributable to natural topography, which accounts for overwhelming problems with the circulation of people, goods, and services. A poor road network impedes trade and the provision of basic services.
- An impoverished and underemployed rural population. Real national income per capita has been declining for three consecutive years, and the per capita incomes of peasants have deteriorated over the last decade. Underemployment is estimated to average 40%. Extreme poverty makes it highly questionable whether peasants can pay more of the costs of either education or health services.
- A congested metropolitan area where virtually all public services and modern economic activities are concentrated, and which constitutes almost the only major market in the country. Profits and wages generated from urban economic activity trigger needs for goods and services. Production and circulation of these goods and services is not limited to the modern and elite element of the population. It extends to other socioeconomic strata and sustains some level of economic activity among those groups as they move between the traditional and modern sectors of the economy.

- The weakness of the administrative apparatus. Its limited capacity to plan, manage, and evaluate has long constituted an obstacle to establishing a dynamic, consistent, and long-term economic policy.
- The limited investment capacity of the public sector, which leads to more dependence on foreign assistance. However, the efficiency and even the volume of this assistance are increasingly constrained by the country's absorptive capacity. This problem has become more pronounced with the debate over which partner (i.e., domestic or foreign) should bear the recurrent costs of any new development project.
- The extreme vulnerability of the modern manufacturing sector, both assembly industries and locally oriented industries. A report by the Association of Haitian Industries (ADIH) demonstrates that local firms are threatened by a lack of protection against imports and contraband of the very products they are trying to manufacture. The same report, noting that assembly industries are crucial for the development of a genuine modern sector (and for income generation), pinpoints the many hazards faced by these industries. Lack of a defined set of industrial rules leads to frequent salary increases, and Haiti's comparative advantage in cheap labor is vanishing. Absence of social protection, too many fiscal obligations, and no facilities for food and housing make living and working conditions difficult for workers.

  Lack of trained middle management is the most serious impediment holding down labor productivity. Other obstacles pertain to high rates of air freight, port charges, and communication. As a result, the promising development of export-oriented activities slowed down in 1975-80. Haiti has not increased its share of the U.S. market and is lagging behind other competing countries, such as the Dominican Republic, the Philippines, or Indonesia.
- The continuing, pervasive problem of distribution of income. Not only did the per capita GDP decline by over 2% annually over the 1979-83 period (source: Plan Biennal), but distribution of available income also seems to have become more skewed at the expense of rural inhabitants. In recent years, minimum wage rates have increased at a rate lower than inflation, leaving the purchasing power of minimum wage earners in 1981 at the level it was in 1970. Real wages again declined in 1982/83, but the recent adjustment of minimum wages to $3 a day partially makes up that loss.



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The gap between rural and urban revenues is increasing, and wide variations occur in urban areas and within the modern sector itself. In particular, salaries in Government are much lower than in private firms. Among the latter the income spectrum is broad.

An almost complete absence of workers' charters (conventions collectives) makes any wage policy difficult to implement. Lack of information on labor prices precludes further documentation of the distribution of incomes in Haiti at present, but a not-yet-published survey by the Ministry of Social Affairs will provide some information on labor costs in the modern sector. Data on the level of all resources in the informal sector are even scarcer, but existing studies (S. Fass, A. Carrize) point out the very low level of available incomes, per capita as well as per household.

What this incomplete array of information on income distribution ultimately suggests is that serious obstacles prevent the resources generated by the modern sector from spreading to the rest of the economy and population.

### 2.5.2 Current Strategies

Some of the above obstacles can be overcome and some can be alleviated. Only a few are inevitable. Recent Government planning activities in both economic and institutional areas are parts of an implicit overall strategy designed to address most of the constraints. This strategy is not well reflected in the Five-Year Plan (1981-86), which has been beset by 2 years of economic problems. It can be better deduced from recent Government initiatives and from the more realistic proposals of the Two-Year Plan, 1984-86. The general dimensions of the emerging strategy are summarized in the following paragraphs:

Agriculture and Environment. Agricultural development remains the long-term stated priority of Government. In this domain, however, the country is especially dependent on foreign assistance, since irrigation and forestry projects require large investments outlays that neither the private nor the public domestic sector are likely to provide. The great number of small and large-scale projects undertaken in the past has not yielded very satisfactory results, and Haiti's prime economic activity will thus probably also remain its most problematic one for many years to come. Interventions at the institutional level will be particularly critical if agricultural productivity is to be increased. Priority objectives for action include the following:

- Halt the severe deterioration of soils.
- Establish proper legal conditions to ensure property title and tenure, to regulate land inheritance, and to rationalize distribution of tenures.
- Introduce credit institutions and bring food prices closer to production costs, to enable peasants to save and reinvest.
- Encourage consolidation as well as cooperation in production (linkage with agro-business, cooperatives, etc.).
- Improve networks for distribution of farm input.

Industry. Development of export-oriented industries (mainly assembly manufacture) has become a priority in the short-term. By absorbing surpluses of manpower from rural areas, highly labor-intensive industries are expected both to reduce the burden of unemployment and to enlarge the domestic market. This should in turn encourage the development of economic activities oriented toward domestic consumption. Both local and export-oriented industries have been endangered by economic conditions described above, however, and energetic measures must be taken to sustain and strengthen the recent recovery of this sector.

Some measures have already been implemented, and others are still in the planning stages. They cover a wide spectrum: investment codes encouraging investment of foreign capital; fiscal facilities, especially for importing material for assembly industries; improvement of freight and storage procedures to make import/export activities more competitive; increased emphasis on encouraging private sector initiative; closer coordination with the public sector; development of financial institutions to facilitate borrowing and reinvestment of profits; and greater accessibility of credit to promote the growth of small industries.

The success of these measures will be limited if the most valuable resource --manpower--is disregarded. Essential are a better knowledge of firms' needs and the existence of a vocational system able to answer these needs.

Institutional Development. Earnestly recommended by foreign donors and multilateral agencies, administrative strengthening is also emphasized by Government. It has several aspects. The first (already mentioned) is to reinforce administrative capacity for setting national priorities and for monitoring economic development. Simultaneously, as stressed by the World Bank's Haiti Review of Economic Development Activities, heavily bureaucratic planning approaches should be avoided, and flexible procedures preferred (e.g., pre-investment projects). The limited nature of Government planning and coordination capability has led some assistance agencies to channel funds through private voluntary organizations rather than through Government services.



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The second important aspect of institutional development is strictly domestic and has to do with improvement of work quality in public services. Attention is now being given to the status of civil servants. Teachers are the first body of public workers for whom a comprehensive charter and salary scale are being formulated.

Rationalization of work and upgrading of the status of fonctionnaires is essential for the public sector. Steps are being taken to eliminate duplication of jobs and to provide more precise job descriptions. Another task to be implemented by administrative reform is to end the practice whereby one public worker is budgeted several times. Here again, rational hiring procedures, career profiles, and expectations of better rewards for higher performance are crucial in an effort to raise administration productivity.

Decentralization. Decentralization is currently an important objective of Government, but one which is difficult to implement and requires changes in deeply rooted behaviors and customs. The Port-au-Prince area is absorbing ever larger numbers of rural immigrants, and urban development remains an activity that deserves--and receives--heavy investments. Secondary centers need to be revitalized through agro-business and other economic activities linked to local resources in order to absorb some of this migration.

Fiscal and Monetary Responsibility. Fiscal responsibility is a domain where public authorities have been forced to move promptly. Budgetary and monetary discipline has been strongly recommended by international and bilateral agencies. The same agencies have praised compliance with austerity programs and have provided further concessional assistance. Cautious external borrowing and strengthening of the nation's fiscal capacity have been instrumental in giving public authorities the margin of maneuver they need to undertake national initiatives. There are still large amounts of taxes (both on incomes and on consumption) to be collected by the Government. However, the Government must have clear options on how to allocate the additional taxes it can expect from both economic growth and more efficient collection.

Education and Employment. Most of the areas of development in which the government is involved have heavy human resource components. Whether in the modern industrial sector, in the urban traditional sector, in agriculture, or in public administration, greater efficiency comes through a better educated labor force. Physical and financial capital is not abundant, neither are natural resources. There is no other choice but to progressively upgrade the human capital in which Haiti is rich.

A large unskilled labor force does not advance long-term national interests and is a deterrent for foreign investors. Systematic upgrading of



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the fundamental skills and knowledge of the labor force is a prerequisite to increasing the capacity of the country to mobilize its main resources. It follows from this that all development projects should incorporate clear employment and education components. In turn, these components should be spelled out in a comprehensive plan for the development of human resources. The Ministry of Planning and the Ministry of Education are at present jointly devising procedures to implement a human resources strategy which would be the mainspring of Haiti's future development. Such initiatives are highly encouraging and should receive full support.

## 2.6 GOVERNMENT FISCAL CAPACITY AND PRIVATE SECTOR FUNDING POTENTIAL

Implementation of an effective education system requires mobilization of both public and private resources. The likely costs of educational expansion are presented in later portions of this chapter. This subsection will explore the additional resources that will be available for education in the foreseeable future.

### 2.6.1 Economic Growth Projections

Since the 1982-86 Five-Year Plan has been practically abandoned, and replaced by a more modest two-year planning document, the original long-term projections of economic growth no longer apply. The initial 1982-86 plan was based on the following projected annual rates of growth:

| | |
|---|---|
| GDP | 4.0% |
| Imports | 4.2% |
| Exports | 5.3% |
| Public investment | 6.1% |
| Private investment | 3.0% |

Actual growth rate of GDP was negative in 1980/81 and 1981/82, and even with the recovery of 1982/83 and 1983/84 the growth fell well short of the projections. (The economy grew at 0.9% in FY 1983 and 1.8% in FY 1984.)

The annual sectoral growth rates were initially projected as follows (1981/86):

| | |
|---|---|
| Agriculture | 3.0% |
| Industry and craft | 7.0% |
| Economic infrastructure | 6.1% |
| Other | 1.2% |

In fact, the output of the agricultural sector fell in 1981/82, and was still falling in 1983/84. Only export-oriented industries have matched the projected growth rate since 1982.

The agricultural sector has received a reduced proportion of development expenditures, an indication that formal priorities have not always been respected. In addition, the 1981-86 plan counted on foreign assistance to cover 80% of public investment needs. In fact, this rate of coverage has decreased from 71% to 60% from 1981 to 1982, and while it has increased again since 1982, the role of foreign assistance in investment financing is not expected to go beyond the 70% level. As a result, planned development activities encountered a substantial financing gap.

In short, aggregate rates of growth, sectoral rates of growth, and the flow of foreign assistance funds for investment all were overestimated in the Five-Year Plan, and more realistic projections were made for 1984-86. The new projections are based on a growth rate of 3% in real GDP over the next two years. The bulk of this growth is expected to flow from export industries, which are projected to grow at an annual 6% rate. These assumptions can be considered as roughly valid for the period 1986-90. In other words, it can be assumed that the trends that have been changing the structure of the GDP over recent years will continue to do so along approximately the same lines for the rest of the decade. These trends include a slow decline in the shares of agriculture and industrial output in GDP, and a stable share for most other sectors. The annual growth rate of the GDP could shift up or down from the 3% level, however, if there were significant changes in the relationship between Haiti and foreign private investors and in the level of external demand, or if major disruptions occurred in the internal or external environment.

In sectoral terms the projected 3% growth rate can be subdivided as follows (Plan Biennal, 1984-86, Partie Globale et Régionale, p. 66):

| | |
|---|---|
| Agriculture | 1.7% |
| Manufacture | 6.0% |
| Public Works and Building | 5.0% |
| Commerce | 2.8% |
| Transportation | 3.2% |
| Market services | 2.1% |
| Non-market services | 1.5% |
| Duties on imports | 3.1% |

### 2.6.2 Projection of Government Revenues

Economic growth normally leads to an increase in Government revenues because it expands the base both for internal taxes and for duties on international trade. In the last two years, Government current revenues have been as follows (in millions of current dollars).



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| | 1983/84 | 1984/85 |
|---|---|---|
| Internal taxes | 130 | 156 |
| Taxes on international trade | 60 | 60 |
| Total | 190 | 216 |

As output expands, most internal taxes should increase at a rate at least equal to the growth rate of GDP. In addition, current efforts to make the sales tax system more efficient and to improve collection of income taxes should guarantee a more than proportional rate of growth in internal revenues. Taxes on international trade, however, are constrained by limitations on imports and, on the export side, by variations in commodity production and prices. Coffee exports in particular are vulnerable to poor harvests and erratic prices. Consequently, the base for trade duties is not likely to follow the same growth as the internal tax base.

A middle-of-the-road solution is to assume that overall current public revenues will grow at a rate equivalent to the growth rate of nominal GDP. Revenue projections are made in nominal rather than real terms on the grounds that some 90% of public expenditures are salaries. Because salaries in Haiti are not indexed to prices, nominal rises in revenues correspond to almost equal rises in the "purchasing power" of the Government. If a new policy of wage adjustments were implemented, an alternative assumption would need to be adopted (see below).

On the basis of a 3% real growth rate and an 8% inflation rate, one can assume an annual 11% growth in nominal public revenues; this is actually one point below the rate that has been observed since 1981. The same 11% growth rate can be applied to budgetary expenditures. In fact, of course, a substantial deficit recently developed in the budget after a long period of budgetary equilibrium, and it is difficult to predict whether the newly restored balance will continue indefinitely. If it does not, however, one can assume that Government will adopt special remedies such as foreign loans, as it has done recently. For these reasons, there is no basis for departing, in one direction or another, from the 11% hypothesis (Table 2.28).

This assumption is different from the hypothesis adopted in Unesco's recent projections of recurrent expenditures in public primary education. These projections are based on a Government budget growth rate ranging from 2% (in most cases) to 9% (for the most optimistic scenario). In order to maintain comparability with these projections, a 5% growth rate (corresponding to the medium hypothesis in the Unesco calculations) is presented as an alternative assumption to the 11% rate (Table 2.29). Thus the final set of hypotheses considered is:

Table 2.28

Projections of Gross Domestic Product (Two-Year Plan), 1984-85 to 1989-90

| Sector | Annual GDP (Millions of Dollars) | | | | | | Structure (%) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1984-85 | 1985-86 | 1986-87 | 1987-88 | 1988-89 | 1989-90 | 1984-85 | 1989-90 |
| Agriculture and Mining | 334 | 340 | 345 | 351 | 357 | 364 | 31.6 | 29.6 |
| Manufactures and Electricity | 199 | 210 | 223 | 236 | 250 | 265 | 18.8 | 21.6 |
| Public Work and Building | 61 | 64 | 67 | 70 | 74 | 77 | 5.8 | 6.3 |
| Commerce and Tourism | 190 | 195 | 201 | 206 | 212 | 218 | 18.0 | 17.8 |
| Transportation and Communications | 22 | 23 | 24 | 24 | 25 | 26 | 2.1 | 2.1 |
| Market Services | 93 | 95 | 97 | 99 | 101 | 104 | 8.8 | 8.5 |
| Non-Market Services | 110 | 112 | 114 | 115 | 117 | 119 | 10.4 | 9.7 |
| GDP (Factor Prices) | 1,009 | 1,039 | 1,071 | 1,103 | 1,137 | 1,172 | 95.6 | 95.6 |
| Taxes and Duties on Imports | 46 | 48 | 49 | 50 | 52 | 54 | 4.4 | 4.4 |
| GDP (Market Price) | 1,043 | 1,087 | 1,120 | 1,153 | 1,189 | 1,226 | 100.0 | 100.0 |

Source: Ministry of Planning, Plan Biennal, 1984-85.

Table 2.29

Alternative Projections of Current Government Budget and

Current Educational Budget, 1984-85 to 1989-90

(Millions of Current Dollars)

| Budget | Hypothesis | 1984-85 | 1985-86 | 1986-87 | 1987-88 | 1988-89 | 1989-90 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Government Budget Growth | H1 - annual growth rate, 5% | 138 | 145 | 152 | 160 | 168 | 176 |
| | H2 - annual growth rate, 11% | 138 | 153 | 170 | 184 | 210 | 233 |
| Education Budget Growth | H3(a) | 18 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 24 | 25 |
| | H4(b) | 19 | 22 | 26 | 30 | 34 | 38 |
| | H5(c) | 19 | 22 | 24 | 26 | 29 | 33 |
| | H6(d) | 19 | 24 | 29 | 35 | 42 | 50 |

(a) H3 - Government budget annual growth 5%; Education's share in Government budget stays at 14%.

(b) H4 - Government budget annual growth 5%; Education's share in Government budget increases by 1.5% annually.

(c) H5 - Government budget annual growth 11%; Education's share in Government budget stays at 14%.

(d) H6 - Government Budget annual growth 11%; Educations share in Government budget increases by 1.5% annually.

H3 Government Budget growth is 5%
Education's share stays at 14%
Education Budget growth is 5%

H4 Government Budget growth is 5%
Education's share increases by 1.5% annually, reaching a 21.5% level at the end of the period
Average Education Budget growth is 14.4%

H5 Government Budget growth is 11%
Education's share stays at 14%
Education Budget growth is 11%

H6 Government Budget growth is 11%
Education's share increases by 1.5% annually, reaching a 21.5% level at the end of the period
Average Education Budget growth is 20.8%

Note that none of these is as optimistic as some of the Ministry of Education's assumptions concerning education's share in the Government budget.

Within this set of hypotheses, H5, which combines 11% government budget growth and a stable share of education in overall government expenditure, is the closest to what is presently observed. If the public sector is to keep at least its share of national enrollments, the H6 type of growth path should be preferred.

A complementary approach can be used to assess the prospective roles of private and public spending in education. It starts from the unit costs estimated by Unesco for primary education (Projections of Recurrent Expenditure in Public Primary Education, 1984). Although this report's calculations of unit costs will be presented later (Section 2.8), a brief assessment of aggregate costs using Unesco figures will be used as an illustration. Unit costs to both parents and Government are shown by each grade by sector (public and private) and by location (urban and rural). These costs are applied to corresponding enrollments in 1982/83 by each grade, sector, and location. Then, for aggregate figures, grades and locations are grouped together. Costs for the $26 million spent on primary education are borne as follows:

Parents: 71% (of which 47% in private schools, 23% in public schools)
Government: 29% (all in public schools)

A more complete picture would include contributions from private organizations to current schooling expenditures.

Though preliminary, these estimates show how deeply families are involved in financially supporting their children's education. Even within the public system of primary education, 44% of the costs are paid by parents. The will



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and the ability of families to pay for schooling seems to be the mainspring for the future expansion of education.

Projections of investment budgets are more risky because of the large foreign assistance component in development projects, and the sometimes volatile nature of this component. There are also uncertainties related to the low and uneven rate of domestic saving. In fact, the current inability of Government to guarantee counterpart funds for many foreign-financed projects makes reduction or even termination of some investment projects very likely. If this situation does not change, investment in education and other areas will be severely threatened. Under these conditions, only a conservative hypothesis about growth in development expenditures can be justified--one corresponding to an annual rate of 4% for both internal and external sources from 1986/87 to 1987-90. On the private side, a continuation of the trend of the last 5 years would lead to a 20% growth rate for the same period (Table 2.30). These scenarios assume no changes in the relative share of education in public development expenditures (i.e., a stabilization of recent trends).

TABLE 2.30

Projection of Development Expenditures in Education

1984/85 To 1989/90

(000 Current Dollars)

| Sector | 1984/85 | 1985/86 | 1986/87 | 1987/88 | 1988/89 | 1989/90 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| National Public | 1,968 | 2,052 | 2,134 | 2,219 | 2,308 | 2,401 |
| Foreign | 9,389 | 9,790 | 10,181 | 10,588 | 11,012 | 11,452 |
| National Private | 2,248 | 2,788 | 3,345 | 4,014 | 4,817 | 5,781 |
| Total | 13,606 | 14,629 | 15,661 | 16,822 | 18,137 | 19,634 |

Source: Computed from Ministry of Planning, Plan Biennal 1984-86 - Partie Globale et Régionale Tome I.

If these tendencies persist, the private sector's share of educational investment will be 2.4 times that of Government by the end of the period. This again raises the problem of whether such a pattern is politically acceptable. Choices in the education field inevitably involve trade-offs between political risks and economic challenges.

Once projections of Government fiscal capacity have been made for future operating and investment budgets, the critical question is whether these funds will be sufficient to achieve Government objectives for education. If not, one must determine what level of educational development they will support. In a

country where the public sector is not the major supplier of education, though, projections of Government revenues tell only a part of the story. Government involvement in education clearly extends beyond its share of enrollments or financial burdens: orientation of the whole educational system depends on political authority. However, school building, teacher hiring, and good classroom functioning require resources that are presently provided in large part by the private sector.

It would be useful to know the future share of the private sector in expenditures for education. A study of the operating costs of private institutions would provide important information about a crucial part of the Haitian system of education. At this point, one can simply observe that the capacity of the private sector to contribute to educational development depends upon two factors:

- Philanthropic assistance (largely from foreign sources),
- The level of effective private demand which will bring about the opening of new schools.

Profit incentives will continue to act until demand is satisfied. Here, the exact situation depends on location. In rural areas, declining per capita incomes make unlikely a further development of private (other than PVO) initiatives. In addition, according to recent Unesco estimates (see subsections below), the portions of rural parents' incomes devoted to their children's primary education are already high, and increasing this relative burden seems unrealistic. In the metropolitan areas, though, there still seems to be some slack in parents' incomes (at least in some strata of society). Identification of this demand and encouragement of private response remains one avenue for educational development.

However, pure market forces could generate unwanted effects on both quality and access, and additional educational capacity under private funding should be controlled and operated in line with Government's efforts to raise national standards.

Internal reallocation within the education sector constitutes another possible action to be taken. Even internal reallocation, though, will have maximum effect only if education is considered in relation to other sectors of the economy--and, first of all, in relation to the labor market.

## 2.7 MANPOWER ANALYSIS

### 2.7.1 Scope and Limitations

Manpower analysis provides a link between an overview of the economic situation and an assessment of the education sector. Although there are many



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other justifications for educational development, improvement in the skills and productivity of the labor force is an important objective. This sort of upgrading can be very beneficial both for the the economy and for the personal well-being of working people.

To understand how the training of manpower relates to these larger social goals, classical "demand and supply" analysis has to be broadened to include a description of labor market mechanisms. There are other reasons, both theoretical and empirical, why the planning of education requires more than mechanical projections of manpower requirements. Although a full discussion of these reasons is not appropriate, many educators and economists believe that manpower requirements models of educational planning do not fully accommodate the financial aspects of educational development, that they do not reflect adequately the informal sector of the economy, and that they generally disregard the important issues of equity and access.

These types of models are useful for indicating orders of magnitude for the volume of future labor flows in the formal sector. They can also provide helpful guidelines for managing the supply of candidates for occupations that have very specific training requirements and need to be centrally planned. But they must be supplemented both by a careful examination of the structure of the labor market (Section 2.7.2) and by a cost analysis (Section 2.8). Finally, the use of manpower requirements models requires a great deal of data, which is often difficult to collect or of dubious quality in developing countries (see below).

### 2.7.2 The Haitian Labor Market

The notion of a labor market cannot be taken for granted in countries like Haiti, where salary and wage earners constitute a small minority of the working population and where work relations often are neither fully monetized nor individually defined. Because of the difficulty of accurately surveying and analyzing work relations in the informal and rural sectors of the economy, most available quantitative data pertain only to the modern sector, which is the focus of most major development efforts. Figure 2.1 illustrates the occupational structure of the population.

The most recent data on the "active population" are drawn from the 1982 census. These data may be compared with the results of the 1971 census to get some idea of the evolution of the demographic situation over time, though changes in the definition of certain variables between the 1971 and 1982 censuses make some comparisons invalid.

Whereas total population increased by 19.3% between 1970 and 1982, the active population (i.e., those over 10 years of age who were actively employed



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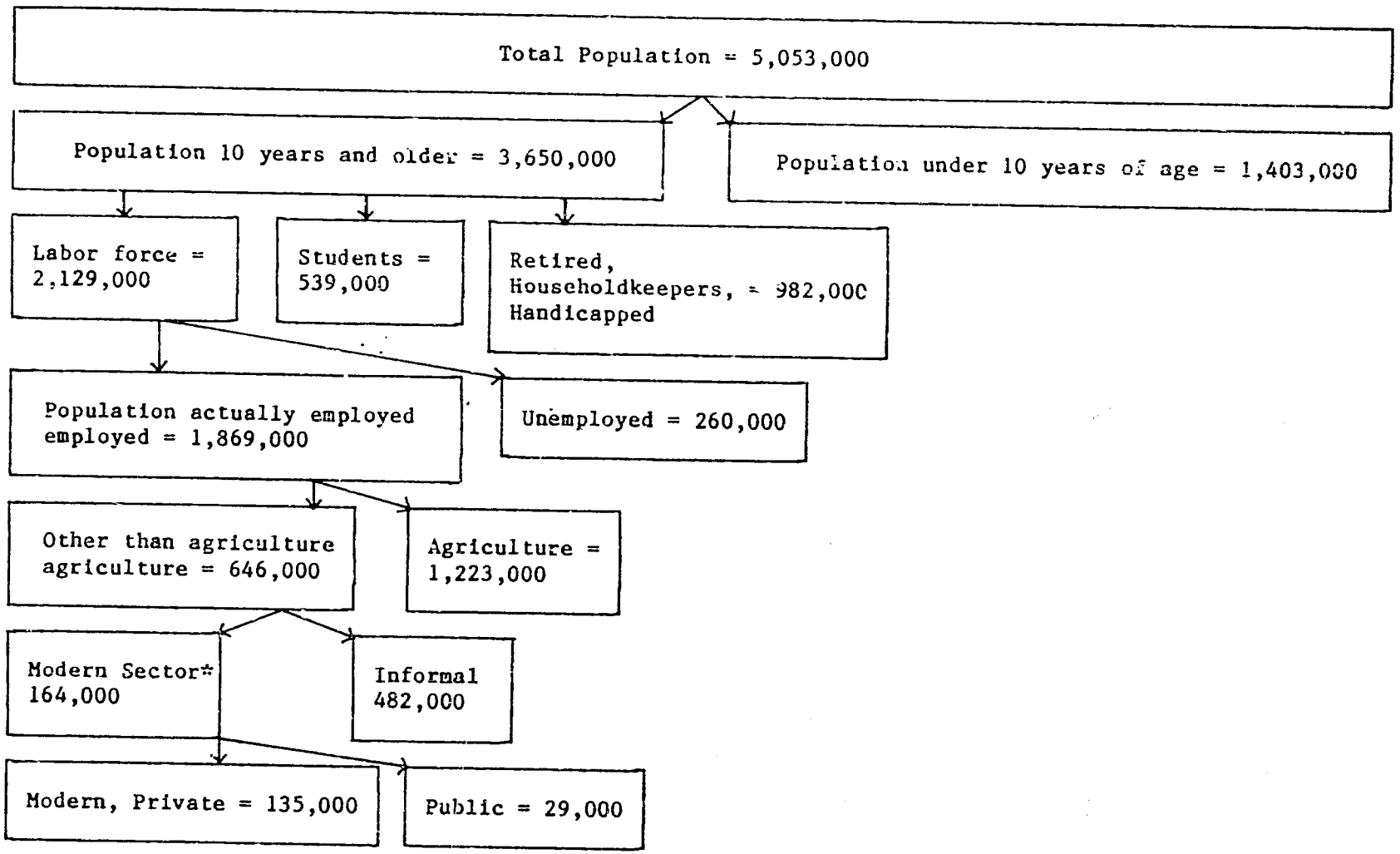
FIGURE 2.1

Occupational Structure of the Population, 1982




* By application of the structure estimate by Ministry of Planning and Ministry of Public Health and population.

or looking for a job) declined by 6.3% over the same period. Falling rates of labor participation in rural areas account for this overall decrease, and are explained in part by real factors affecting the entire rural population (emigration plus a higher rate of schooling among children) and by statistical artifacts, particularly a change in the criteria used to decide whether rural women are or are not actively working.

Rates of labor-force participation in urban areas (Table 2.31) have followed typical patterns: a substantial slackening among the school-age population, due to higher rates of school attendance, and a less marked decline in rates among those over retirement age. It is nearly impossible to disentangle statistical and real effects within Table 2.31, since the definition of "labor force participation" was altered between the two censuses (e.g., the definition of "non-active" housewives was broadened while that of "active" family aides was narrowed). It would be worthwhile to clarify these definitions before the next census. If the difference between the "active" and the "non-active" categories is not clear, the distinctions between major groups within the active population are even less meaningful.

An interesting feature of the current census data is that the labor force is underrepresented in urban areas (including Port-au-Prince), relative to total population. Whereas 20.6% of the total population live in urban and metropolitan areas, only 15.5% of the labor force live in these areas (Table 2.32). This suggests that there is a major reason not to participate in economic activities in cities, and that reason probably is the opportunity to attend school.

Comparing 1971 and 1982 census data for males (who are easier than women to classify as active or non-active), one observes that the labor force engaging in agriculture has declined only slightly: from 83% to 76%. This suggests again that rural-urban migration affects "surplus population" more than it does the labor force itself. Although 50% of working women are involved in agricultural activities, as many as 29% work in commerce, hotels, and restaurants. This specialization needs to be taken into account in planning vocational training.

Taken as a whole, the manufacturing and utilities sectors still absorb only 6.6% of the labor force. However modern they may appear, these sectors are evenly distributed between rural and urban areas. With reference to the relative share of each sector in national output, the workers employed in manufacturing and utilities constitute the most productive branches of the labor force, being responsible for 19% of GDP. On the other hand, 34% of the

TABLE 2.31

Structure of the Active Population and Changes Over Time, by Geographical Area, 1971 and 1982

| Geographical Area | 1971 | | 1982 | | Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number | Percent | Number | Percent | Change |
| Metropolitan Area | | | | | |
| Males | 98,948 | 4.3 | 151,153 | 7.1 | 53.4 |
| Females | 129,665 | 5.7 | 164,183 | 7.7 | 26.6 |
| Total | 228,613 | 10.0 | 315,336 | 14.8 | 38.7 |
| Urban (5,000 and over) | | | | | |
| Males | 49,579 | 2.2 | 67,374 | 3.2 | 35.9 |
| Females | 58,403 | 2.6 | 67,790 | 3.2 | 16.1 |
| Total | 107,982 | 4.8 | 135,164 | 6.4 | 25.2 |
| Rural | | | | | |
| Males | 1,048,251 | 46.1 | 1,038,888 | 48.8 | - 0.9 |
| Females | 887,586 | 39.1 | 640,269 | 30.0 | -27.9 |
| Total | 1,935,837 | 85.2 | 1,679,157 | 78.8 | -13.3 |
| Total Country | | | | | |
| Males | 1,196,778 | 52.1 | 1,257,415 | 59.0 | 5.1 |
| Females | 1,075,654 | 47.3 | 872,242 | 41.0 | -18.9 |
| Total | 2,272,432 | 100.0 | 2,129,657 | 100.0 | - 6.3 |

Source: Y. Courbage, L'Activité Economique en 1982, Ministry of Planning/Haitian Institute of Statistics, 1984 (all data drawn from 1971 and 1982 census)



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Table 2.32

Labor Force by Branch of Activity,

Geographic Area, and Gender,

1982

| | Agri-culture | Mining | Manufac-tures & Utilities | Construc-tion | Commerce & Tourism | Transp. & Comm. | Secondary Assurance Real Estate | Services | Undefined Activity | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Metropolitan | | | | | | | | | | |
| Males | 1,699 | 1,311 | 23,234 | 6,350 | 13,646 | 5,757 | 1,847 | 32,524 | 10,853 | 97,221 |
| Females | 880 | 1,389 | 24,634 | 1,145 | 32,701 | 1,035 | 1,134 | 33,570 | 9,784 | 106,272 |
| Total | 2,579 | 2,700 | 47,868 | 7,475 | 46,347 | 6,792 | 2,981 | 66,094 | 20,637 | 203,493 |
| Urban(5000 and over) | | | | | | | | | | |
| Males | 12,539 | 1,346 | 8,649 | 3,101 | 9,180 | 1,999 | 435 | 12,281 | 3,971 | 53,501 |
| Females | 4,849 | 1,299 | 6,868 | 928 | 21,553 | 661 | 162 | 13,189 | 3,283 | 52,792 |
| Total | 17,388 | 2,645 | 15,517 | 4,029 | 30,733 | 2,660 | 597 | 25,470 | 7,254 | 106,293 |
| Rural | | | | | | | | | | |
| Males | 834,720 | 6,768 | 34,968 | 9,137 | 41,510 | 6,317 | 451 | 19,740 | 11,731 | 965,342 |
| Females | 368,173 | 7,147 | 24,912 | 1,532 | 167,138 | 613 | --- | 13,171 | 11,639 | 594,325 |
| Total | 1,202,893 | 13,915 | 59,880 | 10,669 | 208,648 | 6,930 | 451 | 32,911 | 23,370 | 1,559,667 |
| Total Country | | | | | | | | | | |
| Males | 848,958 | 9,425 | 66,851 | 18,588 | 64,336 | 14,073 | 2,733 | 64,545 | 26,555 | 1,116,063 |
| Females | 373,902 | 9,835 | 56,414 | 3,605 | 221,392 | 2,313 | 1,296 | 59,930 | 24,706 | 753,393 |
| Total | 1,222,860 | 19,260 | 123,265 | 22,193 | 285,728 | 16,386 | 4,029 | 124,475 | 51,261 | 1,869,457 |

Source: Haitian Institute of Statistics, Resultats Anticipes du Recencement General, 1984.

national product is provided by 66% of the labor force, in the agricultural sector (Table 2.33).

TABLE 2.33

Structure of Gross Domestic Product and
Labor Force by Sector, 1982
(percent)

| Sector | Labor Force | GDP |
|---|---|---|
| Agriculture and Mining | 66.3 | 34.5 |
| Manufacturing and Utilities | 6.6 | 18.8 |
| Construction | 1.3 | 5.5 |
| Commerce, Hotels, and Restaurants | 15.3 | 19.4 |
| Transportation and Communications | 0.9 | 2.1 |
| Financial Services | 0.2 | 0.3 |
| Other Services | 9.4 | 19.4 |
| Total | 100.0 | 100.0 |

Sources: Labor Force based on Table 2.32; GDP calculated from Table 2.7.

Although these figures are only crude approximations of productivity, they have implications for development strategy. They also reflect the delicacy of any attempt to balance rates of productivity. In attempting to transfer apparent labor force surpluses from agriculture to industry, one would have to avoid both increasing urban unemployment and imposing severe imbalances on other more dynamic sectors of the economy. In this endeavor, three factors would be critically important: (a) a better knowledge of the composition of the migrant population and the absorptive capacity of the modern sector, (b) innovative ways to create new local industries, and (c) flexible and adaptable vocational training facilities.

Subdividing the labor force by branch of activity, however, is only a first step in understanding labor market mechanisms. Within each branch, some activities are operated in a "modern" fashion (e.g., wage rates, formal work schedules, fixed facilities, accounting procedures), while others are still operated in a traditional, less formal manner.

Here also, the distinction between the modern and traditional sectors is both uncertain and changing. Estimates of their respective importance as employers of labor (Table 2.34) are tentative, since they are based on assumptions from partial data. Orders of magnitude in Table 2.34 are probably



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reasonable and indicate that about three-quarters of the employed labor force is working in the traditional sector. This figure does not include agricultural activities, where traditional modes of work may be even more widespread. It fits well with the results of the current census.

TABLE 2.34

Structure of the Labor Force in the Modern and the Informal Sectors, by Branches of Activity, 1982 (a)

| Sector | Modern Sector (000) | Informal Sector (000) | Total (000) | Informal Sector's Share of the Total (%) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Manufacturing | 45.6 | 106.4 | 152.0 | 70.0 |
| Construction | 10.8 | 32.2 | 43.0 | 75.0 |
| Utilities | 2.5 | 2.5 | 5.0 | 50.0 |
| Commerce, restaurants, and hotels | 22.7 | 204.3 | 227.0 | 90.0 |
| Transportation and communications | 18.0 | 12.0 | 30.0 | 40.0 |
| Financial services | 2.4 | 0.6 | 3.0 | 20.0 |
| Other services | 89.1 | 207.9 | 297.0 | 70.0 |
| Total | 191.1 | 565.9 | 757.0 | 75.0 |

(a) Primary sector excluded.

Source: Estimations, Ministry of Planning.

If attention is shifted to the modern sector, then the importance of manufacturing is clearer, as it represents 24% of the labor force. This proportion, however, is still far behind the service sector, which absorbs 47%. Again, this order of magnitude is consistent with figures from the census showing 23% of the metropolitan area labor force employed by manufacturing. The public sector employs only 29,000 workers, or less than 10% of the modern sector, a small proportion compared with other developing countries.

In general, the educational level of the labor force is quite low: 73% have received no instruction at all, and less than 20% have a primary education (Table 2.35). The highest proportion of educated persons is in the financial branches and in services. The manufacturing sector is in between, with 40% of the labor force having finished primary school. (On this point, census data diverge from a survey by Delatour and Voltaire, made in 1980, which estimates that the proportion of industry workers with elementary education was as high as 77%.)



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Table 2.35

Structure of the Labor Force,
by Level of Instruction and Branch of Activity,
1982

| Sector | No Instruction | Primary | Secondary | Teacher Training | Higher Education | Vocational & Technical | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Manufactures | 45,390 (36.8) | 52,242 (42.4) | 22,420 (18.2) | 738 (.6) | 1,190 (1.0) | 1,286 (1.0) | 123,266 (100.0) |
| Mining | 11,494 (59.7) | 3,585 (18.6) | 2,945 (15.3) | 236 (1.5) | 420 (2.2) | 529 (2.7) | 19,209 (100.0) |
| Construction | 10,199 (46.0) | 8,830 (39.8) | 2,615 (11.8) | 34 (0.1) | 243 (1.1) | 271 (1.2) | 22,192 (100.0) |
| Commerce and Restaurants | 203,628 (71.3) | 64,007 (22.4) | 15,669 (5.4) | 553 (0.2) | 1,105 (0.4) | 766 (0.3) | 285,728 (100.0) |
| Transportations and Communications | 6,529 (39.8) | 5,375 (32.8) | 4,168 (25.4) | 24 (0.1) | 159 (1.0) | 130 (0.8) | 16,385 (100.0) |
| Financial Services | 392 (9.7) | 973 (24.1) | 2,105 (52.2) | 55 (1.4) | 280 (6.9) | 225 (5.6) | 4,030 (100.0) |
| Other Services | 35,374 (28.4) | 31,594 (25.4) | 43,531 (35.0) | 3,476 (2.8) | 7,012 (5.6) | 3,489 (2.8) | 124,476 (100.0) |
| Non-Defined Services | 20,014 (39.0) | 13,977 (27.3) | 13,908 (27.1) | 464 (0.9) | 1,275 (2.5) | 1,624 (3.2) | 51,262 (100.0) |
| All Activities | 1,362,719 (72.9) | 352,991 (18.9) | 121,538 (6.5) | 6,848 (0.4) | 14,189 (0.7) | 11,124 (0.6) | 1,869,409 (100.0) |

Source: Haitian Institute of Statistics, Resultats Anticipes du Recencement General, 1984.



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Another indication of the level of development of human capital is the status of the labor force and its geographical distribution (Table 2.36). This analysis shows that, even among employers, education is not very widespread. The highest proportion of educated workers is found among wage earners in urban areas. Even among this group, however, results are not impressive. Given that a significant amount of development strategy focuses on this core group of modern sector workers, the fact that scarcely 2% of them have had any form of vocational training is surprising and constitutes a strong case for energetic measures in this field.

According to the 1982 census, open unemployment reached 12.2% of the labor force, or 260,000 persons (Table 2.37). Although overall unemployment rates are similar for males and females, patterns vary with age. Generally speaking, open unemployment is the highest for the 15-19 age group, and it then steadily decreases with age. Urban areas, and especially the Port-au-Prince metropolitan area, are the most severely affected by unemployment. As in many developing countries, the capital city contains both the major portion of the work opportunities available in the country and the largest surpluses of labor supply. It should be added that open unemployment is only the visible (i.e., directly measurable) part of the more general phenomenon of underemployment. Underemployment in Haiti is estimated to reach 40% and is a very real indicator of poverty and underdevelopment. Adding open unemployment and underemployment gives an "equivalent unemployment" of 50% of the total labor force. (For an elaboration, see Ministry of Planning, Politique Nationale de L'Emploi Tome 1: - Chômage, June 1983).

### 2.7.3 Projections of Manpower Demand

Reliable projections of manpower demand do not exist. Several methods and sources of data must be consulted and compared to estimate any patterns for analysis and planning purposes.

#### 2.7.3.1 Projections Made by he Ministry of Planning

Before the results of the 1982 census were available, the Ministry of Planning prepared a set of projections based on a comparison of output and labor force data available in 1981 (Direction de la Programmation Economique et Sociale, janvier, 1982.) The 1981 figures were themselves the result of projections made by observing the changes in output and labor force participation rates between the 1951 and 1971 censuses. Although the methodology is technically correct, the results are not reliable because the data are out-of-date. The projections were based on an assumed GDP growth rate of 4%, which has proven to be overly optimistic; the total labor force projected for 1982 turned

Table 2.36

Structure of the Labor Force
by Level of Instruction and Status,
1982

| Status | No Instruction (%) | Primary (%) | Secondary (%) | Teacher Training (%) | Higher Education (%) | Vocational & Technical (%) | Total (000) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Employers | 59.9 | 27.4 | 7.4 | 0.6 | 2.3 | 2.0 | 81,800 |
| Wage earners | | | | | | | |
| Metropolitan area | 25.4 | 30.7 | 36.1 | 1.3 | 4.4 | 2.1 | 135,100 |
| Small cities | 27.5 | 38.8 | 30.0 | 1.5 | 1.3 | 0.8 | 52,400 |
| Rural areas | 66.9 | 22.3 | 7.5 | 1.1 | 0.7 | 1.5 | 166,700 |
| Self-employed | | | | | | | |
| Metropolitan area | 39.6 | 33.3 | 25.0 | 0.5 | 1.1 | 0.6 | 55,800 |
| Rural areas | 82.6 | 15.6 | 1.2 | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0.3 | 1,083,970 |
| Familial aid | 89.3 | 9.4 | 1.0 | --- | 0.2 | 0.1 | 222,061 |
| ALL(a) | 72.5 | 18.9 | 6.5 | 0.4 | 0.8 | 0.6 | 1,869,455 |

(a) Includes not-specified status.

Source: Haitian Institute of Statistics, Resultats Anticipes du Recencement General, 1984.

Table 2.37

Unemployment by Geographical Areas
and Age Groups, 1982

| Age Group | Metropolitan Area | | Urban Area | | Rural Area | | Total | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Unemployed | Rate (%) | Unemployed | Rate (%) | Unemployed | Rate (%) | Unemployed | Rate (%) |
| 10-14 | 3,364 | 30.8 | 2,458 | 23.2 | 21,602 | 18.4 | 27,423 | 19.8 |
| 15-19 | 14,421 | 49.7 | 4,534 | 34.0 | 30,794 | 19.3 | 49,749 | 24.7 |
| 20-24 | 31,246 | 47.5 | 6,602 | 32.2 | 29,494 | 14.1 | 67,342 | 22.8 |
| 25-29 | 23,160 | 36.9 | 4,056 | 22.6 | 13,893 | 6.5 | 41,109 | 14.5 |
| 30-34 | 12,169 | 30.8 | 2,640 | 20.8 | 7,118 | 4.5 | 21,927 | 10.3 |
| 35-39 | 8,377 | 29.5 | 2,068 | 16.9 | 3,879 | 2.4 | 14,324 | 7.0 |
| 40-44 | 5,991 | 26.4 | 1,539 | 14.7 | 3,406 | 2.4 | 10,936 | 6.2 |
| 45-49 | 4,409 | 27.2 | 1,047 | 15.0 | 2,547 | 1.8 | 8,363 | 5.1 |
| 50-54 | 3,660 | 24.0 | 1,049 | 12.7 | 1,424 | 1.3 | 6,133 | 4.6 |
| 55-59 | 1,569 | 20.2 | 752 | 13.4 | 645 | 0.9 | 2,966 | 3.5 |
| +60 | 3,475 | 20.4 | 1,766 | 12.4 | 4,690 | 2.3 | 9,932 | 4.6 |
| Total | 111,841 | 35.5 | 28,511 | 21.4 | 119,492 | 7.1 | 260,204 | 12.2 |

Source: Haitian Institute of Statistics, Resultats Anticipes du Recencement general, 1984.

out to be 420,000 above the subsequently published results of the 1982 census. However, since the latter probably underestimated both total population and the size of the labor force, it will still be useful to present the projections made in the 1981 study.

These first projections (which will be subsequently referred to as "Projection I") assumed the following evolution of productivity by economic sector (value added of a branch in dollars divided by the number of workers employed in the branch):

| Sector | 1982 | 1986 | 1991 |
|---|---|---|---|
| Agriculture | 226 | 232 | 242 |
| Manufacturing | 1,250 | 1,322 | 1,390 |
| Construction | 1,324 | 1,408 | 1,480 |
| Utilities | 1,680 | 1,744 | 1,832 |
| Commerce, restaurants | 752 | 630 | 630 |
| Transportation, communications | 1,144 | 1,236 | 1,330 |
| Financial services | 17,000 | 17,700 | 17,700 |
| Other services | 452 | 400 | 400 |
| All sectors | 432 | 460 | 500 |

As expected, the agriculture sector suffers from a very low productivity per worker. It is also the sector where the level of education of the workers is the lowest, and where underemployment is the highest.

Using this base, projections of the total annual demand for jobs indicate that there will be 42,000 jobs to be filled annually between 1985 and 1990. This is equivalent to the creation of 210,000 jobs over the entire period (Table 2.38). The traditional sector is expected to provide over two-thirds of these new jobs.

On the basis of the structure of the labor force by occupational status, it is possible to project manpower requirements by level of skill in the modern sector (Table 2.39). As long as occupational structure is assumed to remain constant at its 1982 level, most of the needs estimated by this method concern unskilled or semi-skilled workers (75% of total needs). To translate this occupational structure into an estimate of educational needs, the Ministry of Planning used a table of equivalence (Table 2.40) illustrating the correspondence between given occupational levels and the amount of training (years in school and/or degrees) necessary to fill them. (The information in the table used by the Ministry of Planning is theoretical.)

Applying the table of equivalency (Table 2.40) to the skill requirements derived previously (Table 2.39), it is possible to project demand for various

TABLE 2.38

Projection of Manpower Requirements by Sector

(Projection I) 1985-90

| Sector | Traditional Sector | Modern Sector | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| Agriculture | 68,000 | 18,000 | 86,000 |
| Mining | 1,000 | --- | 1,000 |
| Manufacturing | 22,000 | 10,000 | 32,000 |
| Utilities | --- | 1,000 | 1,000 |
| Construction | 17,000 | 3,000 | 20,000 |
| Commerce | 11,000 | 6,000 | 17,000 |
| Transportation | 4,000 | 6,000 | 10,000 |
| Financial Services | --- | 1,000 | 1,000 |
| Other Services | 28,000 | 14,000 | 42,000 |
| TOTAL | 151,000 | 59,000 | 210,000 |

Source: Ministry of Planning, Office of Economic and Social Programming, Main-D'Oeuvre, Emploi et Resources Humaines, 1982.

TABLE 2.39

Projection of Manpower Requirements By Sector and Occupation (Projection I): Modern Sector, 1985-90

| | OCCUPATION (a) | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Senior | Middle | | | Low | Un- | |
| | Manage- | Management | | Skilled | Skilled | skilled | |
| Sector | ment | Tech. | Admin. | Labor | Labor | Labor | Total |
| Agriculture | 540 | 540 | 900 | 1,620 | 4,500 | 9,900 | 18,000 |
| Mining | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Manufacturing | 500 | 400 | 700 | 1,350 | 3,800 | 3,250 | 10,000 |
| Utilities | 50 | 40 | 70 | 135 | 380 | 325 | 1,000 |
| Construction | 105 | 75 | 150 | 330 | 900 | 1,440 | 3,000 |
| Commerce | 210 | 150 | 300 | 660 | 1,800 | 2,880 | 6,000 |
| Transportation | 210 | 150 | 300 | 660 | 1,800 | 2,880 | 6,000 |
| Financial Services | 60 | 20 | 85 | 120 | 500 | 215 | 1,000 |
| Other Services | 840 | 280 | 1,190 | 1,680 | 7,000 | 3,010 | 14,000 |
| Total | 2,515 | 1,655 | 2,695 | 6,555 | 20,680 | 23,900 | 59,000 |

(a) Occupations are translated from the following categories:

1. Cadres supérieurs
2. Cadres Moyens
3. Employés et ouvriers qualifiés
4. Employés et ouvriers spécialisés
5. Main-d'Oeuvre banale

Source: Ministry of Planning, Office of Economic and Social Programming, Main-d'Oeuvre, Emploi et Ressources Humaines, 1982.

TABLE 2.40

Occupational Status With Corresponding Educational Requirements

| Occupational Status (a) | Educational Requirements |
|---|---|
| Senior Management | (University and 'GRANDES ECOLES'). University --Four years or more of postsecondary education outside of the university, with diploma or equivalent. |
| Middle Management: | |
| Technical | (Postsecondary vocational education). Any training received after obtaining the secondary school diploma or equivalent and prior to the fourth year of postsecondary education. |
| Administrative | (Postsecondary general education). General secondary or teacher training diploma--or equivalent--plus about 3 years of post-secondary education. |
| Skilled Labor | (Secondary education). Any training received after completion of primary school and until or prior to completion of secondary school, with technical or administrative qualifications. |
| Low-skilled Labor | (Complete primary education). Any training received within 5 or 6 years of primary schooling with on-the-job training or apprenticeship; or certificate of completion of primary school. |
| Unskilled Labor | Incomplete primary school education or mere illiteracy. |

(a) For translation of these categories, see note to Table 2.39.

Source: Ministry of Planning, Directoire de la Programmation Economique et Sociale - Main-D'Oeuvre, Emploi et Ressources Humaines, 1982.

quantities and levels of educated manpower (Table 2.41). Because unskilled workers are omitted from these projections, total demand for educated manpower shrinks to 30,000, as follows:

| | |
|---|---|
| Primary education | 59% |
| Secondary (technical) | 8% |
| Secondary (general) | 22% |
| Postsecondary (vocational) | 5% |
| Higher education | 6% |

TABLE 2.41

Projection of Manpower Requirements by Sector and Level of Instruction (Projection I): Modern Sector 1985-90

| | Sector | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Level of Instruction | Public | Manufacturing | Other | Total |
| Primary | 5,500 | 7,000 | 5,400 | 17,900 |
| Secondary (technical) | 900 | 600 | 800 | 2,300 |
| Secondary (general) | 2,300 | 1,250 | 3,000 | 6,550 |
| Postsecondary (vocational) | 540 | 650 | 450 | 1,640 |
| Higher education | 1,300 | 300 | 300 | 1,900 |
| Total | 10,540 | 9,800 | 9,950 | 30,290 |

Source: Ministry of Planning, Directoire de la Programmation Economique et Sociale - Main-D'Oeuvre, Emploi, et Ressources Humaines, 1982.

2.7.3.2 Alternative Projections

The recent availability of 1982 census data makes it possible to present alternative estimates, which will be referred to as "Projection II" and "Projection III." It must be remembered, however, that the results of the census have been sharply questioned in some quarters. In addition, the alternative projections presented here use short-cut methods and are not based on the detailed assumptions made by the Ministry of Planning team. They should, therefore, be regarded as tentative.

The sequence of steps used for Projection II is as follows, and the results of performing Steps 1 through 4 are presented in Table 2.42.

Table 2.42

Sectoral Projections of Gross Domestic Product and Labor Force (Projection II): All Sectors

| | GDP, 1982 ($) | Labor Force, 1982 (000) | Productivity, 1982 ($ per capita) | Projected GDP, 1985-86 ($) | Projected Labor Requirements 1985-86 | Projected GDP, 1980-90 ($) | Projected Labor Requirement, 1989-90 (000) | Projected New Labor Requirement, 1985-86 to 1989-90 (000) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Agriculture and mining | 340 | 1,242 | .27 | 340 | 1,240 | 364 | 1,327 | 87 |
| Manufacture and utilities | 185 | 123 | 1.51 | 210 | 136 | 210 | 172 | 36 |
| Construction | 54 | 22 | 2.45 | 64 | 26 | 64 | 31 | 5 |
| Commerce and restaurants | 190 | 286 | .67 | 195 | 293 | 195 | 327 | 34 |
| Transportation and communications | 21 | 16 | 1.31 | 23 | 18 | 23 | 21 | 3 |
| Financial services (a) | 3 | 4 | .70 | 3 | 5 | 3 | 6 | 1 |
| Other services (b) | 191 | 176 | 1.08 | 204 | 183 | 204 | 196 | 13 |
| All | 984 | 1,869 | .53 | 1,039 | 1,901 | 1,063 | 2,080 | 179 |

(a) Sectoral output is supposed to follow the same growth rate as manufacturing.

(b) Includes non-defined services.

Sources: (1) Table 2.16
(2) Table 2.32

Totals may not be exact because items have been rounded.

Step 1. Calculate sectoral distribution of GDP in 1982 (as in Table 2.6).

Step 2. Calculate sectoral distribution of labor force in 1982 (from 1982 census, as in Table 2.32).

Step 3. Estimate sectoral productivity of labor in 1982 (ratio of sector output to the sector's share of labor).

Assumption 1. Productivity as observed in 1982 remains constant over the period 1982-90. This is a conservative assumption that could be easily modified in further estimates.

Step 4. Apply sectoral productivity to sectoral projections of GDP from 1985/86 to 1989/90 (Table 2.28) to yield projected sectoral demand for labor for the 1985/86 to 1989/90 period.

Assumption 2. Structure of sectoral labor force by level of education as observed in 1982 (Table 2.35) remains unchanged over the period 1982-90. This is again a conservative assumption that can be changed.

Step 5. Apply distribution of sectoral labor force by level of education as observed in 1982 (Table 2.35) to projected sectoral demand for labor from 1985/86 to 1989/90.

Under the conservative assumptions of Projection II, manpower needs will increase at a slower pace than overall supply determined by demography (1.4% annually vs. 1.7% to 1.9% annually). It is important to note that projections relating to agriculture could be greatly affected or even reversed were productivity in that sector to increase.

Aside from agriculture, manufacturing and commerce appear to be the chief sources of manpower demand. The former is essentially a modern sector, whereas the latter is mostly made up of traditional activities. The link between the needs and the absorptive capacity of the modern sector and the traditional one will be one of the main issues of the years ahead.

Translation of the needs depicted by Projection II into educational requirements is not, as with Projection I, dependent on a theoretical correspondence table (such as Table 2.40). It reflects the actual educational level of the labor force observed in 1982.

Projected educational requirements obtained by this method are, as one could expect given its components and its assumptions, very modest: only one-third of the needs for the 1985-90 period concern educated workers (Table 2.43). Requirements for qualified workers--that is, with a level of education equivalent to or higher than secondary education--remain very low.

Projection III uses essentially the same method and sources as Projection II. They differ only on the two assumptions which were specified in



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Table 2.43
Projections of Manpower Requirements, 1985-90,
by Sector and Level of Instruction (Projection II):
All Sectors

| Sector | (1) No Instruction | (2) Primary Education | (3) Secondary and Teacher Training | (4) Higher Education | (5) Vocational and Technical Education | (6) Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Agriculture | 73,200 | 12,300 | 1,100 | 200 | 200 | 87,000 |
| Manufacturing and utilities | 13,200 | 15,200 | 6,800 | 400 | 400 | 36,000 |
| Construction | 2,300 | 2,000 | 600 | 50 | 50 | 5,000 |
| Commerce and restaurants | 24,300 | 7,600 | 1,900 | 100 | 100 | 34,000 |
| Transportation and communications | 1,200 | 1,000 | 800 | 50 | 50 | 3,100 |
| Financial services | 100 | 250 | 550 | 50 | 50 | 1,000 |
| Other | 3,700 | 3,300 | 4,900 | 700 | 400 | 13,000 |
| All | 118,000 | 41,650 | 16,650 | 1,550 | 1,250 | 179,100 |

Source: Calculations based on Tables 2.35 and 2.42

a very conservative manner for Projection II. Projection III has the following characteristics:

- Steps 1, 2, and 3: Same as in Projection II.
- Assumption 1 and Step 4: Productivity in agriculture increased in such a way that in 1989/90, the projected output is processed with a labor force diminished by 5%. Productivity in other sectors is unchanged. Therefore, manpower requirements shrink to 21,000 in agriculture and to 113,000 for the overall economy.
- Assumption 2 and Step 5: Ten percent of the unskilled workers in agriculture receive a primary education, and 5% of them vocational training; 20% of the remaining (non-agricultural) unskilled workers unskilled workers receive primary education and 10% receive vocational training.
- The qualifications of skilled workers remain unchanged.

The rationale behind these theoretical assumptions is based on the opinion frequently stated by employers and policymakers that basic education and middle-vocational training are the critical missing links in manpower development.

Shifting from the assumptions of Projection II to those of Projection III has major implications. On the one hand, as already stated, overall requirements are lower by over one-third and needs for an unskilled labor force are cut by more than one-half. On the other hand, demand for workers with vocational or technical training is multiplied over fivefold (Table 2.44).

Comparison of the three scenarios presented above has shown how sensitive projected labor demand is to alternative assumptions. This sensitivity analysis suggests how important it is to have a better knowledge of the real objectives and needs of employers. Such understanding is crucial for aggregate manpower analysis and for close sectoral monitoring of the labor market. Such understanding provides a basis for flexible and timely programming of vocational education.

In a study published in 1982 (Besoins en Formation Professionnelle dans l'Industrie Haïtienne, National Institute for Professional Training), V.M. Bensalah used surveys of the evolution of the industrial labor market, performed by the Ministry of Social Affairs, to derive further insights into manpower demand. The study shows that although objective needs for trained workers, and especially middle-level technicians, are very high, employers generally do not express much interest in vocational training. In short, effective demand for formally trained manpower is paradoxically low. Bensalah suggests three reasons:



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Table 2.44

Projections of Manpower Requirements, 1985-90, by Sector and Level of Education (Projection III): All Sectors

| Sector | (1) No Instruction | (2) Primary Education | (3) Secondary and Teacher Training | (4) Higher Education | (5) Vocational and Technical Education | (6) Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Agriculture | 15,050 | 4,650 | 300 | 50 | 950 | 21,000 |
| Manufacturing and utilities | 9,240 | 17,840 | 6,800 | 400 | 1,720 | 36,000 |
| Construction | 1,610 | 2,460 | 600 | 50 | 280 | 5,000 |
| Commerce and restaurants | 17,010 | 12,460 | 1,900 | 100 | 2,530 | 34,000 |
| Transportation and communications | 840 | 1,240 | 800 | 50 | 170 | 3,100 |
| Financial services | 70 | 270 | 550 | 50 | 60 | 1,000 |
| Other | 2,590 | 3,670 | 4,900 | 700 | 1,140 | 13,000 |
| All | 46,410 | 42,590 | 15,850 | 1,400 | 6,850 | 113,100 |

Source: See Table 2.43.

- Employers prefer to train workers on-the-job.
- Employers tend to select a few high-level technicians and send them aboard for additional training.
- The lack of middle-level technical management may not be felt as a need because it is partially compensated for by foreign technical assistance.

In addition, assembly industries, which comprise the majority of the industrial sector, are governed by short-term fluctuations in external demand. Employers in this branch cannot foresee their human resource needs very far in advance and are reluctant to make long-term plans for their development.

In conclusion, using employer's stated needs to project manpower demand in Haiti is a method that has as many drawbacks as deriving demand from an analysis of aggregate trends. This situation constitutes a strong argument for establishing a network of statistical services, capable of identifying and tracking trends in the labor market and shifts in the economy that may have major effects on human resource supply and demand.

### 2.7.4 Projections of Manpower Supply

#### 2.7.4.1 General Education

Projecting the output of the Haitian educational system is very difficult. The system is quite complex and non-uniform, and data are neither comprehensive nor standardized. In addition, the Education Reform that was initiated in 1981/82 will not be fully implemented before 1990/91 at the earliest. Uncertainty about the speed of implementation, especially in the private sector, makes projection even more difficult.

To project educational outputs, one must apply foreseeable enrollment rates to an estimate of school-age population, then adjust for dropouts and repeaters in order to deduce the numbers of students who will graduate from different levels of the system. The only way to precisely determine dropout, promotion, and repetition rates is to follow several cohorts of students through their academic career or to obtain reliable data on past cohort transformations. This information is not available, so assumptions have to be made to construct output projections.

The manpower supply projections presented here follow the estimates made by the Ministry of Planning for the 1981/82 period. These were initially made as a step in the preparation of the most recent Five-Year Plan. These educational forecasts, like the economic ones mentioned earlier, turned out to be overly optimistic. The objective of the Plan was to achieve full primary school enrollment by 1990, with an interim goal of an 83% gross enrollment

ratio by 1986. Projections were made on the basis of 1981/82 enrollments (Table 2.45).

TABLE 2.45

Enrollments by Public and Private Sector and Level of Education, 1981-82

| Level of Education | Public | Private | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| Primary | 282,366 | 375,736 | 658,102 |
| Secondary | 15,868 | 82,702 | 98,570 |
| Teacher Training | 829 | --- | 829 |
| Vocational and Technical | 2,784 | 26,385 | 29,169 |
| Higher Education | 3,597 | 1,100 | 4,697 |
| All | 305,444 | 485,923 | 791,367 |

Source: Ministry of Planning, Plan Biennal d'Education, 1984-86.

Unrealistic as these projections may appear, the pressure of social demand for education has been so great that actual enrollments to date are close to the projected figures. In fact, the new projections made for the interim Two-Year Plan (1984-86) (Table 2.46) are even higher than those initially made for the Five-Year Plan. Optimism about public capacity to supply education has so far been borne out by strong social demand and a quick response from the private sector.

As a result, the degree of fit between the Five-Year Plan, the Two-Year Plan, and results to date is fairly good (Table 2.47). The projections issued in the Five-Year Plan can still be considered as informative. Moreover, these projections include estimates of dropouts and graduates for each cycle of education. Given the high numbers of dropouts at all levels, this is important information for projecting educational system outputs.

According to the Five-Year Plan, the following results are to be expected during the period of 1985-90:

- A total of 743,000 new enrollments in the first year of primary education (i.e., 149,000 annually).
- A total of 128,000 new enrollments in the first year of secondary education (i.e., 27,000 annually).
- A total of 3,000 new enrollments in the first year of higher education (i.e., 600 annually).

No projections are available for vocational schools for the period under consideration.

TABLE 2.46

Projected Enrollments(a)

1985-90

| Level of Education | 1985/86 | 1986/87 | 1987/88 | 1988/89 | 1989/90 | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Primary | 829,700 | 862,900 | 897,400 | 933,300 | 970,600 | 4,493,900 |
| Secondary(a) | 156,200 | 171,800 | 189,000 | 207,900 | 228,700 | 953,600 |
| Teacher Training(b) | 870 | 880 | 900 | 910 | 930 | 4,490 |
| Vocational/ Technical(b) | 50,300 | 60,220 | 72,380 | 87,150 | 104,830 | 374,880 |
| Higher Education(b) | 5,710 | 6,190 | 6,710 | 7,290 | 7,900 | 33,800 |
| All | 1,042,780 | 1,101,990 | 1,166,390 | 1,236,550 | 1,312,960 | 5,860,670 |

(a) Private enrollments assumed to keep the same share of total enrollments. Figures include home economics (Enseignement Menager, 68% of total enrollments).

(b) Projections based on continuation of the rate of growth observed between 1981/82 and 1983/84.

Source: Estimations from Ministry of Education, Plan Biennal d'Education 1984-1986, April 1984.

TABLE 2.47

Comparisons Between Projections of the Five-Year Plan, Projections of the Two-Year Plan, and Actual Enrollments: Selected Years

| Level | Projections in Five-Year Plan (000) | Projections in Two-Year Plan (000) | Actual Enrollments (000) |
|---|---|---|---|
| Primary | | | |
| 1981/82 | 635.1 | --- | 658.1 |
| 1985/86 | 803.6 | 829.7 | --- |
| 1988/89 | 918.1 | 933.3 | --- |
| Secondary | | | |
| 1981/82 | 104.1 | --- | 98.0 |
| 1985/86 | 146.9 | 156.2 | --- |
| Higher Education | | | |
| 1981/82 | 4.6 | --- | 3.6 |

Source: Plan Quinquennal and Plan Biennal.

In terms of outputs, 512,000 persons (or 102,000 annually) will leave the system of general education over the period. This population constitutes the net supply of new labor for the 1985-90 period. Only a minority of this group, however, will actually complete the full cycle of education in which they enroll and receive a diploma (Table 2.48). A total of 227,000 will drop out of primary school even before the fifth year. Barely literate at the time they leave, they are likely to return to complete illiteracy a few years later if they have no opportunity to practice the few lessons they have learned. Another group of 40,000 will drop out during the fifth or sixth grades of the primary cycle.

In addition to these dropouts (numbering 54,000 a year over the five-year period), primary education will graduate annually some 53,000 pupils who will have successfully completed the required 6 years (7 years under the Education Reform). If one adopts the rate currently observed for admission to secondary school (62% of primary school completers), the net output of those leaving the education system with no more than a primary school certificate will be 20,000 per year. This figure represents 13% of the new enrollments in primary school over the same period. (An overall student flow model for the Haitian educational system is presented in section 2.8.)

TABLE 2.48

Projections of Educational Outputs:
General Education, 1985-90

| | Output | Number |
|---|---|---|
| 1. | Dropouts between 1st and 4th years of primary school | 227,500 |
| 2. | Dropouts, 5th year of primary school | 12,500 |
| 3. | Dropouts, 6th year of primary school | 28,000 |
| 4. | Complete primary cycle | 99,700 |
| 5. | Dropouts, 1st year secondary | 20,500 |
| 6. | Dropouts, 2nd year secondary | 5,900 |
| 7. | Dropouts, 3rd year secondary | 18,400 |
| 8. | Dropouts, 4th year secondary | 15,400 |
| 9. | Dropouts, 5th year secondary | 8,400 |
| 10. | Dropouts, 6th year secondary | 46,500 |
| 11. | Dropouts, 7th year secondary | 3,000 |
| 12. | Complete secondary education cycle | 23,000 |
| 13. | Higher education | 2,600 |

Source: Ministry of Planning, Office for Economic and Social Planning, Main-d'Œuvre, Emploi et Ressources Humaines, 1982 (Data gathered for the preparation of the Five-Year Plan).

These figures illustrate the low internal efficiency of Haiti's primary education. (For more details, see Chapter 5.) Producing as many "rejects" as "finished products," the present primary school system cannot be considered a strong resource for the labor market. Moreover, from an individual perspective, experiencing dropout or rejection from school is a poor way to start a productive career.

At the secondary level, negative selection--the "pushing out" of large numbers of students--is also at work. According to the estimates summarized in Table 2.48, each year 24,000 students will abandon secondary education without having achieved their cycle. More than 14,000 of these dropouts will have received less than a full four years of secondary training (10th grade) or the equivalent of the full cycle of "basic education" proposed in the Reform. By way of comparison, the net output of full secondary school graduates (those who have passed the two baccalauréats) will be 4,000 a year.

In other words, secondary education will produce six rejects for every graduate. The practical value or quality of full secondary education may be

debated, and responsibility for this low output may be attributed in part to selection mechanisms which appear excessively strict. A major problem remains, however. What kinds of skills can those who drop out of the secondary system actually demonstrate on the labor market? It is simply not feasible to assume that these dropouts are fully ready to compete. They are not even necessarily in a better position than primary school leavers. In training industrial workers, employers may prefer candidates with a primary education who have lower career expectations and are easier to process and prepare through simple on-the-job programs. The absence of linkages with consistent vocational training programs makes the future appear quite bleak for these semi-educated and unqualified youngsters. This is a particularly crucial segment of the education qualification system, one that merits both more attention and a comprehensive strategy of remediation.

Finally, half a thousand higher education graduates will also be added annually to the supply of labor. At this level, the job search goes beyond Haiti. Experience has shown that among this small population, which should be compared to the 100,000 initial inputs at the first-grade level, a significant portion may in fact emigrate. In short, problems of internal linkage plague primary and secondary education whereas the issue of external linkage besets the top end of the educational pyramid in Haiti.

2.7.4.2 Teacher Training

In the teacher training sector, projections of supply have a very different meaning since supply is assumed to be a direct translation of demand. However, the last 2 years have shown an increasing gap between projected numbers of trained teachers and actual numbers of graduates from teacher training institutions (écoles normales) (Table 2.49). Under these conditions, projections of the supply of graduates from teacher training institutions depend on the degree to which the objectives of the plan are actually met. The Two-Year Plan projects total needs for teachers as follows:

| | 1984/85 | 1985/86 |
|---|---|---|
| Public sector | 932 | 739 |
| Private sector | 1,855 | 1,985 |
| Total | 2,787 | 2,724 |

As far as the public sector is concerned, at the current rate of achievement of planning targets (50%), the supply of new teachers will cover only those needs resulting from the increase in enrollments, not those created by attrition.



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TABLE 2.49

Projected and Actual Numbers of Graduates: Ecoles Normales
1981/82 to 1983/84

| Number | 1981/82 | 1982/83 | 1983/84 |
|---|---|---|---|
| Projected number of graduates | 450 | 500 | 550 |
| Actual number of graduates | 234 | 226 | 280/est |
| Actual/projected numbers (%) | 52 | 45 | 51 |

Source: Plan Biennal d'Education

The introduction of the Reform, and particularly the upgrading of teachers' qualifications and the creation of a salary scale and official status for the profession, will have major implications for the supply side of this equilibrium. According to data from a simulation model constructed by Unesco (Table 2.50), if the supply of public teacher training school graduates (normaliens) continues its present rate of expansion, it will be sufficient to cover needs generated by a gradual implementation of the Reform of basic education and a slow increase in primary school enrollments. However, this supply would be inadequate to meet the needs generated by an attempt to accelerate implementation of the Reform or growth in primary school enrollments in line with the original objectives of the most recent plans.

TABLE 2.50

Projected Needs of Graduates From Public Ecoles Normales
(Primary Teacher's Training)
1985/86 to 1989/90

| Year | Scenario I Continuation of Present System (Gradual Introduction of Reform) | Scenario III Increase of Proportion of Normaliens | Scenario VII Maximum Reform |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1985/86 | 203 | 173 | 743 |
| 1986/87 | 267 | 288 | 628 |
| 1987/88 | 284 | 310 | 714 |
| 1988/89 | 302 | 336 | 751 |
| 1989/90 | 324 | 369 | 1,002 |

Source: Unesco, Projection of Recurrent Expenditures in Public Primary Education, 1984.

The Reform includes a new official scale for teachers' salaries which, for the first time, links pay to level of qualification and experience. Teachers who have graduated from accredited teacher training institutes will get higher pay than less well-trained teachers. The final balance between needs and supply will therefore depend as much on the implementation of this aspect of the Reform as on any other factor.

2.7.4.3 Vocational and Technical Training

Information concerning this sector is scarce and totally unstandardized. Consequently, projections again can be only approximations. Most of the difficulty comes from the heterogeneous nature of this sector, where home economics schools are confounded with technical training schools geared to the industrial labor market. Secretarial and accounting schools of various levels are also counted among vocational institutions, whereas vocational agriculture and health schools, among others, are omitted (see Chapter 10).

On the basis of estimates prepared for the Five-Year Plan, and used for the Vocational Training Subsector Memorandum of The World Bank, enrollments in the 1983/84 to 1985/86 period will grow at an annual rate of 11.8%. The application of this rate to the 1985-90 period yields projected total enrollments of 60,100. Extrapolations on the same bases give 4,600 graduates for the 1985-1990 period. Alternative projections based on estimations made in Chapter 10 of this report lead to a total of 5,600. None of those estimates include diplomas delivered by home economics centers.

It also should be pointed out that entry into a vocational school is no guarantee of getting a degree or certificate. Dropouts are estimated to reach 80% of new enrollments in first degree schools and 45% in second degree schools. The vocational sector is, therefore, far from being immune from the wastage which characterizes general training. As with the latter, fully-trained graduates constitute only a small proportion of the total output. Dropouts from vocational school are probably not in a better situation for job competition than their counterparts in general education.

2.7.4.4 Manpower Balances

Comparing demand and supply figures is the last stage in a manpower requirements approach to educational planning. Given the approximate nature of both demand and supply figures, these estimates should be used with some caution. A further obstacle is that educational categories elaborated by the Ministry of Planning do not coincide exactly with those used for translating job requirements into education qualifications.

For all sectors (requirement Projections II and III), the overall balance exhibits a net surplus of 330,000 to 400,000 which is mainly composed of those who do not have full primary or secondary qualifications--that is, dropouts (Table 2.51). Surpluses are evident at almost all levels, except that a deficit in vocational training appears with Projection III.

TABLE 2.51

Projections of Supply and Demand of Labor Force
(Base-Projections II and III): All Sectors, 1985-90

| | Demand | | Supply | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Projection II | Projection III | | |
| No instruction | 118,000 | 46,410 | | |
| Primary Education | 41,650 | 42,590 | Dropouts, primary education | 268,000 |
| | | | School leavers after completed primary education | 99,700 |
| Secondary Education | 16,650 | 15,850 | Dropouts, secondary education | 118,100 |
| | | | School leavers after completed secondary education | 23,000 |
| Vocational Training | 1,250 | 6,850 | Vocational training | 4,600 |
| Higher Education | 1,550 | 1,400 | Higher education | 2,600 |
| All | 179,100 | 113,100 | | 516,000 |

Source: Tables 2.43, 2.44, and 2.48.

To obtain an idea of the high degree of sensitivity of these results to alternative assumptions, the latter results may be compared with a supply-demand balance estimated in 1980 by the Ministry of Planning for the modern sector (Table 2.52). Although these latter figures differ dramatically from the preceding ones, they also indicate an overall surplus and only slight net shortages at the management level. Using Projection I for matching needs and supply in the modern sector, and assuming that all school leavers above the level of a completed primary education seek a job in the modern sector, the picture again is one of general surplus. While huge gaps characterize primary and most of secondary education, both technical and postsecondary levels are in relative balance (Table 2.53).

TABLE 2.52

Projections of Supply and Demand of Labor Force in the Modern Sector (made in 1980) 1985-90

| Labor Force | Demand | Supply | Balance |
|---|---|---|---|
| High-level management | 1,925 | 1,900 | -25 |
| Middle-level technical management | 1,249 | 1,000 | -249 |
| Middle-level administrative management | 3,007 | 2,200 | -807 |
| Skilled workers | 4,800 | 118,200 | 113,400 |
| Low-skilled workers | 15,613 | 88,100 | 72,487 |
| Non-instructed labor | 18,406 | 74,800 | 56,394 |
| Total | 45,000 | 286,200 | 241,200 |

Source: Ministry of Planning, Direction de la Planification Economique et Sociale

TABLE 2.53

Projections of Supply and Demand of Labor Force in the Modern Sector (Base-Projection I), 1985-90

| Level of Education | (1) Demand | (2) Supply | (3) Balance |
|---|---|---|---|
| Primary | 17,900 | 99,700 | 81,800 |
| Secondary | 6,550 | 118,000 (a) | 134,450 |
| | | 23,000 (b) | |
| Technical | 3,940 | 4,600 | 660 |
| Higher Education | 1,900 | 2,600 | 700 |
| All | 30,290 | 247,900 | 217,610 |

(a) Dropouts

(b) Completed secondary education.

Sources: (1) Table 2.41; (2) Table 2.48.

What emerges from these various projections are hints that more complex local or sectoral issues exist at the middle level of training and of management.

A similar World Bank exercise for the modern sector identifies higher needs at all levels, but adopts the same assumptions about supply. Balances

are, therefore, slightly different. Moreover, the suggestion that middle-level technical management needs (from foremen to qualified technicians) are not matched by supply is given more credibility.

| | |
|---|---|
| High-level management | -765 |
| Middle-level technical management | -625 |
| Middle-level administrative management | -1,705 |
| Skilled workers | 111,585 |
| Low-skilled workers | 66,220 |
| Non-instructed workers | 50,900 |
| All | 166,410 |

Trends and patterns in these alternative estimations suggest that three factors are established with some validity:

1. The availability of 150,000 to 300,000 uneducated and untrained persons over the period, and the high likelihood that they will shift between open unemployment and underemployment in the informal sector.
2. Oversupply of graduates at nearly all levels except management training. A distinction must be drawn here, however, between "needs" and "effective demand," in the economic sense. The nation may need trained people to support its development, but if the economy and social structure are unable to create the corresponding jobs or ensure the necessary returns, then, strictly speaking, there is no "demand" for them and they are not included in most economic projections (The World Bank does tend to put slightly more emphasis on needs, which may be one reason why it records more deficits in its manpower projections), the importance of development strategies that generate employment and put available manpower to optimum use. At the same time, it must not be forgotten that Haiti sends much trained manpower abroad (émigrés). This supply might be partly tapped in the future to overcome shortages if domestic conditions become more favorable.
3. The apparent incapacity of the technical school system to provide the industrial sector with the type of manpower it requires. This conclusion will be examined more carefully in Chapter 10.

### 2.7.5 Conclusions of the Manpower-Analysis

Haiti has to plan for economic development in a poorly prepared environment. In its effort to do so, the country presently benefits greatly from foreign donor assistance, but it is also very dependent on both foreign assistance and foreign markets. The real challenge of the future is to make these transfers and investments as profitable and efficient as possible for Haiti.



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Given the scarcity of natural resources, Haiti's highest relative advantage lies with its human resources, an appreciable proportion of which are abroad. Currently available manpower within the country is characterized by a low level of general education, and an even lower level of technical education. As a result, most activities that require highly intensive labor inputs face the danger of operating at a level well below optimum and perhaps below the long-term break-even point.

The lack of skills is partly a result of the educational system itself. Qualified teachers, for example, are still a minority. Education can help solve many of Haiti's problems, including underemployment. It appears evident, for example, that a better basic and/or vocational training system would go a long way toward improving the productivity of those who do work, in both the formal and the informal sectors of the economy. The presence of skilled workers in an industrial unit, for example, has positive effects on other workers. It increases overall firm productivity, generating more jobs and more income. Education is also a key ingredient for the effective staffing of public services, which currently suffer from a shortage of competent and committed personnel. Finally, basic education should enhance the capacity of rural workers to rationalize their production methods, to be open to the introduction of new technologies, and to support needed new cooperative and credit structures.

In summary, educational upgrading is essential to the three major development goals of Government: promotion of private assembly and export-oriented industries, strengthening of administrative capacity, and long-term action in favor of agriculture. In addition to these objectives, basic education is instrumental in developing local market-oriented industries.

Achievement of these goals would require a dramatic mobilization of resources, and choices have to be made. This subsection on macroeconomic analysis will conclude with recommendations for several actions, some of which have already been initiated.

1. A general <u>improvement of the administrative capacity of Government</u> would benefit both domestic and external activities. Better trained, more productive, and better paid civil servants make possible a more efficient administration. Better coordination of bureaucratic activities would increase the influence of public authorities on internal private agents and their ability to get maximum benefit from external assistance. Foreign assistance is currently an important support for Haitian development. Government must be able to anticipate, coordinate, and cooperatively implement externally-

sponsored projects. Likewise, giving the private sector the initiative in entrepreneurship does not relieve Government of responsibility for playing a strong organizing, orienting, and planning role.

Adopting and enforcing measures to encourage investment in agriculture and in industry, both by large foreign firms and by small domestic ventures, remains an essential task for Government, and one which requires resources.

2. Among these means, financial resources are crucial. More effective generation of public revenues, particularly from income tax collection, is a requisite for increasing public fiscal capacity and is already under way. Additional tax receipts will allow Government to give substance to its long-term commitment to agricultural development, which requires costly investment in infrastructure. More substantial public revenues are also the only way for Government to be more than a limited partner in providing social services, such as health and schooling.

3. Aggregate estimates as well as the results of individual studies strongly suggest the importance of strengthening both the quantity and the quality of training facilities for technical management, especially at the middle management level. The industrial sector seems to suffer the most severe shortages. Improving existing structures, making them more efficient, and enhancing their capacity to respond to short-term needs of industry are urgent priorities. Vocational training centers designed to serve the needs of small entrepreneurs could provide critical support for private initiative. (see P. Runner, Propositions pour une Politique Nationale de l'Emploi, 1984).

4. The difficulties encountered in the foregoing manpower analysis make clear the urgent need for building a stronger statistical apparatus to monitor the labor market and to link it with the outputs of the educational system. Strengthening the capacity for information processing and analysis in a domain where economics, education, and development overlap is essential if public authorities are to exercise positive control over the direction of national development. Setting up a strong network at the governmental level, with human resources as a focus, would help to bring education out of its isolation and integrate it with its economic and social context.

A few further implications can be derived from the analyses presented above:



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1. General upgrading of the educational level of the population through complete primary school training is an absolute imperative because it is a condition of success in most other areas of economic development. Therefore, implementation of Education Reform constitutes a major objective, from both a quantitative and a qualitative point of view.

   Simultaneously, the repercussions that massive enrollments in basic schools would have on further levels of education, and especially on secondary schools, should be assessed as soon as possible. How to organize and facilitate the transfer from basic education to the active world, how to prevent basic education from becoming simply a necessary step to secondary education, how to supplement basic education with more practical training geared toward time-specific labor market opportunities--are some of the serious issues that ought to be faced without delay. If they are not, Haiti will experience the devastating combination of three woes: a still substantial mass of illiterates, an already inflationary demand for education, and worsening underemployment.

2. Organizing remedial and technical training programs for primary school and secondary school dropouts seems clearly indicated. These programs need to have a flexible vocational orientation and should be designed both to prevent dropouts from lapsing into illiteracy and to give them useful preparation for working in either the formal or the informal sector of the economy.

   Insofar as the informal sector is the one that will ultimately inherit most of those who have failed at school, it might be advisable to direct priority action in this direction. Generally speaking, Government should retain enough leverage in the economic and education sectors to be able to orient activities undertaken by private organizations and to ensure that they contribute to overall development.

3. The absorptive capacity of the traditional sector has not been fully explored. This is not to say that all remedies to unemployment will arise in this realm. Nevertheless, the traditional sector does offer more of a shelter for dropouts and for workers without specific or even general training, than than does the modern sector. Also, some traditional economic activities are quite substantial in scope. Combining these two facts makes a strong case for a more systematic approach to the informal sector. In particular, there is a need for a better understanding of how informal training and spontaneous apprenticeship function, and for an effort to build upon these existing forms of education.

Another characteristic of the traditional sector is its numerous links with modern economic activities. At the borderline, the traditional sector constitutes the path to modernization, and small-size firms oriented to the local market are constantly being generated out of initially traditional ventures.

For all these reasons, nonformal education offers promising possibilities for supporting initiatives aimed at providing basic skills for self-employed workers. This type of intervention needs to be timely and flexible.

Opportunities for success are significantly enhanced when training programs are linked with other kinds of activities designed to encourage individual initiative: credit facilities, distribution infrastructure, cooperatives, investment subsidies, and market protection.

4. Work in Haiti has to be valued at higher standards, and in some cases higher prices. Clear hiring procedures, career profile criteria, and a reward structure would be some of the measures to put the labor market on a sounder basis.

The skills of manual workers and craftsmen, in particular, need to be upgraded. No matter how costly this may appear in the short term, in the long run expenditures on raising productivity are usually a good investment. Linking productivity and wages also has positive effects on worker motivation. Education is a key element in this effort, and it should not be treated strictly as a life-long certification device. Assigning to education the role of preparing for better productivity--through either general or specific training--is a major challenge Haiti must face in the near future.

To sum up, major efforts in education are imperative because they will give Haiti's principal resource--the human one--the ability to increase its own productivity and to contribute to the country's development.

Investment in education will not by itself be sufficient to remedy poverty, underemployment, and underdevelopment. These features are the result of a complex set of natural, economic, political, and demographic factors. Nevertheless, education is intimately--though flexibly--linked with the main component of this mix, the economic factor, through labor market forces and prices.

It follows that any measure in the field of education has to be evaluated not only in terms of internal efficiency, but also in terms of its effects on other sectors of the economy. Moreover, to be fully



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successful, education programs domain have to be accompanied by parallel and appropriate interventions in other relevant economic and social sectors.

## 2.8 COSTS OF HAITIAN EDUCATION

### 2.8.1 Introduction

Education for an individual is both an item of consumption--a good in and of itself--and an investment in the future. For society, education represents both a public service and an important means of developing human resources. In all cases education is an expense, and someone must pay. Both society and the individual have an interest in the equity and efficiency with which limited educational resources are allocated. Although many dimensions of the "costs" and "benefits" of education are nonmonetary, economic analysis provides a relevant framework for the discussion of educational investment.

This section examines the costs of different branches of the Haitian educational system and considers the question of their internal efficiency in monetary terms. Section 2.9 deals with the benefits of education in Haiti, or its external efficiency. Section 2.10 concerns the economic viability of private education in Haiti, given the economic context and the estimated costs and benefits of schooling. Conclusions and recommendations are presented in Section 2.11.

The remainder of this chapter has two objectives:

- To perform a first series of analyses with available data to describe the situation, and to identify major areas where the magnitude of costs or benefits can be used to identify opportunities to improve the efficiency of the educational system.
- To propose a series of procedures for economic analysis of Haitian education, while presenting the methodology and available data in a manner that facilitates understanding, discussion, and revision.

### 2.8.2 Unit Cost Analysis

Cost data on educational programs provide one useful means of analyzing their internal operations and comparing their financial effectiveness. Cost information has moreover a great deal of intrinsic importance and interest because of its relevance to the question of optimum use of scarce resources that confronts all educational systems. Unit cost analysis involves an effort to determine the average costs per student or per student-year of a program and can be particularly instructive if one takes care to consider both the magnitude and the incidence of these costs. At the same time, it must be kept in mind that unit costs by themselves are not an entirely valid indicator of a

program's "internal efficiency"--that is, of the effectiveness with which it uses available resources to produce desired instructional results. There are a few conceptual and empirical problems involved in unit cost analysis of the Haitian educational system that need to be taken into account in order to make the best possible use of the available data.

Conceptual Issues. On the conceptual side, neither the numerator (educational costs) not the denominator (students or student-years) of the ratio that is used to calculate unit costs represents altogether accurately the quantities needed for an analysis of internal efficiency. Instead, these measures are proxies or approximations that give some indication of what interests us.

The principal problem with the numerator is the difficulty of identifying and accurately measuring all the relevant costs of Haitian education. These include the following:

1. Recurrent monetary costs (e.g., salaries, materials and supplies) incurred by all interested parties (students, parents, government, donor organizations);
2. Amortized capital costs (depreciation or rental value of facilities and equipment, etc.) incurred by all interested parties;
3. "Opportunity" costs for all parties, such as the value of voluntary labor or of the earnings foregone by students attending school; and
4. Other non-monetary costs incurred, or sacrifices made, by one or another of the interested parties (e.g., psychological or cultural costs that may be involved in a school experience that devalues a child's maternal language or culture).

The cost analysis that follows deals only with the first two categories in this list--sometimes referred to as "direct costs"--in conformity with current practice in education sector assessments. An attempt will be made to take opportunity costs into consideration in the next section of the chapter as part of the framework of the rate of return analysis, but they are omitted here in order to give primary attention to the direct or budgetary costs of educational programs. As for the other non-monetary costs mentioned, they are very difficult to quantify and are seldom tabulated in an economic analysis. Their potential importance should not be forgotten, however, as they have very real implications for relative deprivation and welfare.

The denominator in unit cost analysis is usually constituted by a measure of number of students, number of graduates, or number of "student-years per graduate" in a given educational program. The derivation of these figures will

be considered further on. Here it needs to be noted that though these units provide a useful way of breaking down educational costs and comparing them between programs, none of these factors directly represents the learning outcomes or instructional results that most interest us in the analysis of internal efficiency. The problem is that learning outcomes of educational programs are difficult to measure and there presently is little or no overall data on them in Haiti. In this sense, "numbers of graduates" or "student years per graduate" are proxies for missing data.

Empirical Issues. At the same time, there are also some weaknesses in the data at our disposal for the unit cost analysis. The nature of these shortcomings and the procedures adopted for dealing with them need to be briefly noted.

The numerator or cost side of the ratio is calculated from information about recurrent and capital expenditures on current educational programs. Of these two types of costs, capital expenditures are the more difficult to estimate, since depreciation and amortization are not generally taken into account in educational budgeting in Haiti. They are always present, however, and in certain cases--like vocational/technical education, where necessary learning materials sometimes include sophisticated equipment and machinery which must be replaced--they can constitute an appreciable proportion of unit costs.

The problem may be resolved in the case of private education by assuming that what students or parents pay in tuition (plus whatever subsidies are received from sponsor organizations or individuals) by definition covers both recurrent and capital costs, at least in the long run; otherwise the institution would go out of business. For public education, this is not necessarily true, unless all government outlays for investment expenditures are taken into account. The method adopted below is to parcel out the government investment budget for education in the reference year (1984-1985) to the different branches of public education prorata of their share in that year's government budget for recurrent educational expenses.

More information is available on recurrent costs than on capital expenditures, but their calculation involves some estimations and assumptions as well. Official tuition fees for public schools are standard throughout the country (though in reality there is some variation). Tuition fees for private education vary quite widely, however, and there is relatively little information available on them at a central level. Private schools may in fact be hesitant to reveal how much they charge.

A Unesco study (Haiti: Projections of Recurrent Expenditures Ojin Primary



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Education. Paris: Unesco 1984) furnishes some guideposts for estimating primary education costs, and these will be used in the following pages in conjunction with the more recent (though less exhaustive) information the sector assessment team was able to cull from current documents and gather in the field. Estimates of incidental fees and costs for learning materials are also difficult to make, because of the wide variations in conditions and even syllabi among schools. To come up with reasonable estimates, assumptions must be made about prevailing practices based on the best available first and secondhand information. The major assumptions underlying each analysis are specified in the text to facilitate critique and adjustment of the estimates.

In most instances, we have preferred to present several typical cost profiles from different kind of schools rather than a single "average" cost for an entire branch of education. There are two reasons for the approach: (a) Overall data on the whole spectrum of educational costs for each branch of education was generally unavailable, so that the sector assessment team was obliged to do spot studies in particular institutions in order to complete the picture, (b) The variety of types of institutions and of levels of cost that can be encountered within most branches of Haitian education is such that an "average" value, even if it could be determined, would be a poor representation of reality.

Decisions also had to be made about what level of expense to adopt for variable costs like books, uniforms, other school materials, etc. In general, costs have been calculated on the basis of expenditures incurred by a student who obtains the minimum amount of inputs that seem pedagogically necessary or are deemed socially necessary (e.g., uniforms in most types of primary and secondary schools) to make headway in school, knowing that many children have less and some succeed against the odds. Therefore, for example, though many primary school children are without books, particularly in rural areas, in the analysis that follows, charges equivalent to the cost of buying secondhand most of the materials used at the corresponding grade level (or of buying a smaller number new) have been entered. Actual expenses obviously vary around this arbitrary norm.

Given these assumptions and possible sources of error inevitably involved in the analysis, the unit costs calculated in the following pages should be regarded as approximations. They can nonetheless provide valuable insight into the financial side of Haitian education and furnish a basis for fuller analysis with more complete data in the future. The purpose of the exercise to follow is therefore fourfold: (a) to lay out the categories of cost that must be taken into account; (b) to compare the approximate costs of different varieties

of education in Haiti; (c) to check for particularly high or low values that might indicate either especially glaring inefficiencies needing correction or particularly cost-effective approaches that merit further study and/or replication; and (d) to examine the incidence of costs--who bears what portion of these educational expenses. The "incidence" question is very important for policy, because educational planning involves deciding not just how much to allocate to education but to whom it should be allocated.

All costs are based on 1984/85 prices. Where data from earlier years are used, they have been inflated by 8% per year to approximate current cost levels. Two subsectors of the educational system are not included in this analysis because of the total unavailability of the necessary cost data: management education and nonformal education.

2.8.2.1 Primary Education

The costs of primary education in 1984/85 are analyzed for each of four subsets of schools: rural public schools, rural private schools, urban public schools, and urban private schools (Table 2.54). The following expense categories were adopted for the analysis:

School Fees. Fees include tuition, enrollment fees, and any other cash contributions to operating expenses.

Books. Except as noted, parents pay for books. It is generally assumed that a partial set of secondhand books is bought for the child, or that the set is later resold, lowering its net cost. All costs are based on the traditional curriculum, in which there is no standard syllabus, so the number and kind of books recommended vary from school to school. The new Reform textbooks are generally less expensive and the first 10 sets for each school are free; but it may then be supposed that the parents of the minimally equipped child will just buy the new textbooks plus additional school materials up to the budgetary limit suggested.

Other Materials. Learning materials include such items as notebooks, pens, and pencils.

Uniforms. Uniforms are a symbol of school enrollment in Haiti and most parents make an effort to buy them for their children. They are included here for all but the poorest schools.

Food. School feeding programs now reach more than 65% of primary school children and, particularly in rural areas and impoverished urban neighborhoods, have proven to be a major support to attendance and learning. Their cost is therefore generally included.

Government Expenses. This category covers expenditures by the Ministry of Education and contributions by other branches of Government. It includes two



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important subcategories: (a) the per-student share of Government contributions to the recurrent costs of education (teacher salaries, administrative expenses, etc.), and (b) the per-student share of Government development or capital expenditures. The development budget in fact includes funds furnished by foreign donors as well as those provided by Government itself. For lack of more specific information, the share of Government support in development expenditures for primary education was estimated to be the same as the proportion of Government funding in the overall development budget.

Other Donor Expenses. Donor contributions are likewise separated into recurrent and capital expenditure categories. In some cases (e.g., PVO schools and school feeding programs), donors pay for items already listed separately in the first five lines of the budget. In these cases, "other donor expenses" include only sums not already accounted for.

These various categories of costs are totaled for each type of school and then broken down to illustrate what portions of the overall costs are currently borne by parents, by Government, and by donor organizations.

Costs increase from grade to grade. To simplify the presentation, only average costs for each type of school have been included in Table 2.54, but an example of the variation of costs by grade, drawn from Unesco data (and based on 1983 studies), is presented in Table 2.55.

In the case of public primary schools, two types of institutions are distinguished in Table 2.54: those in rural areas and those in urban areas. The situation in the private sector is more varied; accordingly, several different estimates are made. In the case of rural private schools, four cases are examined: (1) a proprietary primary school or "lay" institution--that is, one operated for profit; (2) a school sponsored by a local church benefiting from a minimum of external assistance; and (3) and (4) two types of schools supported by private voluntary organizations (PVOs). The first type (low-cost PVO) represents a "no frills" approach sponsored by a religious mission, and the second (high-cost PVO) illustrates a more amply-furnished school funded by an international donor group and corresponding more closely to the kind of school model the PVOs believe to be needed in rural areas. The first two cases represent actual schools visited during the course of the sector assessment; the latter two are composite portraits drawn from the files of the sponsoring organizations. It should be noted that few instances of the first two kinds of schools were found, for reasons discussed later. Both schools in question were located in a major village or near an urban area.

Four varieties of private urban schools are examined in the same table: a junior primary school covering the first three grades and sponsored by a

religious mission in an impoverished urban neighborhood; a proprietary school of low quality in a working class urban district; one of medium quality in the same surroundings; and a high-quality lay school in a more well-to-do section of Port-au-Prince. The first is a composite profile, while the latter three represent actual cases.

Examination of Table 2.54 yields several insights into the current cost situation in primary education:

1. Total annual costs per rural student, or private costs plus subsidies and outside support, range from under $40 to over $100. Private schools spend both the most and the least on students, $30 to $107. Public schools fall toward the upper end of the spectrum when all Government expenditures are taken into account: $100 in rural areas and $104.50 in urban areas.
2. Costs to parents range from $3 up to $36 per student-year in rural areas. Again, private sector schools are at both extremes of the spectrum; public schools in the middle.
3. The mission and PVO schools in rural areas are generally those that spend the most per child relative to the financial contribution required of parents. Much of their contribution goes to food and learning materials, whereas more than 80% of Government contribution (recurrent and capital expenditures combined) is for salaries of central headquarters and school personnel.
4. Costs in urban areas are generally higher than in rural areas and the range is greater. Once again, subsidized mission schools ("low-cost PVO") offer the least expensive and often the only alternative for parents in the poorest sections. Fees for high-quality private primary schools are multiples above costs elsewhere.

Even very poor Haitians make a considerable effort to make their children "real students." In the poorest urban mission schools, where these expenses are neither subsidized nor required, one still sees many children with uniforms and book bags.

There is some indication that, because of their scarcity relative to demand, public schools may in fact cost more than appearances suggest. In poorer sections of the urban areas, some additional and unofficial payment or special influence may be necessary to get a child admitted to a public school.

The range in costs <u>to parents</u>, from grade to grade in the different categories of schools, is illustrated in Table 2.55. The data are from a 1982 Unesco study and do not exactly match the costs in Table 2.54, which are based

Table 2.54

Primary Education Unit Costs
(In 1984 dollars)

| Expense Category | RURAL | | | | | URBAN | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Public | Private | | | | Public | Private | | | |
| | | Proprietary | Comm. Church | Low PVO | High PVO | | Low PVO | Low Private | Med. Private | High Private |
| School fees | $ 2.50 | $ 9.00 | $ 5.00 | $ 3.00 | $ 10.00 | $ 2.50 | $ 4.00 | $45.00 | $100.00 | $180.00 |
| Books | 7.50 | 10.00 | 10.00 | 8.00 | 30.00 | 10.00 | 10.00 | 10.00 | 25.00 | 30.00 |
| Other materials | 3.00 | 5.00 | 5.00 | 2.00 | 5.00 | 5.00 | 8.00 | 10.00 | 15.00 | 25.00 |
| Uniforms | 10.00 | 10.00 | 10.00 | -- | 7.00 | 10.00 | 7.00 | 7.00 | 20.00 | 30.00 |
| Food | 18.00 | 2.00 | -- | 20.00 | 30.00 | 18.00 | 13.00 | -- | -- | -- |
| Gov't expenses | | | | | | | | | | |
| Recurrent | 40.00 | -- | -- | -- | -- | 40.00 | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Capital | 4.00 | -- | -- | -- | -- | 4.00 | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Other donor expenses | | | | | | | | | | |
| Recurrent | -- | -- | -- | 3.00 | 25.00 | -- | 37.00 | -- | -- | -- |
| Capital | 15.00 | -- | -- | -- | -- | 15.00 | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Total | $100.00 | $36.00 | $30.00 | $36.00 | $107.00 | $104.50 | $79.00 | $82.00 | $160.00 | $265.00 |
| Students/parents | $23.00 | $36.00 | $30.00 | $ 3.00 | $13.00 | $27.50 | $29.00 | $82.00 | $160.00 | $265.00 |
| Percent share | 23% | 100% | 100% | 8% | 12% | 26% | 37% | 100% | 100% | 100% |
| Government | $44.00 | -- | -- | -- | -- | $44.00 | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Percent share | 44% | -- | -- | -- | -- | 42% | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Donors | $33.00 | -- | -- | $33.00 | $94.00 | $33.00 | $50.00 | -- | -- | -- |
| Percent share | 33% | -- | -- | 92% | 88% | 32% | 63% | -- | -- | -- |

TABLE 2.55

Variation in Primary School Costs From Grade to Grade
(In 1983 dollars)

| Schools | Grades 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Urban public | | | | | | |
| School fee | $2.50 | $2.50 | $2.50 | $2.50 | $2.50 | $2.50 |
| Books | 2.80 | 6.40 | 10.00 | 15.00 | 20.00 | 28.00 |
| Other materials | 3.40 | 4.40 | 5.00 | 6.00 | 8.00 | 13.00 |
| Uniform | 6.00 | 7.00 | 8.00 | 9.00 | 12.00 | 14.00 |
| Total | 14.70 | 20.30 | 25.50 | 32.50 | 42.50 | 57.50 |
| Rural public | | | | | | |
| School fee | 2.50 | 2.50 | 2.50 | 2.50 | 2.50 | 2.50 |
| Books | 1.60 | 5.00 | 10.00 | 12.00 | 13.00 | 14.00 |
| Other materials | 1.40 | 1.80 | 2.60 | 3.00 | 4.00 | 4.00 |
| Uniform | 6.00 | 6.00 | 7.00 | 8.00 | 9.00 | 10.00 |
| Total | 11.50 | 15.30 | 22.10 | 25.50 | 28.50 | 30.50 |
| Urban private | | | | | | |
| School fee | 18.00 | 19.00 | 20.00 | 22.00 | 24.00 | 26.00 |
| Books | 3.00 | 6.00 | 10.00 | 14.00 | 20.00 | 27.00 |
| Other materials | 2.40 | 3.00 | 3.60 | 5.00 | 8.00 | 13.00 |
| Uniform | 6.00 | 7.00 | 8.00 | 10.00 | 12.00 | 14.00 |
| Total | 29.40 | 35.00 | 41.60 | 51.00 | 64.00 | 80.00 |
| Rural private | | | | | | |
| School fee | 11.00 | 12.00 | 14.00 | 18.00 | 20.00 | 22.00 |
| Books | 2.80 | 6.00 | 10.00 | 12.00 | 14.00 | 18.00 |
| Other materials | 2.00 | 2.40 | 3.00 | 3.60 | 4.40 | 6.00 |
| Uniform | 6.00 | 6.00 | 7.00 | 8.00 | 9.00 | 12.00 |
| Total | $21.80 | $26.40 | $34.00 | $61.60 | $47.40 | $58.00 |

Source: Unesco

on more recent estimates made for this sector assessment. They do, however, illustrate the wide variation in costs from grade to grade. The ratio between costs in the first grade and those in the the final grade approaches 1 to 3 which helps explain the increasing likelihood of poor children dropping out at the higher grades.



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All of these costs need to be compared to annual family incomes in rural and urban areas to provide a better sense of the financial sacrifices involved. These comparisons are made in Section 2.8.4 below.

2.8.2.2 General Secondary Education

Costs for general secondary education in 1984/85 are analyzed for the same categories as for primary education with one addition: an estimation of average transportation fees. This additional information is based on questionnaires administered to students in four secondary schools. Transport costs are included because many secondary school students use public transportation ("tap-taps" and taxis) to get to school (virtually all secondary schools are located in urban areas). Lodging fees are not included, though some students from other towns or rural areas must pay at least part of their upkeep. Many live with relatives or friends, and any cash or resource payments would be difficult to quantify.

Results of the analysis are presented in Table 2.56. The costs presented are an average for all grades, 6-13, including the final year of preparation for the second baccalauréat, this preparation where it is offered. For the public secondary school case, specific costs for grades 7 and 11 are provided to give an idea of how a few of the expenditures vary between early and later years of secondary school. All grade costs are based on information obtained as part of the sector assessment.

Private secondary education is generally more expensive than public, and costs to parents or students are from 2 1/2 to 7 times higher in the private sector. Most of this is due to tuition differences and part to differences in book charges. All four private institutions listed are self-financing--that is, revenues from school fees cover all operating expenses and generally leave something for profit. The higher cost religious secondary school, with an enrollment of about 500, manages to give 10% of the students half-tuition scholarships and to transfer $6,000 a year to the mission's primary school system. A lower quality secondary school in a principal provincial town visited by the sector assessment team, but not represented in Table 2.56, is estimated to be making more than $30,000 a year above operating expenses. It should be noted that the mission/religious schools whose costs are analyzed in Table 2.56 receive investment assistance from outside institutions whereas the private schools must finance their own capital expenditures.

2.8.2.3 Vocational/Technical Education

The expense categories used for vocational/technical education are the same as for secondary education. "Other learning materials" here may include



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TABLE 2.56

Secondary Education Unit Costs

(In 1984 dollars)

| Expense Category | Public | | | Private | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | Mission | | Proprietary | |
| | Grade 7 (Sixième) | Grade 11 (Seconde) | Overall Average | Lower Cost | Higher Cost | Lower Cost | Higher Cost |
| School fees | $ 3 | $ 3 | $ 3 | $117 | $263 | $125 | $241 |
| Books | 6 | 23 | 18 | 40 | 118 | --(a) | 150 |
| Other materials | 5 | 10 | 8 | 10 | 16 | 10 | 16 |
| Uniforms | 12 | 20 | 16 | 25 | 32 | 20 | 35 |
| Food | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Transportation | 18 | 18 | 18 | 12(b) | 18 | 12(b) | 18 |
| Gov't expenses | | | | | | | |
| Recurrent | 92 | 92 | 92 | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Capital | 9 | 9 | 9 | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Other donor expenses | | | | | | | |
| Recurrent | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Capital | 34 | 34 | 34 | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Total | $179 | $209 | $198 | $225 | $447 | $167 | $460 |
| Students/parents | $ 44 | $ 74 | $ 63 | $225 | $447 | $167 | $460 |
| Percent share | 25% | 36% | 32% | 100% | 100% | 100% | 100% |
| Government | $101 | $101 | $101 | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Percent share | 56% | 48% | 51% | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Donors | $ 34 | $ 34 | $ 34 | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Percent share | 19% | 16% | 17% | -- | -- | -- | -- |

(a) In this school, all course materials are dictated or written on the blackboard.

(b) Lower-cost institutions were located in satellite cities where transport costs were less.

tools which the student is sometimes expected to buy, and "uniforms" may include items such as shop aprons. The costs for public and private vocational/technical education are presented in Table 2.57. All estimates correspond to actual schools of the type indicated. All but one of the technical schools represented are in urban areas. No data are included for agricultural training schools, some of which are located in and service rural areas.



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Table 2.57

Vocational-Technical Education Unit Costs
(In 1984 dollars)

| Expense Category | Public | | | Private (all second-degree) | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | First-Degree Technical | Second-Degree Public | Technical Semi-Public | PVO Technical School | Proprietary Technical School | Proprietary Business School |
| School fees | $ 10 | $ 30 | $370 | $100 | $147 | $255 |
| Books | -- | -- | -- | 7 | -- | 50 |
| Other materials | 2 | 5 | 10 | -- | 5 | 25 |
| Uniforms | -- | 3 | 40 | 80 | 20 | -- |
| Food | -- | -- | -- | 221 | -- | -- |
| Transportation | 5 | 18 | 18 | -- | 18 | 18 |
| Gov't expenses | | | | | | |
| Recurrent | 504 | 1,008 | 553 | -- | -- | -- |
| Capital | 50 | 99 | 99 | -- | -- | -- |
| Other donor expenses | | | | | | |
| Recurrent | -- | -- | 276 | 843 | -- | -- |
| Capital | 198 | 396 | 396 | 100 | -- | -- |
| Total | $769 | $1,559 | $1,762 | $1,351 | $190 | $348 |
| Students/parents | $ 17 | $ 56 | $438 | $ 100 | $190 | $348 |
| Percent share | 2% | 4% | 25% | 7% | 100% | 100% |
| Government | $554 | $1,197 | $652 | -- | -- | -- |
| Percent share | 72% | 77% | 37% | -- | -- | -- |
| Donors | $198 | $ 396 | $672 | $1,251 | -- | -- |
| Percent share | 26% | 19% | 38% | 93% | -- | -- |

The public technical schools all train students in craft and industrial skills. The first-degree school accepts primary school graduates for a 4-year course of studies. The second-degree schools accept students who have completed 10th grade in a general secondary school. One of these is a purely public school, and the second is a semipublic institution established by a bilateral donor but presently supported in part by Government funds.

The private schools include a mission technical school, a private technical school, and a private "business" school teaching secretarial skills and accounting. All are the approximate equivalents of a second-degree public school in that they require entering students to have completed some amount of secondary education (9th grade in the mission school, 10th grade in the private technical school, and 11th grade in the secretarial/accounting school). In these private second-degree schools, as in the public ones, the costs of prior secondary-level general education are not taken into account here, but should be included when comparing the overall costs of second-degree technical training to those of general secondary education.

Costs are higher at the second degree than at the first degree and distinctly higher in second-degree technical schools than in business/secretarial schools, in large part due to the expense of carpentry, plumbing, and electrical workshops. By comparison, the non-salary expenses for operating business schools consist mostly of paper goods. The amortized capital costs included for public technical schools are a very rough estimate derived from a pro rata apportionment of the Ministry of Education development budget rather than explicit depreciation for each school's capital plant. They are accurate only within an order of magnitude, but their inclusion makes the unit cost estimates for vocational and technical education more valid than they otherwise would be. It is assumed that proprietary institutes cover amortization in their fees.

The technical schools are generally affordable for their students because they cover only a fraction of their operating costs with school fees, each receiving large subsidies from outside support organizations. The mission school is a boarding school and provides these other services to its students. Because it receives no outside subsidies, the private secretarial/business school is considerably more expensive for students than all other institutions analyzed except the "semipublic" technical school. Business courses, however, last a maximum of 2 years, in contrast to 3 or 4 years in the technical schools.

2.8.2.4 Teacher Training

Teacher training takes place at two levels. Primary school teachers are trained in normal schools (écoles normales primaires), which recruit students

who have successfully completed 10th grade and give them a 3-year course of pedagogical studies. Secondary school teachers are trained at the Teacher Training College (Ecole Normale Supérieure or ENS), which accepts students who have passed both baccalauréat examinations. Most ENS students take a 3-year course which prepares them to be secondary school teachers. A few study a fourth year, write a "thesis", and receive a licence degree qualifying them for further university training abroad. There are also four private primary teacher training schools, but no information has been obtained on their costs.

The costs for both varieties of public schools are presented in Table 2.58. Nearly all students in public teacher training institutes receive a stipend from Government which more than covers their direct costs. Paradoxically, students in the écoles normales primaires receive a stipend that is half again as large as the stipend received by students in the Ecole Normale Supérieure--apparently because the funds for the primary teacher training schools were supplied until recently by UNICEF, which set the relatively high rates. As a result, total costs per student-year are higher at the lower level institutions than they are at the upper level. Because of the stipend, there are no private costs at either institution. In fact, if only the costs identified in Table 2.58 are taken into account, students realize a profit on their training, though less than the earnings they forego.

2.8.2.5 Higher Education

More reliable information is available on the costs of private higher education institutions than on those of the State University of Haiti. The confounding factor in the case of the state university is that each college within it has a partly autonomous budget and may receive subsidies or stipends from different Government ministries or from foreign donors. The Rector's office has no record of these subsidies. Nevertheless, an attempt is made here to identify known costs for university students, distinguishing students of the medical school from those of the other colleges since the medical students have higher fees.

Costs are analyzed for two private institutions of higher education. Both are college-level institutions offering a variety of courses of study, one located in a provincial city and the other in the capital. One receives a subsidy from the Ministry of Education. All data are presented in Table 2.59.

Total costs per student-year and costs to students are higher in the private sector, where students pay for a larger portion of the overall operating expenses of the institution despite outside donor support. If data were obtained on subsidies being received by the individual colleges of the University of

TABLE 2.58

Unit Costs for Teacher Training

(In 1984 dollars)

| Expense Category | Public Normal School | Public Teacher Training College |
|---|---|---|
| School fees | $ 12 | 0 |
| Books | 40 | $ 50 |
| Other learning materials | 20 | 20 |
| Uniforms | 20 | 0 |
| Food | -- | -- |
| Transportation | 12 | 18 |
| Government expenses | | |
| Recurrent | 348(a) | 400 |
| Capital | 47 | 47 |
| Supplemental Government subsidy | 204 | 92 |
| Other donor expenses | | |
| Recurrent | -- | -- |
| Capital | 186 | 186 |
| Total | $889 | $813 |
| Gross cost to students | $104 | $ 88 |
| Less total subsidy | 308(b) | 180 |
| Net cost to students | 0 | 0 |
| (Net subsidy) | (204) | (92) |
| Percent share | 0% | 0% |
| Cost to Government | $703 | $627 |
| Percent share | 79% | 77% |
| Cost to donors | $186 | $186 |
| Percent share | 21% | 23% |

(a) In calculating Government overhead, it is assumed that one-half of the budgetary allotment for normal schools is, in fact, devoted to inservice teacher training programs ($297,892).

(b) Current level of subsidy to students in 5 of the 10 accredited normal schools. In the other five (including the Normal School of Gonaive - see Chapter 8), subsidies were provided until this year by donors, often at a higher rate than the $35/month indicated here.



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TABLE 2.59

Unit Costs for Higher Education

(In 1984 dollars)

| Expense Category | University of Haiti | | Private Universities | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Medical School | Others (Average) | Roi Henri Christophe | Centre Univ. d'Haiti |
| School fees | $200 | $ 20 | $540 | $625 |
| Books | 100 | 50 | 20 | 40 |
| Other materials | 50 | 50 | 20 | 20 |
| Uniforms | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Food | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Transportation | 18 | 18 | 12 | 18 |
| Government expenses | | | | |
| Recurrent | 400 | 400 | 377 | -- |
| Capital | 30 | 30 | -- | -- |
| Other donor expenses | | | | |
| Recurrent | 50 | 50 | 220 | 305(a) |
| Capital | 121 | 121 | -- | -- |
| Total | $969 | $739 | $1,189 | $1,008 |
| Cost to students | $368 | $138 | $592 | $703 |
| Percent | 38% | 19% | 50% | 70% |
| Cost to Government | $430 | $430 | $377 | -- |
| Percent | 44% | 58% | 32% | -- |
| Cost to donors | $171 | $171 | $220 | $305 |
| Percent | 18% | 23% | 18% | 30% |

(a) It is assumed that donor support will make up deficit in budget for 1984/85.

Haiti, this would raise the figure for total costs in the public sector but lower the proportion borne by students.

### 2.8.3 Cycle Cost Analysis

Costs per student per year like those calculated in the preceding pages do not, by themselves, provide a very adequate indicator of internal efficiency, since the amount effectively learned in a year may be highly variable. In some



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programs, students may be getting relatively little from the funds expended by themselves, by Government, or by donors on their education, whereas in others the "instructional yield" of training may be much higher. As mentioned earlier, for lack of reliable information about learning outcomes, it is not possible to calculate the ratio of greatest interest to the planner: overall cost per unit of learning outcomes. A first approximate step may be made in this direction, however, by taking account of the number of student years of effort and expense presently required per graduate in each of the major cycles of education.

To determine costs per graduate requires an estimate of student flows in the different branches of the educational system--that is, rates of promotion, dropout, and retention, and their cumulative effect on cohorts of students as they move through the system. This information is also another partial indicator of internal efficiency, over and beyond its use in calculating per-graduate costs. Analysis of differential flows for different subgroups of the school population (e.g., boys vs. girls, rural vs. urban students, private vs. public school students) can provide a much finer appreciation of access and equity issues than simple enrollment data.

The data needed for such a precise and differentiated study of student flow are not currently available in Haiti. Some useful projections and approximations can be made, however, providing one has a reasonably accurate cross-sectional indication of promotion, repetition, and dropout rates at each level of the educational system, both for first-year students and for repeaters. Available data on these characteristics of the various branches of the Haitian educational system allow us to make a rough estimate of student flows.

### 2.8.3.1 Student Flows

An aggregate flow model was constructed for each main sector of the formal educational system except higher education, where data were too scarce to permit such estimations. These separate models were assembled to give an overall picture of the education of an initial cohort of 1,000 students entering primary school.

#### Primary School Model.

The data on promotion, retention, and dropout rates in primary school are presented in Table 2.50. They are drawn from a 1984 Unesco study, based on data from the 1981/82 school year. Some information for the establishment of the flow model has been estimated. Given that an appreciable number of students repeat each grade, it is important to determine promotion, retention, and dropout rates among repeaters. In fact, the majority of primary school graduates have repeated at least one year. In other words, more children from a



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given cohort complete primary school in 7 or more years than in 6. Just how many are in these subsequent "waves" depends on the promotion rates among those who have fallen behind the official pace.

TABLE 2.60

Promotion, Retention, and Dropout Rates in Haitian Primary Education 1981/82 School Year (Percent)

| Activity | Grade | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| Retention | 25.5 | 18.0 | 19.9 | 18.2 | 12.4 | 3.4 |
| Promotion | 41.3 | 69.9 | 72.5 | 72.5 | 73.7 | 96.6 |
| Dropout | 33.2 | 12.1 | 7.6 | 9.3 | 13.9 | 0 |

Source: Unesco, op. cit., p. 20.

No reliable statistics were available on this topic. However, interviews with supervisors of public and private systems of primary education consistently suggested that, up to a limit of 5 years of accumulated "arrears" (four retentions), promotion rates among repeaters are about the same as they are among students in a grade for the first time. The "practice effect" of going through the same grade more than one time is approximately balanced by the lower average aptitude level that characterize repeaters as a group. For purposes of estimation, it is assumed that promotion and retention rates among repeaters are approximately the same for any given grade as they are among the initial group, and that a student may repeat as many as four times in the course of primary studies. Beyond this point, according to our informants, the combined effects of discouragement, financial pressures, and the overage status of the student eliminate the stragglers. In fact, iteration in the model shows that with the given promotion and dropout rates, virtually no one from the initial cohort is left at any grade level 4 to 5 years after the first group passed through.

Results of these data and assumptions are displayed in Table 2.61. Of 1,000 children originally enrolled in the first grade, 313 complete all 6 grades, though only 108 do so without repeating a grade. The average graduate takes 7.1 years to complete primary school. There are 687 dropouts, of whom 447 complete only one grade at most, 131 complete 2 or 3 grades, and 109 complete 4 or 5 grades. Approximately 12 student-years of instruction are required for each primary school graduate. It should be noted that before

Table 2.61

Primary School Flow Model Based on an Entering Cohort of 1,000 Students (A)

| | Grade 1 | | | | Grade 2 | | | | Grade 3 | | | | Grade 4 | | | | Grade 5 | | | | Grade 6 | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | IN | RT | DO | PM | IN | RT | DO | PM | IN | RT | DO | PM | IN | RT | DO | PM | IN | RT | DO | PM | IN | RT | DO | PM |
| Yr 1 | 1000 | 260 | 330 | 410 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Yr 2 | 260 | 68 | 86 | 107 | 410 | 74 | 49 | 287 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Yr 3 | 68 | 18 | 22 | 28 | 180 | 32 | 22 | 126 | 287 | 57 | 23 | 207 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Yr 4 | 18 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 60 | 11 | 7 | 42 | 184 | 37 | 15 | 132 | 207 | 37 | 19 | 151 | | | | | | | | |
| Yr 5 | 5 | 0 | 3 | 2 | 18 | 3 | 2 | 13 | 79 | 16 | 6 | 57 | 167 | 31 | 15 | 124 | 151 | 18 | 21 | 112 | | | | |
| Yr 6 | | | | | 5 | 0 | 2 | 4 | 28 | 6 | 2 | 20 | 87 | 16 | 8 | 64 | 142 | 17 | 20 | 105 | 112 | 3 | 0 | 108 |
| Yr 7 | | | | | | | | | 9 | 0 | 3 | 7 | 36 | 7 | 3 | 26 | 81 | 10 | 11 | 60 | 108 | 3 | 0 | 105 |
| Yr 8 | | | | | | | | | | | | | 13 | 0 | 3 | 10 | 36 | 4 | 5 | 27 | 63 | 2 | 0 | 61 |
| Yr 9 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 14 | 0 | 4 | 10 | 29 | 1 | 0 | 28 |
| Yr 10 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 11 | 0 | 0 | 11 |
| TOTAL | 1351 | | 437 | 554 | 673 | | 82 | 472 | 587 | | 49 | 423 | 510 | | 48 | 375 | 424 | | 61 | 314 | 323 | | 0 | 313 |

Student years = 3,867
Student Years per Graduate = 12.4
Dropouts = 687

(A) IN=Entrants; RT-Retained; DO=Dropouts; PM=Promoted



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nationwide primary certificate examinations were discontinued in 1980, the proportion of graduates within each cohort was probably significantly smaller and the figure for student-years per graduate was correspondingly higher.

Information gathered during the sector assessment team's surveys in primary schools, plus calculations based on enrollment figures and inter-system transfer estimates, suggest the following conclusions:

- The number of student-years per graduate is higher in rural schools than in urban schools. Fourteen student-years per graduate in the former and 11 in the latter is a reasonable estimate.
- There is less difference in average rates between public and private schools. One reason is that the private sector is very diverse, containing both the best and the worst schools in the country.
- Since the better private schools are located almost exclusively in towns and cities, this overall equality does not hold when rural and urban areas are compared. Rural private schools are less efficient than their public counterparts, while the situation is reversed in urban areas. Even here there are important differences. Some PVO-supported schools are among the best in rural areas, whereas in poor urban neighborhoods, public schools generally offer better quality instruction than the numerous private institutions.

The following estimations of instruction years per graduate are based on analyses of the ratio of 6th grade to first grade students in the various branches of the primary school system.

| | Urban | Rural | Overall |
|---|---|---|---|
| Public | 12 | 13 | 12.5 |
| Private | 10 | 15 | 12.5 |
| Overall | 11 | 14 | 12.5 |

Secondary School Flow Model.

Promotion, retention, and dropout rates in secondary schools were provided by the Ministry of Education (Table 2.62). It is assumed that the same rates apply to those retained up to an accumulated total of four repeats. The resulting flow model is presented in Table 2.63.

Out of 1,000 students entering the first year of secondary school (sixième), 697 complete the 4th year (troisième). Only 330 receive the first part of their baccalauréat degree (rhétorique or rhéto) and 229 complete the full baccalauréat (philosophie or philo). Seventy-seven percent (771/1000) of the original cohort terminate their secondary school studies along the way. The average graduate has repeated a grade at least once during the 7 years of the program, and approximately 1/4 have repeated at least twice.



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TABLE 2.62

Promotion, Retention, and Dropout Rates in Haitian Secondary Education, 1982/83 School Year (Percent)

| | Grade Level | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 7th (6e) | 8th (5e) | 9th (4e) | 10th (3e) | 11th (2e) | 12th (Rheto) | 13th (Philo) |
| Retention | 10 | 9 | 10 | 10 | 13 | 23 | 0 |
| Promotion | 81 | 84 | 85 | 80 | 84 | 38 | 66 |
| Dropout | 9 | 7 | 5 | 10 | 3 | 39 | 34 |

Table 2.63

Secondary-school Flow Model Based on an Entering Cohort of 1,000 Students[a]

| Year | Grade 6e | | | | Grade 5e | | | | Grade 4e | | | | Grade 3e | | | | Grade 2e | | | | Rheto | | | | Philo | | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | IN | RT | DO | PM | IN | RT | DO | PM | IN | RT | DO | PM | IN | RT | DO | PM | IN | RT | DO | PM | IN | RT | DO | PM | IN | RT | DO | PM | |
| 1 | 1,000 | 100 | 90 | 810 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2 | 100 | 10 | 9 | 81 | 810 | 73 | 57 | 680 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3 | 10 | 1 | 1 | 8 | 154 | 14 | 11 | 129 | 680 | 68 | 34 | 578 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 22 | 2 | 2 | 18 | 197 | 20 | 10 | 168 | 578 | 58 | 58 | 463 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 38 | 4 | 2 | 32 | 225 | 23 | 23 | 180 | 463 | 60 | 14 | 389 | | | | | | | | | |
| 6 | | | | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 6 | 1 | 0 | 5 | 55 | 6 | 6 | 44 | 241 | 31 | 7 | 202 | 389 | 89 | 152 | 148 | | | | | |
| 7 | | | | | | | | | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1. | 1 | 1 | 9 | 75 | 10 | 2 | 63 | 291 | 67 | 114 | 111 | 148 | 7 | 43 | 97 | |
| 8 | | | | | | | | | | | | | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 18 | 2 | 1 | 15 | 130 | 30 | 51 | 50 | 118 | 6 | 34 | 78 | |
| 9 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 4 | 0 | 1 | 3 | 45 | 10 | 18 | 17 | 55 | 3 | 16 | 57 | |
| 10 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 14 | 0 | 9 | 5 | 20 | 1 | 6 | 13 | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 6 | 0 | 2 | 4 | |
| Student Years | 1,111 | | | | 989 | | | | 923 | | | | 871 | | | | 801 | | | | 869 | | | | 347 | | | | 5,912 |
| Student Years/Graduate | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 25.8 |
| Total who pass to next grade | | 900--> | | | | 831--> | | | | | | 784--> | | | | | | 697--> | | | | 673--> | | | | 330--> | | | 229 |
| Dropouts | | | 100 | | | | 69 | | | | 46 | | | | 88 | | | | 25 | | | | 343 | | | | 101 | | 771 |

[a] IN=entrants; RT=retained; DO=dropouts; PM=promoted.



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It takes nearly 26 student-years to produce one full high school graduate and 17 student-years to produce a recipient of the rhéto degree. These figures are a little misleading, however, because not all of the intermediate investment is lost. In some cases students who have completed the 4th year (troisiéme) or the fifth year (deuxiéme), for example, continue into teacher training or vocational/technical training. Some also find employment.

If secondary schooling is divided into lower (1st to 4th years) and upper (5th to 7th years) segments, the cumulative dropout rate is 30% in the lower division, but 67% in the upper division. The higher dropout rate in the upper division is principally due to the low pass rate on the first and second baccalauréat examinations: 38% and 66% respectively in 1983. It requires 5.6 student-years to produce a graduate of the 4-year lower cycle, and 8.8 years for the 3-year cycle. (These two figures do not add up to the 26 student-years required to "produce" a full secondary school graduate, because the denominator in the two ratios is not the same. In effect, by dividing secondary school into two cycles, student-years of investment are distributed over a much larger base.)

This distinction between the lower and upper secondary cycle will be maintained in succeeding analyses because the data suggest a clear distinction between the two parts of the secondary cycle and because such an analysis is consistent with the Education Reform. Under the Reform, the first 4 years of present secondary schools will be transformed into the third cycle of basic education, and secondary education will be a 3-year course starting at the level of the current 11th grade (seconde).

Vocational and Technical Education.

Interviews with school directors indicate a cumulative 75% dropout rate in the course of first-degree technical schools with little or no retention. Most dropouts occur between the first and second years. This suggests a reduction from an original cohort of 1,000 to 400 in the second year, 300 in the third year, and 250 ultimate graduates. In this model, 7.8 student-years are required to produce a 4-year graduate. However, the evidence suggests that some of those who leave vocational/technical education after the first do so in order to re-enter the academic stream, so the student-years per graduate ratio is probably somewhat over-stated.

At the level of public and semipublic second-degree centers, there is an average progression rate of 1,000 students in the first year, 670 in the second, 600 in the third, and 550 graduates. The cumulative dropout rate in this case is 45%; 6.5 student-years are required to produce a full 4-year graduate. Data

on private second-degree centers and business education centers are insufficient for any estimation of student flows.

Teacher Training.

Limited available information suggests a cumulative dropout rate of 65% for both of the public teacher training schools and for the national Teacher Training College (Ecole Normale Supérieure) between first year enrollment and the diploma granted at the end of the third year. Assuming little retention, and a dropout rate highest in the early years, one can estimate that between 6 and 7 student-years are required to produce a 3-year graduate.

Higher Education.

Among Haitian institutions of higher education, only the University of Haiti has been in existence long enough to have had a graduating class. Information on rates of promotion, retention, graduation, and dropout at the University is virtually non-existent. Although it is not possible to formulate a precise flow model, student-years per graduate can be estimated by the following procedure:

1. Note the number of graduates in a given year (e.g., 1983).
2. Total the number of students who were enrolled in each of the preceding years in each of the classes leading up to graduation (number of last-year students in 1983 + number of next-to-last-year students in 1982 + etc.).
3. Divide the total number of student-years calculated in this manner by the number of graduates in the reference year (1983).

This operation was performed separately for the School of Medicine and other selected divisions of the University in Table 2.64, yielding an estimate of 7.5 student-years for each medical graduate and an aggregate of 14.3 for the other four divisions.

2.8.3.2 Overall Student Flow Model for the Haitian Educational System

By combining the separate flow models for the different branches of the education system, an estimate of the progress of a cohort of 1,000 children entering primary school can be obtained. To combine the models requires information on the proportion of graduates of each cycle who continue on to each subsequent cycle. Data presented elsewhere in the sector assessment justify the following estimates of these continuation rates:

Primary to lower secondary: 67%

Primary to first degree vocational/technical: 6%

Lower secondary to upper secondary: 89%

Table 2.64

Estimation of Student-Years per Graduate in the University of Haiti (1983 Graduates)

| School | Years in Cycle | Estimated Size of Cohort (a) 1977-78 | 1978-79 | 1979-80 | 1980-81 | 1981-82 | 1982-83 | Total Student Years | Number 1983 Grads. | Student Years Per Grad. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Medicine (b) | 6 | 141 | 123 | 101 | 100 | 96 | 93 | 654 | 87 | 7.5 |
| Other Schools | | | | | | | | | | |
| Law/Economics | 4 | - | - | 311 | 156 | 118 | 174 (c) | 759 | 19 | 39.9 |
| Ethnology | 4 | - | - | 165 | 44 | 38 | 38 | 285 | 4 (d) | 71.2 |
| Agronomy | 4 | - | - | 60 | 59 | 41 | 43 | 203 | 43 | 4.7 |
| Nat. Sciences | 5 | - | 122 | 122 | 69 | 56 | 49 | 418 | 68 | 6.1 |
| Human Sciences | 4 | - | - | 95 | 71 | 52 | 33 | 251 | 0 (e) | N/A |
| Total Other Schools | - | - | 122 | 753 | 399 | 305 | 337 | 1,916 | 134 | 14.3 |

(a) Number of students of the cohort beginning studies in the first year listed who ever completed each of the other years of the cycle is assumed to be approximated by the number actually enrolled in (or graduating from) each of the subsequent levels in each of the subsequent years.
(b) Excludes pharmacy and medical technology sections.
(c) Increase in the fourth year apparently due to repeaters from previous cohorts. This is assumed to compensate repeaters from the current cohort who are not accounted for in this 4-year analysis.
(d) This low number is apparently not an aberration. There were 13 diplomates of ethnology in 1980 and none in 1982-84.
(e) Idem. There were no diplomates of Human Sciences in either 1982 or 1984 as well.

Source: DEN, Annuaires Statistiques, 1978-1983.

Lower secondary to second degree vocational/technical: 8%

Lower secondary to teacher training: 1.5%

Baccalaureate degree to Haitian higher education: 60%

(Including 5% in the Teacher Training College. In addition, possibly 25-30% of full high school graduates eventually enroll in a foreign institution of higher education, but there are no data to substantiate this rate.)

These inter-cycle promotion rates have been used to generate the overall student flow model in Figure 2.2 (Model I), which represents by bar graphs the number of students completing each level. Projection of the bar graphs to the scale at the bottom of the figure indicates the approximate final qualifications composition of the entire cohort once all members (except the few enrolled in institutions of higher learning) have completed their education.

Figure 2.3 (Model II), displays a similar analysis for a cohort of 1,000 same-age children from the population at large rather than 1,000 children entering primary school. This procedure reflects the fact that only about 60% of Haitian children ever enroll in primary school at the present time. The numbers at each level of education are therefore compared with the population at large rather than with first grade enrollees. Although Model I provides a clearer picture of school attrition rates and the internal efficiency of the educational system, Model II better represents the status of human resources development.

Several things must be kept in mind when interpreting this table. First, it is based on cross-sectional data and therefore does not depict the fate of any particular cohort; rather, it gives a general and composite indication of the current operations of the educational system. Next, given that data is only approximate, the figures are primarily significant as orders of magnitude (e.g., to the nearest hundred). Finally, the model groups together all people who eventually reach each given grade level and therefore does not portray the number of years students spend in getting to each level (for that information, one must consult the more detailed models presented previously). If understood within these limits, however, the flow model presents useful information in a helpfully synthetic fashion.

2.8.3.3 Unit Cost Summary

Data for the costs of different types and levels of education are summarized in Table 2.65. Since average costs per level of education are difficult to derive and interpret, the main varieties of education at each level are included to show the range of costs. Some are single-school



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Figure 2.2

General Flow Model of the Haitian School System

Model: Cohort of 1000 First-Grade Entrants

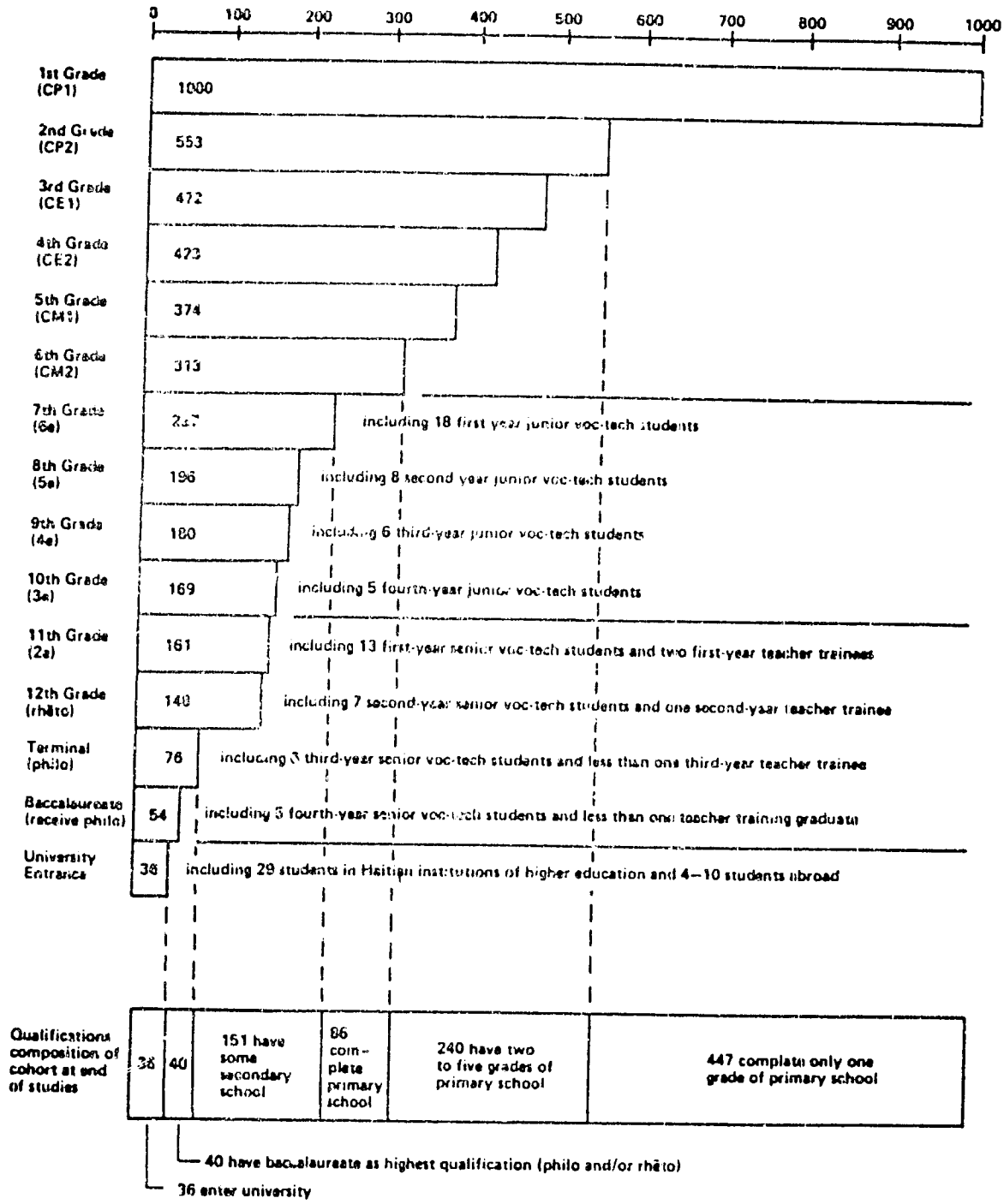




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Figure 2.3

General Flow Model of the Haitian School System

Model II: Cohort of 1000 Same-age Children

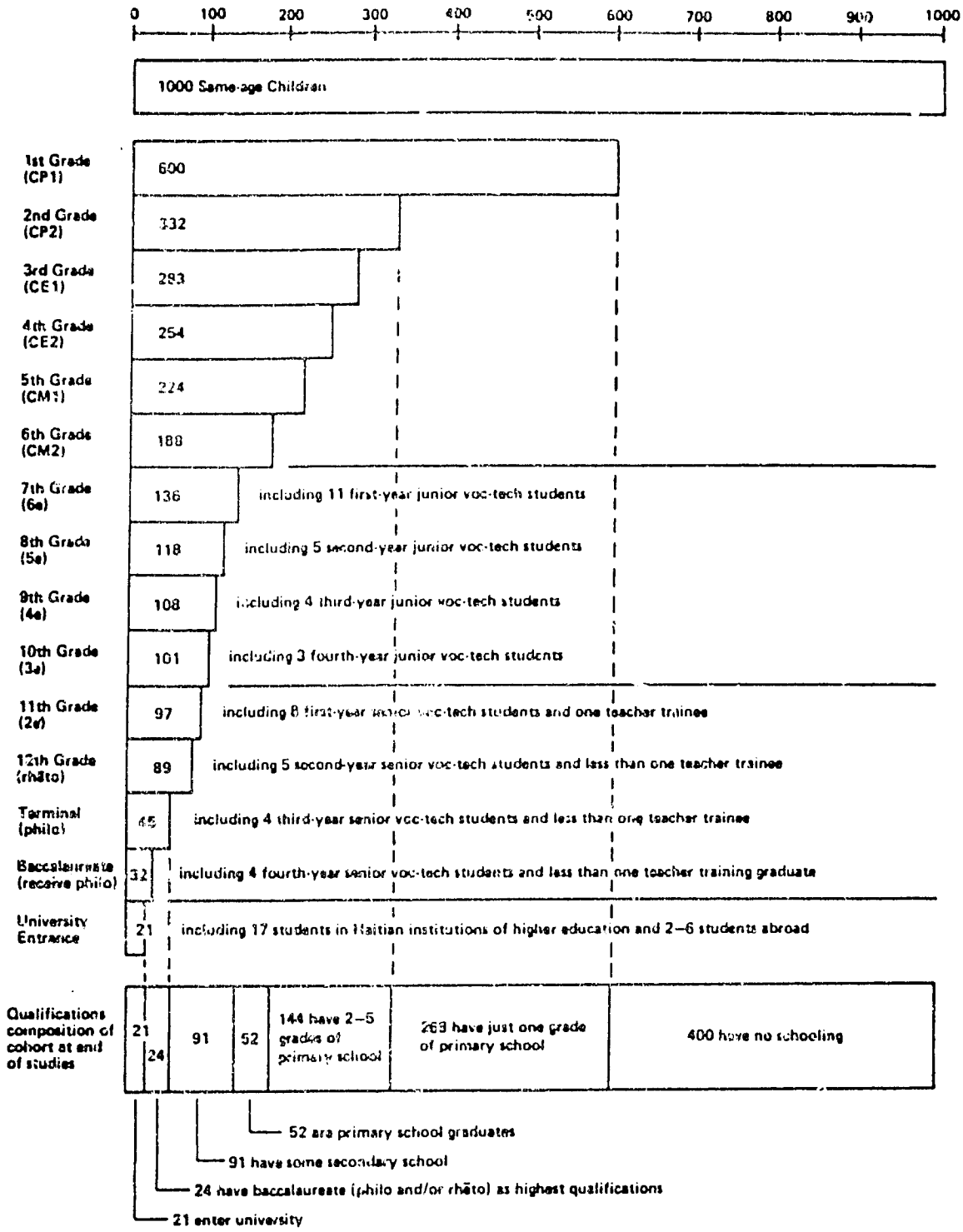




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Table 2.65

Unit Cost Summary
(In 1984 dollars)

| Cycle | Type of School | Cost to Students/ Parents | Cost to Government | Cost to Donors | Total Unit Cost | Ratio to Average Public Primary Unit Cost |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Primary | Public (urban & rural) | $ 26 | $ 44 | $ 33 | $ 103 | 1.00 |
| | Rural Proprietary | 36 | 0 | 0 | 36 | 0.35 |
| | Rural PVO | 13 | 0 | 94 | 107 | 1.04 |
| | Urban Private, low quality | 82 | 0 | 0 | 82 | 0.80 |
| | Urban Private, med. quality | 160 | 0 | 0 | 160 | 1.55 |
| | Urban Private, high quality | 265 | 0 | 0 | 265 | 2.57 |
| Secondary | Public (lycee) | 63 | 101 | 34 | 198 | 1.92 |
| | Private, lower quality | 167 | 0 | 0 | 167 | 1.62 |
| | Private, higher quality | 460 | 0 | 0 | 460 | 4.47 |
| Vocational/ Technical | First degree, public | 17 | 554 | 198 | 769 | 7.47 |
| | Second degree, semipublic | 438 | 652 | 672 | 1,762 | 17.11 |
| | PVO second degree, technical | 100 | 0 | 1,251 | 1,351 | 13.12 |
| | Proprietary business school | 348 | 0 | 0 | 348 | 3.38 |
| Teacher Training | Normal School | 0 | 703 | 186 | 889 | 8.63 |
| | Teacher Training College | 0 | 627 | 186 | 813 | 7.89 |
| Higher | Univ. of Haiti Medical School | 368 | 430 | 171 | 969 | 9.41 |
| | Other schools, Univ. of Haiti | 138 | 430 | 171 | 739 | 7.17 |
| | Private University | 592 | 372 | 220 | 1,189 | 11.57 |

examples; the others are averages for several schools of the type listed. The data in Table 2.65 support the following observations:

- The ratio of overall unit costs of public secondary and tertiary education to those of public primary education is on a par with ratios for the Latin American region and well below those typical of Africa (Table 2.66). Relative to other countries, therefore, investment in the upper levels of the educational system does not seem to be disproportionate.
- The variation in costs within levels of education is almost as great as among them, particularly when private costs are considered. The ratio of private costs between the most expensive and the least expensive forms of primary education is more than 20:1, whereas the ratio of average private costs in higher education to average private costs at the primary level is only about 4:1 or 5:1.
- Parents bear the heaviest cost burden for secondary education, whereas Government assumes the largest share in higher education and outside donors intervene in significant proportions in primary and vocational/technical education. These topics will be considered further in Section 2.8.4.
- At most levels, private schools offer both the least and the most expensive forms of education, though not necessarily the forms that are least expensive for parents and students. Quality is roughly proportional to cost, so families of low or moderate incomes have difficulty paying for good private instruction.

TABLE 2.66

Unit Cost Ratios in Haiti and Major Developing Areas

| Area | Number of Country Observations | Year | Secondary: Primary | Tertiary: Primary |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Haiti (public) | 1 | 1984 | 1.9 | 8 |
| Latin America | 10 | 1978 | 1.5 | 8.5 |
| Africa | 15 | 1978 | 4.7 | 37.8 |
| Asia | 11 | 1978 | 1.5 | 6 |

Source: Unesco, Education and Indigenous Development in Africa: Trends, Problems, Prospects, 1982; sector assessment team calculations.

2.8.3.4 Cycle Cost Comparisons

By combining the cost data with the information on student flows and student-years per graduate, indices of costs per graduate or "cycle costs" can be estimated for each educational level. These indices further indicate the relative internal efficiency of the different forms and levels of schooling. At least two approaches to the calculation can be used, each having certain disadvantages.

- Multiplying annual unit costs by student-years per graduate for a given cycle of education gives an estimate of "cycle costs." This figure somewhat overestimates the total costs incurred per graduate, insofar as it takes no account of the value of the education acquired by students who do not complete the cycle.
- Multiplying annual unit costs by the number of years it takes an average student who does graduate to complete the cycle provides another estimate of the magnitudes involved. These "graduate costs" understate total expenses, however, because they disregard the funds spent on dropouts.

The following information therefore includes the high as well as the low estimates--cycle costs (unit costs time student-years per graduate) and average graduate costs (unit costs times the number of years it takes the typical graduate to complete the cycle in question). The best estimate of true unit expenses for each cycle of education lies somewhere between these high and low estimates.

A second caution is also in order. Indices like student-years per graduate vary considerably from one type of school to another within each branch of the Haitian educational system, and cycle costs will therefore also vary. However, with the exception of primary education, we do not have the data necessary to capture these variations. The figures presented are therefore averages for very disparate types of schools.

Information on cycle costs and average graduate costs is summarized in Table 2.67. Three versions of costs are given for general secondary education: for the junior cycle (years 7-10), for the senior cycle (years 11-13), and for the entire 7-year course. Costs are not compounded at this stage in the analysis. To determine the overall secondary cycle costs for normal school or senior vocational/technical school graduates, the costs of junior secondary school should be added to those of the vocational cycle, since trainees must complete years 7-10 of a general secondary school before entering vocational training. Figures in parentheses have been estimated by interpolation or

TABLE 2.67

Cycle Cost Comparisons

| CYCLE | | TYPE OF SCHOOL | UNIT COSTS (PER STUDENT YEAR) | NUMBER OF YEARS IN COMPLETE CYCLE | AVERAGE NUMBER OF YEARS TO GRADUATE | AVERAGE GRADUATE COSTS \a/ | STUDENT-YEARS PER GRADUATE | TOTAL CYCLE COSTS \a/ | RATIO TO AVERAGE PUBLIC PRIMARY CYCLE COSTS | RELATIVE ATTRITION INDEX |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Primary | | Public (urban and rural) | $103 | 6 | 7.3 | 731 | 12.5 | $1,287 | 1.00 | 0.48 |
| | | Rural Proprietary | $36 | 6 | (8.0) | (288) | (15.0) | $540 | (0.42) | (0.38) |
| | | Rural IVO | $187 | 6 | (6.5) | (696) | (11.0) | $1,284 | (1.00) | (0.50) |
| | | Urban Private Low Quality | $92 | 6 | (7.6) | (623) | (14.0) | ($1,140) | (0.89) | (0.43) |
| | | Urban Private Med Quality | $160 | 6 | (6.9) | (1,104) | (12.0) | ($1,920) | (1.49) | (0.50) |
| | | Urban Private High Quality | $265 | 6 | (6.2) | (1,643) | (8.0) | ($2,385) | (1.85) | (0.67) |
| General Secondary Education | 4 Lower Grades | Public | ($185) | 4 | | 814 | | ($1,036) | 0.80 | |
| | | Private-Lower Quality | ($150) | 4 | 4.4 | 660 | (5.6) | ($840) | 0.65 | 0.71 |
| | | Private-Higher Quality | ($400) | 4 | | 1,760 | | ($2,240) | 1.74 | |
| | 3 Upper Grades | Public | ($205) | 3 | | 800 | | ($1,804) | 1.40 | |
| | | Private-Lower Quality | ($180) | 3 | 3.9 | 702 | 8.8 | ($1,584) | 1.23 | 0.34 |
| | | Private-Higher Quality | ($500) | 3 | | 1,950 | | ($4,400) | 3.41 | |
| | Overall | Public | $198 | 7 | | 1,643 | | ($5,148) | 4.00 | |
| | | Private-Lower Quality | $167 | 7 | 8.3 | 1,386 | 2.6 | ($4,342) | 3.37 | 0.27 |
| | | Private-Higher Quality | $460 | 7 | | 3,818 | | ($11,960) | 9.29 | |
| Vocational Technical School | | First Degree Public | $769 | 4 | 4.0 | 3,076 | 7.8 | $5,998 | 4.66 | 0.51 |
| | | Second Degree Semi-Public | $1,762 | 3 | 3.0 | 5,286 | 4.0 | $7,048 | 5.48 | 0.75 |
| | | PVD Second Degree Technical | $1,351 | 3 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| | | Proprietary Business School | $348 | 2 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| Teacher Training | | Normal School | $889 | 3 | 3.0 | 2,667 | (6.5) | ($5,778) | 4.49 | (0.46) |
| | | Teacher Training College | $813 | 3 | 3.0 | 2,439 | (6.5) | ($5,284) | 4.11 | (0.46) |
| Higher Education | | Univ. of Haiti Masters School | $969 | 6 | NA | NA | (7.5) | ($7,268) | 5.65 | (0.80) |
| | | Univ. of Haiti Other Schools | $739 | 4 | NA | NA | 14.3 | ($568) | 8.21 | (0.28) |
| | | Private University | $1,189 | 4 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA |

Notes
NA = Not Available
Parentheses indicate estimates by interpolation or extrapolation
\a/ - Costs in this table are in constant dollars and are not compounded.



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extrapolation from available data, or are the product of multiplication by such estimates.

The final statistic in the table, the relative attrition index, is the ratio of the official number of years in the branch of education to the number of student-years per graduate. It has a maximum value of 1.00: that is, for example, if all students enrolled in 6-year primary education finished the course in 6 years and none dropped out, the value of the index would be 6/6 or 1.00. The statistic therefore gives some indication of the internal efficiency of the different levels of education.

More expensive education is usually characterized by lower attrition rates, and the spread of cycle cost estimates is narrower than the spread of unit costs. There is still considerable differentiation, however, and the private sector includes both the least costly and the most costly alternatives. Lower secondary education (along with the Medical School) has the highest internal efficiency and senior secondary has the lowest. Ratios for teacher training and vocational/technical edu ation lie between the extremes, despite the high attrition rates that characterize these two systems, because there is little retention of students: those who do not successfully complete a given year in the cycle tend to drop out rather than repeat.

### 2.8.4 Educational Financing

#### 2.8.4.1 Principal Sources of Financial Support for Education

Government provides approximately one-half the outside (non-local) financing for the recurrent costs of education, but less than 20% of the outside investment funds (Table 2.25). When local contributions are taken into account, particularly the fees paid by students and parents, the share of Government in the recurrent budget of education is reduced to around 20%. The overall breakdown of recurrent costs among families, the Government budget, and outside donors is presented in Table 2.68 for the 1982/83 school year.

Families' contributions are estimated from the unit cost data presented in Section 2.8.2, deflated to 1982 price levels and multiplied by the number of students in each general cost category of education. The estimates of external assistance to education are based on adjusted figures from a 1983 United Nations Development Program (UNDP) report.

The UNDP figures are underestimated in two respects:

- School lunch and food aid to primary education is not included, though this nutritional supplement is a very important pedagogical support and so a genuine cost of education. Food subsidies in PVO schools are accounted for as described below. Food subsidies to public schools

Table 2.68

Breakdown of Recurrent Education Financing, 1982-83
($000)

| Educational Sector | PARENTS | | | GOVERNMENT | | | DONORS | | | | | | TOTAL | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | | | Type | | | | | | | |
| | Amount | Parents Total % | Cycle Total % | Amount | Gov't. Total % | Cycle Total % | Multi-lateral | Bi-lateral | PVO (a) | Total | Donor Total % | Cycle Total % | Amount | % |
| Primary | $26,918 | 55.0 | NA | $11,609 | 71.0 | NA | NA | NA | $9,036 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| Secondary | 20,303 | 41.5 | NA | 1,741 | 10.5 | NA | NA | NA | (150) | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| Vocational/ Technical | 1,197 | 2.5 | NA | 1,610 | 10.0 | NA | NA | NA | (300) | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| Teacher Training | -- | -- | -- | 458 | 2.5 | NA | NA | NA | (150) | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| Higher | 522 | 1.0 | NA | 969 | 6.0 | NA | NA | NA | (150) | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| Total | $48,940 | 100.0 | 60 | $16,387 | 100.0 | 20 | $3,424 | $3,587 | ($9,786) | $16,797 | 100 | 20 | $82,124 | 100 |

(a) Figures in parentheses are estimates.

NA=Not available.

amounted to about $2 million in 1982/83 (50% of 282,000 pupils enrolled in public schools at about $15 per student per year) and should probably be added to the bilateral contributions which appear in Table 2.68.

- PVO contributions are significantly greater than the $1.64 million identified in the UNDP report. The report covered 150 organizations, whereas recent surveys report more than 350 operating in the country. One PVO in Haiti concerned principally with primary education had a 1983/84 operating budget of $2 million, to which must be added a share of about $300,000 in the overhead of its international parent organization. In the absence of further data on PVO contributions, the approach here has been to estimate the global sum by (1) multiplying the number of students in PVO-supported schools by the portion of average unit costs paid by outside donors and then (2) reducing the result by 14.5% to account for inflation over the 1982/83 to 1984/85 period.

These calculations indicate the relative magnitudes involved while at the same time making clear the kind of information needed for a fuller analysis. Table 2.68 reveals several important facts:

1. The overall breakdown in the funding of education's recurrent costs among parents, Government, and donors gives a rough ratio of 60:20:20.
2. Donors currently provide half of all extra local support for operating budgets, with Government furnishing the other half. They also provide over 80% of investment funds. Given the size of the development budget in 1982/83 ($9 million), this means that external assistance accounted for roughly 57% of all extra local funds spent on education. Donor support is largely concentrated at the primary level.
3. Beneficiaries' expenditures are greatest at the primary level but clearly most burdensome at the secondary level, given the much smaller number of students involved, the higher fees, the preponderance of private schools, and the relative absence of PVO subsidies. Parents and students pay more than 70% of all operating expenses at this level.

2.8.4.2 Cost Incidence

Cost figures do not reflect the impact of education fees on different groups within the population. If planners are to extend the education system's capacity to reach unserved population groups, ability-to-pay as well as unit costs must be examined. This can be done by comparing private costs for different types and levels of education to the average family income within different population groups. Making this comparison requires information on the distribution of income, and such information is not readily available.

Nonetheless, the opinions of numerous people involved in Haitian education all concur in stressing the importance of income disparities in determining the shape and extent of educational demand. Therefore, an attempt will be made to analyze the accessibility of education.

Information from the previous section is used for cost estimates. To abbreviate the analysis somewhat, only three branches of the educational system are analyzed: primary, general secondary, and higher education.

On the income side there are two sources of information. Several studies dating from the mid-1970s estimate urban and rural incomes (World Bank, Haiti Urban Sector Survey, April 1979; Clarence Zuvekas, Jr., Agricultural Development in Haiti, USAID, May 1978). The information has been updated by applying a 9% annual growth rate to urban incomes and a 5% annual growth rate to rural incomes. Since inflation over 1976-84 period averaged 7% a year, this calculation is based on the assumption that real urban incomes grew slowly over the period (2% a year in real terms) whereas real rural incomes declined somewhat--an assumption in general accord with several economic evaluations conducted in recent years. It does not take account of the likelihood of increasing inequality within each of these subsectors of the economy - i.e., the probability that the income of certain groups has in fact grown faster (or fallen more slowly) than that of others.

A second source of income information is sociological analysis of urban and rural population subgroups, defined by their patterns of productive activity (e.g., Organisme du Developpement de Nord, Agricultures et Paysans du Nord et du Nord-Est d'Häiti, 1984; World Bank, op. cit.). Several analyses of this type have been made, some including estimations of the proportion of the population within each stratum or group. Taken together, these analyses suggest the five-way breakdown of the rural and the urban population shown in Table 2.69.

This information gives some sense of the "weight" or incidence of educational costs on different groups in the population, and it adds more depth and realism to the analysis of unit costs for the various educational levels.

The information about costs and incomes is combined in Table 2.70. Since the income strata derived from income distribution data and the social groups derived from socioeconomic analysis do not correspond perfectly, the latter are suggested as a means of identifying the dominant characteristics of each income stratum rather than as a "class label."



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TABLE 2.69

Characterization of Socioeconomic Groups in Urban and Rural Haiti

| Social Strata | Characterization |
|---|---|
| **Rural Areas** | |
| 1. Farmworkers | Landless peasants or those with lands too restricted or poor to provide their own subsistence. They survive by periodic labor as sugarcane cutters, harvesters, and general farm laborers on large plantations. |
| 2. Sharecroppers | Peasants who possess little more than farmworkers but have sharecropping rights on enough land to provide for their needs. |
| 3. Small farmers | Peasants with sufficient land and livestock to meet their needs--usually because of supplementary nonagricultural income (trades, transfers)--and on land too poor to attract larger plantations. Compared to the two preceding groups, they enjoy relative ease, but they have little security as they have accumulated very little capital |
| 4. Craftsmen and merchants | Rural people in nonagricultural trades near towns or urban centers or in relation to agro-industry. They often invest their savings in agriculture, thereby realizing two modest incomes and small savings, which are generally used for educational expenses. |
| 5. Medium & large landowners | Generally tradespeople or those with urban sources of income who have accumulated sufficient good-quality farm and can hire a sufficiently large work force to make farming profitable. The large landowners are mostly absentee landlords. Together these groups account for less than 5% of the population but may own more than 60% of the arable land, generally the most fertile and level tracts. |

TABLE 2.69 (Continued)

| Social Strata | Characterization |
|---|---|
| Urban areas | |
| 1. Urban poor | Predominantly first- and second-generation migrants from rural areas who eke out a subsistence in the "informal economy" of urban centers (Port-au-Prince in particular). |
| 2. Working class | Urban dwellers who earn a regular if minimal salary for semiskilled work in the urban industrial sector or in a small business in the informal economy. |
| 3. Lower middle class | Predominantly small tradespeople, employees, and clerical workers in business and government. |
| 4. Upper middle class | Business owners, Government officials, skilled technicians, professionals. |
| 5. Elite | Traditional landed families, large business owners, political power-brokers. |

There are large variations in income as well as in costs, and the percentage of income required for education changes considerably across social strata and type of education. How much can different groups pay for education? The urban and rural poor spend between 50 and 70% of their revenue on food, leaving relatively little for other needs. The figures in Table 2.70 indicate the proportion of family income that must be spent on the education of each child; it should be multiplied by the number of children in school.

As a rough approximation, educational costs can be regarded as prohibitive when they exceed the following levels: 10% of income for groups whose yearly revenue is below $500; 20% of income for those between $500 and $2,000; 30% of income for those between $2,000 to $5,000; and 50% for those above $5,000.

By these criteria, for the two lowest income groups in rural areas and for the urban poor, even the costs of primary education for one child constitute a major burden. Virtually the only form of education financially feasible for these groups is subsidized PVO schooling. Nothing above primary education is affordable, short of very scarce scholarship assistance. Middle income groups (rural farmowners and craftsmen, urban working class) can afford all but the

TABLE 2.70

Educational Costs Per Child in School
as a Percentage of Family Income

| Social Status | Percent in pop. | Average income | Primary Education | | | | | | Secondary Education | | | Higher Education | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Rural | | | Urban | | | | Private | | Public (Unv Haiti) | | Private Univ. |
| | | | Public $23 | Prop. $36 | PVO $13 | Public $28 | Low Priv. $160 | High Priv $265 | Public Lycee $63 | Low-Qual $167 | High-Qual $460 | Medical $368 | Other $138 | $592 |
| Farm workers | 45 | $250 | 9 | 14 | 5 | 11 | 64 | 106 | 25 | 67 | 184 | 147 | 55 | 137 |
| Tenant farmers | 30 | $500 | 5 | 7 | 3 | 6 | 32 | 53 | 13 | 33 | 92 | 74 | 28 | 118 |
| Small freeholders | 10 | $750 | 3 | 5 | 2 | 4 | 21 | 35 | 8 | 22 | 61 | 49 | 18 | 79 |
| Rural trades and crafts | 14 | $1,200 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 13 | 22 | 5 | 14 | 38 | 31 | 12 | 49 |
| Medium and large farmers | 1 | $8,000 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 6 | 5 | 2 | 7 |
| Urban poor | 50 | $400 | 6 | 9 | 3 | 7 | 40 | 66 | 16 | 42 | 115 | 92 | 35 | 1 |
| Working class | 35 | $1,200 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 13 | 22 | 5 | 14 | 38 | 31 | 12 | 0 |
| Lower middle class | 10 | $3,000 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 5 | 9 | 2 | 6 | 15 | 12 | 5 | 2 |
| Upper middle class | 4 | $8,000 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 6 | 5 | 2 | 7 |
| Elite | 1 | $30,000 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 2 |



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most expensive form of primary education but have much more difficulty with costs at the secondary level. The majority can afford only public high schools, which contain less than 20% of the available high school places. Public university education is affordable--with the exception of medical school--but private universities are not. The higher income groups (larger landowners, upper middle class, and elite) have no income constraints with respect to the forms of education available in Haiti.

Constraints may be alleviated at the secondary and higher education levels if students work part-time. The effect of this factor is minor, however, given the low salaries and unemployment problems in urban centers.

2.8.5 Summary Issues (Cost Analysis)

The following issues emerge from the analysis of the costs and financing of Haitian education:

1. Costs for most primary schools are beyond the means of a large proportion of the population, particularly in rural areas. Even purportedly free education may cost an appreciable amount when items like shoes, uniforms, and minimal learning materials are taken into account. Demand for education is very high, however, and parents accept considerable financial and personal sacrifices to get at least some children into school. Nonetheless, access to education is highly stratified because of costs. Though approximately 43% of the primary school age population are currently enrolled in school, available evidence suggests that these children come from less than 30% of the households.
2. Variation in unit costs, and particularly private costs, within each level of education is virtually as great as variance among levels. This fact reveals a basic dilemma. Not enough places are provided at the subsidized prices of public and PVO schools to satisfy demand because outside funds available for education are limited. Proprietary institutes meet part of the needs at the higher tuition levels but serve only the fraction of the population that can afford them. Subsidized places are, in effect, rationed by decisions about where to locate PVO-supported schools and whom to admit, by requirements that public school students have shoes and sometimes uniforms, and occasionally by the unofficial fees which parents pay to get their children into public schools.
3. The level of Government financing in education is relatively low, currently representing between 1 and 1.5% of the GDP, compared with an average of around 4% in the rest of the developing world. Government



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spends 62% of its recurrent education budget on primary school, where 91% of public school students are located, but 95% of the budget is for teacher salaries. Students and parents bear about 60% of the overall costs of education. Foreign donors, and private voluntary organizations in particular, contribute considerable sums--roughly the equivalent of Government's outlay--but they are not presently sufficient to satisfy the demand for low-cost education or guarantee its quality.

4. Almost all levels of the education system are characterized by low internal efficiency. Attrition rates are very high (69% in primary school, 70% in secondary school, and comparable levels elsewhere). This may, however, be as much a necessary adaptation to labor market realities and to the availability of places in higher education as it is an indicator of a bottleneck to be corrected. The Haitian education system has historically functioned as a sharply tapering funnel, selecting and training the small minority of competent graduates who could find a place in the domestic or international labor markets. A further consequence of the "funnel" shape of the Haitian education system is that policies of automatic promotion may create as many problems as they solve, unless ways can be found to increase the absorptive capacity of the Haitian economy with respect to skilled and semi-skilled labor. Students who are passed forward may find that they have no place to go, either in further education or in the field of employment.
5. One solution to educational financing problems at the higher levels may be either student loans or--in the case of programs like vocational/technical education which can include a directly productive component--to develop production-education linkages that generate operating funds.
6. The lack of reliable and complete data on student flows, actual costs (particularly in the private sector), and family budgets restricts the study and diagnosis of the economic inefficiencies of the present system. Collection and analysis of more complete and accurate information should be given high priority.

## 2.9 RETURNS TO HAITIAN EDUCATION

This section analyzes the private and social benefits of education in Haiti, and estimates rates of return to the principal educational programs.

### 2.9.1 The Benefits of Education

The pursuit of an education involves financial and personal sacrifices. People make these sacrifices partly because they expect to receive some monetary or non-monetary rewards. The greater these anticipated benefits, the greater is the demand for education. Inquiry into the benefits for different types of education is thus an important means of understanding variations in the private demand for education.

At the societal level, public investment in education also involves sacrifices. Funds allocated for education cannot be spent for other purposes. Moreover, choices must be made among different forms of educational investment. The greater the balance of perceived benefits over costs for any given educational program, the more attractive it will appear relative to other uses of the same resources. Exploration of the larger social costs and benefits of different education programs thus provides pertinent guidelines for educational planners.

There are many possible benefits of education. In considering this variety, it is helpful to make at least two sorts of distinctions: first, between private and social benefits; and second, between education as an investment and education as an item of consumption.

#### 2.9.1.1 Private and Social Benefits

The private benefits of education include all increases in personal welfare that students and their families realize during and after their education as a consequence of that training experience: improvements in income or social status, increases in self-confidence or cultural resources, heightened political participation, and so forth.

Social benefits, on the other hand, include all increases in personal welfare resulting from the education of the individual--not just the rewards the students themselves realize, but the benefits to other members of society as well. Many of these positive effects may already be reflected in students' private benefits insofar as they are paid wages that correspond in some sense to the value of their contribution to society. Income, however, may overstate or understate the social value of an individual's work. Moreover, there are social spillover effects of an individual's education that are seldom captured in wages. These might include the value of their volunteer work, the social utility of their civic and political participation, the importance of their family functions, their worth as role models, and so forth.

Social benefits therefore include private benefits as well as broader contributions to social welfare. They constitute a category that is both critical to decisionmakers and difficult to define. It is made more complex

by the fact that social welfare may be a question not simply of the sum of individual benefits but also of their distribution. An increase of 10% in national income, for example, will have very different implications for social welfare according to whether it accrues to a single group in the population or is widely shared. Likewise, the social significance of an education program may depend as much on who benefits as on how many benefit.

2.9.1.2 Investment and Consumption Benefits

Education is valued both as an item of consumption--that is, a good in itself--and as a productive investment. Though the line between these types of benefits is not always clear, both need to be taken into account.

In some respects, education is clearly an investment. People pay the costs involved with the expectation of realizing future benefits: higher personal productivity, increased earnings, improved social status, or enhanced political prestige. This is the investment value of education.

Consumption benefits, on the other hand, refer to the non-monetary satisfactions derived from education. Consumption benefits for students may include such things as the privileges accompanying student status or the agreeable environment that the school affords. Present consumption benefits for third parties or society in general may include, for example, the security of knowing that a large proportion of the younger generation is safely cared for during much of the year. Future consumption benefits for the individual include the personal satisfactions derived from the knowledge or skills acquired. In this sense, education is like a "consumer durable"--a product which one buys and which yields satisfactions over a long time.

Quite arguably, a part of the cost of education is in fact not an investment but simply the price that people are willing to pay for these consumption benefits--or that governments or donors are willing to pay on their behalf.

2.9.1.3 Measuring the Benefits of Haitian Education

The above-cited benefits of education are summarized in Figure 2.4. It would be useful to have quantitative indices for each of these benefits in order to relate them to their costs. The problem is how to identify and measure such a varied set of benefits.

Economic analysis can provide some limited but significant help. Financial and material benefits are among the most important for students and for government planners, and they are relatively easy to quantify. Lifetime incomes are potentially measurable, as are other material benefits that people enjoy.

However, this type of analysis also has several shortcomings which should be kept in mind. Five of these are presented below:

FIGURE 2.4

Inventory Matrix for Benefits of Haitian Education

| | | CONSUMPTION | INVESTMENT | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Non-monetary | Monetary |
| TOTAL SOCIAL BENEFITS | Private Benefits | e.g., enjoyment of student status | e.g., enhanced prestige or durable personal satisfaction | e.g., increased individual income |
| | Broader Social Effects | e.g., custodianship of youth | e.g., increased and enlightened civic participation | e.g., increased social production not reflected in the individual's income |

Note: Only the upper right hand square is captured by conventional rate of return analysis.



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1. Most of the benefits shown in Figure 2.4 cannot be measured monetarily with any reasonable degree of accuracy, so the analysis captures only part of the relevant benefits. Monetary values could be estimated for the non-monetary outcomes of education by determining how much people would be willing to pay to avoid losing such benefits, but this kind of determination cannot be made without a special research effort and is therefore seldom undertaken.
2. The information requirements for investigating the relationships between education and income are fairly rigorous. They include data on income profiles for people of different ages with varying levels of education, plus other information on their characteristics. This information is not currently available in Haiti. There are no reliable records of the actual income for cohorts of recent graduates, so their earnings must be estimated on the basis of available information about salaries of former students.

Estimates of increased earnings associated with increments of education reflect the private benefits of education and are related to the motivation for further education. Educational planners, however, are also concerned with the overall social benefits of education, for which income as an indicator has some additional shortcomings:

3. Income is not a very reliable measure of social productivity. Under perfect market conditions wages represent an individual's marginal productivity in his/her most productive employment. In the real world, many market imperfections distort this relationship and economists often feel obliged to calculate "shadow wage rates" in order to estimate what income <u>would be</u> under perfect competition--that is, the true social value of the work. That kind of calculation is too complex to be included in the context of a sector assessment. In a situation of underemployment, where more highly educated individuals are displacing the less educated ones from their jobs and occupying positions for which they may be overqualified, it becomes even more doubtful that income levels fully express the social value of an education.
4. The linkage between more education and greater income may not be entirely causal, and caution is required when moving from data about earnings to the conclusion that education has created benefits of a parallel magnitude for society at large.
5. Finally, past associations between education and income do not provide an altogether sufficient basis for planning and resource allocations,

since these relationships may change over time. The more major and systemic the reform or investments planned by Government for the educational system, the more likely these relationships will change significantly.

To summarize, income levels convey less about the social benefits of education than about the private benefits. Nevertheless, they do provide a gross indication of the value society attaches to educational qualifications.

2.9.1.4 Average Income Levels for Haitian Graduates

Determination of the monetary benefits of education requires reasonably reliable information on the income received by graduates and dropouts of each level of the system. Actual data from a large sample would be most desirable. However, no such information is currently available.

As an alternative, approximations of the average lifetime income received by individuals with different levels of education were used in a simplified analysis of educational benefits. Information gathered during the sector assessment was used to estimate lifetime incomes.

The estimated relationships among skill categories, levels of education, and approximate levels of average annual lifetime earnings are presented in Table 2.71. The economy is divided into three subdivisions: the rural economy, the urban economy, and the emigrant economy. (Though emigration affects all strata of the Haitian population, the proportional manpower impact is greatest among those with technical or higher education qualifications. The effect of emigrant earnings on returns from education will be explicitly considered only at these levels).

Table 2.71 defines the type of occupation for which people with given levels of education are theoretically qualified. This does not reflect the jobs actually held by these categories of people, however, due to widespread underemployment in the economy. To estimate average income, it is necessary to model the actual distribution of graduates across occupation levels. Table 2.72 therefore presents a simulation of the distribution of workers with different levels of educational qualifications across occupational and income categories as well as estimates of the average lifetime income for each group. The occupations and income levels specified for each fractional group must be considered as representing the average or "modal" occupation for that group over its career history, with periods of unemployment taken into consideration.

Thus for 40% of junior secondary school graduates, for example, a low-level clerical job in the private urban sector of the economy represents the average lifetime occupational attainment. Weighting each income level by the

Table 2.71

Equivalencies Among Occupation, Income, and Educational Qualification

| Category | Educational Qualification | Average Lifetime Yearly Earnings in Representative Professions | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Rural Economy | Urban Economy | | Emigration |
| | | | Public | Private | |
| Unskilled | None | $300 (farmworker, trad. farmer) | --- | $400 (part-time laborer, peddlar | --- |
| Semi-skilled | Primary | $500 (modern farmer) | $800 (custodial) | $720 (factory operative) | --- |
| Low clerical | Junior secondary | $600 (private primary teacher) | $1,000 | $1,500 (business clerical) | --- |
| Skilled manual | Junior vocational-technical | $1,200 (rural crafts) | --- | $1,800 (urban crafts employee) | --- |
| Clerical, Admin. | Senior secondary | --- | $2,400 (Govt. agency staff) | $3,500 (small business employee) | --- |
| Teaching | Normal school | --- | $1,800 (primary school teacher) | $1,200 (primary school teacher) | --- |
| Technical | Senior vocational-technical | --- | $3,600 (Govt. technician | $4,800 (industrial technician) | $5,000 skilled laborer |
| Professional | a.General higher education | --- | $5,000 (Higher ed. teacher | $7,500 (Higher ed. teacher) | $10,000 |
| | b.Medical education | | $7,500 (medical) | $10,000 (medical) | $20,000 (medical) |
| Managerial | Higher education | | $7,500 (agency director) | $12,000 (business manager) | $15,000 (business staff) |

TABLE 2.72

Estimation of Actual Average Yearly Earnings of School Graduates Based on Simulated Percentage Distribution of Graduates Across Occupational Categories

| Occupational Category | Average Lifetime Yearly Earnings from Table 2.71 | Percentage Distribution of Graduates of Each Educational Level: No Formal Education | Primary | Junior Secondary | Junior Voc-Tech | Normal School | Senior Secondary | Senior Voc-tech | Higher Education: General | Medical | Managerial Technical |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Unskilled** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Rural | $300 | 70 | 10 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Urban | $400 | 30 | 30 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| **Semiskilled** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Rural | $500 | -- | 10 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Urban Pub. | $800 | -- | 10 | 10 | 10 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Urban Priv. | $720 | -- | 30 | 10 | 40 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| **Low Clerical** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Rural | $600 | -- | 10 | 20 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Urban Pub | $1,000 | -- | -- | 20 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Urban Priv | $1,500 | -- | -- | 40 | -- | 10 | 20 | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| **Skilled Manual** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Rural | $1,200 | -- | -- | -- | 10 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Urban | $1,800 | -- | -- | -- | 40 | -- | -- | 10 | -- | -- | -- |
| **Mid Clerical** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Urban Pub | $2,400 | -- | -- | -- | -- | 10 | 20 | -- | 10 | -- | -- |
| Urban Priv | $3,500 | -- | -- | -- | -- | 30 | 30 | -- | 20 | -- | 20 |
| **Teaching** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Urban/Rural | $1,800 | -- | -- | -- | -- | 50 | 30 | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| **Technical** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Public | $3,600 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | 20 | -- | -- | -- |
| Private | $4,800 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | 45 | -- | -- | -- |
| Emigration | $8,000 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | 25 | -- | -- | -- |
| **Professional** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Teaching | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Public | $5,000 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | 20 | -- | -- |
| Private | $7,500 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | 20 | -- | -- |
| Medical | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Public | $7,500 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | 10 | -- |
| Private | $12,000 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | 40 | -- |
| Emigration | $20,000 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | 50 | -- |
| **Managerial** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Public | $7,500 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | 10 | -- | 20 |
| Private | $12,000 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | 10 | -- | 30 |
| Emigration | $20,000 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | 10 | -- | 30 |
| **Average Yearly Earnings \a/** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| H1 | | $330 | $700 | $2,200 | $1,500 | $1,800 | $2,950 | $4,200 | $6,250 | $10,250 | $10,250 |
| H2 with emigration | | $330 | $556 | $1,072 | $1,208 | $2,340 | $2,610 | $5,060 | $7,390 | $15,550 | $17,600 |
| H2 without emigration | | $330 | $556 | $1,072 | $1,208 | $2,340 | $2,610 | $3,360 | $5,690 | $7,050 | $6,700 |

\a/ Hypothesis 1 (H1) -- rates are computed on the assumption that each graduate gets the sort of job appropriate to his training
Hypothesis 2 (H2) -- rates are computed more realistically on likelihood of employment at each level as calculated in Table 2.72. H2 is calculated twice, with and without emigration.

proportion of a given group who attain it, one can obtain an estimate of average lifetime income for the different educational groups. In fact, two average income estimates for each group are presented at the bottom of Table 2.72: one (Hypothesis 1) representing average income in the occupations for which the associated level of training theoretically prepares the student; and the other (Hypothesis 2) representing average income derived from the simulation of actual job distribution.

### 2.9.2 Rate of Return Analysis

Estimates of the costs and the monetary benefits of different levels and types of education may be compared to examine variations in the private and social returns to education. The magnitude of these returns has a bearing on the willingness of people to strive for successive levels of training, and provides one rough indication of the contribution of these programs to economic development.

#### 2.9.2.1 Procedures for Rate of Return Analysis

There are several techniques for calculating the balance between the monetary costs and benefits of education. Prominent among them is rate of return analysis, in which costs are treated as an investment and benefits as the yield on the investment over time. A rate of return analysis for current Haitian education is presented in this section. The previously mentioned limitations of this sort of analysis should be kept in mind:

- On both the cost and the benefit side, only a portion of the actual advantages and sacrifices involved in the cycle of education under consideration are represented.
- As much of the data is approximate or simulated, the results can not exceed these levels of confidence.
- The social or "total" rates of return must be interpreted circumspectly, given the uncertainty about the linkage between income levels and productivity actually conferred by education.
- However accurately the calculated rates of return may reflect current conditions, their predictive validity--and therefore their value for planning--remains in some doubt.

The calculations nonetheless furnish a first appreciation of the relative magnitude of returns among different levels and forms of education and a rough basis of comparison between social and private benefits.

Rates of return for several different forms of education at each level of the Haitian educational system are derived in Tables 2.73 and 2.74. Table 2.73 summarizes the cost calculations that must be made as a preliminary step in

## TABLE 2.73

## Cost Calculations for Rate of Return Analysis

| Branch of Education | Annual Private Costs | | | Average Years to Complete Cycle | Total Private Cycle Costs | Annual External Costs | | | Total Annual Social Costs | Total Graduate costs | Student-Years per Graduate | Total Cycle Costs | Compound Value \a/ | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Direct Costs per Stdt | Foregone Earnings per Stdt | Annual Total | | | Government Costs per Stdt | Donor Costs per Stdt | Annual Total | | | | | Private Costs | Graduate Costs | Cycle Costs |
| Rural public primary | $26 | $40 | $66 | 7.1 | $469 | $44 | $33 | $77 | $143 | $1,015 | 12.5 | $1,789 | $666 | $1,443 | $3,451 |
| Rural proprietary primary | $36 | $40 | $76 | 8.0 | $608 | $0 | $0 | $0 | $76 | $608 | 16.0 | $1,216 | $935 | $935 | $5,249 |
| Rural PVO primary | $13 | $40 | $53 | 6.5 | $345 | $0 | $94 | $94 | $147 | $956 | 11.0 | $1,617 | $430 | $1,193 | $3,036 |
| Urban public primary | $26 | $80 | $106 | 7.1 | $753 | $44 | $33 | $77 | $183 | $1,299 | 12.5 | $2,288 | $1,069 | $1,846 | $4,416 |
| Urban propr. primary (low cost) | $82 | $80 | $162 | 7.6 | $1,231 | $0 | $0 | $0 | $162 | $1,231 | 14.0 | $2,262 | $1,634 | $1,634 | $5,248 |
| Urban propr. primary (medium cost) | $160 | $80 | $240 | 6.9 | $1,656 | $0 | $0 | $0 | $240 | $1,656 | 12.0 | $2,880 | $1,948 | $1,948 | $5,792 |
| Urban propr. primary (high cost) | $265 | $80 | $345 | 6.2 | $2,139 | $0 | $0 | $0 | $345 | $2,139 | 8.0 | $2,760 | $2,880 | $2,880 | $4,243 |
| Public junior secondary | $53 | $318 | $371 | 4.4 | $1,632 | $101 | $34 | $135 | $506 | $2,226 | 5.6 | $2,834 | $1,773 | $2,418 | $3,215 |
| Propr. junior secondary (lower cost) | $160 | $318 | $478 | 4.4 | $2,103 | $0 | $0 | $0 | $478 | $2,103 | 5.6 | $2,677 | $2,285 | $2,285 | $3,037 |
| Propr. junior secondary (higher cost) | $440 | $318 | $758 | 4.4 | $3,335 | $0 | $0 | $0 | $758 | $3,335 | 5.6 | $4,245 | $3,623 | $3,623 | $4,815 |
| Public junior voc. - tech training | $12 | $318 | $330 | 4.0 | $1,320 | $554 | $198 | $752 | $1,082 | $4,328 | 7.8 | $8,440 | $1,577 | $5,171 | $10,916 |
| Public senior secondary | $88 | $695 | $783 | 3.9 | $3,054 | $101 | $34 | $135 | $918 | $3,580 | 8.8 | $8,078 | $2,642 | $3,098 | $11,291 |
| Propr. senior secondary (lower qual.) | $340 | $695 | $1,035 | 3.9 | $4,037 | $0 | $0 | $0 | $1,035 | $4,037 | 8.8 | $9,108 | $3,493 | $3,493 | $12,730 |
| Propr. senior secondary (higher qual.) | $490 | $695 | $1,185 | 3.9 | $4,622 | $0 | $0 | $0 | $1,185 | $4,622 | 8.8 | $10,426 | $3,999 | $3,999 | $14,575 |
| Public normal school | $0 | $695 | $695 | 3.0 | $2,085 | $703 | $186 | $889 | $1,584 | $4,752 | 6.5 | $10,296 | $2,345 | $5,345 | $12,854 |
| Public senior voc. - tech training | $56 | $695 | $751 | 4.0 | $3,004 | $1,197 | $396 | $1,593 | $2,344 | $9,376 | 7.5 | $17,580 | $3,589 | $11,203 | $23,649 |
| Semipublic senior voc. - tech training | $438 | $695 | $1,133 | 3.0 | $3,399 | $652 | $672 | $1,324 | $2,457 | $7,371 | 4.2 | $10,319 | $3,823 | $8,291 | $11,743 |
| PVO senior voc.-tech. training | $100 | $695 | $795 | 3.0 | $2,385 | $0 | $1,251 | $1,251 | $2,046 | $6,138 | 4.2 | $8,593 | $2,693 | $6,904 | $9,779 |
| Public higher education (general) | $348 | $1,652 | $2,000 | 7.0 | $14,000 | $430 | $171 | $601 | $2,601 | $18,207 | 14.3 | $37,194 | $20,178 | $26,242 | $44,253 |
| Public higher education (medical) | $368 | $1,652 | $2,020 | 5.5 | $11,110 | $430 | $171 | $601 | $2,621 | $14,416 | 7.5 | $19,658 | $12,833 | $16,651 | $26,443 |
| Public higher education (managerial) | $138 | $1,652 | $1,790 | 6.0 | $10,740 | $430 | $171 | $601 | $2,391 | $14,346 | 10.0 | $23,910 | $14,526 | $19,403 | $41,959 |

\a/ Interest rate used = 0.12 percent.

Table 2.74

Indicative Rates of Return for Haitian Education[a/]

| Branch of Education | Income Data: Rural Labor Market: Lifetime Average Annual Income: H1 | Income Data: Rural Labor Market: Lifetime Average Annual Income: H2 | Income Data: Urban/Intntl Labor Market: Lifetime Average Annual Income: H1 | Income Data: Urban/Intntl Labor Market: Lifetime Average Annual Income: H2 \b/ | Private Rates of Return: Rural Lab Mkt: Private Rate of Return H1 | Private Rates of Return: Rural Lab Mkt: Private Rate of Return H2 | Private Rates of Return: Urban/Intnl Lab Mkt: Private Rate of Return H1 | Private Rates of Return: Urban/Intnl Lab Mkt: Private Rate of Return H2 | Total Rates of Return (under H2): Composite Labor Market \c/: High Estimate Total ROR (Graduate Costs) | Total Rates of Return (under H2): Composite Labor Market \c/: Low Estimate Total ROR (Cycle Costs) | Total Rates of Return (under H2): Composite Labor Market \c/: Best Estimate Total ROR |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Rural public primary | $500 | $500 | $760 | $640 | 0.27 | 0.27 | 0.62 | 0.46 | 0.19 | 0.08 | 0.13 |
| Rural proprietary primary | $500 | $500 | $760 | $640 | 0.19 | 0.19 | 0.44 | 0.33 | 0.29 | 0.06 | 0.19 |
| Rural PVO primary | $500 | $500 | $760 | $640 | 0.42 | 0.42 | 0.96 | 0.71 | 0.23 | 0.09 | 0.16 |
| Urban public primary | $500 | $500 | $760 | $640 | 0.17 | 0.17 | 0.39 | 0.29 | 0.15 | 0.06 | 0.10 |
| Urban propr. primary (low cost) | $500 | $500 | $760 | $640 | 0.11 | 0.11 | 0.25 | 0.19 | 0.17 | 0.05 | 0.11 |
| Urban propr. primary (med. cost) | $500 | $500 | $760 | $640 | 0.09 | 0.09 | 0.21 | 0.16 | 0.14 | 0.05 | 0.09 |
| Urban propr. primary (high cost) | $500 | $500 | $760 | $640 | 0.06 | 0.06 | 0.15 | 0.11 | 0.10 | 0.06 | 0.08 |
| Public junior secondary | | | $2,200 | $1,072 | | | 0.79 | 0.25 | 0.21 | 0.16 | 0.18 |
| Propr. junior second. (lower cost) | | | $2,200 | $1,072 | | | 0.61 | 0.20 | 0.22 | 0.17 | 0.19 |
| Propr. junior second. (higher cost) | | | $2,200 | $1,072 | | | 0.43 | 0.12 | 0.14 | 0.10 | 0.12 |
| Public junior voc. - tech training | | | $1,500 | $1,208 | | | 0.49 | 0.36 | 0.12 | 0.06 | 0.09 |
| Public senior secondary | | | $2,950 | $2,610 | | | 0.26 | 0.52 | 0.50 | 0.14 | 0.32 |
| Propr. senior second. (lower qual.) | | | $2,950 | $2,610 | | | 0.19 | 0.40 | 0.44 | 0.12 | 0.28 |
| Propr. senior second. (higher qual.) | | | $2,950 | $2,610 | | | 0.17 | 0.35 | 0.38 | 0.11 | 0.25 |
| Public normal school | | | $1,800 | $2,340 | | | -0.15 | 0.49 | 0.24 | 0.10 | 0.17 |
| Public senior voc. - tech training | | | $4,200 | $5,060 / $3,360 | | | 0.50 | 1.00 | 0.20 | 0.10 | 0.15 |
| Semipublic senior voc. - tech training | | | $4,200 | $5,060 / $3,360 | | | 0.47 | 0.94 | 0.28 | 0.19 | 0.24 |
| PVO senior voc.-tech. training | | | $4,200 | $5,060 / $3,360 | | | 0.67 | 1.34 | 0.33 | 0.23 | 0.28 |
| Public higher education (general) | | | $6,250 | 7,390 / $5,690 | | | 0.15 | 0.21 | 0.12 | 0.04 | 0.08 |
| Public higher education (medical) | | | $10,250 | $15,550 / $7,050 | | | 0.51 | 0.91 | 0.27 | 0.17 | 0.22 |
| Public higher education (managerial) | | | $10,250 | $17,600 / $6,700 | | | 0.45 | 0.93 | 0.21 | 0.10 | 0.15 |

a/ Hypothesis 1 ("H1") — rates are computed on the assumption that each graduate gets the sort of job appropriate to his training.
Hypothesis 2 ("H2") — rates are computed incorporating likelihood of employment at each level as calculated in Table 2.72.
H2 is calculated twice, with and without emigration, for voc-tech and higher education.

b/ For senior voc-tech and higher education, two levels of average income are given, the first including full earnings of emigrees and the second including only their remittances.

c/ For primary education, total rates of return are calculated on basis of average lifetime incomes in rural and urban labor markets. For senior voc-tech and higher education, two total rates of return are calculated, corresponding to the two specifications of average income explained in note \b/.

determining rates of return. Table 2.74 summarizes the average income data derived in the preceding section, and presents the varying estimates of rates of return that can be derived for different branches of Haitian education, depending on the assumptions and the cost figures used. The result is a set of rates for each type of schooling. Given the approximate nature of the data, this sort of sensitivity analysis, yielding a range of estimates, is most likely to capture the true values.

Average rates of return for primary education, for example, would have little meaning, given the disparity in costs between different varieties of private and public education analyzed in the preceding section of this chapter. It is possible that benefits also vary markedly from one type of training to another, but for lack of data on these fluctuations, a general pattern of incomes associated with each level of qualification is used. A distinction is made, however, between the incomes earned by those who work in rural areas and those who enter the urban job market. (All government positions are considered to be by definition in the urban job market. In practice, rural employment is a destination only for the unschooled and for those who attend no more than primary school.) As a consequence, rates need to be calculated separately for those different training-employment career paths.

Two alternative hypotheses about the level of income associated with each type of education are used for calculating the returns--one ideal and the other more realistic. Under the ideal hypothesis (H1), rates are based on the assumption that each graduate gets the sort of job for which his training qualifies him. As noted earlier, however, there is considerable unemployment and underemployment in the economy at present. Under the second and more realistic hypothesis (H2), rates are based on the current likelihood of employment for graduates from each level of education--that is, the estimated distribution of graduates across available jobs and income levels presented in Table 2.72.

Total rates of return at the upper levels of the education system require some correction because of emigration. Though income earned by emigres is certainly an important private return to their educational qualifications, it does not constitute a return to the Haitian economy except for remittances, or money sent back home by those who have left. A second set of total rates of return is therefore calculated for those cycles of education from which a significant number of graduates emigrate. These calculations are based on the assumption that emigres annually remit 15% of their before-tax income. In every case, total rates of return diminish when the unremitted portion of emigre earnings is excluded.

Rates are calculated by the short-form method, which involves estimating average differentials between the lifetime income streams of people with different levels of education rather than calculating income differentials year by year.* Given the approximations used to determine the income data and the order-of-magnitude type of analysis being made, this method yields reasonably useful and accurate results. The method assumes that real income differences between people with different levels of income remain constant throughout their working lifetime.

Rates are referenced to the time of graduation--that is, the method compares the present value of costs and benefits at the time the student leaves school. To do this, costs incurred earlier are compounded forward to the time of school completion. Normally the future benefits of education (expressed in terms of increased income) are also discounted to their present value at the time of school completion. The necessary discount could be calculated by applying the rate of interest in a reverse operation. However, the short-form method used for the rate of return omits this step because income differences are assumed constant over the working lifetime. The rate of interest used for compounding (12%) is the rate most often used in similar calculations by economists working in Haiti and was suggested by economists working with the USAID Mission.

Foregone earnings must be included in the cost calculations for a rate of return analysis because they are part of the effective monetary sacrifice made by students and their families, even if they do not represent a direct cash payment. In the case of primary school students (whose average age was 10.6 years in 1982/83) it is assumed that they can earn $0.25 a day in rural areas and $0.50 a day in urban areas, if they are not in school. Given an average attendance of 160 school days a year, this represents foregone earnings of $40 a year for rural primary pupils and $80 a year for urban primary pupils.

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* $$r = \frac{Yx - Yx-1}{n(FGE + DC)}$$

where r = rate of return, $Y_x$ = average lifetime income of graduates of the level of education in question, $Y_{x-1}$ = average lifetime income of graduates of the previous level of education, n = number of years to complete the cycle of education in question, FGE = value of foregone earnings, DC = value of direct educational costs. As explained in the text, however, annual costs are compounded forward to time of graduation at the current market interest rate rather than simply multiplied by the number of years in the cycle.

In estimating foregone earnings for subsequent educational levels there are two points of reference. One is the earnings foregone by students in the previous level; this can be considered a minimum figure. The other guidepost is the average lifetime earnings of people having the same level of education (that is, those who have completed the previous cycle); this can be considered a maximum figure. For simplicity, the average of these two figures is adopted as the best estimate of the foregone earnings for the level of education in question. Thus, for example, foregone earnings for junior secondary school students are estimated to be half-way between foregone earnings for primary students and average lifetime earnings of people having only a primary level of education.

The only modification made in this approach is for senior vocational/technical education, where the majority of new enrollees have considerably more than the junior secondary qualification formally required by most programs (see Chapter 10). To reflect this fact and take account of the somewhat higher level of opportunity costs which it implies, foregone earnings for senior vocational/technical education students are estimated to lie half-way between those for general senior secondary studies and those for higher education.

The results of this calculation of annual foregone earnings are then added to the direct private costs of education to yield an estimate of the total annual private costs for each cycle and type of education. This figure is then compounded forward over the average number of years which graduates of the cycle of education in question spend completing their training. This produces an estimate of the total private cost of the program, referenced to the time of graduation.

To calculate overall social costs, external Government and donor expenditures per pupil are added to the annual private cost of education. The problem then is to decide over how many years these should be compounded. The best available estimate of total costs lies between the result obtained by compounding over the average number of years which graduates spend completing their education and the result obtained by compounding over the full number of "student-years per graduate." For the reasons explained earlier (Section 2.8.3.4), the former constitutes an underestimate of total costs and the latter constitutes an overestimate. The appropriate figure is somewhere within these bounds. Both calculations are therefore made and reported in Table 2.73 as total compound graduate costs and total compound cycle costs respectively. For simplicity, total rates of return are calculated only under H2, the more realistic assumption about average incomes. The result is two estimates for the total or social rate of return for each level and type of education: a high one

and a low one. The best estimate of the true value is within this range.

Two other methods used in this analysis need to be noted:

- The "option value" for each level of education is not included in the calculations but will appear instead in the comparison of rates between different levels. The "option value" of primary education, for example, refers to the fact that the effective return to primary education involves not only the income earned by those who obtain only primary education, but also some calculation of the possibility of gaining the rewards of further training to which primary education opens the door.
- To calculate private rates of return, taxes are generally deducted from individual revenues in determining net benefits from education. Because of uncertainties about both income tax rates and income tax collection mechanisms in Haiti, it is difficult to derive a formula that adequately represents the proportion of income at different social levels actually spent for taxes. However, taxes do have an impact on nearly everyone including rural Haitians who, if they do not pay income taxes, are nonetheless subject to levies on farm exports and imports and on internal trade. As a rough initial representation of this factor, 10% is deducted from estimated average gross income in calculating private rates of return.

2.9.2.2 Indicative Rates of Return to Haitian Education

The data in Tables 2.73 and 2.74 on rates of return are summarized in another form in Table 2.75, where the range of values for each level of education is presented. These rates are all referenced to the time of graduation--that is, they represent the prospective return on past investment for students now completing their course of studies. As the earlier analyses of student flows revealed, the likelihood that a student enrolling in the first year of any given cycle will complete the cycle varies roughly between .25 and .78. Those who do not graduate leave school with an intermediate level of qualification that is of lesser value, and the increased income or productivity which they experience as a result may not compensate them or society for the costs of their unfinished education, particularly if they are labeled as failures or dropouts.

The prospective private rates of return for enrollees must reflect these possibilities, much as the rates of return to graduates must reflect the likely distribution of these people across occupations and effective income levels. It is not possible to calculate the exact adjustment factor that should be applied to rates of return to graduates to fully describe the structure of incentives relevant for young people who are contemplating further study,

TABLE 2.75

Summary of Indicative Rates of Return to Haitian Education (H2)
(Rates of Return in Percentages)

| Branch of Education | Private Rates of Return | | | | | | Total Rates of Return (Excluding Emigration) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Range of Rates to Graduates | Average Rate to Graduate | Probability of Graduation | Correction Factor | Estimated Range of Rates to Enrollees | Est. Avg. Rate to Enrolees | Range of Rates | Average Rate |
| Primary | 6-71 | 25 | .31 | .66 | 4-47 | 16 | 8-19 | 12 |
| Junior Secondary | 12-25 | 19 | .78 | .89 | 11-22 | 17 | 12-19 | 16 |
| Junior Vocational/ Technical | 36 | 36 | .25 | .62 | 22 | 22 | 9 | 9 |
| Senior Secondary (b) | 35-52 | 42 | .33 | .67 | 23-35 | 28 | 25-32 | 28 |
| Senior Vocational/ Technical | 94-134 | 109 | .55 | .78 | 73-105 | 85 | 15-28 | 22 |
| Teacher Training (a) | 49 | 49 | .35 | .68 | 33 | 33 | 17 | 17 |
| Higher Education | 21-93 | 68 | NA | NA | NA | NA | 8-22 | 15 |

(a) Teacher training rates based on likelihood that graduates will not become teachers. For rates based on teaching career, see H1 in Table 2.74.
(b) Senior secondary correction factor based on probability for an 11th grade entrant of receiving full high school degree (second baccalaureat).

because that adjustment factor depends both on the perceived likelihood of graduation and on perceptions of the returns to uncompleted studies. As a rough approximation, the correction factor is estimated to be about midway between certainty (1.00) and the current empirical likelihood of successful graduation, as derived from the student flow models presented earlier. In Table 2.75, this correction factor is applied to the range of calculated private rates of return to graduates to give a more realistic estimate of the prospective rates of return to new enrollees and so of the factors that determine the demand for education. The values used in the total rates of return column are averages of the high and low estimates (the former based on graduate and the latter on cycle costs) for each cycle and type of education.

The data in Tables 2.73 through 2.75 support the following six conclusions about current returns to Haitian education:

1. Rates of return vary almost as much within levels of the educational system as between levels, due to the very different cost structures and promotion rates of the different kinds of schooling available in Haiti. It is difficult to speak of a single rate for any given level of education.

2. Private rates of return are of the same general order of size as those found in other developing countries (with some significant differences in configuration to be noted shortly), but total or "social" rates of return are much lower. A recent cross-national comparison by World Bank researchers reports median private rates of return in developing countries to be in excess of .30 for primary education, around .20 for secondary education, and .25 for higher education. Median social rates were .27 for primary, .17 for secondary, and .14 for higher education (Psacharopoulos, Returns to Education: A Further International Update and Implications, World Bank, 1985). Considerable caution should be exercised in interpreting these results, both for the reasons mentioned above and because the studies on which they are based do not all use the same methodology. The total rate of return is almost always the lower of the two because it takes account of higher costs, but the contrast in the figures for Haiti is striking. Three possible explanations follow, which are not mutually exclusive:

   - Total graduate and cycle costs in most branches of Haitian education are very high relative to private cycle costs for two reasons: First, in public and PVO-sponsored education, students and parents pay only a fraction of total costs, since education is

relatively highly subsidized (even if the effect of these subsidies is not always evident at the local level). Second, because of low internal efficiency (high attrition and retention rates), average number of years to graduate and student-years per graduate are relatively high, and the time period over which annual costs must be compounded to determine graduate or cycle costs is correspondingly high.

- Domestic employment opportunities and salaries are low for graduates at nearly all levels, with the possible exception of senior vocational/technical trainees and medical students. Given the even lower private costs of most forms of education and the modest level of foregone earnings, private returns to graduates appear respectable, but the monetary return to the total cost of education in the present Haitian job market is low.
- Total monetary rates of return do not reflect the full range of benefits of education that should be included in an overall social rate of return, because some are not directly monetary and others accrue to third parties. For example, there is considerable evidence that the primary education of girls and young women has positive effects on reducing both crude birth rates and infant mortality; however, these effects are not reflected in rate-of-return calculations based on increases in monetary revenue. Similarly, the beneficial effects of more widespread education on political awareness and expression, and on the generation of local organizations and upward demand structures, likewise are not reflected in the total rate-of-return figure. As a consequence, it can be taken as only a partial indication of the social value of education.

2. Private rates of return to graduates are relatively high, and generally well above the 12% interest rate adopted in these calculations as the opportunity cost of capital. It must be borne in mind that prospective rates will appear significantly lower to those contemplating enrollment, because of the high attrition rates in educational institutions. An attempt is made to take account of this phenomenon in Table 2.75. Private rates appear to be best for students in the well subsidized and high-quality institutions supported by the large PVOs (e.g., "rural PVO primary" in Table 2.74).
3. The pattern of both private and social rates of return is roughly the inverse of that reported in the current literature for most other developing countries and summarized earlier. Primary and junior

secondary education are characterized by the lowest private rates of return, followed by senior secondary education, whereas senior vocational/technical education and higher education have the highest rates. As for social rates of return, primary and junior secondary education are once again characterized by the lowest level, followed by teacher training and higher education, with senior secondary and senior vocational/technical education showing the highest rates. It must be remembered, of course, that the "option value" for each of the lower or preparatory cycles of education is not taken into account in these calculations. The rates reflect simply the probable increased earnings of someone who gets no more than the cycle of education in question relative to someone with the previous level of qualification. Nonetheless, this configuration is striking and significant in several respects:

- It helps to explain the very strong demand for increased education in Haiti. Basic education is much more profitable, at least from a private monetary point of view, as a means of access to secondary and higher education than it is in its own right. Significantly, the one exception to this pattern seems to be the case of graduates of low-cost rural primary schools who then migrate to urban areas.
- The inverse relation is partly due to the fact that the ratio of secondary and tertiary education costs, and particularly of vocational/technical education costs, to those of primary education is lower in Haiti than in most other countries at a comparable level of GNP, particularly in Africa (see Table 2.66 above).
- The more substantial private returns to higher levels of education also are related to their highly selective character. In the case of senior high school graduates, senior vocational/technical trainees, and university students, there seems to be a distinct funneling or filtering process which assures that only the minority who can be employed in the current job market manage to get into or through the cycles of education in question.

4. In most cases, private rates to primary and junior secondary education (both general and technical) are distinctly lower under the more realistic assumptions about the current distribution of graduates across job opportunities (H2). Significantly, the reverse seems to be true for the higher levels of education, for several related reasons:
   - Since average incomes of graduates of the lower cycles of education are reduced under the more realistic (H2) assumptions, foregone

earnings for students going on to the more advanced forms of training are likewise reduced, bringing down both the private and the total costs of their education.

- Though it is assumed (H1) that students in senior vocational/technical training and in higher education are being prepared to enter the Haitian labor market and contribute directly to the Haitian economy, in fact (H2) a significant number emigrate and receive better incomes than they could have realized on the domestic job market.
- The special case of normal school is of particular interest. These students are being trained explicitly to fill positions as primary school teachers in the public education system. Salary levels for the teaching profession are extremely low, however: until recently they were $100 a month irrespective of level of education or length of service. The recent Reform proposes an increase in salaries and the institution of a scale linking level of income to educational qualifications and length of service. But even these increases--which are reflected in Table 2.72--are not very substantial. As a result, students with normal school training can earn considerably more in other professions than they can in teaching, and there is a general tendency for normal school graduates to seek other employment.

5. Some further observations relating to particular cycles within the overall education system are worth noting:
   - At the level of primary education, the relative rates of return suggest the strong incentive for students trained in rural schools to emigrate to urban areas in search of a job. Private rates of return to a rural primary education are estimated to be as much as two times higher in urban areas than they are in rural areas.
   - Within the primary and the secondary school systems, rates are lower for the more expensive forms of schooling. The difference is probably not as great as it appears, since the income benefits to higher cost (and usually higher quality) education have been underestimated by combining them with the overall distribution of incomes to graduates of all schools of the level in question. However, this difference does express a true and significant phenomenon: namely, that higher cost education is profitable mainly because it improves access to advanced training, rather than because it increases the income that those who gain just this much



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training are likely to realize compared to their age-mates who graduate from less expensive institutions.

- For both private and total returns, senior vocational/technical education appears to promise some of the highest yields at the present time. It must be remembered, however, that this return is maintained at the cost of very high selectivity. As discussed more fully in Chapter 10, vocational/technical educators have been careful over recent years not to expand too fast and have been wary of saturating the market. As a result, senior vocational/technical graduates represent only 0.05% of each age cohort going through the school system and only 9% of all secondary school graduates (cf. Figures 2.2 and 2.3).
- The "vocational" tracks of higher education (medical and managerial training) have private and social returns that are multiples higher than those of general higher education.
- Total rates of return to higher levels of education diminish markedly when the unremitted portion of emigre earnings is excluded from the calculation of benefits.

### 2.9.3 Summary Issues

The rate of return analysis suggests that the Haitian economy is realizing at present a very modest monetary return on its total investment in education. Domestic earnings of trained manpower, and particularly domestic rates of employment in occupations which make full use of its manpower potential, are generally too low to assure a high financial return on the overall costs for education. If one adopts for each type of education the average of the two values presented and excludes unremitted earnings of emigres, total monetary rates of return to the different cycles of education in the Haitian system range from 9 to 28% with a median value of 16%. This is slightly above the assumed opportunity cost of capital.

The many widely recognized and accepted social and political benefits of educational investment are not measured by this rate of return analysis, but it does suggest that the Haitian economy is presently characterized by a problem of underutilization of human resources. This problem is linked to inadequate training of students and, more importantly, to deficiencies in the labor market, which does not make optimum use of the actual and potential skills of newly trained young people. As a consequence, the educational system still exhibits a trait that has characterized it for many years--a sharply tapering upward funnel in which the ultimate aspiration is to attain a high enough level of education to leave the country.

This same motivation may help to explain the high demand for basic education in Haiti. Given the moderate private returns to primary and junior secondary school, the considerable financial sacrifices they demand, and the low probability of gaining access to higher education, the overwhelming popular demand for education cannot be understood without taking account of three other factors:

- Education historically has a very strong social value in Haiti and is associated with status, mobility, influence, and social respect.
- Education is considered as a sort of a lottery: the chance of winning may be slim, but if you don't play you have no chance at all. The popular name for low-cost (and usually low-quality) urban primary schools--écoles borlettes--seems to convey this meaning precisely.
- Living standards among the poor, in both urban and rural areas, have been so difficult in recent years that any increment in life chances or any additional insurance against "sliding off the bottom of the scale" (in practical terms, this may mean having to emigrate to the Dominican Republic to cut sugarcane for $1 a day or less) may have a real subjective value out of all proportion to its mathematical one. In other words, a small amount of additional income that could make the difference between constant risk of malnourishment, sickness, or catastrophe and a reasonable chance at survival may be worth a great deal more than a larger increment to someone who is already at least physically secure.

The deficiencies of the employment and incentive structure are particularly evident in the case of teachers, most of whom can increase their rate of return by abandoning the teaching profession. The highly subsidized nature of their studies makes the relative advantage of other careers appear that much more attractive. The problem of training and retaining competent teachers needs to be addressed by simultaneously improving normal schools, raising qualifications standards, and improving salaries (perhaps in part in the form of fringe benefits and job security) rather than simply by continuing to subsidize preservice teacher education.

From a purely economic point of view, the two areas related to the educational system which most deserve further investment are employment creation and vocational/technical training in the broad sense of education that relates the school system (and the nonformal education system) to development of the job market. Senior vocational/technical education is presently characterized by the highest rates of return because it fills jobs in the

industrial sector, both within Haiti and abroad, and so far has restricted its number of graduates to avoid saturation of the market (see Chapter 10). Attention needs to be given simultaneously to developing greater employment opportunities for technically trained people and to gradually broadening the vocational/technical system and better integrating it into the secondary education system. This theme is discussed further in the concluding section of this chapter.

## 2.10 THE ECONOMIC VIABILITY OF PRIVATE EDUCATION

The private sector has traditionally accounted for a significant proportion of education in Haiti. Reports of government education inspectors in mid-19th century Haiti describe the large number of private schools then in existence. In the last two decades, private schools have increased at a far greater rate than public schools in urban as well as rural areas. An over-whelming 86% of the rapid growth of primary enrollments over the last decade, and 95% of the growth of secondary enrollments, is due to expansion of the private sector. In essence, the private schools have absorbed most of the rising social demand for education.

Will the private sector be able to maintain this rate of expansion? Government has set ambitious goals for educational expansion over the remainder of this decade. The public system of education, as presently constituted and financed, cannot achieve these goals. The private sector will have to continue its rapid expansion if these goals are to be achieved. The Third Five-Year Plan, for the period 1981-86, projected the construction of 3,634 new classrooms by private sector institutions, 45% more than the number which Government itself intended to build.

The role of the private sector in Haitian education raises numerous important policy questions which are considered in other chapters of this assessment. The question that an economic analysis can address is whether private schools can continue to expand and play a major role in attaining Government's enrollment objectives.

The first thing to be noted is that private education is a very complex and diverse sector. It includes schools operated for profit or on a break-even basis and others sponsored by a variety of religious missions and charitable organizations. It ranges from shade-tree rural classrooms with barely a blackboard to the most prestigious schools in Port-au-Prince. It is often said that the private sector includes both the worst and the best schools in Haiti. Despite this variety, several generalizations can be made about the funding and operation of private schools. These are discussed below.

1. Virtually the only significant education in rural areas, with any reasonable degree of quality or quantity, is provided by externally-funded mission or church schools. In 1983, for example, 67% of rural primary schools were private, and most of those were directly or indirectly church supported. Although potential demand for education in rural areas is high, the rural population generally cannot afford to sustain a school. There seem to be two exceptions. First, a few relatively well-to-do rural areas, typically near towns of some importance, can afford private schools. Second, in more remote areas there are a few small, low-quality schools started by local primary-school graduates (or even dropouts) who for a time gather a number of unschooled children together and teach them what they can remember of their own early schooling. These are often referred to as "mushroom schools" since they appear when the terrain is favorable but seldom last more than a season.

   In general, however, the only durable schools in rural areas are subsidized ones. Some have been created by outside missions, and some by local churches which have then sought external support. As the cost analysis revealed, the funds required per student to deliver minimally effective education are three or four times more than most rural parents can afford. In most cases, providing school lunches is an essential support to minimal levels of pedagogical efficiency, because malnourished children do not learn well. It also acts in many cases as a tuition subsidy, allowing or encouraging parents who would not otherwise be able to do so to send their children to school. Even so, the estimates in Table 2.70 suggest that most children who do manage to attend school in rural areas are from the upper and middle strata of rural society. The provision of low-cost subsidized private schools in rural areas has had some positive effect on this situation. Rural public schools are generally very marginal operations because of their underfunding.

   When important inputs (feeding programs, a minimum of books and materials, supervision and guidance for the teachers) are provided from the outside, internal efficiency improves markedly. The principle of increasing local contributions to costs seems critical, but at present such resources alone are simply not enough to sustain a school system.

2. The situation is different in urban areas, where both the average and the range of family incomes are considerably higher. Public schools

are more numerous and of distinctly better quality than in rural areas, but they do not satisfy the public demand. There are few indeed in some of the poorest neighborhoods, such as Port-au-Prince's Cite Simone district. Children from other neighborhoods, who are not admitted to a public school in their own district, sometimes infiltrate and occupy available places in the poorer sections. It may take some special influence for a poor child to be admitted into the nearest public school.

Commercial private schools absorb surplus demand effectively in those urban areas where family incomes exceed $1,500 a year. The best schools in Haiti are private institutions catering to the well-to-do portions of the urban population. Quality drops with decreases in income but still is at least equal to urban public schools for institutions charging the equivalent of the full social cost of public schooling.

Below this level, quality is less predictable. In working class areas of the capital there are numerous small private institutions--popularly called "lottery schools," the equivalent of caveat emptor--where generally uncertified teachers give an education of generally low quality. Under the pressure of excess supply in the labor market, however, more academically qualified young people have been seeking private school teaching jobs. During sector assessment field trips, a few private primary schools were encountered where recent high school graduates with a baccalauréat degree were teaching. In the poorest neighborhoods (La Saline, Brooklyn, Boston), disposable income is too low to support for-profit institutions, and the only education offered is provided by mission-supported schools.

3. At the secondary school level, the private sector absorbs an even larger proportion of social demand than at the primary level. More than 80% of secondary enrollments are in private institutions. Secondary schools are almost all in urban areas, and a good proportion of the students are from families which can afford some level of tuition. The more prestigious secondary schools--including the better quality religious ones--are combined primary and secondary institutions whose high school enrollments are largely drawn from their own primary graduates. Commercial secondary institutions in Port-au-Prince and the major cities may earn good profits. Considering the larger portion of the total enrollment that is private, the opportunity for profit from

offering an education inferior to public schools is proportionately greater at the secondary level.

4. The involvement of the private sector in higher education, as well as in vocational and technical education, is more restricted and recent. Until the last decade private effort in these branches of the educational system suffered from some handicaps which continue to affect its expansion. Until the 1970s there was not enough demand for higher education to justify the establishment of private universities. The number of private institutions of higher learning is now seven, including engineering institutes, and further expansion has been announced (e.g., creation of an "American University of Les Cayes," expansion of the Haitian Institute of Electronics and Technology).

   Vocational/technical education until recently was also an area of low social demand because of the low status of technical and manual occupations in Haitian culture and because of the limited labor market for technically skilled workers prior to the 1970s. Missionary organizations sponsored some vocational training institutes as an adjunct to their general academic training, but the response of the commercial private sector was very limited. As discussed in Chapter 10, the economic and cultural climate in this regard has begun to change dramatically. Numerous private institutions of technical education have begun to appear, most notably in training for secretarial and accounting skills.

   Another factor restricting intervention of the commercial private sector in vocational/technical training is the considerable initial capital investment necessary to create a valid training institution. Technical training institutes require considerable expenditures on laboratories and equipment. Venture capital is scarce and amortization places a heavy burden on annual budgets.

Overall, the private sector has done a great deal to compensate for the quantitative and qualitative inadequacies of Government services in education. The coverage by the private sector, however, is neither evenly distributed nor consistent in quality. Commercial or self-financing forms of education, though perhaps most able to respond to rapid changes in social demand, have not ventured into some of the areas where the expansion of education is most important to the accomplishment of Government development objectives (e.g., rural primary education and vocational/technical education). This has not occurred either because the initial investment required has been too high or because the "effective demand" (i.e., the ability of clients to pay) has been

too low to provide an incentive. In some marginal areas (e.g., proprietary primary schools in poor urban neighborhoods, secondary schools for those who cannot get into public lycées or the prestigious colleges), private education does address the needs not met by Government, though sometimes at the cost of a sharp reduction in quality that Government is unable to monitor and against which consumers are poorly equipped to defend themselves.

If social demand for education continues to expand, and if ability to pay increases through significant improvements in income levels, the prospects for commercial educational ventures in rural education and vocational/technical training could significantly change. The growth of private education is thus related to economic growth as a whole and to its equitable distribution.

Until such economic improvements come about, however, the country will continue to depend on the assistance of church-affiliated and private organizations to contribute to the supply of educational opportunities. How likely is this philanthropic sector to maintain or increase its commitment of resources? At present, more than 350 foreign and domestic private voluntary and philanthropic organizations operate in Haiti. They annually provide approximately $9.8 million in resources to education, and there is little overall coordination. That amount is probably an underestimate, because much outside assistance is channeled into the country without being registered and because many of the personnel of these organizations work for wages well below the fair market equivalent. A number of the larger sponsoring organizations--for example, the Catholic orders, the Baptist Haiti Mission, Compassion International--have developed well-organized networks of schools and support services with significant Haitian participation in management and supervision, but the outside financial and personnel contribution is still very substantial.

It is difficult to forecast the fiscal capacity of the private sector and the future climate for humanitarian assistance. Haiti is well located to benefit from the ample U.S. philanthropic resources and, because of its cultural and linguistic ties with Europe, to gain additional support from that quarter as well. It should be noted, however, that funds from private donors are subject to fluctuations, due both to changes in prevailing economic conditions within the donors' home countries and to changes in their attitudes concerning humanitarian aid to the Third World in general and to Haiti in particular. In the short run, philanthropic assistance may be an unpredictable source of supply; and in the long run, major dependence on it seems incompatible with national sovereignty.

Private voluntary organizations certainly will continue to make an extremely valuable contribution to education in Haiti. Much can be learned, in

the sphere of economic accountability as well as in pedagogical areas, from the methods they have developed for delivering educational services of reasonable quality to the rural population and the urban poor. Perhaps most interesting is the manner in which some have managed to act as a stimulus to local private initiative, furnishing just the minimum support necessary to bring local schools up to reasonable quality standards and to balance their budgets.

Two factors should be noted, however, about the cases where this strategy seems to have been successful. First, the PVOs generally provide more support than Government can presently afford, even for its existing schools. Second, in some cases the strategy works because people with a religious motivation are willing to work at very low wages. Mission school teachers commonly earn 40-70% of the already low salaries of public school teachers, for example. There is some question, therefore, about how generalizable the example of PVO schools is to the whole of Haiti and how much further these schools can spread.

## 2.11 CONCLUSIONS

The foregoing study of the relationships between the educational system and the Haitian economy provides the basis for a number of conclusions. These will be drawn upon in the final section to make a number of recommendations.

The economic analyses presented in this chapter support the following conclusions:

### Conclusion 1 - Limitations

Though the educational system has grown at an increasingly rapid pace in recent years, it retains the shape of a sharply tapering pyramid which even at its base reaches only certain strata of the population.

### Conclusion 2 - Private Sector

The system is strongly characterized by the predominance and diversity of the private sector, which includes everything from philanthropic forms of education to profit-making institutes, and from shade-tree schools of dubious quality to the best training institutions in the country.

### Conclusion 3 - Quality

Except for a minority of high-quality private institutes, the system has pervasive problems of low internal efficiency, high teacher turnover, and low quality of instruction. However, high attrition rates may be as much a necessary adjustment to the small number of places in advanced training and the low absorptive capacity of the skilled labor market as a symptom of inefficient internal operations.

Conclusion 4 - Rates of Return

Although private rates of return to graduates are relatively high for most levels of education, largely because of cost subsidization, overall monetary returns to Haitian society are very modest. This situation is principally due to chronic underutilization of skilled or potentially skilled manpower in the economy and the emigration of many of the best trained individuals.

Conclusion 5 - Demand

Public demand for education is very high, as demonstrated by the personal and financial sacrifices made by students and their families and by the proliferation of low-cost (and for the most part low-quality) forms of private education which absorb the excess demand.

Conclusion 6 - Information

Educational planning and analysis are severely hampered by a lack of current and reliable information and studies on the present situation of the educational system, particularly its private components, and by the underdeveloped capacity for collecting and analyzing data. Some private voluntary organizations have their own systems of monitoring and analysis, but there is no effective central coordination or Government monitoring. The proprietary education sector is almost entirely uncontrolled and not evaluated.

## 2.12 RECOMMENDATIONS

The analyses in this chapter suggest several policy directions for improving the efficiency and effectiveness of the educational system. They fall into two categories, educational and administrative.

### 2.12.1 Educational Recommendations

Recommendation 1 - Quality. Enhance the quality of basic education and its relevance to Haitian development objectives.

Part of the low external efficiency that characterizes primary education reflects the declining quality of instruction that has accompanied the rapid expansion of the system in recent years, and the lack of immediate relevance of programs that are oriented strictly toward entry into secondary school. The progressive transformation of the existing public primary and secondary system, into a basic education program of 10 years' duration complemented by a 3-year secondary cycle for those who continue, provides a framework for upgrading the quality of instruction and orienting the fundamental training of youth more solidly toward Haitian development needs.

Systematic efforts to improve the quality and supply of instructional materials, retrain teachers, enrich supervision, and so forth should have a

significant impact on the amount learned and retained by students at the primary level. The division of the 10 years of basic education into 3 subcycles (4+3+3) creates possibilities and a need for elaborating new intermediate linkages to employment and complementary types of nonformal training, so as to enable those who do not continue their education to put their new skills to productive use. These issues of quality and linkage deserve equal if not greater emphasis than simple quantitative expansion of the formal school system under the Reform.

Recommendation 2 - Access. Expand access to basic education through improved systems of nonformal education linked to local productive activities and offering possibilities of equivalence with, and transfer into, the formal cycle.

Nonformal education programs, like some of the PVO and ONAAC experiments, can reach groups that now have only limited access to formal education, and do so at reasonable cost. The introduction of Creole into the Reform curriculum at the early grades provides an excellent opportunity for linking formal with nonformal education so that communities may build initial part-time programs into greater formal equivalency. Some missionary organizations already sponsor "no frills" varieties of primary school instruction that are on the border between formal and nonformal education. This approach deserves further exploration.

Recommendation 3 - Vocational Training. Upgrade the vocational/technical option for graduates of basic education.

Existing vocational/technical programs are generally poorly equipped and small in scale. They enjoy a relatively high rate of return, partly because supply has been restricted by a combination of factors more fully described in Chapter 10. It is not certain that effective demand for skilled workers in the Haitian job market greatly exceeds this supply at present. It does seem certain, however, that the linkage between basic education and productive technical roles in the economy, which vocational/technical education seeks to embody, should be more fully developed. This can be done through programs linked to new activities of employment creation (see below), through improved systems for on-the-job training, and through better technical and vocational counseling and orientation of students completing basic education.

Recommendation 4 - Manpower. Develop manpower utilization and training programs linked to employment creation.

The present limited capacity of the Haitian economy to absorb educated manpower is a major barrier to the development of the educational system and the country. The growth of an industrial sector in Port-au-Prince, currently

organized around electronics assembly firms and import-substitution enterprises, is important as a source of employment and revenue in the capital. However, it has neither created a large number of new skilled positions nor created a large multiplier effect through backward linkages to other parts of the economy. If educated manpower is to find a productive outlet, simultaneous emphasis needs to be put on employment creation through two kinds of initiatives in other highly complementary sectors of the economy: (a) establishment of small and intermediate firms and craft concerns which can supply urban and agro-industry and establish backward and forward linkages with other components of the economy; and (b) sponsorship of locally managed rural cooperatives and credit and production units, which can be instrumental in accumulating investment funds in rural areas, and which will require the services of a literate cadre of rural people, thus giving added practical importance to basic education.

### 2.12.2 Administrative Recommendations

Recommendation 5 - Private Sector. Employ the private sector to maximum advantage.

Private institutions will remain among the principal suppliers of educational services in Haiti for the foreseeable future. Mechanisms are needed to ensure that the education they provide meets quality standards of the Reform, conforms to national policy options in curriculum and access, and benefits from the conditions necessary to make it economically viable.

Special care needs to be taken in identifying and distinguishing the needs that private institutions will meet without Government intervention, those they can meet with appropriate incentives and regulation, and those they are ill-suited to meet. Distinctions in these respects should be made among the different kinds of private institutions. In areas of low financial return, like rural primary education, Government and private philanthropy need to become more active. In areas of high effective demand, like urban secondary education, proprietary institutions can accept much of the responsibility for expansion. In intermediate areas where returns are relatively good but capital requirements are high or pay-back periods are long, such as vocational/technical education and some forms of higher education, Government may need to provide incentives or support by soliciting investment funds or providing student loans. Employing the private sector to maximum advantage also means benefiting from the innovative measures that some private groups have developed to meet needs for instructional delivery, quality control, and educational accountability.

Recommendation 6 - Oversight. Upgrade the planning, monitoring, and oversight capacities of the Ministry of Education.

To employ the private sector to maximum advantage, to ensure minimum quality standards and policy coherence with respect to the Reform, and to respect the economic viability of private schools, Government itself must develop increased capacities for monitoring, planning, administration, and training. Improved systems of accreditation, certification, licensing, and evaluation would significantly help in this domain. Means and structures need to be identified or established for collaborative planning by the public and the private sector. Government cannot meet the high public demand for educational services, but in the public interest it must be able to monitor and coordinate the supply of these services.

Recommendation 7 - Incentives. Gradually improve salaries, professional status, and job security for teachers in both the public and the private sectors.

The low earnings and lack of job security which characterize the teaching profession cause high turnover and low morale among teachers. This situation impedes other efforts to enhance the quality of education. This issue is linked to the larger problem of the status of the civil service in Haiti, which likewise requires solution if Government personnel are to have a strong and reliable influence on development.

Recommendation 8 - Information. Improve mechanisms for data collection and analysis.

Educational planning and decisionmaking are hampered by the lack of even marginally adequate information on the trends and variables of interest in assessing the current state of the education system and its relation to the economy, particularly the private sector. Five kinds of studies would be most useful for solving problems related to increasing educational efficiency:

1. Tracer studies on graduates of different levels of the educational system, to discover what becomes of them and what use they make of the learning they have acquired.
2. Student flow analyses to determine the proportions of students who repeat, drop out, and are promoted at each level of the system, the magnitude and nature of transfers between system subdivisions, the categories of students involved, and so forth.
3. School fee and family budget studies to describe more accurately the magnitude and incidence of educational costs.

4. Ethnographic studies of learning processes in schools to get a better idea of the actual learning output of different forms of education.
5. Ethnographic studies of a variety of work settings, particularly the new industrial ones, to determine the degree to which competencies learned in school are being used, the unmet skill needs, and related information.

*Chapitre*

# 3

Chapter

# *Coordination et Activités des Donateurs*

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# Donor Activities and Coordination

## AVANT PROPOS

Le chapitre 3, "Activité et coordination des donateurs" a été revu á Port-au-Prince le 10 avril 1986 par les personnes suivantes :

| | |
|---|---|
| Mme. Marie Thérèse Duperval | Directrice adjoint du Cabinet du MEN |
| Mr. Joseph Herns Henry | Directeur de la Planification, MEN |
| Mr. Max Paul | Chargé du Développement des Ressources Humaines, Ministère du Plan |
| Mr. Gary Perrodin | Chef du Service de l'Evaluation, Direction de la Planification, MEN |
| Mr. Jérôme Jean-Noel | Chef du Service de la Coopération Externe, Direction de la Planification, MEN |
| Mr. Jean-José Raymond | Technicien, Direction de la Planification, MEN |

Monsieur Milton Adams, Directeur Adjoint de l'AMESED à de l'Université d'Etat de Floride a participé aux discussions, comme facilitateur.

Le groupe de révision a eu le sentiment que ce document aborde des sujets d'une importance critique pour la planification de l'éducation. Il soulève bien de questions cruciales. C'est pourquoi le groupe de révision souhaite que les observations et suggestions suivantes soient enregistrées.

- La commission mixte de coopération, qui a été créée en 1981 dans le souci d'une meilleure coordination des donateurs, et qui depuis lors se réunit annuellement sous l'autorité du Ministère de la Planification n'a pas été mentionnée dans le chapitre adéquatement.

- Dans le future, les rapports d'évaluation sectorielle comportant un chapitre semblable, devraient donner de plus amples informations sur les activités spécifiques des donateurs pris individuellement.

- Les dimensions de futures études de ce genre devraient être élargies de manière á inclure bon nombre de questions critiques concernant l'assistance technique, y compris le processus d'identification des projets et de recrutement des experts ainsi que la détermination des tâches des susdits experts.

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## 3.0 COORDINATION ET ACTIVITES DES DONATEURS

Ce chapitre traite de l'aide extérieure multilatérale ou bilatérale fournie à Haïti au titre du développement. L'aide reçue d'organismes internationaux, d'agences de coopération bilatérale, et d'organismes non gouvernementaux représente plus du double de ce que le gouvernement consacre au développement. Haïti est peut-être le pays qui reçoit, d'institutions privées à but non lucratif, l'assistance la plus importante de cet hémisphère.

### 3.1 SITUATION ACTUELLE

Dans les paragraphes qui suivent, un premier bilan de l'aide fournie par les donateurs multilatéraux et bilatéraux ainsi que par les organismes non-gouvernementaux est établi. Il est basé sur des données provenant essentiellement de trois sources : le Rapport Annuel sur l'aide extérieure en Haïti, 1983, établi par le Programme des Nations Unie pour le Développement (PNUD), divers rapports de l'Agence des Etats Unis pour le Développement International (USAID) concernant les activités des organismes non-gouvernementaux, et une série d'entretiens avec les chefs de mission de plusieurs organismes donateurs bilatéraux.

Le rapport du PNUD fournit des renseignements sur 37 organismes internationaux dont les plus importants sont : le PNUD, la Banque Internationale pour la Reconstruction et le Développement (BIRD), la Banque Mondiale (BM), la Banque Interaméricaine de Développement (BID), l'Institut Interaméricain pour la Commercialisation Agricole (IICA), le Programme Alimentaire Mondial (PAM), le Fonds des Nations Unies pour l'Enfance (le FISE), l'Organisation Mondiale de la Santé (OMS), l'Organisation Panaméricaine de la Santé (OPS) et l'Organisation des Etats Américains (OEA).

Cinq organismes bilatéraux importants ont apporté leur aide à Haïti en 1983 : l'USAID, la République Fédérale d'Allemagne (RFA), l'Agence Canadienne de Développement International (ACDI), le Fonds d'Aide et de Coopération (FAC) et le Service de la Coopération Culturelle et Technique (SCCT), tous les deux représentant la France, et le service d'aide au développement de la Chine (Taïwan).

De nombreux organismes non-gouvernementaux (ONG) apportent également un soutien important aux activités de développement. Parmi ceux dont le budget annuel dépassait un million de dollars pour l'année fiscale 1983, on peut citer le CARE, les Services Catholiques de Secours (Catholic Relief Service - CRS), le Service Mondiale de l'Eglise du Septième Jour (SAWS), le Fonds Haïtiano-Allemand pour le Développement (FONDEV), et la Mission Baptiste.

### 3.1.1 Les Efforts de Développement

Les organismes d'aide multilatérale et bilatérale jouent un rôle important dans le processus de développement en Haïti. Les organismes non gouvernementaux, notamment les organismes bénévoles et philanthropiques ("private voluntary organizations" ou "PVO") sont des éléments d'intervention particulièrement dynamiques. Le Tableau 3.1 donne les contributions financières respectives des trois groupes au cours de l'année 1983. L'aide bilatérale occupe la première place avec 46.6% des fonds accordés, suivie de l'aide multilatérale avec 39.9% et de celle des organismes non gouvernementaux avec 13.6%. Les trois quarts environ des dépenses extérieures correspondent à l'assistance en équipement ou en frais de premier établissement et le reste à l'assistance technique.

Dans le Tableau 3.2, les allocations budgétaires consacrées au développement par le gouvernement sont comparées à celles de l'assistance extérieure par secteur d'activités. Ainsi que cela a été indiqué plus haut, l'aide extérieure représentait plus du double des sommes allouées par le gouvernement au cours de l'année fiscale 1983-84. Dans le secteur de l'éducation, l'aide extérieure représente 84% de la valeur totale des investissements.

Dans le Tableau 3.3, l'aide extérieure est ventilée par secteur et par type d'assistance. La tranche la plus importante (22%) est portée au compte du secteur du commerce (fonds d'exploitation et de commercialisation compris). Ceci est dû en partie à l'assistance massive de l'AID dans le cadre de la loi PL-480. Environ $28.4 millions reçus à ce titre ont servi à l'achat de produits alimentaires qui ont été, soit revendus par le gouvernement pour le financement de ses projets de développement, soit utilisés dans des programmes de cantine scolaire ou de santé maternelle et infantile, soit distribués sous forme de secours aux victimes de catastrophes naturelles. Viennent ensuite, et par ordre d'importance, les secteurs de l'agriculture, des ressources naturelles (projets d'électrification, notamment) et de la santé. La ventilation de l'aide par organisme et par secteur est présentée dans le Tableau 3.4.

L'aide extérieure a augmenté régulièrement de 1979 à 1982 (de 81 millions de dollars à 181 millions environ), puis a baissé en 1983. L'aide multilatérale s'est accrue au cours de cette période, tandis que la partie bilatérale a diminué de 20% en 1983 et celle des organismes non governementaux de 40% entre 1981 et 1983. Parmi les agences de coopération, l'AID a continué à augmenter son aide à un rythme soutenu, mais les contributions des autres donateurs ont fluctué de façon quelque peu erratique.

Tableau 3.1

Aide extérieure par donateur et par contribution, 1983
($000)

| Source | Contributions | | Total | Pourcentage |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Aide Multilatérale** | | | | |
| Système des Nations Unies | | | | |
| BIRD | $22,682 | | | |
| PNUD | 4,093 | | | |
| PAM | 1,922 | | | |
| FISE | 1,613 | | | |
| FAO | 1,139 | | | |
| OMS/OPS | 1,103 | | | |
| Autres Agences de l'ONU | 2,432 | | | |
| Sous-total (UN) | | $34,984 | | |
| Autres Agences d'Aide Multilatérale | | | | |
| BID | 23,564 | | | |
| IICA | 7,205 | | | |
| OEA | 823 | | | |
| Sous-total (Autres) | | 31,592 | | |
| Total de toute l'aide multilatérale | | | $66,576 | 39.9% |
| **Aide Bilatérale** | | | | |
| USAID | 44,378 | | | |
| RFA | 10,394 | | | |
| ACDI | 10,380 | | | |
| FAC/SCCT | 7,667 | | | |
| République de Chine | 4,800 | | | |
| Total général de l'aide bilatérale | | | 77,699 | 46.6% |
| **Organisations non gouvernementales** | | | | |
| CARE | 9,301 | | | |
| SCS | 3,242 | | | |
| Service Mondial de l'Eglise | 2,387 | | | |
| FONDEV | 1,413 | | | |
| Eglise Méthodiste | 1,180 | | | |
| Mission Baptiste | 1,164 | | | |
| Autres Organisations N.G. | 4,002 | | | |
| Total général de l'aide des ONG | | 22,689 | | 13.6% |
| Total de l'aide extérieure | | | $166,964 | 100.1% |

Source : Programme des Nations Unies pour le développement. Rapport sur l'assistance externe en Haïti, 1983, Port-au-Prince.

Tableau 3.2

Comparaison entre les budgets de développement nationaux et externes

Année Fiscale 1983-84 (a)

| Secteur | Pourcentage des ressources | | Total des Ressources ($000) |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Nationales | Externes | |
| Agriculture | 24 | 76 | $38,510 |
| Communications | 95 | 5 | 8,443 |
| Transport | 42 | 58 | 32,403 |
| Développement urbain | 27 | 73 | 30,869 |
| Energie | 35 | 65 | 34,401 |
| Santé | 31 | 69 | 19,318 |
| Education | 16 | 84 | 10,162 |
| Eau | 15 | 85 | 8,567 |
| Développement communautaire | 16 | 84 | 19,345 |
| Industrie et artisanat | 29 | 71 | 2,727 |
| Mines | 21 | 79 | 2,645 |
| Commerce | 60 | 40 | 285 |
| Statistiques | 66 | 34 | 769 |
| Tourisme | 100 | 0 | 340 |
| Affaires sociales | 9 | 91 | 1,344 |
| Jeunesse et sports | 100 | 0 | 195 |
| Divers | 21 | 79 | 9,180 |
| Total Général des ressources | | | $219,503 |
| Pourcentage total | 31 | 69 | 100% |

(a) 1er octobre 1983 - 30 septembre 1984

Source : Ministère de la planification



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Tableau 3.3

Aide extérieure par secteur et par donateur, 1983
($000)

| Secteur | AIDE EXTERIEURE Multilatérale | Bilatérale | des ONG | Total | Pourcentage |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Commerce (y compris PL-480) | $1,346 | $32,570 | $2,386 | $36,302 | 21.8 |
| Agriculture | 15,520 | 10,625 | 2,318 | 28,463 | 17.1 |
| Ressources naturelles | 11,794 | 14,821 | 613 | 27,228 | 16.4 |
| Santé | 17,300 | 6,650 | 2,788 | 26,738 | 16.1 |
| Aide humanitaire | 7 | 277 | 11,475 | 11,759 | 7.1 |
| Transports et communications | 8,379 | 2,183 | 4 | 10,566 | 6.3 |
| Education | 3,424 | 3,587 | 1,645 | 8,656 | 5.2 |
| Habitat humain | 1,395 | 6,218 | 26 | 7,639 | 4.6 |
| Industrie | 4.821 | 677 | 860 | 6,358 | 3.8 |
| Planification et développement | 1,218 | 96 | --- | 1,314 | 0.8 |
| Emplois | 637 | --- | 32 | 669 | 0.4 |
| Culture | 290 | --- | --- | 290 | 0.2 |
| Population | 250 | --- | 2 | 252 | 0.2 |
| Sciences et technologie | 103 | --- | --- | 103 | 0.1 |
| Droits de l'homme/ développement social | 94 | --- | --- | 94 | 0.1 |
| Total* | $66,578 | $77,704 | $22,149 | $166,431 | |
| Pourcentage | 39.9% | 46.5% | 13.3% | | 100% |

*Les totaux ne tombent pas justes car les chiffres des secteurs ont été arrondis.

Source : Rapport du PNUD sur l'aide extérieure à Haïti. Adaptation.

Les secteurs spécifiques d'intervention de l'aide multilatérale, bilatérale et des organismes non gouvernementaux sont brièvement énumérés ci-après :

L'Aide bilatérale. La plus grande partie de l'aide massive de l'USAID (28,4 millions de dollars sur les 44,4 millions accordés en 1983) prend la forme de produits alimentaires fournis au titre du programme "PL-480", dont 43% sont vendus par le gouvernement pour financer ses programmes de développement et 57% sont réservés aux programmes d'alimentation scolaire, de protection maternelle et infantile et de santé. Les autres organismes d'aide bilatéraux participent au financement des programmes de développement des ressources naturelles, notamment l'énergie électrique.

L'Aide nongouvernementale. Les activités des ONG portent principalement sur l'agriculture, la santé, l'habitat et l'éducation. Ce sont des activités qui touchent la population directement. Les ONG dont les budgets dépassaient un million de dollars en 1984 sont : la CARE, l'Action Missionnaire Globale (AMG), la Coopération Haïtiano-Néerlandaise (COHAN), la Fondation Coopérative de Logement (HF), l'International Child Care (ICC), l'Eglise Méthodiste, la Fondation Panaméricaine pour le Développement (PADF) et le groupe Vision sur le Monde (WVI).

### 3.1.2 Les Projets de Développement.

Quatre secteurs reçoivent la plus grande partie de l'aide extérieure. Par ordre d'importance décroissant, ce sont le commerce, incluant le Programme PL-480 de l'AID, l'agriculture, les ressources naturelles, la santé (tableau 3.3). Une brève description des activités dans ces quatre secteurs est présentée ci-dessous, ainsi que les activités du secteur de l'éducation qui se classe au septième rang du point de vue de montant de l'aide accordée.

Commerce/Finances. En plus de l'aide massive de l'USAID, la Banque Interaméricaine de Développement et la Réublique de Chine (Taiwan) ont accordé des prêts au Gouvernement pour financer ses activités commerciales. L'ACDI fournit une assistance à la Division de Vérification des Comptes de la Banque de la République d'Haïti dans le cadre des activités du Fonds Monétaire International et par l'intermédiaire de la société de comptabilité Peat, Marwick & Mitchell.

L'Agriculture. Il y a beaucoup plus de projets fonctionnant dans ce secteur que dans n'importe quel autre. Les projets portent sur la promotion de la production agricole, le développement communautaire et le développement intégré, le programme (d'"investissements humains" dans lequel des vivres sont distribués en compensation du travail fourni par la population), Food For Work programme, les coopératives agricoles, la moisson, l'ensilage des récoltes, l'élevage, la pêche et l'exploitation forestière. Toutes les agences bilatérales investissent dans ce secteur, et l'aide multilatérale y est

représentée par la Banque Mondiale, le PNUD, le PAM, la BID et l'OEA.

Les Ressources naturelles. Ce secteur comprend des projets concernant l'établissement du cadastre, le système hydraulique, le reboisement, le contrôle de l'érosion, l'irrigation, les ressources minérales et biologiques, et l'énergie. Le développement de l'énergie électrique absorbe une grande partie de l'aide affectée à ce secteur : 68% des fonds de la Banque Mondiale (7.4 millions de dollars), 100% de ceux de l'ACDI (7.5 millions de dollars), 98% de ceux du FAC (3.7 millions de dollars), et 34% de ceux de la RFA.

La Santé. Ce secteur comprend les services généraux de santé, la protection de la santé maternelle et infantile, la nutrition, la prévention et le contrôle des maladies, et l'assainissement de l'environnement. L'aide multilatérale y joue un rôle prépondérant ; en 1983, parmi les agences d'aide bilatérale, seule l'AID intervenait dans le domaine de la santé.

L'Education. Malgré l'importance incontestable du système éducatif dans le développement des ressources humaines, l'éducation recevait seulement 5.2% de l'aide extérieure en 1983, soit moins du tiers du montant affecté au secteur des ressources naturelles. La plupart des organismes internationaux apportent leur contribution à la réforme de l'éducation entreprise par le gouvernement. L'aide bilatérale est surtout affectée à l'enseignement supérieur et à l'octroi de bourses pour des études à l'étranger. Les organismes non gouvernementaux s'occupent principalement de l'éducation préscolaire, de l'enseignement en milieu rural et de l'éducation des adultes. Quelques exemples de projets sont présentés ci-dessous.

Les projets d'éducation préscolaire, relevant de l'aide extérieure, sont surtout financés par le FISE et la CARE. Le FISE fournit aux centres d'éducation préscolaire du matériel pédagogique, de l'équipement et des fournitures scolaires. L'AID et la CARE mènent à travers des Centres communautaires intégrés, un programme intensif de nutrition et d'éducation (CINEC), adopté par le gouvernement comme programme "modèle" d'éducation préscolaire.

L'aide multilatérale bénéficie principalement à l'enseignement primaire grâce notamment à l'assistance que la Banque Mondiale apporte à bon nombre d'activités dans ce secteur. Le PNUD et l'UNESCO participent aux Projets I et II de la Réforme. L'aide bilatérale est représentée dans ce domaine par l'ACDI qui fournit au Ministère de l'Education une assistance technique et financière. Certaines ONG sont également actives dans ce secteur : à titre d'example, la Mission Baptiste d'Haïti s'occupe de quelque 225 écoles primaires dans les zones rurales.

L'UNICEF participe au financement et au fonctionnement des écoles normales. Le Conseil Inter-Américain pour l'Education aide l'Institut Pédagogique National (IPN) à organiser des programmes de formation et de recyclage pendant l'été au moyen de son Fonds Spécial Multilatéral. Le Service Culturel de l'Ambassade de France apporte également son concours aux programmes de recyclage organisés par l'IPN à l'intention des enseignants des écoles participant à la Réforme, tandis que l'Eglise Méthodiste d'Haïti organise des sessions similaires pour les maîtres des écoles rurales.

Dans le domaine de l'enseignement supérieur, ce sont les agences de coopération bilatérale qui interviennent le plus activement. L'ACDI fournit une assistance substantielle à la Faculté d'Agronomie et de Médecine Vétérinaire (FAMV) par l'intermédiaire de l'Université de Laval et à l'Institut National d'Administration, de Gestion et des Hautes Etudes Internationales (INAGHEI) en coopération avec l'Université d'Ottawa. La plus grande partie de l'assistance de l'AID se traduit par l'octroi de bourses pour des études universitaires aux Etats-Unis. La République de Chine (Taïwan) fournit également des bourses d'études en agronomie, pêcherie et médecine.

En ce qui concerne l'enseignement technique et professionnel, l'ACDI fournit au Centre de formation professionnelle d'Haïti une aide en équipement et assure la formation de techniciens en électronique médicale. Le Programme de Parrainage (FPP) dirige un centre ménager expérimental à la Croix des Bouquets.

Dans le cadre de la promotion de l'éducation non-formelle, le Programme Alimentaire Mondiale fournit un soutien aux programmes d'alphabétisation d'adultes en milieu rurale. La BID s'est engagée dans l'animation rurale et le développement communautaire intégré, par l'intermédiaire du Ministère de l'Education. L'OEA appuie des programmes urbains d'éducation pour adultes. L'USAID soutient des programmes de formation d'ouvriers non-qualifiés afin de les rendre plus aptes à travailler sur des projets d'aménagement du territoire ou de travaux publics. Le Service Culturel de l'Ambassade de France fournit une aide aux programmes de radio et télévision éducatives et au cinéma ainsi qu'à d'autres activités culturelles. La Mission Baptiste organise des programmes d'alphabétisation d'adultes.

### 3.1.3 Coordination de l'Assistance

Les représentants des divers organismes d'aide multilatéraux et bilatéraux ont entrepris à partir de juin 1983 de se réunir mensuellement à des fins de consultation et d'information réciproque. Ces réunions--qui n'ont pas pour l'instant un caractère officiel--fournissent simplement un lieu de rencontre et une occasion pour échanger des renseignements et se tenir mutuellement au



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courant de l'état d'avancement des différents projets. Des décisions officielles y sont rarement prises. L'objet visé n'est pas l'établissement de projets de financement conjoints. Une telle coopération semble difficile à atteindre à l'heure actuelle étant donné la différence entre les principes et les priorités des organismes en question. Cependant, l'informtion réciproque a un intérêt certain, car elle permet à chacun de mieux organiser ses propres activités et d'éviter toute redondance dans la conception des projets. Aucun représentant du gouvernement n'assiste à ces réunions. Les donateurs ont exprimé le désir d'y inviter des représentants du gouvernement, mais n'y ont pas encore donné suite.

## 3.2 CONCLUSION ET RECOMMANDATION

Une coopération étroite entre donateurs existe déjà au niveau de bon nombre de projets, et les réunions consultatives mensuelles devraient permettre de la généraliser.

Il semble cependant souhaitable de parvenir à une utilisation plus efficace des ressources nationales et extérieures. Une coordination plus étroite entre les activités des donateurs multilatéraux et bilatéraux et les programmes et priorités du gouvernement pourrait contribuer beaucoup à la réalisation de cet objectif. A cet effet, il serait souhaitable de formuler une stratégie de coordination, élaborée conjointement par les donateurs et le gouvernement, qui rende explicite les objectifs visés, la répartition du travail et les moyens d'évaluation et de contrôle. Cette statégie devrait s'inscrire dans le cadre des grandes options et priorités du gouvernement. Il faudrait définir les objectifs à atteindre de façon suffisamment concrète pour que le degré de réalisation puisse être évalué par la suite. Des accords entre donateurs qui se [illegible]rnent à définir des secteurs d'intervention exclusives, des "chasses gardées" des uns et des autres, ne constituent pas une véritable stratégie de coordination.

## CHAPTER PREFACE

Chapter 3, "Donor Activities and Coordination," was reviewed in Port-au-Prince on April 10, 1986 by the following persons:

| | |
|---|---|
| Mrs. Marie Thérès Duperval | Deputy Director of Cabinet, Ministry of Education (MOE) |
| Mr. Joseph Herns Henry | Director of Planning, MOE. |
| Mr. Max Paul | Human Resources Development Officer, Ministry of Planning. |
| Mr. Gary Perrodin | Chief of the Evaluation Section, Planning Division, MOE. |
| Mr. Jerôme Jean-Noël | Chief of the Service of External Cooperation, Planning Division, MOE. |
| Mr. Jean-José Raymond | Technician, Planning Division, MOE. |

Mr. Milton Adams, Deputy Director of IEES, Florida State University, participated in the discussions as facilitator. Corrections of factual detail and statistical presentation were made at the outset of the review session.

The reviewers felt that the document touched on a topic of critical importance to educational planning and raised a number of vital issues. They wished to register the following observations and suggestions:

(i) The Commission Mixte de Coopération, which was created in 1981 to improve donor coordination and has met annually since then under the direction of the Ministry of Planning, was not adequately mentioned in the chapter.

(ii) Reviewers felt that similar chapters of future sector assessments should provide more information on the specific activities of donors within the education sector, as opposed to their overall programs.

(iii) They also suggested that the scope of future studies of this nature should be broadened to include the examination of a number of critical problems associated with technical assistance, including the process of project identification and criteria used for the recruitment and assignement of experts.

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# 3.0 DONOR ACTIVITIES AND COORDINATION*

This chapter provides a general overview of the multilateral, bilateral, and nongovernmental organizations supporting development activities in Haiti. The emphasis is on the level and pattern of the external assistance, and on the present degree of cooperation and coordination among the donors.

The most recent and complete information on development budgets shows that external assistance is more than double the amount the Government spends on development. Private voluntary organizations account for a significant portion of this aid. Haiti is among the leading recipients of private voluntary assistance in the Western hemisphere.

Development activities are occurring in some 15 sectors of national life. External assistance is mainly concentrated in these sectors: commerce (including trade and finance), agriculture, natural resources, and health. The largest share of external assistance is used to help the Government of Haiti finance its development programs and to provide electrical energy. While numerous individual development projects in these sectors directly benefit the rural poor, these projects do not receive nearly as much assistance as is allocated to improving urban infrastructure.

Donors have recently begun informal monthly consultations to improve their coordination, and these meetings may contribute significantly to attaining development goals in Haiti.

## 3.1 STATUS

This section describes the assistance to Haiti provided by the multilateral and bilateral donors and by nongovernmental organizations. Information was gathered and adapted from various sources, the most important being the United Nations Development Programs (UNDP) annual Rapport sur l'Assistance Externe en Haïti, 1983, and data on the nongovernmental organizations from the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID) Mission. Some of this information was updated, but because of the lack of complete information for 1984, the more complete 1983 data were used as the basis for the analysis in this chapter. Interviews with the heads of the missions of the bilateral organizations provided information to supplement the data in the 1983 UNDP report.

The UNDP report provides information on 37 multilateral organizations. This chapter focuses on a few of the most important of these: UNDP, World Bank (IBRD), Inter-American Development Bank, Inter-American Institute for the Commercialization of Agriculture (IICA), World Food Program (WFP), UNICEF, World

* The draft for this chapter was prepared by Paul N. Emoungu, Howard University.



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Health Organization (WHO), Pan American Health Organization (PAHO), and Organization of American States (OAS).

Five main bilateral organizations with seven affiliates contributed funds in 1983. They are: USAID, Federal Republic of Germany (FRG), Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), the French Fonds d'Aide et de Coopération (FAC) and Service de la Coopération Culturelle et Technique (SCCT), and China (Taiwan).

Numerous nongovernmental organizations provide assistance of various types. Those with an annual budget of at least $1 million in FY 1983 were: Concerned Americans for Relief Everywhere (CARE), Catholic Relief Services (CRS), Seventh Day Adventist World Service (SAWS), Haitian-German Development Fund (FONDEV), and Baptist Mission.

### 3.1.1 The Development Efforts

The multilateral and bilateral agencies are important factors in the development of Haiti, as in other developing countries. In Haiti, however, the nongovernmental organizations, especially in private voluntary organizations (PVOs), are particularly active. The monetary contributions of these three groups--the multilateral, the bilateral, and the PVOs--are shown in Table 3.1 for 1983. The bilateral assistance leads the development effort at 46.6% followed closely by the multilateral at 39.9% and finally the nongovernmental organizations at 13.6%. Since many multilateral and bilateral agencies finance most of the PVO activities, the latter may be doubly counted in Table 3.1. Haiti, according to a 1983 CIDA report, is the principal beneficiary of the largest private · luntary organizations fund in this hemisphere.

The develop ıt budget shares of the Government of Haiti are compared in Table 3.2 with · ;e of the external assistance donors for each sector of activities, acc. ding to Ministry of Planning figures. As noted earlier, external assistance was more than double the amount for Government for the FY 1983/84.

External assistance is concentrated in certain sectors. The monetary importance the donors accord to each of the 15 sectors identified by the UNDP is indicated in Table 3.3 for 1983. The highest assistance, about 22% goes to the commerce (trade and finance are included) sector, because of the massive assistance by the USAID via PL-480. Under this program, about $28.4 million was spent on food sold by the Government of Haiti to finance its development activities, and on food used for school feeding, mother-child health programs, and help for victims of natural disasters. Agricultural, natural resources (mostly electricity projects), and health sectors claim the next highest shares of the external assistance. The assistance breakdown by organization and sector



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TABLE 3.1

External Assistance to Haiti, 1983
($000)

| Source | ($000) | | Total Amount | Total Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Multilateral assistance | | | | |
| UN System | | | | |
| IBRD | $22,682 | | | |
| UNDP | 4,093 | | | |
| WFP | 1,922 | | | |
| UNICEF | 1,613 | | | |
| FAO | 1,139 | | | |
| WHO/PAHO | 1,103 | | | |
| Other UN agencies | 2,432 | | | |
| Subtotal (UN) | | $34,984 | | |
| Other multilateral agencies | | | | |
| IDB | 23,564 | | | |
| IICA | 7,205 | | | |
| OAS | 823 | | | |
| Subtotal (Other) | | 31,592 | | |
| Total all multilateral | | | $66,576 | 39.9% |
| Bilateral assistance | | | | |
| USAID | 44,378 | | | |
| FRG | 10,394 | | | |
| CIDA | 10,380 | | | |
| FAC/SCCT | 7,667 | | | |
| China (Taiwan) | 4,880 | | | |
| Total all bilateral | | | 77,699 | 46.6% |
| Nongovernmental organizations | | | | |
| CARE | 9,301 | | | |
| CRS | 3,242 | | | |
| Seventh Day Adventist World Service (SAWS) | 2,387 | | | |
| FONDEV | 1,413 | | | |
| Methodist Church | 1,180 | | | |
| Baptist Mission | 1,164 | | | |
| Other NGOs | 4,002 | | | |
| Total all NGOs | | | 22,689 | 13.6% |
| Total external assistance | | | $166,964 | 100.1% |

Source: United Nations Development Program, Rapport sur l'Assistance Externe en Haïti, 1983, Port-au-Prince.



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TABLE 3.2

**Comparison of National and External Development Budgets, FY 1983/84***

| Sector | Percent of Resources | | Total Resources ($000) |
|---|---|---|---|
| | National | External | |
| Agriculture | 24 | 76 | $38,510 |
| Communications | 95 | 5 | 8,443 |
| Transport | 42 | 58 | 32,403 |
| Urban development | 27 | 73 | 30,869 |
| Energy | 35 | 65 | 34,401 |
| Health | 31 | 69 | 19,318 |
| Education | 16 | 84 | 10,162 |
| Water | 15 | 85 | 8,567 |
| Community development | 16 | 84 | 19,345 |
| Industry and handicrafts | 29 | 71 | 2,727 |
| Mines | 21 | 79 | 2,645 |
| Commerce | 60 | 40 | 285 |
| Statistics | 66 | 34 | 769 |
| Tourism | 100 | 0 | 340 |
| Social affairs | 9 | 91 | 1,344 |
| Youth and sport | 100 | 0 | 195 |
| Other | 21 | 79 | 9,180 |
| Total | 31 | 69 | $219,503 |

* October 1, 1983 - September 30, 1984

Source: Ministry of Planning

TABLE 3.3

External Assistance by Sector and Donor Type, 1983
($000)

| Sector | Multilateral | Bilateral | NGOs | Total | Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Commerce (including PL-480 food aid) | $1,346 | $32,570 | $2,386 | $36,302 | 21.8 |
| Agriculture | 15,520 | 10,625 | 2,318 | 28,463 | 17.1 |
| Natural resources | 11,794 | 14,821 | 613 | 27,228 | 16.4 |
| Health | 17,300 | 6,650 | 2,788 | 26,738 | 16.1 |
| Humanitarian aid | 7 | 277 | 11,475 | 11,759 | 7.1 |
| Transportation and communications | 8,379 | 2,183 | 4 | 10,566 | 6.3 |
| Education | 3,424 | 3,587 | 1,645 | 8,656 | 5.2 |
| Human habitation | 1,395 | 6,218 | 26 | 7,639 | 4.6 |
| Industry | 4,821 | 677 | 860 | 6,358 | 3.8 |
| Planning and development policy | 1,218 | 96 | --- | 1,314 | 0.8 |
| Employment | 637 | --- | 32 | 669 | 0.4 |
| Culture | 290 | --- | --- | 290 | 0.2 |
| Population | 250 | --- | 2 | 252 | 0.2 |
| Science and technology | 103 | --- | --- | 103 | 0.1 |
| Human rights/social development | 94 | --- | --- | 94 | 0.1 |
| Total* | $66,578 | $77,704 | $22,149 | $166,431 | 100% |
| Percent | 39.9% | 46.5% | 13.3% | | |

* Totals are not exact because of rounding of sector components.

Source: United Nations Development Program, Rapport sur l'Assistance Externe en Haïti, 1983, Port-au-Prince.

is shown in Table 3.4, which was compiled by UNDP from information provided by donors. Neither multilaterals nor bilaterals provided figures for assistance in the employment, culture, humanitarian aid, science and technology, human rights/social development, and population sectors; so it would appear that the amount of donor assistance in these sectors was of lesser magnitude. The division between technical assistance and capital assistance is shown in Table 3.5; approximately three-fourths of the total went for capital assistance.

A limited historical perspective on the external assistance is provided by Tables 3.6 and 3.7. Table 3.6 shows that the total assistance grew steadily from 1979 through 1982, then dropped off somewhat in 1983. While the multilateral assistance grew throughout this period, the bilateral portion of the assistance dropped by 20% in 1983, and that of the nongovernmental organizations decreased by 40% between 1981 and 1983. Table 3.7 subdivides the bilateral assistance during this period into its agencies' contributions. Except for the USAID contributions, which show a consistent pattern of growth, the other bilaterals show a somewhat erratic pattern in their contributions.

The next three subsections give a brief summary of development activities of the multilateral assistance, bilateral assistance, and nongovernmental organizations assistance (see Table 3.4).

Multilateral Assistance. The UNDP assistance is concentrated in the agricultural, natural resources, transportation/communication, and employment sectors, and the World Bank deals mainly with natural resources, transportation/communication, industry, and education. The other multilateral organizations concentrate on agriculture and health. This level of concentration is a consequence of the significant reduction of assistance in the humanitarian aid sector, which in 1982 received as much assistance as the agriculture sector. As none of the multilaterals included here reported providing assistance in the humanitarian aid sector, it can be assumed that any assistance provided there was smaller in scope than the sectors already noted.

Bilateral Assistance. The USAID massive assistance ($44.4 million) is spent mainly ($28.4 million) on Food for Peace (PL-480 Title 1), including $19.1 million worth of food sold by the Government of Haiti to finance its development programs, and the balance of $9.3 million mainly for food for health, mother-child care, and preschool feeding programs. The other bilateral agencies concentrate much of their assistance in the natural resources sector, more specifically in the electrical energy subsector. One would rather expect that this massive assistance would have a counterpart in the science and technology sector, but only one multilateral agency, the OAS, provides assistance in science and technology and then in only a small amount.



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Table 3.4

Multilateral and Bilateral Assistance, by Sector and Donor, 1983
($000)

| Source | Commerce[a] | Natural Resources | Agriculture[b] | Health | Transportation[c] | Human Habitation | Education | Industry | Planning and Development Policy | Employment | Culture | Humanitarian Aid | Science and Technology | Human Rights[d] | Population |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Multilateral[e] | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| UNDP | - | 651 | 1,146 | | 643 | 36 | 349 | 321 | 116 | 637 | 99 | - | - | 94 | - |
| World Bank | - | 10,950 | 160 | 1,700 | 4,802 | 1,000 | 2,000 | 2,070 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| FAO | - | - | 1,139 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| WFP | - | - | 440 | 1,309 | - | - | 173 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| UNICEF | - | - | - | 485 | - | 95 | 705 | - | 328 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| OAS/IDB | 1,343 | 709 | 11,686 | 12,090 | 2,851 | - | 158 | 2,426 | 709 | - | 32 | - | 103 | - | - |
| Bilateral | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| USAID | 28,383 | - | 6,612 | 6,650 | - | 1,536 | 678 | 509 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| FRG | - | 3,481 | 1,365 | - | 2,177 | 2,340 | - | 168 | 96 | - | - | 267 | - | - | - |
| CIDA | 187 | 7,450 | 939 | - | - | - | 1,794 | - | - | - | - | 10 | - | - | - |
| France | - | 3,820 | 1,015 | - | - | 1,842 | 990 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| China | 4,000 | 70 | 634 | - | 6 | - | 120 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |

[a] Includes trade and finance.

[b] Includes forestry and fishery.

[c] Includes communications.

[d] Includes social development.

[e] List of multilateral donors is not complete

Source: Adapted from UNDP report on external assistance to Haiti, 1983.



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Table 3.5

Technical and Capital Assistance by Donor, 1983
($000)

| Source | Technical Assistance | Capital Assistance |
|---|---|---|
| Multilateral | | |
| UNDP | 4,093 | --- |
| World Bank/IDA | 6,560 | 16,122 |
| WFP | --- | 1,922 |
| UNICEF | 328 | 1,285 |
| FAO | 1,139 | --- |
| IDB | 1,625 | 21,939 |
| OAS | 756 | 67 |
| IICA | 7,205 | --- |
| Other Multilateral | 1,697 | 3,108 |
| Subtotal | 23,403 | 43,443 |
| Bilateral | | |
| AID | 7,552 | 36,826 |
| FRG | 2,200 | 8,200 |
| CIDA | 3,718 | 6,662 |
| France | 2,664 | 5,002 |
| China | 119 | 4,761 |
| Subtotal | 16,253 | 61,451 |
| Nongovernmental | | |
| CARE | 1,513 | 7,788 |
| CRS | --- | 3,242 |
| SAWS | --- | 2,387 |
| FONDEV | --- | 1,413 |
| Methodist Church | 155 | 1,025 |
| Baptist Mission | --- | 1,164 |
| Other NGOs | 847 | 3,135 |
| Subtotal | 2,515 | 20,174 |
| Total External Assistance | 42,171 | 125,068 |

Source: Adapted from UNDP report on external assistance in Haiti, 1983.



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Table 3.6

External Assistance, 1979-83
($000)

| Assistance | 1979 | 1980 | 1981 | 1982 | 1983 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Multilateral | $20,774 | $29,356 | $28,937 | $60,398 | $66,578 |
| Bilateral | 41,014 | 54,570 | 44,496 | 97,010 | 77,704 |
| Nongovernmental Organizations | 19,552[a] | 14,942[a] | 36,991 | 24,202 | 22,149 |
| Total | $81,340 | $98,868 | $110,424 | $181,610 | $166,431 |

[a] For these two years, three multilaterals (IDB, OAS, and IICA) were classified as NGOs. This annotation appears in the original UNDP documents, without explanation of this classification.

Source: Adapted from UNDP, *Rapport sur l'Assistance Externe en Haïti*, 1979-83.

Table 3.7

Bilateral Assistance by Agency, 1979-83
($000)

| Agency | 1979 | 1980 | 1981 | 1982 | 1983 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| USAID | $23,702 | $28,555 | $35,853 | $40,737 | $44,378 |
| FRG | 5,794 | 1,643 | 721 | 43,554 | 10,394 |
| CIDA | 7,524 | 6,276 | 4,254 | 7,124 | 10,380 |
| FAC/SCCT | 3,994 | 4,524 | 3,668 | 2,012 | 7,667 |
| China (Taiwan) | --- | 1,600 | --- | --- | 4,880 |
| Japan | --- | 2,395 | --- | 3,550 | --- |
| Israel | --- | 30 | --- | --- | --- |
| Other Countries | --- | 9,547 | --- | 34 | --- |
| Total | $41,014 | $54,570 | $44,496 | $97,010 | $77,704 |

Source: Adapted from UNDP, *Rapport sur l'Assistance Externe en Haïti*, 1979-83.



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Nongovernmental Assistance. The major assistance activities of nongovernmental organizations with 1984 budgets of more than $1 million are shown in Table 3.8. Their efforts are concentrated in agriculture, health, human habitation, and education. These are development projects that touch people more directly.

### 3.1.2 Program Activities

As shown in Table 3.3 above, four sectors claim the largest share of the external assistance. In descending order of importance, they are commerce (because of the USAID assistance under the PL-480), agriculture, natural resources, and health. This section describes donors' programs and activities in these sectors, with special attention given to providing a sense of the cooperation among the three major assistance groups. In addition, attention is given to the programs in the education sector, which ranks seventh in the amount of external assistance received.

Sector: Commerce/Trade/Finance. In addition to the USAID massive assistance in this sector, the Inter-American Development Bank has provided loans to Government to finance its development obligations. CIDA, through the accounting firm Peat, Marwick & Mitchell, assists in the Auditing Department of the Bank of the Republic of Haiti (Banque de la Republique Haïtienne) in accordance with the International Monetary Fund activities. These two projects are to last until 1985 China (Taiwan) has also provided a loan; information on the duration of the loan is not available.

Sector: Agriculture. More projects are under way in this sector than in any other in Haiti. The sector includes such activities as general agricultural development, community and integrated community development, food-for-work, agricultural cooperatives, harvesting and storage, livestock, fishery, and forestry.

All the bilateral agencies are involved in this sector. The World Bank, UNDP, WFP, IDB, and OAS represent the multilateral assistance. The UNDP, mostly through the FAO, was involved in agricultural extension, livestock, and coffee cooperatives projects. Some of these activities were scheduled to terminate in 1983 and others to continue into 1984. The World Bank, together with the Ministry of Agriculture, will be involved until 1987 in the protection of forest resources. The WFP, through the Ministry of Agriculture, assists with food-for-all in rehabilitating land for coffee plantations. The IDB has made several loans to the Government to finance its agricultural projects, while the OAS conducted extension activities in the semiarid regions of the Cul-de-Sac.

Integrated rural development has been supported by CIDA, which also assisted in providing technicians in pest control and the propagation of a new



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Table 3.8

Nongovernmental Organizations (with an FY1984 Budget of $1 Million or More)

| Organization | Activities | Budget ($000) | Budget Sources | Cooperating Organizations |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Action Missionnaire Globale Haiti (ANG) | Land reclamation; wells; irrigation; wind power; agricultural training; horticulture; reforestation; primary health care: maternal child health; nutrition; dental care; potable water; disease prevention and control; primary and vocational education; orphanages; humanitarian relief and aid. | 1983 $1,500<br>1984 $1,500 | Unesco<br>Cooperation Haitiano-Neerlandaise (COHAN) | Pan-American Development Foundation (PADF) |
| CARE | Land reclamation; erosion control; wells; surface water; water treatment; irrigation; watershed management; solar power; rural cooperatives; extension services; agricultural training; soil conservation; crop improvement and management; dryland and irrigated farming; reforestation; land transport; road construction; health; education; disaster relief; preparedness and prevention; special humanitarian operations; integration of women in development. | 1983 $8,613<br>1984 $10,000 | USAID<br>US, Canadian, European<br>Government of Haiti<br>Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) | PADF |
| Cooperation Haitiano-Neerlandaise (COHAN) | Wells; irrigation; rural cooperatives; rural credit; agricultural training; rural storage small livestock production; bee keeping; fish production; road construction; urban rehabilitation; nutrition; potable water; vocational and nonformal education; adult literacy; welfare and social security; orphanages. | 1983 $2,000<br>1984 $1,000 | Dutch Private Voluntary Organizations | |

Table 3.8 (continued)

Nongovernmental Organizations (with an FY1984 Budget of $1 Million or More)

| Organization | Activities | Budget ($000) | Budget Sources | Cooperating Organizations |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Cooperative Housing Foundation (CHF) | Land use and land capability; wells; water treatment; capping springs; power generation and transmission; wind power; industrial cooperatives; small industry services; road construction; settlement planning; urban rehabilitation; potable water; waste disposal; nonformal education; adult literacy; humanitarian relief and aid; integration of women in development. | 1983 $6,000<br>1984 $6,000 | USAID<br>CIDA<br>Voluntary contributions from Christian Churches | Church World Service (CWS) |
| International Child Care (ICC) | Disease prevention and control; health development support services; health education. | 1983 $1,720<br>1984 $2,000 | USAID<br>CIDA<br>World Vision<br>Enfants du Monde<br>Rotary International<br>World Concerns<br>World Neighbors | |
| Methodist Church | Erosion control; ground water; solar power; rural cooperatives; agricultural training; agricultural resource centers; soil conservation; fertilizer use; reforestation; road construction; family planning; primary health care; nutrition; dental care; potable water; primary, secondary, and vocational education; adult literacy; special humanitarian operations; integration of women in development. | 1983 $500<br>1984 $1,500 | | |

Table 3.8 (continued)

Nongovernmental Organizations (with an FY1984 Budget of $1 Million or More)

| Organization | Activities | Budget ($000) | Budget Sources | Cooperating Organizations |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Pan-American Development Foundation (PADF) | Land reclamation; erosion control; watershed management; charcoal production; extension services; agricultural training; agricultural resource centers; soil conservation; reforestation; services to small industry. | 1983 Over $1,000<br>1984 Over $1,000 | USAID<br>CIDA<br>Helvetas | |
| World Vision International | Erosion control; wells; irrigation; capping springs; agricultural training; soil conservation; irrigated farming; fertilizer use; horticulture; animal husbandry; fish production and utilization; reforestation; road construction; family planning; urban rehabilitation; primary health care; maternal-child health; nutrition; dental care; potable water; primary, secondary, and vocational education; theology; material and curriculum development; nonformal education; adult literacy; humanitarian relief and aid. | 1983 Over $1,000<br>1984 Over $2,000 | World Vision | |

Source: Adapted from USAID Mission data on nongovernmental organizations.

crop of maize. The FRG has been involved in surveying, constructing wells, and other agricultural activities through food-for-work programs in connection with irrigation, reforestation, and erosion control projects. Some of these projects are still in operation through Government. France has assisted with technicians in research, road construction, and projects identification. Private voluntary organizations like CARE, Catholic Relief Service, Mennonite Economic Development Associates, and Mennonite Central Committee are financed by USAID and CIDA in projects to organize peasants.

Sector: Natural Resources. This sector comprises projects in land surveying, water systems, reforestation, erosion control, irrigation, mineral and biological resources, and energy. Electrical energy claims a major share of assistance in this sector: 68% of the IBRD ($7.4 million), 100% of CIDA ($7.5 million), 98% of FAC ($3.7 million), and 34% of FRG contributions go into electrical energy projects.

The World Bank and CIDA dominate the electric energy activities. They are building generators and a network of distribution for Electricité d'Haïti, with the project planned to extend to the year 2000. CIDA assists in consolidating and expanding the distribution network and the training of technicians, channeling this assistance through Electricité d'Haïti and the Ministry of Public Works, Transport, and Telecommunications. The Federal Republic of Germany has assisted in establishing a surveying facility in Port-au-Prince and in constructing an electric shop at Les Cayes; these projects are scheduled to terminate this year. France has provided some equipment and technicians, with their assistance lasting for one to two years. The Chinese sent two technicians for one year at the Electricité d'Haïti.

Two private voluntary organizations, the Mennonite Central Committee and the Baptist Mission (Mission Baptiste Conservatoire d'Haïti), have financed and undertaken reforestation activities. CARE, jointly with and assisted by USAID, is equally involved in the reforestation projects.

Sector: Health. This sector includes general health services, mother-child protection, nutrition, disease prevention and control, and environmental sanitation. This sector is dominated by the multilateral assistance; in 1983 the only bilateral assistance was provided by USAID.

The World Bank and UNDP were involved in water-related projects, and WFP assisted in mother-child care, hospitals, disease protection, and food. The World Health Organization was involved in projects of malaria eradication and vaccination. The IDB was also involved in water drainage and construction of rural health centers.

Some major private voluntary organizations like FONDEV, SAWS, the United Methodist Church of America, Methodist Church of Haiti (Eglise Méthodiste d'Haïti), CARE, and the Baptist Mission were involved in nutritional, medical services, and water projects.

Sector: Education. Important as the sector is for human resources development, education received only 5.2% of the external assistance in 1983. This represents less than one-third of the assistance designated for the natural resources sector where most of the funds are used for electric energy.

Most of the bilateral assistance goes to higher education and scholarships for overseas studies. Private voluntary organizations are involved mainly in preprimary, rural, and adult education.

Academic secondary education seems to be out of the scope of donors' educational assistance at this point.

1. Preprimary - UNICEF and USAID/CARE conduct most of the donor sponsored activities in this subsector. UNICEF, through the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Social Affairs, provides assistance to preschools for teaching aids, equipment, and furniture. USAID and CARE sponsor an extensive program through the Community Integrated Nutrition and Education Centers (CINEC). This program has been adopted by Government as the "model" preprimary program for Haiti.
2. Primary Education - This level is dominated by the multilaterals, who assist in the Education Reform implemented by Government in 1982, with the World Bank supporting many of its activities. The World Bank and the International Development Association (IDA) cooperate in Educational Projects II and III through the Ministry of Education. The UNDP and UNESCO assist in the educational reform in Projects I and II. The United Nations Fund for Population Activities (UNFPA) helps in curriculum development to introduce population studies in basic education, cooperating with UNESCO. As in preprimary UNICEF provides teaching aids and equipment through the Ministry of Education. A bilateral agency, CIDA, lends support to the Ministry of Education in both technical and capital assistance. A nongovernmental organization, the Baptist Mission (Mission Baptiste Conservatoire d'Haïti) operates some 225 primary schools in rural areas.
3. Teacher Education - UNICEF provides assistance in furnishing teacher training institutions. The Special Multilateral Funds of the Inter-American Council on Education assist the National Pedagogical Institute (Institut Pédagogique National - IPN) in its summer university programs. The French Embassy Cultural Service provides assistance to

IPN in its continuing education for teachers of the Reform schools. The Methodist Church of Haiti provides similar assistance to rural teachers.

4. Higher Education - Bilateral agencies dominate the assistance to the higher education subsector. CIDA provides the largest share of this assistance to the College of Agronomy and Veterinary Medicine. This assistance is provided through the University of Laval in the form of technical assistance and equipment. Similar assistance is provided to the National Institute for Administration, Management, and Higher International Studies (INAGHEI) with the cooperation of the University of Ottawa. Most of the USAID assistance is allocated for scholarships for study in American universities. China (Taiwan) also provides scholarships for studies in agronomy, fishery, and medicine.

5. Vocational/Technical Education - CIDA assists the Center for Professional Training (Centre de Formation Professionnelle - CFP) in equipment and the training of technicians in medical electronics for the maintenance of hospital equipment provided by CIDA. The MBCH is in charge of vocational/technical education at Fermathe. The Foster Parents Program (FPP) runs a Centre Pilote d'Education Ménagère (Homemaking) at Croix des Bouquets.

6. Nonformal Education - The World Food Program (WFP) assists the National Organization for Literacy and Community Action (ONAAC) in adult literacy programs in rural areas. The IDB is involved in the integrated rural development education through the Ministry of Education. The OAS assists ONAAC in urban adult education programs. The USAID assistance goes to train unskilled workers for work in labor-intensive infrastructure projects. The French Embassy Cultural Service provides assistance in radio, television, cinema, and other cultural activities. The Baptist Mission provides adult literacy programs. The FPP provides similar programs in Port-au-Prince and in Jacmel.

### 3.1.3 Coordination

Representatives of the multilateral and bilateral organizations initiated a monthly series of informal consultative meetings that began in June 1983. The responsibility to convene rotates among them. These meetings appear to simply provide a forum for sharing information. Formal decisions are seldom reached, and cooperative funding of development projects is not the objective of these meetings. Such coordination appears difficult given the differences in the operating principles and priorities that govern each agency's activities. General satisfaction is expressed with these meetings, which sensitize

participants to each other's activities, and this helps individual agencies to plan their own activities better.

These are not private meetings, although Government representatives do not participate in them. Donors expressed the desire to involve Government representatives in these meetings, but no action has yet been taken toward this end.

## 3.2 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

There is significant cooperation among donors in many projects, and the monthly consultative meetings will help further such cooperation.

A more effective use of foreign and domestic resources is recommended, however, and this could be provided by a closer coordination of multilateral and bilateral donor activities with Government programs and priorities. The wide range of development resources in Haiti could be used even more effectively if they were allocated within a well-formulated and explicit strategy jointly developed with Government. This strategy should be consistent with and supportive of Government policies and programs, and coordination agreements should be explicit. The objectives should be stated in terms of observable results that can be openly monitored. Donor agreements that merely give individual agencies "proprietary" areas of responsibilities do not comprise a fully strategic coordination.

*Appendices*

Appendices

*Tome I*

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Volume I

## APPENDIX A:

## Persons Interviewed

**Roger Ade**, Head of Production, Instructional Material Unit, National Pedagogical Institute.
**Guy Alexandre**, Director of Studies, Rayanou School, Port-au-Prince.
**Jacques Edouard Alexis**, Vice-Dean of Academic Affairs, School of Agriculture and Veterimary Medecine, State University of Haiti.
**Adeline Andre**, Director, CINEC Program, CARE and Ministry of Education.
**Jacques Andre**, Secretary General, African Studies and Research Institute, State University of Haiti.
**Liliane Antoine**, Executive Secretary, Rectorate, State University of Haiti.
**Yolaine Armand**, President, International University of Haiti.
**Ragnar Arnesan**, Director, Regional Office, Organization of American States
**Tim Aston**, Director, CARE.

**Raoul Baptiste**, Head of Human Resources Division, Office of Economic and Social Programming, Ministry of Planning.
**Willy Belotte**, Information Officer, Haitian Association of Voluntary Organizations.
**Harold Z. Berlin**, Director, Desber Inc.
**Joseph C. Bernard**, Principal Technical Advisor, National Pedagogical Institute.
**Vanya Berrouet**, Head of Evaluation Unit, National Pedagogical Institute.
**Kacem Bensallah**, Principal Technical Advisor, Unesco.
**Wilfrid Bien-Aime**, Director, Office of Economic and Social Programming, Ministry of Planning.
**Sylvain Blaise**, Head, Division of Education and Youth, Southern Mission, Seventh Day Adventist World Service.
**Clement Blanchette**, Consultant, Education Specialist, Canadian International Development Agency.
**Carl Braun**, Director, Capital Consults.
**Dieudonne Brousseau**, Oblat Fathers, Les Cayes.

**Charles L. Cadet**, Head, Macro-Economics Division, Office of Economic and Social Programming, Ministry of Planning.
**Waner Cadet**, Director, Rural Development Office, Ministry of Agriculture, Natural Resources and Rural Development.
**Alfonso Camacho-Pardo**, Principal Technical Advisor, International Labor Organization.
**Ginette Cantave-Joseph**, Director, Literacy Research and Experimentation Group, National Pedagogical Institute.
**Giovanni Caprio**, Economist, Office of Economic Analysis, United States Agency for International Development.
**Mario Catizzone**, Program Manager, Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations.
**Marcel Cauvin**, Head of Statistics Division, Office of Planning, Ministry of Education.
**Robert Cheany**, Chief of Party, Integrated Agricultural Development Project.

**Fritz Chrisphonte**, Principal, Fabre Geffrard School, Port-au-Prince.
**Jean Claude**, Co-Director, Centre d'Etudes Secondaires, Port-au-Prince.
**Joseph Coblentz**, Food Program Manager, United States Agency for International Development.

**Burel Decopain**, Head of General Statistics Division, Haitian Institute of Statistics and Computer Science.
**Roger Delmas**, Director, International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, Haiti.
**Volmy Desrameaux**, Head of Statistics Division, Office of Planning, Ministry of Social Affairs.
**Marie-Lise Desroches**, Director, Practical School, Centre Pedagogique Rural Protestant, Port-au-Prince.
**Rosny Desroches**, Director, Nouveau College BIRD, Port-au-Prince.
**Phyllis Dichter**, Deputy Director, United States Agency for International Development.
**Philippe Deygout**, Professor, Economics and Rural Development Department, School of Agriculture and Veterinary Medecine, State University of Haiti.
**Gerard Dorcely**, Minister of Education and Dean, National Institute of Management and International Studies.
**Circe Douyon**, Director, Office of Teacher Training, Ministry of Education
**Guy Douyon**, Administrator, Haitian-American Chamber of Commerce.
**Paul Max Dure**, General Inspector, Technical Training Division, National Institute for Professional Training.

**Reginald Elie**, Project Manager, Catholic Relief Services.
**Raymond Etienne**, Secretary General, Haitian Association of Voluntary Organizations.
**Laurent Eustache**, Director, Office of Sanitary Training and Education, Ministry of Public Health and Population.
**Frantz Ewald**, Assistant Project Officer, UNICEF.

**Emmanuel Fils-Aime**, Dean, Ecole Normale Superieure, Port-au-Prince.
**Dana Fischer**, Education Advisor, United States Agency for International Development.
**Robert Fischer**, Resident Representative, World Health Organization.
**Denise Fouchard**, Director, Centre d'Education Speciale, Port-au-Prince.
**Jean-Joseph Francois**, Head of Educational Radio Unit, National Pedagogical Institute.
**Joseph O. Franklin**, Director of Admissions, International University of Haiti.
**Emmanuel Frederick**, Deputy Director, Seventh Day Adventist World Mission, Port-au-Prince.
**Jerome French**, Director, United States Agency for International Development.
**James G. Fulfer**, Director, Seventh Day Adventist World Mission, Port-au-Prince.
**Mack Fuqua**, Technical Advisor, Integrated Agricultural Development Project.

**Kul C. Gautam**, Resident Representative, UNICEF.
**Alberto Germain**, Head of Economic Syntnesis Division, Haitian Institute of Statistics and Computer Science.
**Claude Georges**, Principal Technical Advisor, Education for Population Activities Project, United Nations Fund for Population Activities.
**Roland Goeldner**, Cultural Advisor, French Embassy.
**Adrienne Gouraige**, Head of Teacher Training Unit, National Pedagogical Institute.
**Arnauld Guerrier**, Technical Assistant, Office of the Director General, Ministry of Social Affairs.
**Gabriel Guillaume**, Head of Personnel Division, Ministry of Education.

**Joseph Hernst Henry**, Director, Office of Planning, Ministry of Education.
**Walter Henry**, School Inspector, Methodist Church.
**Yves Henry**, Deputy Director, Centre Pedagogique Rural Protestant, Port-au-Prince.
**Barry Heyman**, Administrator, Office of Private Voluntary Development, United States Agency for International Development.
**Fernand Hivon**, Project Officer, Canadian International Development Agency.
**Fritz Hyppolite**, Director, National Office for Literacy and Community Action.

**Gerard Innocent**, Director, Office of Secondary Education, Ministry of Education.

**Carlos Jara**, Education Consultant, Organization of American States.
**Andre Jean**, Director General, Ministry of Education.
**Rodrique Jean**, Director, Office of Primary Education, Ministry of Education.
**Iherisson Jean-Baptiste**, Inspector of Primary Schools, Artibonite Department.
**Pauris Jean-Baptiste**, Director, Centre Pedagogique Rural Protestant, Port-au-Prince.
**Miot Jean-Francois**, Administrator, Haitian-German Development Fund.
**Emmanuel Jean-Louis**, Director, College Rama de Calebasse.
**Jerome Jean-Noel**, Head of External Cooperation Division, Office of Planning, Ministry of Education.
**Nicolas Joseph**, Director, Lycee National de la Branle, Petit-Goave.
**Yves J. Joseph**, Professor, School of Linguistics and Ethonology, State University of Haiti.
**Criss Juliard**, Consultant, Office of Private Enterprise Development, United States Agency for International Development.

**Edwige Kernisan**, Secretary of State for Primary and Vocational Technical Education, Ministry of Education.
**Micheline King**, Education Advisor, Haitian-American Institute.
**Georges Kunz**, Director of Studies, Centre Pedagogique Rural Protestant, Port-au-Prince.

**Marie-Claude Laforest**, Multi-Lingual Translator, United States Agency for International Development.
**Krystyna Laurent**, PVO Coordinator, Office of Private Voluntary Development, United States Agency for International Development.
**Richard Leconte**, Director, Institut Superieur Technique d'Haiti.
**Ramon Leon**, Project Officer, UNICEF.
**Lucienne Leroy**, Director, Office of Pre-primary Education, Ministry of Education.
**John Lewis**, Rural Development Officer, United States Agency for International Development
**Octave-Moliere Liberius**, Founder, College Rama de Calebasse.
**Max Louigas**, Assistant to the Principal, Lycee Faustin Soulouque, Petit-Goave.
**Ira Lowenthal**, Consultant Office of Rural Development, United States Agency for International Development.

**Emile Macajoux**, Head of Coordination of NGO Activities Unit, Ministry of Planning.
**Joseph Mackaire**, Statistician, Statistics Division, Ministry of Education.
**Ginette Maguet**, Member of the Minister's Technical Cabinet, Ministry of Education.
**Archange Malvoisin**, Head of In-Service Training Division, National Institute for Professional Training.
**Mary Marshall**, Consul in Charge of Tourist Visas, United States Embassy.
**Georges Mathelier**, Member, Conseil Episcopal National pour l'Alphabetisation.
**Jeanine McLaurin**, Technical Advisor, Instructional Material Unit, National Pedagogical Institute.
**Clayton McManaway, Jr.**, Ambassador, United States Embassy.
**Ernst Metellus**, Chief of the Minister's Technical Cabinet, Ministry of Education.
**Louis-Andre Michel**, Assistant to the Director, Office of Teacher Training, Ministry of Education.
**Simone Montas**, Director, National Institute for Professional Training.

**Hugo Noel**, Director, Institut de Technologie Electronique d'Haiti.
**Marc Antoine Noel**, Director, Gros-Morne Project, CARITAS/Gonaives.
**Louis J. Noisin**, President, Universite Roi Henri-Christophe, Le Cap.

**Joelle Perpignand**, Director, National Office of Cottage Industries, Ministry of Social Affairs.
**Serge Petit-Frere**, Secretary of State for Secondary Education, Ministry of Education.
**Raoul Pierre-Louis**, Rector, State University of Haiti.
**Guy-Serge Pompilus**, Director of Studies, National Pedagogical Institute.

**Amnon Ram**, Enterprise Training Expert, National Institute for Professional Training.
**Ghislaine P. Raymond**, Head of Continuing Education Division, Office of Sanitary Training and Education, Ministry of Public Health and Population.

**Pierre Kiche**, Director, Centre d'Etudes Secondaires, Port-au-Prince.
**Ginette Riviere**, Head of Research and Strategy Division, Office of Sanitary Training and Education, Ministry of Public Health and Population.
**John Rhode**, Chief of Party, Health Planner, Management Sciences for Health.
**Fritz Romnus**, Principal, Centre d'Apprentissage de St. Martin, Port-au-Prince.
**Maude Romulus**, Inspector, Technical Training Division, National Institute for Professional Training.
**Pierre Runner**, Technical Advisor, International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, Haiti.

**Jean-Louis Sabatie**, Chief of Mission, French Assistance and Cooperation.
**Samou Sangare**, Agricultural Technologist, International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, Haiti.
**Edris Saint-Amand**, Director of Studies, National Institute of Management and International Studies.
**Yamilee Saint-Come**, Project Officer, Office of Evaluation and Control, Ministry of Planning.
**Luckner Saint-Dieu**, Dean, School of Agriculture and Veterinary Medecine, State University.
**Roger E. Savain**, Director, Impressions Magiques.
**Richard Selby**, Resident Representative, International Monetary Fund.
**Eleanor Snare**, Director, Haitian-American Institute.
**Peter Snyder**, Superintendant, Mission Possible.
**Wesley Stafford**, Assistant to the President, Compassion International.

**Saidou Tall**, Resident Representative, Special Advisor for Education, Unesco.
**Frederic C. Thomas**, Resident Representative, United Nations Development Program.
**Orlando Torrealba**, Sectorial Specialist, Inter-American Development Bank.
**Georges Toussaint**, Technical Advisor to the Ministry of Planning, International Monetary Fund.
**Marie-Yolaine Toussaint**, Technical Assistant, Teacher Training Unit, National Pedagogical Institute.
**Eleanor Turnbull**, Associate Director, Baptist Mission.
**Wallace Turnbull**, Field Director, Baptist Mission.

**Guy-Michel Vincent**, Director of Planning, Ministry of Social Affairs.
**Marin Visan**, Unesco Technical Advisor to Curriculum Unit, National Pedagogical Institute.

**James Walker**, Director, Office of Economic Analysis, United States Agency for International Development.
**Betsey Wilbur**, Training Director, Compassion International.

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# HAITI

Education and Human Resources **Sector Assessment**

March 1987

**Evaluation du Secteur** de l'Education et des Ressources Humaines

mars 1987

I E E S — AMESED

Improving the Efficiency of Educational Systems

Amélioration de l'Efficacité des Systèmes Educatifs

## Volume II — Tome II

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| Preprimary Education | 4 | Education Préscolaire |
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| Primary School Textbooks | A | Manuels Scolaires pour l'Ecole Primaire |
| School Feeding Programs | B | La Cantine Scolaire |

Study conducted by the Improving the Efficiency of Educational Systems (IEES) consortium in collaboration with the Ministry of National Education of the Republic of Haiti and with the United States Agency for International Development (USAID)

Etude réalisée par le consortium pour l'Amélioration de l'Efficacité des Systèmes Educatifs (AMESED) en collaboration avec le Ministère de l'Education Nationale de la République d'Haïti et l'Agence Américaine pour le Développement International (USAID)

Improving the Efficiency of Educational Systems (IEES) is an initiative funded in 1984 by the United States Agency for International Development (AID). The principal goals of the IEES Project are to help developing countries improve the performance of their educational systems and strengthen their capabilities for educational planning, management, and research.

To achieve these goals, a consortium of U.S. institutions has been formed to work collaboratively with selected host governments and USAID Missions over the next ten years in devising programs of activity for each collaborating country aimed at improving the efficiency of their educational systems. The consortium consists of the Florida State University (prime contractor), Howard University in Washington, DC, the Institute for International Research (IIR), and the State University of New York at Albany (SUNY/Albany).

There are currently seven countries collaborating with the IEES initiative to improve educational efficiency. Three are in Africa: Botswana, Liberia, and Somalia. The other four countries are Haiti, Indonesia, Nepal, and the Yemen Arab Republic.

IEES produces documents with the goal of promoting research and planning in educational policy issues within IEES-collaborating countries. The IEES Document Clearinghouse at the Florida State University is the center for distributing documents published by the project. Inquiries should be addressed to them at the address below.

Sur l'initiative de l'Agence pour le Développement International (USAID), a été crée en 1984 un projet pour l'"Amélioration de l'Efficacité des Systèmes Educatifs" (AMESED). Ce projet a pour but d'aider les pays en voie de développement à améliorer le fonctionnement de leurs systèmes éducatifs et à renforcer leurs capacités en matière de planification, de gestion, et de recherche dans le domaine éducatif.

Pour réaliser ce but, un consortium d'universités et d'instituts de recherche américains a été constitué. Les membres du consortium sont appelés à collaborer au cours de 10 prochaines années, avec les gouvernements d'un certain nombre de pays en voie de développement et avec les représentations locales de l'USAID afin de réaliser dans chaque pays participant, un programme d'activités visant à améliorer l'efficacité du système éducatif. Le consortium comprend l'Université d'Etat de Floride (FSU), l'Université Howard à Washington DC, l'Institut de Recherche Internationale (IIR), et l'Université d'Etat de New York à Albany (SUNY/Albany).

Actuellement sept pays participent à cet effort. Parmi eux trois sont situés en Afrique. Ce sont: le Liberia, le Botswana, et la Somalie. Les autres pays sont Haiti, l'Indonesie, le Népal, et la République Yéménite Arabe.

L'AMESED édite une série de documents dans le but de promouvoir la recherche et la planification en matière d'éducation dans les pays participant au projet. Le Centre de Documentation de l'AMESED à l'Université d'Etat de Floride est chargé de la distribution de l'ensemble des documents publiés sous l'égide du projet. Les éventuelles commandes de documents doivent être addressées à:

**IEES/AMESED**
Learning Systems Institute
204 Dodd Hall
The Florida State University
Tallahassee, Florida 32306
USA
(904) 644-5442

Agency for International Development
Project No. 936-5823

# HAITI

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REPUBLIQUE D'HAITI

# MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE

LE MINISTRE
DE
L'EDUCATION NATIONALE

No.....

Port-au-Prince, le 17 DEC 1986 19.....

Le Ministère de l'Education Nationale accueille avec intérêt le Projet d'Amélioration de l'Efficacité des Systèmes Educatifs qui dans le cadre de la Coopération Bilatérale a permis la réalisation de l'évaluation du secteur de l'Education et de ses ressources humaines. Il est important de signaler que ce travail représente la première évaluation de cette importance du secteur éducation. Une implantation réussie du Projet Educatif Haitien passe nécessairement par une évaluation et une meilleure utilisation de nos ressources natérielles et humaines.

En ce qui concerne cette première version de l'étude, il convient de faire état des contraintes du terrain dans la collecte des données et des limites de l'approche méthodologique initialement adoptée. Ces considérations ont porté le Ministère de l'Education Nationale à planifier avec les membres de la Florida State University une série de séances de travail au cours desquelles des recommandations importantes ont été faites en vue d'une plus grande participation des instances nationales à toutes les étapes de l'étude, laquelle sera reprise dans un avenir pas très lointain.

Les recommandations ont porté particulièrement sur l'implication directe et nécessaire de l'Université dans l'élaboration et la conduite de l'enquête dans la double perspective de promouvoir la recherche et de contribuer à la formation de nos cadres.

Le Ministère de l'Education Naitonale accorde une place de choix à la recherche pédagogique et à l'échange d'expériences professionnelles. Cette coopération permet une meilleure utilisation de l'assitance technique et contribue au renforcement des capacités d'intervention de nos services.

Le Ministère de l'Education Nationale saisit l'occasion pour signifier sa haute appréciation du travail accompli par les membres et représentants du Consortium d'Universités Américaines. Il leur renouvelle ainsi qu'à l'Agence Américaine pour l'Aide Internationale l'assurance de sa considération distinguée.

Rosny DESROCHES
Ministre
de l'Education Nationale de
la Jeunesse et des Sports

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## English Translation
## of letter from the Minister of National Education

Port-au-Prince, 17 December 1986

The Ministry of Education welcomes with great interest the Improving the Efficiency of Educational Systems (IEES) Project which, in the framework of bilateral aid, provided the assistance necessary to conduct this assessment of the education and human resource system in Haiti. It is significant to note that this work represents the first educational evaluation of such magnitude ever undertaken in Haiti. To succeed in bringing to fruition a truly Haitian design for our educational system, careful evaluation and more efficienct use of our human and material resources are both essential.

As concerns the studies that served as a basis for this first system-wide evaluation, one must take account of the constraints under which data collection had to take place and the limitations of the initial methodology. Such considerations motivated the Ministry of Education to organize with representatives of the IEES Consortium a series of joint working sessions during which key recommendations concerning greater participation of Haitian counterparts in all stages of future assessments were made. The evaluation will in fact be updated and revised in this manner in the near future.

The recommendations highlighted in particular the necessity of directly involving the University of Haiti in the conception and execution of the new assessment in order both to promote policy research and to contribute to the training of our own staff.

The Ministry of Education accords great importance to instructional research and to the exchange of professional experience. This sort of international cooperation ensures better utilization of technical assistance and helps to reinforce national institutional capacity.

The Ministry of Education wishes to take the opportunity to express its great appreciation for the work carried out by members and representatives of the IEES Consortium. The Ministry reaffirms its cordial regards for them and for the United States Agency for International Development.

Rosny DESROCHES
Minister
of National Education,
Youth, and Sports



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The Improving the Efficiency of Educational Systems (IEES) Project gratefully acknowledges the contributions of the many individuals who generously gave their time and assistance to support the preparation of this Sector Assessment. In addition to the hard work and dedicated efforts of the entire field team, numerous persons in Haiti shared their experiences, information, and wisdom with the team members. These persons are listed in Annex I-B, and we thank each of them.

This assessment would not have been possible without the assistance and endorsement of Gerard Dorcely, the Minister of Education at the time of this study. The Minister himself, his entire Cabinet, officials of the Ministry of Education, and representatives from other ministries of Government met with team members on numerous occasions to help them in many ways. Also, we thank the many educators in the private sector who gave so willingly of their time and offered useful suggestions to the team.

IEES would like to additionally acknowledge and thank the following people, all of whom contributed significantly to producing this assessment:

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Le Projet AMESED (Amélioration de l'Efficacité des Systèmes Educatifs) tient à remercier tous ceux qui, de près ou de loin ont généreusement apporté leur concours à la préparation de cette évaluation sectorielle. En plus de l'important travail et des efforts dévoués de l'équipe chargée de l'évaluation, de nombreuses personnes en Haïti ont partagé leur expérience, leurs connaissances et les renseignements dont elles disposaient avec les membres de l'équipe. Les noms de ces personnes apparaissent dans l'annexe I-B, qu'elles trouvent ici l'expression de notre profonde gratitude.

Cette évaluation n'aurait pas été possible sans l'assistance et l'appui du Ministre de l'Education, Mr. Gérard Dorcely, et du personel du Département de l'Education Nationale (DEN). Monsieur le Ministre, tous les membres de son Cabinet, de nombreux fonctionnaires du Département de l'Education, et des représentants d'autres ministères du gouvernement ont maintes fois accordé des entrevues aux membres de notre équipe pour les aider de diverses façons. Notre reconnaissance va également aux nombreux enseignants et responsables des écoles du secteur privé qui nous ont reçu et qui ont, à chaque fois, fait des suggestions fort utiles.

Le travail d'enquête, de rédaction et de production du document lui-même a été accompli grâce aux efforts inlassables du personnel technique dont les noms suivent. Nous les remercions tous de leur concours précieux:

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**Sector Assessment Field Team:**

**Milton Adams,**
Co-Team Leader, FSU
**Stephen Anzalone,** IIR
**Victor Cleutat,**
Co-Team Leader, IIR
**Peter Easton,** FSU
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**Ibrahima Bah**
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**Wanda Gandy**
**Alan Hoffman,**
Production Coordinator
**Rennie Kaczorowski**
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# Préface

(français)

Entre octobre et décembre 1984, une équipe de consultants mise à la disposition du Ministère de l'Education Nationale par l'Agence Américaine pour le Développement Internationale (USAID) a séjourné en Haïti pour mener une enquête sur la situation d'ensemble du système éducatif haïtien et en établir le bilan et le diagnostic. Ce travail a été entrepris dans le cadre du programme AMESED (Amélioration de l'Efficacité des Systèmes Educatifs), une initiative d'une durée de dix ans financée par l'USAID et sous l'égide de laquelle des études semblables ont été réalisées dans plusieurs autres pays en voie du développement.

Le document qui fut le fruit de ce travail a été soumis au Ministère de l'Education Nationale en août 1985 mais, en raison des évènements, n'a pu être revu et corrigé par le personnel du MEN qu'en avril 1986. Il paraît ici pour la première fois sous sa forme définitive. L'original du document a été rédigé en anglais. Une version abrégée en a ensuite été tirée et traduite en français aux Etats-Unis. Le document provisoire diffusé en août 1985 comportait donc un premier tome en anglais et un deuxième de moindre volume en français.

L'équipe AMESED a dû faire face à certaines difficultés qui ont quelque peu circonscrit la portée de son travail. Pour une série de raisons conjonctuelles, il n'a pas été possible de lui adjoindre un groupe d'homologues haïtiens pour partager le travail d'évaluation et d'analyse, quoique de nombreux responsables tant du secteur privé que du secteur public aient été consultés au cours de la mission. L'équipe AMESED s'est également heurtée à un manque général de renseignements sur la situation de l'enseignement privé qui, comme chacun le sait, constitue en Haïti un élément très important du système éducatif. Les auteurs des différents chapitres de ce volume ont tenté de pallier à cette carence en menant des enquêtes sur le terrain, mais le programme d'une mission de courte durée ne se prêtant guère à la collecte exhaustive des données, ils se sont vus obligés de laisser vide des pans entiers du tableau qu'ils dressaient.

Ceci nonobstant, la vue d'ensemble du système éducatif haïtien présentée dans les pages qui suivent peut constituer un apport à la planification de l'éducation en Haïti, et cela autant par sa méthodologie que par son contenu. D'une part, on y trouve rassemblé et synthétisé un ensemble de données quantitatives et qualitatives sur la situation de toutes les branches du système éducatif en fin 1984, présenté de manière à favoriser l'analyse des rapports entre l'éducation et le développement en Haïti. D'autre part, la méthodologie même de l'évaluation place les données ainsi rassemblées dans un contexte des plus pertinents pour le développement du système éducatif haïtien: celui de l'efficacité--à la fois *efficacité interne*, c'est à dire le rapport entre les ressources consacrées aux programmes éducatifs et les résultats pédagogiques obtenus, et *efficacité externe*, c'est à dire l'impact de l'éducation sur le devenir de l'enfant et sur le développement de la société toute entière.



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Une première version de ce document a fait l'objet d'une analyse attentive par des représentants du Ministère de l'Education Nationale et des autres institutions haïtiennes concernées entre le 10 et le 24 avril 1986. Au cours de cette période, une équipe composée de quatre consultants de l'AMESED qui avaient participé à l'étude initiale, s'est réunie à plusieurs reprises avec les responsables des différentes branches du système éducatif haïtien pour revoir et corriger le texte du document initial. Une première rencontre sous la présidence du Ministre de l'Education a eu lieu le 10 avril. Elle a été suivie par une série de séances de travail. Chaque séance portait sur un chapitre donné du document et regroupait un représentant de l'AMESED et un ou plusieurs responsables de la branche du système éducatif en question. Un bref résumé de chacune de ces séances figure en préface aux différents chapitres du texte qui suit. Une dernière séance plénière, tenue le 24 avril 1986, a permis de tirer les conclusions d'ensemble de cet exercice d'évaluation.

Hormis la correction d'un certain nombre d'erreurs dans la présentation statistique ou le développement historique des différents chapitres, les participants ont tenu à faire ressortir plusieurs points de portée plus générale:

- Etant donné le laps de temps qui s'était écoulé entre la réalisation de l'étude et l'examen du document au niveau du Ministère, bon nombre des données statistiques de base étaient devenues périmées. Plutôt que d'essayer de tout actualiser, les participants ont jugé mieux d'éditer le document tel qu'établi, avec les corrections de détail qui seraient nécessaires, et de prévoir la réalisation d'une nouvelle évaluation dans deux ans.

- Le format paraîssait inadéquat, le résumé en français ne représentant pas très fidèlement le texte anglais et comportant en plus un certain nombre d'erreurs de traduction. Pour l'édition définitive du document, il a été préconisé de reprendre le résumé en français et de faire alterner les textes dans les deux langues. Quant à l'approche à adopter à l'avenir, les participants estimaient que de futures évaluations devraient être rédigés directement en français, puis traduites en anglais au besoin.

- Enfin, de l'avis de tous, à l'avenir il serait hautement souhaitable de confier le travail en grande partie à une équipe de chercheurs haïtiens, tout en leur assurant la formation et l'assistance technique nécessaires pour mener le travail à bon terme.

Le travail de correction et de reprise du résumé français du document a été assuré conformément aux recommandations du Ministère, par les traducteurs du Centre de Développement des Ressources Humaines, sis Delmas 55 à Port-au-Prince. Le document a ensuite été divisé en quatre volumes, chacun regroupant plusieurs chapitres et chaque chapitre comportant le texte intégral en anglais précédé du résumé en français.

# Preface

(English)

From October to December 1984, a team of consultants engaged by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and supervised by the Ministry of Education of the Republic of Haiti devoted eight weeks to an assessment of the current state of the Haitian educational system and an evaluation of its priority needs. This work was carried out under the aegis of the Improving the Efficiency of Educational Systems (IEES) Project, a ten-year initiative financed by the Washington offices of USAID that has contributed to similar sector assessments in several other developing countries.

The study that resulted from this effort was submitted to the Ministry of Education in August 1985, but was not fully reviewed and corrected by Ministry personnel until April 1986 because of intervening events. It appears here for the first time in final form.

The original document was written in English. A summary version was then composed and translated into French in the United States. The draft document disseminated in August 1985 included therefore one volume in English and a second and considerably shorter one in French.

The IEES team had to deal with certain difficulties that limited somewhat the scope of its study. For a series of reasons, it was not possible to arrange for a full team of Haitian counterparts to share the work of evaluation and data analysis, though numerous educators from both the public sector and the private sector were consulted during the course of the assessment. The team also discovered a general lack of information about the current status of private education, which constitutes a major element of the Haitian educational system. The authors of the different chapters of this volume made an effort to compensate for this lack of information by carrying out some first-hand data collection in the field. The schedule of a two-month mission did not afford enough time to perform an extensive inventory of the situation, however, and they were consequently unable to fill in certain parts of the picture.

Despite these shortcomings, the overall view of the Haitian educational system presented in the pages to follow may constitute a very worthwhile contribution to the concerns of educational planning in Haiti, by virtue both of its content and of the methodology employed. The study assembles a mass of qualitative and quantitative information on the status of the different branches of the educational system in late 1984 and presents these data in a manner conducive to analysis of the relations between education and development in Haiti. Furthermore, the methodology used places this information in a context that seems particularly pertinent for the development of the Haitian educational system: namely, that of improving efficiency -- both internal efficiency, or the ratio of resources invested in educational programs to the instructional results obtained, and external efficiency, or the impact of the educational experience on the personal and job futures of the students and on the development of society as a whole.



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The draft version of this document was reviewed by representatives of the Ministry of Education and of other concerned Haitian institutions from April 10 to April 24, 1986. During this period, a team composed of four IEES consultants (themselves among the authors of the original assessment) met on several occasions with leaders of the different branches of the Haitian educational system in order to examine and critique the draft text. An inaugural meeting was held on April 10th under the presidency of the Minister of Education. It was followed by a series of work sessions, each one focusing on a single chapter of the assessment and grouping together one of the IEES consultants and one or more representatives of the subsector in question. A brief resume of the conduct and results of each meeting appears as a preface to each related chapter of the final four volume assessment. A final plenary session was held on April 24th to draw overall conslusions from the sector assessment review process.

Over and beyond necessary correction of a certain number of factual errors in the statistical or descriptive data presented in each chapter, participants in this final meeting felt it important to make the following general points about the assessment:

- Given the time that had elapsed between the conduct of the initial assessment and review of the resulting document by the Ministry, a good number of the statistical data used were no longer current. Rather than attempting to update all this information, participants in the meeting felt it preferable to publish the existing document with the necessary corrections of factual error and to devote principal energy to planning for conduct of an entirely new assessment within two years.

- The overall format of the current assessment was judged inadequate, since the French resume was not a very faithful condensation of the English original and included a certain number of translation errors. It was suggested that the French text be corrected and improved before final edition of the current assessment, and that the two versions be presented side by side in a single volume. As for future assessments, all felt that they should be drawn up directly in French, then translated into English as needed.

- Finally, it was generally agreed that every effort should be made in the future to entrust prime responsibility for conduct of such assessments to a team of Haitian educational researchers, while providing them with whatever additional training and technical assistance they might require.

The work of correcting the French resume was carried out, at the suggestion of the Ministry, by staff of the Human Resource Development Center, Delmas 55 in Port-au-Prince. The document was then divided into four volumes, each one containing several related chapters and each chapter including the full English text preceeded by the French summary.

# Résumé

## But

*L'évaluation du secteur de l'éducation et des ressources humaines en Haïti* présentée dans les pages qui suivent décrit l'état du système éducatif haïtien et analyse ses principaux besoins. A partir de cet examen, le document cherche à identifier des voies et moyens qui permettraient de mieux atteindre les objectifs primordiaux du gouvernement dans le domaine de l'éducation, ceci grâce à un usage plus efficace des ressources disponibles ou potentielles et à une coordination plus étroite entre le programme du Gouvernment et les activités des organismes donateurs d'aide. Le texte intégral de l'évaluation est réparti en 4 volumes.

## Principales recommandations

Les recommandations qui découlent de cette évaluation portent sur les cinq points suivants, énumérés par ordre d'importance :

- renforcer l'éducation de base,
- promouvoir le développement de nouvelles compétences techniques, génératrices de revenus,
- renforcer les capacités institutionnelles des organismes d'enseignement publics et privés déjà en place,
- effectuer des études pouvant servir de base à la planification de l'éducation, et
- promouvoir une coordination plus étroite parmi les donateurs.

## Contexte

Haïti est l'un des pays les plus défavorisés du monde : les trois-quarts de sa population de six millions d'habitants subsistent au-dessous du niveau de pauvreté absolue définie par la Banque Mondiale. A l'heure actuelle, les ressources humaines du pays représentent la meilleure base de croissance économique. Toutefois, ces ressources ne peuvent être pleinement mises en valeur que si d'importants ajustements sont effectués dans le système éducatif.

En effet, l'accès à l'éducation est sérieusement limité à tous les niveaux. En 1980 le taux d'alphabétisation n'était que de 23%. L'efficacité et la qualité de l'enseignement sont généralement faibles. En outre, le système éducatif haïtien est caractérisé par une très forte dépendance envers le secteur privé lequel compte 60% environ des élèves inscrits à l'école primaire et 80% de ceux inscrits à l'école secondaire. Une réforme de l'éducation a récemment été lancée pour tenter de remédier aux problèmes d'accès à l'école, de l'inefficacité du système éducatif et de la qualité médiocre de l'enseignement. Pour que cette réforme réussisse il faudrait, cependant que la participation des donateurs et du secteur privé s'intensifie. Dans l'ensemble, la participation des donateurs au financement de l'éducation est particulièrement faible en Haïti. Seulement 5,2% du montant de l'aide externe (environ 8,7 millions de dollars) a été consacrés à l'éducation en 1983.



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## Sources de renseignements

La présente évaluation a été préparée par une équipe de huit personnes qui a travaillé en Haïti pendant une période de huit semaines, entre octobre et décembre 1984. Au cours de cette période, les membres de l'équipe ont eu plus de 250 entretiens avec plusieurs catégories de personnes concernées par le développement du système éducatif haïtien : des fonctionnaires des ministères de l'Education Nationale, de la Santé Publique, du Plan, de l'Agriculture, et des Affaires Sociales ; des directeurs d'écoles primaires et secondaires publiques et privées en milieux urbain et rural ; des doyens de facultés et d'écoles normales ; et des responsables d'institutions d'enseignement technique et professionnel ainsi que des représentants de tous les principaux organismes donateurs. L'équipe a également consulté plus de 265 rapports et documents connexes.

## Présentation du rapport

L'évaluation se compose de quatorze chapitres et deux documents annexes qui portent sur les différentes branches du système éducatif haïtien. Les chapitres et annexes sont regroupés en quatre volumes comme suit :

- Le premier volume traite des problèmes de planification de l'ensemble du système et comprend trois chapitres. Le chapitre 1 comporte la synthèse du rapport tout entier, le chapitre 2 est consacré à l'analyse économique et fiscale de l'éducation en Haïti (examen des coûts, calcul des taux de rendement et analyse de l'offre et la demande de la main-d'oeuvre), tandis que le chapitre 3 est centré sur la question de la coordination des donateurs.

- Le second volume porte sur l'enseignement fondamental et comprend deux chapitres et deux annexes. Le chapitre 4 est consacré à la situation de l'éducation préscolaire en Haïti, le chapitre 5 à l'enseignement primaire, et les annexes A et B traitent respectivement des systèmes d'élaboration et de distribution des manuels scolaires et de l'organisation des programmes de nutrition scolaire.

- Le troisième volume regroupe trois chapitres qui touchent à l'enseignement secondaire et supérieur : le chapitre 6 est consacré à l'enseignement secondaire classique, le chapitre 7 à la formation des enseignants et le chapitre 8 à l'enseignement supérieur.

- Le quatrième volume traite de trois autres types de formation dispensés en Haïti : le chapitre 9 présente une analyse des programmes de formation en matière de gestion, alors que le chapitre 10 est consacré à la formation technique et professionnelle. Le chapitre 11 analyse le secteur de l'éducation non formelle.

Tous les chapitres traitant d'une branche particulière du système éducatif tel l'enseignement primaire ou l'enseignement secondaire, suivent le même cheminement analytique. La première partie du chapitre est consacré à un examen de l'évolution historique de la branche du système éducatif en question ainsi qu'à la présentation des objectifs qui lui ont été fixés dans le cadre du développement national. Ensuite la situation actuelle du sous-système est analysée à travers un certain nombre d'indicateurs de performance. Une fois ce protrait établi, l'ensemble des données ainsi rassemblées est évalué à partir de cinq critères de performance pour apprécier le niveau de fonctionnement du système à l'heure actuelle. Ces

critères sont : l'efficacité interne, l'efficacité externe, le degré d'équité et d'accès à la formation, l'administration et la gestion des programmes, et leurs coûts et financement. L'évaluation des progrès réalisés dans chacun de ces domaines tient compte en même temps des contraintes qui pèsent sur le fonctionnement du système et de ses besoins les plus pressants. Enfin, des conclusions et des recommandations sont formulées dans le but d'identifier les moyens à mettre en oeuvre pour améliorer la qualité et la quantité des résultats pédagogiques, pour renforcer l'efficacité du système et pour orienter les investissements futurs vers des directions particulièrement productives.

## Politique générale

L'analyse de l'ensemble des résultats de l'évaluation a permis d'identifier cinq problèmes d'orientation générale auxquels le gouvernement haïtien doit faire face en matière d'éducation:

1. Il est essentiel d'améliorer l'efficacité et la qualité des divers programmes d'éducation et de formation et—dans la mesure du possible—de les étendre aux couches de la population qui n'en ont pas encore bénéficié. Cependant, étant donné la capacité financière et institutionnelle actuelle du gouvernement, un remaniement structurel profond, ainsi qu'une aide supplémentaire des donateurs d'une part et du secteur privé de l'autre, s'avèrent nécessaires.

2. Les programmes d'éducation et de développement des ressources humaines sont particulièrement difficiles à coordonner à cause du rôle prépondérant qu'y joue le secteur privé. Il est néanmoins important de réaliser une telle coordination pour pouvoir étendre la réforme de l'éducation aux nombreuses écoles primaires et secondaires privées qui n'y participent pas encore.

3. Il ne peut y avoir de véritable développement économique sans un programme efficace de développement de nouvelles compétences productrices de revenus, surtout dans les régions rurales défavorisées.

4. Le manque de données fiables sur la situation des écoles et des programmes rend le contrôle, l'évaluation et la planification des interventions éducatives particulièrement difficiles.

5. Le gouvernement ne dispose, pour le moment, d'aucun système de coordination des multiples interventions des donateurs et du secteur privé dans le domaine de l'éducation.

## Qualité des programmes

Huit questions d'importance relative à la qualité et à la pertinence des programmes d'éducation sont examinées dans le chapitre de synthèse. Ces questions concernent la définition de la politique générale de l'éducation, le développement de nouvelles capacités institutionnelles, le développement de compétences en matière de planification et de gestion, le rôle du secteur privé, l'utilisation des ressources matérielles et financières, la coordination des activités des donateurs, la collecte des données nécessaires à la planification et la langue d'enseignement.



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## Recommandations générales

Le chapitre de synthèse présente cinq recommandations et une série de quatorze activités qui devraient permettre de mettre celles-ci en pratique. Ces recommandations concernent essentiellement les trois points suivants :

1. **Contribuer au développement socio-économique à l'échelle nationale.**

   - Renforcer l'éducation de base.

   - Développer de nouvelles compétences productrices de revenus au moyen d'activités d'éducation non formelle et de programmes d'enseignement technique et professionnel à orientation bien spécifique.

   - Améliorer la coordination des activités des donateurs.

2. **Développer les capacités humaines et institutionnelles des structures responsables de l'organisation du système éducatif.**

   - Renforcer la capacité des institutions publiques et privées déjà existantes.

   - Elaborer des programmes de formation et de perfectionnement de cadres administratifs et de gestionnaires du système éducatif.

3. **Faire meilleur usage des ressources existantes.**

   - Augmenter la disponibilité du matériel didactique.

   - Améliorer et étendre les programmes de nutrition pré-scolaire et primaire.

   - Reprendre et améliorer les programmes de recyclage des instituteurs des écoles primaires publiques et privées.

   - Effectuer des enquêtes et des études pour servir de base à une planification plus rationnelle du système éducatif. Ces études devront porter en priorité sur :

     - l'offre et la demande de main-d'oeuvre,
     - la mise en place de systèmes de collecte des informations pour permettre une meilleure gestion du système éducatif,
     - la méthodologie des programmes d'éducation non formelle qui ont connu le plus de succès en Haïti,
     - la recherche de méthodes d'utilisation de la radio comme appui à l'enseignement dans une variété de contextes, et
     - l'examen de systèmes alternatifs d'enseignement au niveau de l'école primaire.

Un répertoire des sigles et acronymes utilisés dans le texte des différentes chapitres est présenté dans les pages qui suivent. La liste des personnes contactées par l'équipe d'évaluation et la bibliographie des ouvrages consultés figurent en annexe du Volume I (appendices A et B).

# Executive Summary

## Purpose

The *Haiti Education and Human Resources Sector Assessment* describes the current status and needs of the Haitian education and human resources system. On the basis of this analysis, it seeks to identify ways to more effectively focus available and anticipated resources on achieving the Government's underlying objectives, and to encourage closer coordination between Government and the international donor community. The full sector assessment is presented in four volumes.

## Overview of Recommendations

Recommendations based on this assessment address the following five broad objectives, listed by order of importance:

- Strengthening basic education.
- Improving income-producing skills.
- Reinforcing existing public and private educational institutions.
- Conducting planning studies and surveys.
- Improving donor coordination.

## Background

Haiti is one of the poorest countries in the world. Three-fourths of its population of six million live below the level of absolute poverty defined by the World Bank. Human resources constitute the most promising foundation for economic growth in the country. These resources cannot be developed, however, unless major adjustments are made within the present education system.

Educational opportunities are seriously limited at all levels. The literacy rate was only 23 percent in 1980. Access, efficiency, and quality are low at all levels of education. There is a heavy dependence on the private sector, with about 60 percent of primary students and 80 percent of secondary students in private schools. An Education Reform has recently been initiated to address problems of restricted access, low efficiency, and poor quality. The Reform needs increased donor and private sector support, however, if it is to succeed. Donor assistance is particularly low in the education sector. Only 5.2 percent (about $8.7 million) of total external assistance to Haiti was devoted to education in 1983.

## Sources

The assessment was prepared by an eight-person team which worked in Haiti for eight weeks ending in December of 1984. More than 250 interviews were conducted with officials from: the Ministries of Education, Health, Planning, Agriculture, and Social Affairs; public and private primary and secondary schools in urban and rural areas; universities and teacher training institutions; vocational and technical training schools; and all major donors. Over 265 reports and related documents were reviewed.



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## Report Organization

The assessment is composed of fourteen chapters and two substantive annexes that deal with different branches of the Haitian educational system. It is divided into four volumes as follows:

- Volume I deals with overall educational planning issues and contains three chapters: Chapter One is a synthesis of the conclusions of the entire report. Chapter Two presents an economic and fiscal analysis of the Haitian educational system, including data on costs, rates of return, and manpower supply and demand. Chapter Three concerns donor coordination.

- Volume II focuses on the basic levels of the formal educational system and contains two chapters and two annexes. Chapter Four analyzes the current situation of preprimary education in Haiti, and Chapter Five examines the status of primary education. Annex A to Volume II is devoted to the issue of school textbooks, whereas Annex B deals with school feeding programs.

- Volume III concerns secondary and higher education and contains three chapters. Chapter Six deals with classical secondary education. Chapter Seven deals with teacher training. Chapter Eight presents the situation of higher education and university training.

- Volume IV examines three other branches of the Haitian educational system. Chapter Nine focuses on management training, Chapter Ten on vocational-technical education, and Chapter Eleven on nonformal education.

All chapters that deal with particular branches of the Haitian educational system follow a similar pattern of analysis. First, the present status of the branch of education in question is examined, including consideration of historical background, current plans and objectives, and various indicators of system performance. Next, this data is analyzed from the point of view of five criteria of system operation: internal efficiency, external efficiency, degree of equity and access, management and supervision, and costs and financing. Progress made in each of these categories is evaluated within the framework of the major constraints under which the system operates and its most pressing needs. Finally, conclusions are drawn and a series of recommendations are made concerning ways to improve the quality and quantity of educational outcomes, to achieve greater system efficiency and to orient future investment in the most productive directions.

## Policy Issues

An analysis of the results of all chapters of the assessment leads to identification of five global policy issues that presently confront Government:

- Education and human resources programs must be improved, expanded, and sustained, but the present institutional and economic capacity of Government cannot support the required activities without significant restructuring and additional assistance from donors and the private sector.

- Coordination of education and human resources activities is especially difficult because of the dominant role of the private sector. This coordination is critically important, particularly for extending the current Education Reform to the many private sector primary and secondary schools.

- Economic growth will not take place without an effective program for developing income-producing skills, especially in the poor rural areas.

- Program planning and monitoring for all subsectors of education is severely restricted by a lack of reliable and current information on status, supply, and demand.

- No plan exists for Government to coordinate the numerous donor and private sector activities in the realm of education in order to focus them on the attainment of national development goals.

## Quality and Relevance Issues

Eight issues of educational development are extensively discussed in the assessment: policy reform, institutional capacity, planning and management capacity, the role of the private sector, resource utilization, donor coordination, information for planning, and the language of instruction.



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## Overall Recommendations

Five recommendations and a supporting group of 14 activities are set forth in the synthesis chapter. These recommendations can be grouped under three primary areas of focus.

1. **Contributing to national social and economic development.**

   - Strengthening basic education.
   - Improving income-producing skills through public and private nonformal education programs and targeted programs of vocational and technical education.
   - Improving coordination of donor activities.

2. **Building capacity within the education and human resources sector.**

   - Strengthening existing public and private sector educational institutions.
   - Developing a targeted training program for institutional development.

3. **Making more efficient use of existing resources.**

   - Increasing the availability of instructional materials.
   - Improving and extending the preprimary and primary school feeding programs.
   - Improving inservice training for public and private primary school teachers.
   - Conducting basic planning surveys (manpower supply and demand survey, educational management information system plan, study of successful nonformal education programs, exploration of possible uses of educational radio, examination of alternative primary-level instructional systems).

A glossary of acronyms used in this assessment follows this executive summary The list of persons contacted and the bibliography of documents consulted in the course of the assessment are included as Appendices A and B to Volume I.



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# Acronyms

# Sigles

| | English | Français |
|---|---|---|
| **ACDI** | Canadian International Development Agency (See CIDA) | Agence Canadienne de Développement International |
| **ADIH** | Association of Haiti Industries | Association des Industries d'Haïti |
| **AMG** | Global Missionary Action | Action Missionnaire Globale |
| **AUPELF** | Association of French-Speaking Universities | Association des Universites Partiellement ou Entièrement de Langue Francaise |
| **BID** | Inter-American Development Bank (IDB) | Banque Interaméricaine de Développement |
| **BIRD** | International Bank for Reconstruction and Development/The World Bank (IBRD) | Banque Internationale pour la Reconstruction et le Développement/ La Banque Mondiale |
| **CAC** | Community Action Council | Conseil d'Action Communautaire |
| **CAF** | Resources Training Center | Centre d'Appui aux Formations |
| **CAP** | - | Certificat d'Aptitude Pédagogique |
| **CAPES** | - | Certificat d'Aptitude Pédagogique d'Enseignement Secondaire |
| **CARE** | Concerned Americans for Relief Everywhere | - |
| **CENA** | National Episcopal Literacy Council | Conseil Episcopal National d'Alphabétisation |
| **CEP** | Primary Education Certificate | Certificat d'Etudes Primaires |
| **CES** | Center for Special Education | Centre d'Education Spéciale |
| **CFA** | Rural Training Center | Centres de Formation Agricole et Artisanale |
| **CFPH** | Haitian Professional Training Center | Centre de Formation Professionelle d'Haïti |
| **CFT** | Technical Training Center | Centre de Formation Technique |
| **CHF** | Cooperative Housing Foundation | - |
| **CHISS** | Haitian Center for Studies in Human | Centre Haïtien d'Investigations en Sciences Humaines |
| **CIDA** | Canadian International Development Agency (See ACDI) | Agence Canadienne de Développement International |
| **CINEC** | Community Integrated Nutrition and Education Center | Centre Intégré de Nutrition et d'Education Communautaire |



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| | | |
|---|---|---|
| **CLAP** | Center of Applied Linguistics | Centre de Linguistique Appliquée |
| **CMA** | Auto Mechanics Center | Centre Mécanique Auto |
| **CMPP** | Model Center for Professional Improvement | Centre Modèle de Perfectionnement Professionnel |
| **CNC** | National Council of Cooperatives | Conseil National de Coopératives |
| **CODEPLA** | Development Planning Committee (Council of Evangelical Churches of Haiti) | Comité de Développement de Planification (Conseil des Eglises Evangéliques d'Haïti) |
| **CODEVA** | Commission for the Development of Artibonite Valley | Commission pour le Développement de la Vallée de l'Artibonite |
| **COHAN** | Haitian-Netherlands Cooperation | Coopération Haïtiano-Néerlandaise |
| **CPF** | Polyvalent Training Center | Centre Polyvalent de Formation |
| **CPFP** | Pilot Center for Professional Training | Centre Pilote de Formation Professionnelle |
| **CPR** | Regional Pedagogical Center | Centre Pédagogique Régional |
| **CRS** | Catholic Relief Services | - |
| **CS** | Satellite Training Center | Centre satellite |
| **CWS** | Church World Services | - |
| **DARNDR** | Ministry of Agriculture, Natural Resources, and Rural Development | Département de l'Agriculture, des Ressources Naturelles et du Développement Rural |
| **DDR** | Division of Rural Development | Division du Développement Rural |
| **DEN** | Ministry of Education | Département de l'Education Nationale |
| **DESE** | Division of Health Education and Training | Division d'Education Sanitaire et d'Entraînement |
| **DETP** | Directorate of Technical and Professional Education | Direction de l'Enseignement Technique et Professionnel |
| **DFC** | Development Finance Corporation | - |
| **DHF** | Division of Family Hygiene | Division d'Hygiene Familiale |
| **DSPP** | Ministry of Public Health and Population | Département de la Santé Publique et de la Population |
| **EASPNH** | Expansion and Improvement of Primary and Teacher Education in Haiti | Expansion et Amélioration du Système d'Enseignement Primaire et Normal en Haïti |
| **EDH** | Electricity of Haiti | Electricité d'Haïti |
| **EF** | Basic Education | Education Fondamentale |



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| | | |
|---|---|---|
| **EMAV** | Middle School of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine | Ecole Moyenne d'Agriculture et de Médecine Vétérinaire |
| **EMTG** | Middle School of Geology | Ecole Moyenne de Techniciens de Géologie |
| **EN** | Normal School (Primary Teacher Training College) | Ecole Normale |
| **ENI** | Normal Training Schools | Ecoles Normales d'Institutrices |
| **ENS** | Superior Normal School (Secondary Teacher Training School) | Ecole Normale Supérieure |
| **FAC** | French Assistance and Cooperation | Fonds d'Aide et de Coopération |
| **FAMV** | College of Agronomy and Veterinary Medicine | Faculté d'Agronomie et de Médecine Vétérinaire |
| **FAO** | Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations | Organisation des Nations Unies pour l'Alimentation et l'Agriculture |
| **FDI** | Industrial Development Fund | Fonds de Développement Industriel |
| **FHD** | Haitian Development Fund | Fondation Haïtienne du Développement |
| **FIC** | Christian Brothers | Frères d'Instruction Chrétienne |
| **FIU** | Florida International University | - |
| **FMI** | International Monetary Fund (IMF) | Fonds Monétaire International |
| **FNS** | National Federation of Labor Unions | Fédération Nationale des Syndicats |
| **FONDEV** | Haitian-German Development Fund | Fonds Haïtiano-Allemand pour le Développement |
| **FPP** | Foster Parent Program | - |
| **FRG** | Federal Republic of Germany | - |
| **GAC** | Community Action Groups | Groupements d'Action Communautaires |
| **GDP** | Gross Domestic Product | - |
| **GNP** | Gross National Product | - |
| **GPA** | Grade Point Average | - |
| **GPP** | Pilot Project Group | Groupement Projet Pilote |
| **GREAL** | Literacy Research and Experimentation Group | Groupe de Recherche et d'Expérimentation en Alphabétisation |
| **HAMCHAM** | Haitian-American Chamber of Commerce | - |
| **HAVA** | Haitian Association of Voluntary Agencies | - |



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| | | |
|---|---|---|
| **HDF** | Haitian Development Foundation | - |
| **HIET** | Haitian Institute of Electronic Technology | - |
| **IBRD** | International Bank for Reconstruction and Development/The World Bank (See BIRD) | Banque Internationale pour la Reconstruction et le Développement/ La Banque Mondiale |
| **ICC** | International Child Care | - |
| **ICTA** | Christian Institution for Technology | Institution Chrétienne de Technologie et d'Agriculture |
| **IDA** | International Development Association | Association Internationale de Développement |
| **IDB** | Inter-American Development Bank (See BID) | Banque Interaméricaine de Développement |
| **IDEA** | Diocesan Institute of Adult Education | Institut Diocésan d'Education des Adultes |
| **IEES** | Improving the Efficiency of Educational Systems | - |
| **IHS** | Haitian Institute of Statistics | Institut Haïtien de Statistiques et d'Informatique |
| **IICA** | Inter-American Institute for the Commercialization of Agriculture | Institut Interaméricain pour le Commercialisation Agricole |
| **ILO** | International Labor Organization (See OIT) | Organisation Internationale du Travail |
| **IMF** | International Monetary Fund (See FMI) | Fonds Monétaire International |
| **INAGHEI** | National Institute for Administration, Management, and Higher International Studies | Institut National d'Administration, de Gestion et des Hautes Etudes Internationales |
| **INHCA** | Haitian National Institute of Arts and Culture | Institut National Haïtien de la Culture et des Arts |
| **INFP** | National Institute of Professional Training | Institut National de Formation Professionnelle |
| **IPN** | National Pedagogical Institute | Institut Pédagogique National |
| **IUH** | International University of Haiti | Centre Universitaire d'Haïti |
| **LASPAU** | Latin American Scholarship Program | - |
| **MBCH** | Baptist Mission of Haiti | Mission Baptiste Conservatrice d'Haïti |
| **MCC** | Mennonite Central Committee | - |
| **MPC** | Management and Productivity Center | - |
| **MPF** | French Pedagogical Mission | Mission Pédagogique Française |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| **NACRAO** | National Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admission Officers | |
| **NAFSA** | National Association for Foreign Student Affairs | - |
| **NFE** | Nonformal Education | Education Non-Formelle |
| **NGO** | Nongovernmental Organiza tion (See ONG) | Organisme non-gouvernemental |
| **OAS** | Organization of American States (See OEA) | Organisation des Etats Américains |
| **ODN** | Development Organization of the North | Organisme de Développement du Nord |
| **ODNO** | Development Organization of the North-West | Organisme de Développement du Nord-Ouest |
| **ODVA** | Development Organization of Artibonite Valley | Organisme de Développement de la Vallee de l'Artibonite |
| **OEA** | Organization of American States (OAS) | Organisation des Etats Américains |
| **OIT** | International Labor Organization (ILO) | Organisation Internationale du Travail |
| **OMS** | World Health Organization (WHO) | Organisation Mondiale de la Santé |
| **ONAAC** | National Organization for Literacy and Community Action | Office National d'Alphabétisation et d'Action Communautaire |
| **ONART** | National Office of Artisanry | Office National de l'Artisanat |
| **ONEC** | National Office of Community Education | Office National de l'Education Communautaire |
| **ONG** | Nongovernmental Organization (NGO) | Organisme non-gouvernemental |
| **ONTRP** | National Office of Tourism and Public Relations | Office National du Tourisme et des Relations Publiques |
| **ORT** | Oral Rehydration Therapy | - |
| **PADF** | Pan American Development Foundation | - |
| **PAHO** | Pan-American Health Organization | - |
| **PAM** | World Food Program (WFP) | Programme d'Alimentation Mondiale |
| **PNUD** | United Nations Development Program (UNDP) | Programme des Nations Unies pour le Développement |
| **PVO** | Private Voluntary Organization | - |
| **RHDS** | Rural Health Delivery System | - |
| **SAWS** | Seventh Day Adventist World Service | - |
| **SCCT** | Cooperation and Technical Service | Service de la Coopération Technique |



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|---|---|---|
| **SDR** | Special Drawing Rights | - |
| **SNEM** | National Service of Major Diseases | Service National des Endémies Majeures |
| **SNFP** | National System of Professional Training | Système National de Formation Professionnelle |
| **SYG** | Student years per graduate | - |
| **TBA** | Traditional Birth Attendant | - |
| **TELECO** | Telecommunications of Haiti | Télécommunications d'Haïti |
| **UNDP** | United Nations Development Program (See PNUD) | Programme des Nations Unies pour le Développement |
| **Unesco** | United Nations Education, Science, and Culture Organization | Organisation des Nations Unies pour le Science, l'Education et la Culture |
| **UNFPA** | United Nations Fund for Population Activities | Fond des Nations Unies pour les Activités en Matière de Population |
| **UNICA** | Association of Caribbean Universities and Research Institutes | - |
| **UNICEF** | United Nations Children's Fund | Fonds des Nations Unies pour l'Enfance |
| **UPMDI** | Materials Production and Printing Unit | Unité de Production de Matériel Didactique et d'Impression |
| **URHC** | Roi Henri Christophe University | Université Roi Henry Christophe |
| **USAID** | U.S. Agency for International Development | - |
| **WFP** | World Food Program (See PAM) | Programme d'Alimentation Mondiale |
| **WHO** | World Health Organization (see OMS) | Organisation Mondiale de la Sante |
| **WVI** | World Vision International | Vision Sur le Monde |



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*Chapitre*

# 4

Chapter

# *Education Préscolaire*

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# Preprimary Education

## AVANT PROPOS

Le chapitre 4, "Education Pré-Scolaire", a été revu et corrigé à Port-au-Prince au cours de la semaine du 14 avril par les personnes suivantes :

| | |
|---|---|
| Mme Adeline André | Directrice du CINEC et chef de service pour le pré-scolaire au Ministère de l'Education. |
| Mme. Gerda Bonten | Associée, Projet Education, FISED |
| Mme. Cyril Dubuisson | Personnel du Programme CARE-CINEC |
| Mr. Franz Ewald | Administrateur du Projet Educatif, FISED |
| Mme. Denise Fouchard | Directrice, Centre d'Education Spécialisée |
| Mr. Ellis Franklin | Directeur, CARE-HAITI |
| Mme. Carrell Laurent-Zanusso | Assistante-Directrice, CARE-HAITI |

Mme. Mary Pigozzi, AMESED/Institut pour la Recherche Internationale, a pris part aux discussions en tant que facilitatrice.

La première partie de la séance a été cosacrée à un certain nombre de corrections de détails et de présentation des données statistiques. Ces corrections ont été incorporées dans la version finale du chapitre. Dans l'ensemble, les participants ont estimé que ce chapitre est une mine d'informations précieuses sur les divers projets entrepris dans le pré-scolaire et pour la première fois rassemblées dans un même document.

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# 4.0 EDUCATION PRESCOLAIRE

Le sous-secteur préscolaire fournit des programmes d'éducation formelle à environ 120.000 enfants trop jeunes pour être admis à l'école primaire c'est-à-dire âgés de moins de six ans. Il existe une série de programmes préscolaires qui s'intéressent en priorité au développement de l'enfant et à son aptitude à entrer dans un établissement scolaire, et d'autres destinés principalement à enseigner la lecture et l'écriture du français. La classe enfantine de l'école primaire est, en principe, une classe préscolaire d'une année permettant un pré-apprentissage de la lecture et de l'écriture en français (le français étant la langue officielle d'enseignement) ainsi que l'acclimatation de l'enfant au milieu scolaire. Pour l'année académique 1982/83 le nombre d'enfants inscrits dans cette catégorie était de 153.016 mais seulement 20.292 d'entre-eux étaient âgés de moins de six ans. Par ailleurs, environ 100.000 enfants participent chaque année à d'autres programmes préscolaires. Par conséquent, à l'heure actuelle il semble qu'environ 15% d'un effectif de plus de 800.000 enfants âgés de moins de six ans participent à des activités préscolaires.

## 4.1 SITUATION ACTUELLE

Durant les premières années de la vie, les enfants ont d'énormes capacités d'apprentissage. Toutefois, pour les enfants nés dans la pauvreté, l'environnement n'est pas propice à leur développement, parce que trop de besoins fondamentaux ne sont pas satisfaits. La majorité des enfants en Haïti, ceux qui vivent dans les régions rurales aussi bien que ceux des régions urbaines défavorisées, souffrent de privation. De nombreuses classes préscolaires sont spécialement destinées à préparer les enfants à s'intégrer dans le monde de l'école primaire où ils doivent apprendre à communiquer au moyen de symboles. La réussite de la Réforme de l'Education dépend en partie de la capacité des élèves à s'adapter à la nouvelle pédagogie de la Réforme.

Les recherches ont démontré que l'enseignement préscolaire peut favoriser le développement des capacités psychomotrices, linguistiques et intellectuelles de l'enfant ainsi que sa capacité d'adaptation au milieu social. Un programme uniforme implanté dans tout le pays et accessible à tous les enfants permettrait d'offrir à chacun d'eux de meilleures chances de réussir ses études primaires.

### 4.1.1 Structure du Secteur Préscolaire

Le gouvernement accorde une place prioritaire à la satisfaction des besoins des enfants d'âge préscolaire. Plusieurs organismes donateurs ont des programmes portant sur le développement de l'enfant et l'éducation préscolaire.

Ces donateurs comprennent une variété d'organismes non gouvernementaux (ONG) à but non lucratif--souvent financés par des missions évangéliques--qui travaillent conjointement avec des organisations locales et des groupements communautaires. Le FISE est l'un des donateurs les plus importants dans ce domaine. Il y a aussi de nombreux centres privés payants qui offrent un enseignement préscolaire.

Dans sa déclaration de politique générale pour 1984, le gouvernement a énoncé clairement ses objectifs et ses stratégies en matière d'enseignement préscolaire. Il a indiqué quel type de programme préscolaire il comptait promouvoir, a défini les critères de recrutement des enseignants de cette filière et a précisé les conditions d'admission des enfants aux programmes reconnus par le gouvernement ainsi que le profil d'un élève sortant. Le document précise également que le programme des Centres Intégrés de Nutrition et d'Education Communautaire (CINEC) répond aux critères du gouvernement. Le programme des CINEC est destiné aux enfants défavorisés des régions rurales et urbaines, ces enfants étant considérés par le gouvernement comme le groupe à atteindre en priorité. Le projet CINEC a été lancé conjointement par CARE et le Département de l'Education (DEN). Le Ministère de l'Education Nationale se charge de contrôler les aspects de politique générale et de surveillance et a lancé un nouveau programme préscolaire pour renforcer la Réforme.

### 4.1.2 Le Projet CINEC

Le projet CINEC a été élaboré par CARE en 1976. L'objectif principal du programme est d'améliorer les conditions physiques, sociales et intellectuelles des jeunes enfants de façon à ce qu'ils aient une meilleure chance de réussir dans les écoles primaires de la Réforme. Pour atteindre cet objectif, le projet CINEC insiste sur l'importance essentielle d'améliorer l'état de santé des jeunes enfants et leur nutrition. Chacun des 121 centres CINEC qui ont été soutenus par CARE est situé près d'une école primaire publique qui applique le programme de la Réforme.

Depuis que le Ministère de l'Education a établi sa politique générale concernant l'éducation préscolaire et a sanctionné explicitement le modèle CINEC, le FISE a entrepris de coopérer plus étroitement avec le DEN et a fourni l'aide nécessaire à la création de 60 nouveaux centres préscolaires. Ces centres ne sont pas tous rattachés à des écoles publiques, et lorsqu'ils le sont, ces écoles ne suivent pas toutes le programme de la Réforme. Bien que ces centres préscolaires soient conformes au modèle des CINEC, ils utilisent également du matériel élaboré par le programme Timoun Byen Vini (voir section 4.1.3 ci-dessous).

Le programme des CINEC s'adresse à des enfants appartenant à deux groupes

d'âge. Les enfants entre un et quatre ans peuvent participer au programme externe (200 enfants par centre) et les enfants de cinq ans au programme interne (50 enfants par centre). L'objectif principal du programme externe est d'assurer que les enfants seront bien portants et suffisamment bien nourris au moment où ils abordent le programme interne pour bénéficier pleinement de cette année de demi-pension et d'activités plus intensive, qui les préparera à intégrer l'école primaire.

Dans chaque centre CINEC le programme externe a lieu une fois par mois après que les participants au programme "interne" (demi-pension) soient rentrés chez eux. L'effectif de chaque centre doit théoriquement compter 50 enfants d'un an, 50 de deux ans, 50 de trois ans et 50 de quatre ans, soit un total de 24.200 enfants à l'échelle nationale.

Pour participer à ce programme, le projet CINEC exige que les enfants ne dépassent pas le premier degré de sous-alimentation. Un enfant au premier degré de sous-alimentation est un enfant qui ne présente pas de symptômes sévères et qui, au moyen de soins alimentaires appropriés, peut facilement être ramené à un état alimentaire normal. D'après les données de l'enquête nationale sur la nutrition des enfants en Haïti, réalisée en 1978, il apparaît qu'environ 73% des enfants d'âge préscolaire appartiennent à cette catégorie et pourrait théoriquement être admis au programme CINEC. Les mères des enfants inscrits au programme reçoivent aussi une allocation mensuelle de nourriture offerte par certains organismes donateurs. Chaque mois le poids et la taille des enfants sont enregistrés afin de suivre leur état de santé. Les mères reçoivent aussi des directives en matière de santé et de nutrition lorsqu'elles se présentent pour leurs allocations de nourriture.

Les enfants inscrits au programme externe intègrent le programme interne à l'âge de cinq ans. A la fin de l'année scolaire 1984/85, le nombre d'enfants qui s'apprêtaient à passer des centres CINEC à l'école primaire s'élevait à 6.050.

En 1982 l'Institut Pédagogique National (IPN) a créé un comité pour élaborer un programme détaillé d'éducation préscolaire en Haïti. Le programme définit les objectifs et le contenu du programme d'enseignement, propose des activités et indique le genre de matériel pédagogique nécessaire. CARE et les représentants du projet CINEC ont contribué à l'élaboration de ce programme d'enseignement.

D'après les résultats d'études partielles réalisées ces dernières années, les enfants qui ont été jusqu'au bout du programme CINEC restent plus longtemps à l'école primaire et travaillent mieux que ceux qui n'ont pas bénéficié du programme, d'après les résultats d'études partielles réalisées ces dernières

années. En Mai 1984, on a évalué les connaissances d'environ 1.400 élèves des trois premières classes de l'école primaire à la fin du troisième trimestre : 818 d'entre eux étaient passés par le programme CINEC alors que les autres 558 constituaient un groupe témoin. A la fin de la première année, 85% environ des enfants du groupe CINEC et 65% du groupe témoin ont réussi à l'examen, et à la fin de la deuxième année environ 80% du groupe CINEC et 62% du groupe témoin ont réussi.

Les frais du programme CINEC sont partagés entre le DEN et CARE, le DEN prenant à sa charge une partie des coûts de plus en plus grande. Les contributions du gouvernement entre 1981 et 1984 se sont élevées à un total de 809.105 dollars. Les frais pris en charge par CARE durant la période 1980-83 ont été de 1.791.935 dollars. En 1984, le gouvernement a alloué une somme de 371.102 dollars au projet CINEC, alors que CARE y a consacré 80.000 dollars, ce qui constitue un budget de fonctionnement de 457.102 dollars. CARE n'ayant pas suffisamment de fonds pour ouvrir d'autres centres CINEC pour l'année 1984/85, on peut supposer que ces frais seront répartis sur les 6.050 enfants inscrits au programme CINEC qui, selon les estimations, doivent passer à l'école primaire l'année prochaine. Par conséquent le coût unitaire du programme CINEC (coût moyen par enfant et par année) est de 76 dollars. CARE calcule ses coûts unitaires de façon quelque peu différente et arrive à la somme de 50 dollars pour CINEC I (programme interne) et 18 dollars pour CINEC II (programme externe).

Le Tableau 4.1 présente une estimation des coûts de fonctionnement annuels d'un centre CINEC choisi en exemple. La rubrique "coûts de formation" de l'encadrement dans cette analyse reprend uniquement les frais pris en charge directement par le projet CINEC lui-même. L'ensemble des dépenses s'élève à environ 3.300 dollars et les dépenses annuelles de fonctionnement à un peu plus de 2.500 dollars. Si l'on se réfère au Tableau 4.1 pour calculer le coût unitaire du programme CINEC, on obtient une somme de 66 dollars par enfant.

### 4.1.3 Le Projet "Timoun Byen Vini"

Le projet Timoun Byen Vini ("Enfant bien portant" en créole) constitue la seconde approche possible en matière de développement de la petite enfance. Le modèle Timoun Byen Vini a été adopté par le FISE et vise à fournir un enseignement de qualité à un grand nombre d'enfants d'âge préscolaire, c'est-à-dire de trois mois à six ans. Il a débuté en 1981 et est financé par le Ministère des Affaires Sociales. Son but est de promouvoir le développement physique, linguistique, intellectuel et émotionnel des enfants, notamment de ceux des régions rurales et des quartiers les plus démunis des centres urbains.



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Tableau 4.1

Estimation des coûts annuels de formation dans un centre CINEC

| Catégorie de Coûts | Source de Financement: Gouvt | Donateur | Communauté | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Investissements | | | | |
| Bâtiment ($2000 sur 20 ans d'entretien) | | $ 100 | | $ 100 |
| Mobilier Equipement ($700 sur 5 ans) | | 140 | | 140 |
| Formation | | | | 557 |
| Inspecteurs ONAAC | $ 5(a) | 10 | | |
| Inspecteurs Pré-Primaires | 10(a) | | | |
| Enseignants : | | | | |
| Traitement ($72 X 6 mo.) | | 432 | | |
| Frais de Formation | | 100(a) | | |
| Total | 15 | 782 | | 797 |
| Fonctionnement | | | | |
| Salaires | | | | 1,621 |
| Enseignants ($100 X 12 mo.) | 1,200 | | | |
| Cuisinières | | | $ 250(a) | |
| Inspecteurs | | | | |
| ONAAC | 71(a) | 52(a) | | |
| Pré-Primaires | 48(a) | | | |
| Nourriture ($14 X 50) | | 700 | 100 | 800 |
| Fournitures | | 100 | | 100 |
| Total | 1,319 | 852 | 350 | 2,521 |
| TOTAL GENERAL | $1,334 | $1,634 | $ 350 | $3,318 |

(a)Estimation

En tant que programme implanté au sein de la communauté et orienté vers les parents, son approche est tout à fait différente de celle du programme CINEC. Le projet est placé sous la direction du Centre d'Education Spéciale (CES), conformément à un contrat établi par le Ministère des Affaires Sociales. Les programmes sont mis en oeuvre par plusieurs organismes non gouvernementaux (ONG), en particulier ceux qui travaillent directement dans les communautés locales.

Les activités du projet Timoun Byen Vini ont été prévues pour deux groupes d'âges comprenant les enfants de trois mois à trois ans, et de trois à cinq ans respectivement. Le programme offre ses services à ces deux groupes dans le

voisinage immédiat du centre. Cependant, puisque les centres sont crées à la demande des organisations communautaires, et que celles-ci s'intéressent davantage aux programmes s'adressant à des enfants plus âgés, il y a davantage de centres desservant des enfants appartenant au deuxième groupe.

Le FISE suivait 140 groupes préscolaires dans 47 endroits différents en Octobre 1984, couvrant approximativement 6.000 enfants du groupe plus âgé (les enfants de 3 à 5 ans). Ces centres sont situés dans sept départements géographiques. Le ratio élèves/moniteur était de 43 pour 1 en moyenne. Pour le groupe plus jeune (enfants âgés de 3 mois à 3 ans), 39 centres avaient été créés. Ils étaient répartis sur tous les neuf départements du pays et comptaient 1.300 enfants.

Timoun Byen Vini a été prévu en tout premier lieu pour s'occuper de tous les enfants haïtiens qui courent le risque de sous-alimentation, c'est-à-dire les 75% qui ont de grandes chances de devenir handicapés par suite de privations. Une deuxième caractéristique de ce projet est sa base communautaire. Timoun Byen Vini ne peut être implanté qu'à la demande d'une organisation locale et il doit être financé en grande partie par la communauté. Un moniteur, assisté des mères d'élèves, est responsable d'un groupe de 40 enfants. Chaque mère travaille un jour par mois de façon à ce qu'il y ait deux mères qui travaillent chaque jour avec le groupe.

Le programme est basé sur le Modèle Portage, un programme préscolaire, à base communautaire, dont le coût est peu élevé, et qui est centré autour des parents et de l'environnement familial. Parents et moniteurs utilisent pour leur travail le Guide Portage de l'Education des petits enfants et d'autres types de matériel--tels que des tableaux de contrôle pour l'enfant--qui ont été adaptés pour Haïti et traduits en créole.

Le programme Timoun Byen Vini est financé par le FISE, par le Ministère des Affaires Sociales, et par certain nombre d'ONG. Si on fait le rapport entre le montant du budget prévisionnel pour 1984 qui est de 497.800 dollars et le nombre de bénéficiaires (7.300) pour la même année, il ressort que le coût par enfant est de 68 dollars. Une estimation des dépenses annuelles pour le fonctionnement d'un groupe dans un centre figure dans le Tableau 4.2 par catégorie et par type de financement. En indiquant les coûts de cette façon on peut remarquer deux caractéristiques importantes du programme Timoun Byen Vini. D'abord, la communauté paie une part importante du coût du programme (63%). Ensuite la communauté contribue une certaine proportion des coûts d'investissement et des frais de fonctionnement de ce programme. Le fait que la communauté se charge des frais récurrents de l'activité augmente les chances de voir le programme continuer après l'inévitable épuisement de l'aide

Tableau 4.2

Estimation des coûts annuels de formation

dans un Centre Timoun Byen Vini

(Groupe des 3 à 5 ans)

| Catégorie de coût | Source de financement | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Gouvt | Donateur | Communauté | Total |
| Investissement | -- | | | |
| Bâtiments | | $ 25 | $ 75 | $ 100 |
| ($1000 sur 20 ans d'entretien) | | | | |
| Mobilier et Equipement | | 100(a) | | 100 |
| Formation | | | | 188 |
| (4 semaines à $6) | | 120 | | |
| (1/5 de 3 semaines à $6) | | 18 | | |
| (transport) | | 50 | | |
| Salaires | | 70 | | 70 |
| (7 X 350$/mois sur 3 ans et 140 centres) | | | | |
| Total | | 383 | 75 | 458 |
| Fonctionnement | -- | | | |
| Salaires | | | | 1,592 |
| Moniteur (50$/mois) | | | 600 | |
| Surveillant (1/5 de l'annuel à 80$/mois) | | | 192 | |
| Mères (2 jours à 2$) | | | 800(b) | |
| Nourriture (14$ X 40) | | 560 | 100(b) | 660 |
| Fournitures | | 100 | | 100 |
| Total | | 660 | 1,692 | 2,352 |
| TOTAL GENERAL | -- | $1,043 | $1,767 | $2,810 |

(a)Estimation

(b)Bénévole

extérieure.

En prenant le Tableau 4.2 pour référence, on peut voir que le coût unitaire du programme Timoun Byen Vini est de 65 dollars, approximativement le même que pour le programme CINEC. Cependant, dans le cas du programme destiné aux enfants de 3 à 5 ans, chaque centre organise par alternance deux classes de 43 enfants, ce qui signifie que les dépenses annuelles de fonctionnement et d'investissement couvrent 86 enfants au lieu de 43. Le coût unitaire dans ce cas ne s'élèverait qu'à 33 dollars par an et par enfant.

### 4.1.4 Programmes Préscolaires du Secteur Privé

Le secteur privé intervient très activement à tous les niveaux du système éducatif en Haïti. A cause de la structure complexe de cette partie du système préscolaire il est difficile de formuler des jugements d'ensemble valables pour tous les institutions et centres en question. Les programmes préscolaires du secteur privé peuvent toutefois jouer un rôle très important dans l'effort pour augmenter l'impact de l'école primaire. Par conséquent, les organismes donateurs de même que le gouvernement sont en train de chercher des voies et moyens pour les inciter à faire plus.

Les limites de cette évaluation sectorielle ne permettent pas une étude de tous les programmes préscolaires privés. On dispose cependant de quelques données recueillies au cours d'une conférence organisée en 1984 par le FISE à l'intention des directeurs de 53 institutions préscolaires privées. La conférence ayant eu lieu au Cap-Haïtien, la majorité (91%) des programmes représentés étaient du Département du Nord. L'information recueillie peut toutefois être utilisée comme une première indication de la variété des programmes préscolaires privés.

Le nombre d'élèves inscrits dans les 53 écoles était de 4.283, ce qui fait une moyenne de 81 élèves par école. La capacité d'accueil variait entre 20 et 325 places et l'âge des élèves entre 3 et 7 ans. Pour un total de 90 enseignants, le rapport élève/maître était de 48 pour 1. Le nombre de maîtres par école variait de 1 à 6.

Pour évaluer le nombre d'enfants d'âge préscolaire dans les établissements préscolaires privés pour l'ensemble du pays, le rapport entre le nombre d'élèves des écoles dans le Nord et le nombre d'enfants commençant l'école primaire dans ce département durant l'année scolaire 1981/82 a été calculé. Cette proportion a ensuite été utilisée pour calculer, par département, le nombre d'enfants d'âge préscolaire participant à ces programmes. En toute probabilité les chiffres sous-estiment les effectifs réels pour deux raisons. Tout d'abord, de nombreux programmes dirigés par des églises locales n'y sont pas inclus. Ensuite, la base de calcul utilisée a été établie à partir du

nombre d'inscriptions entre 1981/82 et ne tient pas compte de l'augmentation régulière et subséquente des inscriptions au niveau de l'enseignement primaire. Une telle estimation aboutit à près de 34.000 enfants incrits aux programmes préscolaires du secteur privé, ce qui fait apparaître l'importance du rôle que le secteur privé peut jouer dans le domaine de l'éducation.

La plupart des institutions préscolaires demandent des droits d'inscription et un versement mensuel supplémentaire (ou "écolage"). Les droits d'inscription dans l'échantillon choisi étaient en moyenne de 1,06 dollars et le versement mensuel de 2,35 dollars ; ces tarifs variaient respectivement de zéro à neuf dollars et de zéro à six dollars. Il existe peu d'information quant aux sommes d'argent engagées par les parents ou l'école pour l'achat des uniformes et des fournitures scolaires. Une évaluation approximative basée sur les recettes de fonctionnement laisse à penser que les ressources destinées au réglement des salaires des enseignants, à l'équipement et à l'entretien des locaux sont extrêmement limitées.

## 4.2 CONTRAINTES

Ressources humaines. Le fort taux d'émigration et la lenteur de la croissance du système éducatif scolaire sont à l'origine d'un sérieux manque de personnel dans le domaine de l'éducation comme dans d'autres secteurs. Cette situation a de graves répercussions dans trois domaines d'importance de l'éducation préscolaire :

1. Peu d'enseignants du préscolaire ont une formation suffisante pour leur permettre de bien exercer le métier, surtout dans les programmes comportant d'importants éléments d'enseignement sanitaire.
2. Il manque un système de contrôle efficace.
3. De plus, Haïti n'a pas encore effectué de recherches ni d'évaluations concernant l'efficacité relative des différents programmes préscolaires.

Financement. On ne peut guère prévoir de forte augmentation de fonds pour les activités préscolaires, pourtant une aide supplémentaire sera nécessaire pour réaliser le souhait du gouvernement qui veut offrir le bénéfice d'un enseignement préscolaire à tous les enfants défavorisés. La plupart des haïtiens ne peuvent pas payer davantage pour l'éducation de leurs enfants. Comme le secteur privé ouvre déjà ses portes à un grand nombre d'enfants, il est important de savoir si ce secteur peut réellement faire face aux dépenses supplémentaires qu'un élargissement de ses effectifs entraînerait.

Organisation. La politique générale du pays concernant les activités

préscolaires est très précise, mais son exécution nécessitera une coordination étroite entre les agences qui en sont chargées. Pour établir un système national efficace il faudra des inspecteurs expérimentés, capables de former et d'aider les enseignants. On devra créer des systèmes appropriés pour identifier, rassembler et interpréter les informations nécessaires au développement et à l'évaluation des programmes.

Environnement. Il est difficile d'atteindre tous les enfants en Haïti étant donné l'état des routes, du réseau de transports et de communication. Les conditions de vie dans un environnement difficile obligent également les familles, pour survivre, à dépendre d'activités économiques qui monopolisent le temps des parents et des enfants et les empêchent de se consacrer pleinement aux activités d'éducation préscolaire.

## 4.3 PROBLEMES

Les problèmes mentionnés dans la section 4.2 seront examinés ci-dessous et ont pour thèmes : efficacité externe, efficacité interne, accès à l'éducation et équité, administration et contrôle, coût et financement.

Efficacité externe. Les rapports entre les activités préscolaires et les résultats obtenus à l'école primaire posent plusieurs problèmes. L'un d'eux concerne l'évaluation des résultats obtenus grâce aux investissements dans le préscolaire. Il est important de faire une distinction entre l'impact de la formation préscolaire sur la réussite des élèves aux niveaux supérieurs de leur carrière scolaire d'un côté, et son impact sur l'amélioration du bien-être social en général. Les enfants haïtiens qui participent aux programmes préscolaires, renforcés par un programme de nutrition, ont de toute évidence de meilleures chances de bien-être et de réussite dans la vie que ceux qui n'y participent pas. Le problème clé en matière d'efficacité externe est pourtant de savoir si ces investissements permettent d'améliorer les performances scolaires des élèves et de diminuer les taux d'abandon au niveau de l'école primaire.

Il a été démontré que lorsqu'on investit dans la formation des mères, cet effort a presque toujours des effets positifs sur l'éducation des enfants. Les mères des enfants d'âge préscolaire déjà engagées dans certains programmes d'activités scolaires pourraient suivre dans le cadre de classes pour adultes des cours d'alphabétisation.

Une autre question se pose au sujet de la coordination entre écoles préscolaires et primaires. Les activités préscolaires devraient être étroitement liées à l'éducation primaire afin de fournir de meilleures possibilités de développement aux enfants. Un grand nombre d'enfants haïtiens sont inscrits dans des programmes préscolaires qui ne sont guère que des

garderies et qui ne se concentrent pas sur le développement de l'enfant et sa préparation à l'école.

Efficacité interne. La nécessité d'utiliser les ressources disponibles afin d'obtenir les meilleurs résultats possibles dans le domaine de l'Education pré-primaire exige que l'accent soit d'abord mis sur la formation des enseignants. Le gouvernement envisage d'ajouter un programme préscolaire au programme traditionnel de formation des maîtres (voir chapitre 7). Le fait de demander aux enseignants du préscolaire de suivre des cours à l'Ecole Normale implique qu'il faille investir de l'argent pendant une durée de trois ans, alors que l'expérience des programmes CINEC et Timoun Byen Vini démontre à n'en plus douter qu'une formation de six mois serait largement suffisante.

Un autre problème est l'utilisation d'un matériel produit sur place pour pallier au manque de fournitures et d'équipement provenant de l'extérieur. Lors de visites aux centres CINEC et Timoun Byen Vini, il a été noté que les agences qui les subventionnaient, fournissaient également aux enfants les principales fournitures scolaires et le matériel de travail. Cependant, il ressort des observations faites dans les classes enfantines, qu'il y a une pénurie de matériel très prononcée : les budgets des programmes préscolaires des quelques institutions choisies comme exemple montrent que les ressources disponibles pour l'achat de matériel sont extrêmement limitées. Il serait souhaitable de penser à des formules qui inciteraient le personnel ou les parents d'élèves des établissements comprenant des classes enfantines, à fournir une partie du matériel ou à le fabriquer sur place.

Le choix de CINEC en tant que programme modèle fait partie de la politique générale du gouvernement en ce qui concerne l'éducation préscolaire. Cependant, l'existence de deux excellents programmes préscolaires (CINEC et Timoun Byen Vini) devrait inciter à une plus grande coopération entre les deux. Les aspects positifs de chaque programme pourraient se compléter ou être partagés.

L'intégration de programmes préscolaires dans un système national constitue un autre axe de travail d'une grande importance. Tous ceux qui s'occupent de classes enfantines ou sont concernés par celles-ci devront se recycler pour s'adapter au modèle CINEC et à ses objectifs. Ce recyclage devrait atteindre les inspecteurs, les directeurs d'écoles, les enseignants et les parents.

Le secteur privé représente un autre domaine où de nouvelles initiatives s'imposent. Un certain nombre d'ONG offrent un enseignement préscolaire dans le cadre de leurs propres systèmes scolaires. Ces sous-systèmes sont souvent coordonés par des organisations missionaires importantes et bien implantées en

Haïti. De plus, il existe de nombreux programmes préscolaires indépendants et moins ambitieux qui sont organisés par des églises locales, dont bon nombre travaillent à des fins lucratives. Coordonner et contrôler toutes ces initiatives indépendantes risque de poser un problème lorsqu'il s'agira d'uniformiser les programmes préscolaires.

Accès à l'éducation et équité. On suppose généralement que les activités préscolaires doivent avoir un effet démocratisant, en ce sens qu'elles assurent à tous les élèves une chance égale de réussir à l'école primaire. Cependant, la participation à un programme préscolaire ne garantit pas d'elle-même que tous les élèves auront les mêmes facilités lors de leur entrée à l'école primaire. La qualité de l'enseignement varie considérablement d'un programme à l'autre à l'intérieur du sous-secteur.

Le désir du gouvernement de permettre à tous d'accéder à des activités préscolaires de haute qualité est fort louable mais pour atteindre ce but il faudra du temps, des fonds et un personnel bien préparé. Le programme CINEC a été créé pour préparer les élèves à suivre le nouveau programme primaire prévu par la Réforme de l'Education. Il s'ensuit donc que le développement du programme CINEC dépend étroitement du rythme d'adoption de la Réforme par les écoles primaires. A l'heure actuelle, seulement 25% environ de ces écoles suivent le programme de la Réforme.

Administration et inspection. Bien qu'une formation académique très poussée ne soit pas nécessaire pour s'occuper du fonctionnement des programmes préscolaires, le sous-secteur manque de personnel qualifié en matière de planification, de formation et d'inspection. Le Ministère de l'Education ne dispose pas de suffisamment de personnel qualifié pour s'acquitter de ces fonctions et les organismes privés qui se chargent de la direction des deux grands programmes préscolaires nationaux ne sont pas capables d'assumer ces responsabilités faute de personnel.

Coûts et financement. Pour encourager les bénéficiaires à prendre en charge eux-mêmes une part des dépenses des programmes préscolaires au même titre que les agences (gouvernement, ONG) qui s'en occupent déjà, la participation de la communauté à ce financement a été mise en évidence. Les bailleurs de fonds pensent également que cette participation est nécessaire pour permettre aux programes préscolaires de "prendre racine" dans le milieu.

Il n'existe pas de données chiffrées permettant de comparer les coûts unitaires des différents types de programmes préscolaires actuellement en cours. Des données relatives aux coûts et aux bénéfices des programmes sont pourtant essentielles à tout effort conséquent de planification dans ce sous-secteur.

## 4.4 CONCLUSIONS

Conclusion 1 - Demande d'éducation. Il existe une forte demande d'éducation, en particulier pour les programmes préscolaires qui font bénéficier les élèves d'un repas par jour.

De façon générale, les parents d'élèves sont prêts à investir des sommes relativement importantes dans l'éducation préscolaire de leurs enfants, filles ou garçons, car ils estiment que cette formation peut améliorer leurs chances de réussite à l'école et dans la vie.

Conclusion 2 - Besoin d'informations. Il y a un très important besoin d'informations supplémentaires en ce qui concerne les activités préscolaires et leurs résultats.

Peu de renseignements sont disponibles quant au coût des programmes préscolaires. La poursuite et le développement de ces programmes nécessitent des informations plus complètes qui puissent servir de base à la prise de décision. Il est probable que les petits programmes du secteur privé touchent en réalité beaucoup plus d'enfants d'âge préscolaire que les grands programmes préscolaires nationaux, exception faite des classes enfantines. Il est cependant difficile de l'affirmer faute de renseignements précis et dans l'ensemble, très peu d'information existe sur les programme d'études, les coûts, les points forts et les faiblesses des centres du secteur privé. Les nouveaux programmes nationaux sont basés sur les théories et les recherches existant en matière de préparation et de développement de l'enfant à l'école, mais il reste à déterminer jusqu'à quel point ces concepts et méthodes s'appliquent à Haïti.

Conclusion 3 - Uniformité. La politique du gouvernement serait de parvenir à l'uniformisation des programmes préscolaires, mais la réalisation d'une telle entreprise ne va pas sans problèmes.

Les nombreux programmes préscolaires qui ont été établis à des fins lucratives risqueraient de perdre des inscriptions s'ils changeaient d'approche ou de programme de formation sans raisons valables. Même s'il existait une législation dans ce domaine, il serait difficile de la faire appliquer étant donné le peu de possibilités d'inspection existant à l'heure actuelle.

Conclusion 4 - Qualité. Bien qu'il en existe de bons, en général la qualité des programmes d'éducation préscolaire est faible.

La majeure partie des programmes préscolaires offrent peu de formation ou de conseils aux enseignants. En général, ils ne sont régis par aucun organe de coordination et ils disposent de très peu de fonds pour s'approvisionner en

matériel didactique. Les faiblesses d'infrastructure pédagogique empêchent la distribution de matériel aux institutions qui en ont le plus besoin.

Conclusion 5 - Personnel. L'éducation préscolaire a un besoin pressant de personnel.

Le développement et l'amélioration des activités préscolaires nécessitent une augmentation du nombre et une amélioration de la qualité du personnel à tous les niveaux. Le passage des enseignants des classes enfantines aux programmes CINEC entraînera des dépenses de recyclage importantes. Pour créer un système préscolaire coordonné, même s'il n'est pas unifié, il est essentiel d'avoir un personnel chargé de la planification et de la formation qui soit qualifié et donc bien formé.

Conclusion 6 - Innovations. Les activités préscolaires semblent offrir d'excellentes occasions d'introduire des innovations. Les activités préscolaires auxquelles prennent part les femmes et les parents pourraient être modifiées de façon à y inclure d'autres formes d'enseignement, telles que l'alphabétisation ou des informations sur de nouvelles techniques agricoles.

Conclusion 7 - Engagement. Le gouvernement s'est clairement engagé dans la réalisation de programmes d'éducation préscolaire ainsi que le démontre la mise en oeuvre effective de sa politique et de sa participation financière. Le gouvernement paie les salaires du personnel enseignant du programme CINEC et il est prêt à financer le transfert des enseignants des classes enfantines aux classes préscolaires de modèle CINEC lorsque les écoles publiques adopteront le programme de la Réforme. Malgré la faiblesse du budget de l'éducation préscolaire et partant, le manque de personnel et de ressources qui permettrait de diffuser un nouveau matériel pédagogique, le gouvernement a largement tenu ses promesses quant au financement des programmes.

Conclusion 8 - Ressources. Etant donné les sérieuses difficultés économiques que connaît Haïti à l'heure actuelle, la somme de ressources investies dans (ou disponibles pour) les programmes d'éducation préscolaire est impressionante.

La plupart de ces ressources viennent des communautés locales. Dans beaucoup de cas ces contributions représentent une grande partie des revenus familiaux. Il est donc important qu'elles soient utilisées à des activités promettant de procurer des bénéfices substantiels aux participants.

## 4.5 RECOMMANDATIONS

Les recommandations suivantes sont basées sur les analyses et conclusions présentées ci-dessus.

Recommandation 1 - Information. Développer une base d'informations sur les activités préscolaires, ce qui permettrait une planification plus rationnelle et une utilisation plus efficace des ressources disponibles.

Des renseignements concernant le secteur privé seraient particulièrement utiles. Il pourrait être adjoint à cet effort une aide aux programmes privés qui accepteraient d'adopter le programme de la Réforme au niveau primaire, d'utiliser un système comptable simple permettant de contrôler les recettes et les dépenses et de collaborer à des études de suivi portant sur le devenir des enfants ayant terminé le programme.

Recommandation 2 - Qualité. Améliorer la qualité des programmes préscolaires et donc "l'efficacité interne" de cette formation.

Le développement de matériel pédagogique bon marché et de manuels pour les enseignants, articulés peut-être sur des programmes de radio éducative, permettrait d'augmenter la qualité de l'en eignement, notamment dans le secteur privé. Des stages de formation de courte durée pour les enseignants de programmes préscolaires seraient également très utiles.

Recommandation 3 - Contrôle. Améliorer les capacités de contrôle et de planification dans le sous-secteur.

A l'heure actuelle, il n'y a pas suffisamment de personnel de direction et de contrôle pour que le gouvernement puisse mettre en pratique sa politique. Une éventuelle solution serait de désigner des personnes pour prendre part à une formation leur permettant d'acquérir les connaissances nécessaires à exercer des responsabilités de direction ou de contrôle. En même temps, il sera essentiel de connaître exactement quels types d'investissements le gouvernement est prêt à faire en matière de contrôle et de planification et dans quelle mesure il est disposé à entreprendre une décentralisation du système en faveur des ONG et des organismes privés à but lucratif.

Recommandation 4 - Accès à l'éducation. Augmenter les possibilités d'accès aux programmes préscolaires rattachés aux écoles primaires qui suivent le programme de la Réforme.

Les possibilités d'accès à l'école pourraient être augmentées par l'établissement d'un nombre assez important de programmes CINEC dans les écoles publiques qui ont adopté le programme de la Réforme. Ces investissements pourraient inclure une contribution aux frais d'entretien de bâtiments, aux frais d'équipement et aux frais de formation des maîtres des classes enfantines afin qu'ils puissent participer avec succès au programme de la Réforme.

Les coûts de construction, d'équipement et de personnel d'un centre CINEC

ne dépassent pas 3.300 dollars en moyenne, et les dépenses de fonctionnement par an sont d'environ 2.500 dollars. Par conséquent, l'addition de 500 centres CINEC coûterait seulement 1.650.000 dollars au départ et 1.250.000 dollars par an par la suite.

Recommandation 5 - Coopération. Promouvoir une meilleure coopération entre les organismes s'occupant de programmes préscolaires, ceci pourrait être fait à partir d'un minimun d'investissement.

Un organisme extérieur (ne s'occupant pas directement d'éducation préscolaire) pourrait jouer un rôle de médiateur pour asseoir cette coordination et pour faire en sorte que chaque organisme renforce davantage les aspects les plus valables de son programme et partage le fruit de son expérience avec les autres.

Recommandation 6 - Education des mères. Profiter de la participation des femmes aux programmes préscolaires pour leur permettre de suivre une formation.

Pour y parvenir, on aura besoin du concours d'autres divisions du Département de l'Education (par exemple, l'ONAAC), et peut-être d'autres Ministères et de nombreux organismes du secteur privé. Des programmes de formation générateurs revenus sont particulièrement indiqués. Il faut cependant noter que les résultats de l'application de cette recommandation ne se feront sentir qu'à plus ou moins long terme.

Recommandation 7 - Encouragements. Développer un système pour encourager les programmes du secteur privé à adopter le modèle général recommandé par le gouvernement.

Il serait possible d'offrir aux écoles privées qui acceptent de suivre le programme CINEC un appui sous forme de nourriture pour les enfants, matériel pédagogique, et éventuellement fonds destinés à améliorer les programmes et l'enseignement dès la fin du recyclage de leurs enseignants.

Recommandation 8 - Participation des parents. Encourager la participation active des parents aux programmes préscolaires.

Il serait utile d'encourager les communautés à prendre en charge une partie des frais et des responsabilités du fonctionnement des centres CINEC créés dans les écoles publiques qui suivent le programme de la Réforme. De nouveaux établissements préscolaires pourraient être créés sur la base de coopérative privée.

## CHAPTER PREFACE

Chapter 4, "Preprimary Education," was reviewed in Port-au-Prince during the week of April 14, 1986 by the following persons:

| | |
|---|---|
| Mrs. Adeline André | Director CINEC Program and Chief of Service of Preprimary Education, Ministry of Education (MOE) |
| Mr. Gerda Bonten | Education Project Associate, Unicef |
| Mrs. Cyril Dubuisson | Program staff, CARE-CINEC |
| Mr. Franz Ewald | Education Project Administrator, Unicef |
| Mrs. Denise Fouchard | Director, Center d'Education Spéciale |
| Mr. Ellis Franklin | Director, CARE-HAITI |
| Mrs. Carrell Laurent-Zanusso | Deputy Director, CARE-Haiti |

Mrs. Mary Pigozzi, IEES/Institute for International Research, participated in the discussions as facilitator.

Corrections of factual detail and statistical presentation were made at the outset of each session. These have been incorporated into the final version of the chapter. Overall, the reviewers felt that the chapter provided a great amount of valuable information on the spectrum of preprimary projects not previously assembled in one place.

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# 4.0 PREPRIMARY EDUCATION*

This chapter examines preprimary education in Haiti. This subsector consists of formal education programs for children who are too young for legal admission to primary school--that is, under six years of age. According to the 1982 census, there were 876,843 children in this age group.

A range of preprimary programs is available, including programs that stress child development or school readiness, and those designed to teach reading and writing of French. No accurate count of the number of children participating in various types of preprimary education can be obtained. A large number of children are enrolled in the classe enfantine, which, in theory, is a year-long preschool course teaching French reading and writing skills (French is officially the language of instruction in the majority of Haitian primary schools). The number of children enrolled in 1982/83 was 153,016, according to statistics from the Ministry of Education, but the number who were under six was only 20,292; the rest of the enrollments were children six or more years of age. Roughly estimated, other preprimary programs benefit something like 100,000 children annually. Thus, preprimary activities reach perhaps 15% of the more than 800,000 children below the age of six.

The present status of preprimary education is reviewed in this chapter and major programs are summarized. Significant needs are then analyzed, based on a comparison of objectives, programs, plans, and constraints. This analysis focuses on issues in the five thematic areas used throughout this assessment: external efficiency, internal efficiency, access and equity, administration and supervision, and costs and financing. The information is then used to derive priority-ranked recommendations.

Preprimary education needs were found for such activities as preparing a useful information base on early childhood development and education, facilitating coordination and standardization among preschool programs, increasing the skills and staffing levels of those who provide services, developing better linkages between programs and communities, and improving the quality of private sector preprimary services. Recommendations based on these needs relate to such areas as: getting information on costs and outcomes; improving the quality of services through better administration, management, and instruction, and by incentives to organizations involved in preprimary activities; increasing access to preprimary education; and increasing related educational opportunities for mothers.

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*The draft of this chapter was prepared by Mary Joy Pigozzi, Institute for International Research, Inc.

## 4.1 STATUS

In this section, goals and strategies of Government are presented against an historical background. A description of the structure and organization of preprimary education in the Ministry of Education is then followed by summaries of current programs, giving basic information on students, teachers, curriculum, examinations, facilities and equipment, and costs and financing.

### 4.1.1 Historical Setting

Although Haiti has been independent since 1804, the development of its educational system has not been sufficient to support national social and economic growth. The few educational institutions that existed in the early years were mainly private and were available almost exclusively to the wealthy elite. Public sector education grew gradually, but neither the private nor the public sector was free from significant fluctuations in the numbers of schools and access to them.

As with primary education, preprimary has suffered from several reorganizations in the administration of education. Under Francçois Duvalier during the 1960s, rural education was put under the direction of the Ministry of Agriculture, but rural education remained stagnant. Some nursery schools and preschool programs were in existence at this time. The rural school system began with an enfantine class, designed as a one-year preschool program; in practice, there were often two, or even three, levels of enfantine classes in which very young children participated in formal school learning activities. A major focus was the teaching of reading and writing of French as a foreign language, since it was likely to be the language of instruction in primary school.

The perceived importance of preschool should not be underemphasized. In 1959, 60% of the rural children who were in school were enrolled in the first two levels of the formal system--enfantine I and enfantine II. In 1967, this proportion was virtually the same. In 1979, the rural and urban schools were united into one system; most rural schools still have the classe enfantine. Preprimary programs remain a significant part of Haitian education today. Some information about the characteristics of Haitian children under six years of age will provide background for understanding the importance attached to preprimary education. According to the 1982 census report, there were 876,843 children under six years of age. The age distribution was:

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Less than 1 year - | 147,103 | 3 years - | 155,659 |
| 1 year - | 124,397 | 4 years - | 151,035 |
| 2 years - | 152,089 | 5 years - | 146,560 |

Approximately 75% of these children lived in poverty. The statistics that describe their prospects show the magnitude of the problem. Of every 1,000 live births in 1983, for example, 111 infants died within the first year of life, and it is estimated that almost 30% of all children die before reaching puberty.

The Plan Quinquennal de Développement Economique et Social: 1981-1986 describes the situation of young children in some detail. On the basis of a 1979 survey, it concludes that the principal problems facing children are the following:

- lack of prenatal and postnatal care;
- malnutrition;
- high infant mortality caused by diarrhea, enteritis, bronchitis, pneumonia, tuberculosis, tetanus, and intestinal ailments;
- deficiencies in socialization, recreation, education, and knowledge;
- lack of affective care due to abandonment, parental death, or poverty;
- social maladjustment; and
- child labor at an age when a child should be learning and playing.

Research conducted in a large number of countries has begun to yield tentative but highly significant conclusions about the complex linkages among poverty, deprivation in early years, cognitive disabilities, and adult development and performance. It is now known that health, nutrition, and stimulation are all important components of a child's well-being and that these factors interact. For example, children who have poor diets are less active and less socially responsive than their well-fed counterparts. Although recent findings suggest that children have an extraordinary ability to recuperate, both mentally and physically, after they have suffered from deprivation, these results also show that subsequent deterioration is a more serious and frequent problem than is usually acknowledged.

Recognition of the value of programs that increase the well-being and productivity of those who will be responsible for the nation's future has resulted in a commitment to child development and preprimary education in both the public and private sectors. Government has given high priority to the needs of preschool children. Although the 1981-86 Five-Year Plan does not discuss preprimary educational activities, the Plan Biennal d'Education: 1984-86 does note the importance of preprimary education and indicates that Government recognizes the key role of the private sector in preprimary education.

In 1982, the Ministry of Education (Département de l'Education Nationale - DEN), issued a strong public statement in support of preschool education, including a detailed curriculum. This statement was developed in relation to the educational Reform that was being introduced. Under the Reform the old system of six years of primary school, consisting of Cours Préparatoire I and II, Cours Elémentaire I and II, and Cours Moyen I and II, as well as the preceding enfantine level(s) in rural areas, is replaced by 10 years of primary school which is offered in three cycles (4+3+3). It is assumed that literacy will be achieved upon completion of the first cycle of the Reform curriculum. (For a more detailed discussion of the Educational Reform, see Chapters 5, 6, and 7 of this assessment.)

In May 1984, the Ministry of Education organized a conference for agencies involved in preprimary activities to enable them to coordinate better to improve the quality of all existing services. This conference was sponsored by UNICEF. In September 1984, the Ministry of Education issued a policy statement on preprimary education. Reinforcing the 1982 foundation statement, this policy reaffirms Government's commitment to the Education Reform introduced in 1979, and maintains that the Community Integrated Nutrition and Education Center (CINEC) model must be followed if the Reform is to be successful. This model is designed to give all children the skills necessary for an equal opportunity to succeed in the three cycles of the 10 years of primary school (4+3+3). Primary school is viewed as the foundation for a productive life. Government envisions a nationwide preprimary program that addresses psychomotor, language, cognitive, and social-emotional skills. The policy statement emphasizes the role of the privately sponsored programs and specifies that the national program must include the education of parents in hygiene, health, nutrition, and community action.

Several donors have programs for child development and preprimary education. In cooperation with Government, they have recognized the need for coordination and cooperation so that the scarce resources available for children under six years of age can be used more effectively. These donors include a variety of nongovernmental, nonprofit organizations (many of them supported by Christian groups) which have tended to emphasize working with domestic organizations and community groups. UNICEF is a major donor in this area. Donors in the private sector who are essentially nonprofit organizations can depend, in part, on the Haitian Association of Voluntary Agencies (HAVA) for communication and coordination of activities. Coordination with the numerous private, for-profit centers that offer preschool education is much more difficult and an effective coordination mechanism has not yet been developed.

### 4.1.2 National Goals and Strategies

In its 1984 policy statement, Government clearly stated its goals and strategies. It specified which preprimary program it endorsed, minimum requirements for preschool teachers, and a profile of those children who are to enter and exit the government-approved and supported preprimary program. A summary of Haiti's approved preprimary program follows.

The 1984 policy statement states that the nation's preprimary education program will:

- provide children with the necessary prerequisites for early childhood development;
- make up for deficiencies stemming from an educationally deprived family setting;
- involve parents in the child's development process; and
- fashion preschool education into a comprehensive, multi-sectoral, community-oriented undertaking, with nutritional, pedagogical, and health components.

This statement also addresses the specific objectives of the preprimary program directly. For clarification regarding both policy and implementation, the Ministry refers to the document entitled Enseignement Préscolaire Haïtien--Objectifs et Programme, Juin 1982 and published by the National Pedagogical Institute (Institut Pédagogique National - IPN). The following are the objectives of the program as stated in the 1984 document:

- to stimulate or to reinforce the development of the child's mental and physical capacities that are necessary for future learning;
- to progressively initiate the child to the demands and activities of school life, and help him/her acquire proper habits in hygiene, discipline, and organization of school work;
- to facilitate the development and expression of the child's personality, awareness and free expression of self, ability to communicate, and autonomy;
- to closely observe the child in order to detect possible deficiencies and prevent future failures or maladjustments; and
- to satisfy the child's affective needs, providing her/him with a sense of security, individual attention, warmth, and tenderness.

As has been noted, the policy statement specifies that the Community Integrated Nutrition and Education Centers (CINEC) program meets the needs of Government. The CINEC program is directed to disadvantaged children in rural and urban

areas, who are defined by Government as the most important target group. CINEC was developed by CARE in cooperation with the Ministry of Education.

CINEC's main goal is to prepare five-year-olds physically, nutritionally, intellectually, and socially for entrance into the first cycle of primary school, and thus lower the dropout rate in later years. Its training is based on health and socialization of the child and teaches specific prerequisites for later school learning. Emphasis is placed on teacher training, motivation, supervision, technical training in the field, parental participation, and a complete integration of all CINEC centers into the national education system.

### 4.1.3 Structure and Programs

As noted earlier, preprimary education is implemented by a variety of sponsoring organizations. Policy and general oversight are the responsibility of the Ministry of Education, which has embarked upon a new preprimary program to support the goals of the nationwide Education Reform. The Ministry of Education has adopted for its preprimary programs the CINEC model developed by CARE; thus, the CINEC program will replace the traditional classe enfantine. UNICEF cooperates with the Ministry of Education in this program and also works with other governmental and nongovernmental agencies to provide services to support child development programs. In this regard, UNICEF works closely with coordinating mechanisms within the Haitian Association of Voluntary Agencies. A number of mission-supported schools offer preprimary programs. In some cases, preprimary participation is a condition for admission to primary school classes (e.g., in rural schools following the traditional curriculum).

The CINEC program has grown in two stages. Between 1978 and 1983, 96 centers were built and equipped by CARE. All were associated with new World Bank supported schools that were part of the introduction of the Reform curriculum. This stage was known as CINEC I. Under CINEC II, 25 more centers were opened in existing facilities. CINEC II preprimary programs are associated with 15 World Bank schools, five schools supported by the Canadian government, three older schools, and two additional teacher training colleges (écoles normales, see Chapter 7). Completion of CINEC II meant that all Government teacher training colleges have a CINEC preprimary center attached to them. Thus, a total of 121 centers reaching 6,050 of the approximately 146,000 five-year-olds have opened under the guidance of CARE. As centers have been opened, DEN has assumed some of the operating expenses, most notably the cost of teacher salaries at all centers.

Within the private sector many preprimary programs are operated on a for-profit basis. The great majority of these are based on the traditional curriculum and are, therefore, similar to the enfantine class method and content.

To provide a better understanding of the range of preschool programs, three types will be described in some detail: the CINEC program, which is managed by CARE and has been selected as the program that will best serve the Ministry of Education in terms of Educational Reform; a nationwide, community-based child development program, called Project Timoun Byen Vini (properly developed children) managed by a domestic nongovernmental organization; and the smaller, for-profit preschool programs offered by the private sector. Information on this last type was collected from questionnaires that were distributed at a UNICEF-sponsored workshop in Cap-Haitien, in the Nord Département (see Figure 4.1), in the first half of 1984. Programs offered by mission-supported schools are not described, on the assumption that, as the Ministry of Education works with these institutions toward integration with the Government Education Reform, these preprimary programs will soon follow the CINEC model. Similarly, the classe enfantine is not described because it will be superseded by CINEC centers.

#### 4.1.4 CINEC Program

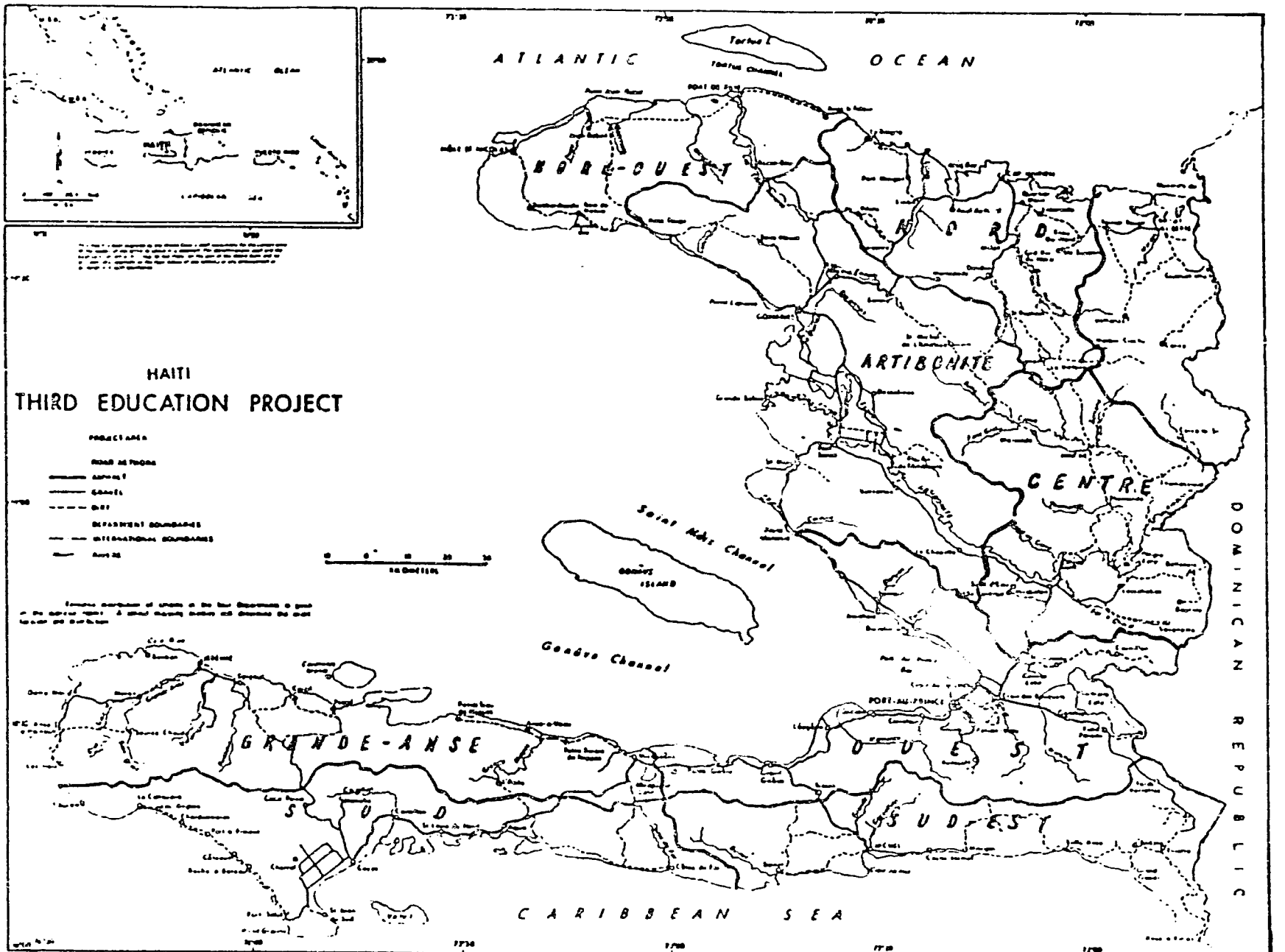
The Community Integrated Nutrition and Education Centers project (CINEC) was proposed by CARE in 1976. CINEC's philosophy is that a child must be healthy in order to develop and learn. The major program goal is to improve the physical, social, and intellectual preparation of young children so they will have a better chance of success in the Reform primary schools. Basic to the CINEC approach is a strong emphasis on improving the health and nutritional status of young children. The CINEC program promotes nutritional care and surveillance, health care, hygiene, nutrition education, intellectual and social stimulation, psychomotor development, community involvement, and parent education and involvement. Each of the 121 CINEC centers that has been supported by CARE is located close to a public primary school that follows the Reform curriculum.

Since the Ministry of Education set forth its policy on preprimary education and specifically endorsed the CINEC model, UNICEF has cooperated more closely with DEN and has continued to provide support for an additional 60 preprimary centers. Not all of these additional centers are attached to public schools, nor are all of the associated schools following the Reform curriculum. Though these preprimary centers technically conform to the CINEC model, they tend to emphasize the Timoun Byen Vini program.

Because the CINEC program represents the model of preprimary education in Haiti, the discussion focuses on the 121 CINEC centers that were initiated by CARE and that are attached to schools using the Reform curriculum.

FIGURE 4.1

Administrative Departments of Haiti




Source: The World Bank, Haiti: Staff Appraisal Report, Basic Education Project (Education III), 1982.

Administration. The CINEC program was originally designed and initially administered by CARE. After it was endorsed by the Ministry of Education as the official national program, its administration became the responsibility of the Ministry. The new structure of DEN (effective November 1984) is shown in Figure 4.2. The responsibility for preprimary education is in the Division of Primary Education (Direction de l'Enseignement Fondamental) and administered by a Chief of Service. This position is filled by the individual who was responsible for initiating and implementing the CINEC program for CARE.

Students. The CINEC program is directed toward children in two age groups. Children between the ages of one and four may participate in the extern program (200 children per center) and five-year-olds in the intern program (50 per center). The extern program is designed to ensure that children are healthy enough and sufficiently well-nourished to benefit from the intern program, which prepares them for active participation in school. A description of each program follows.

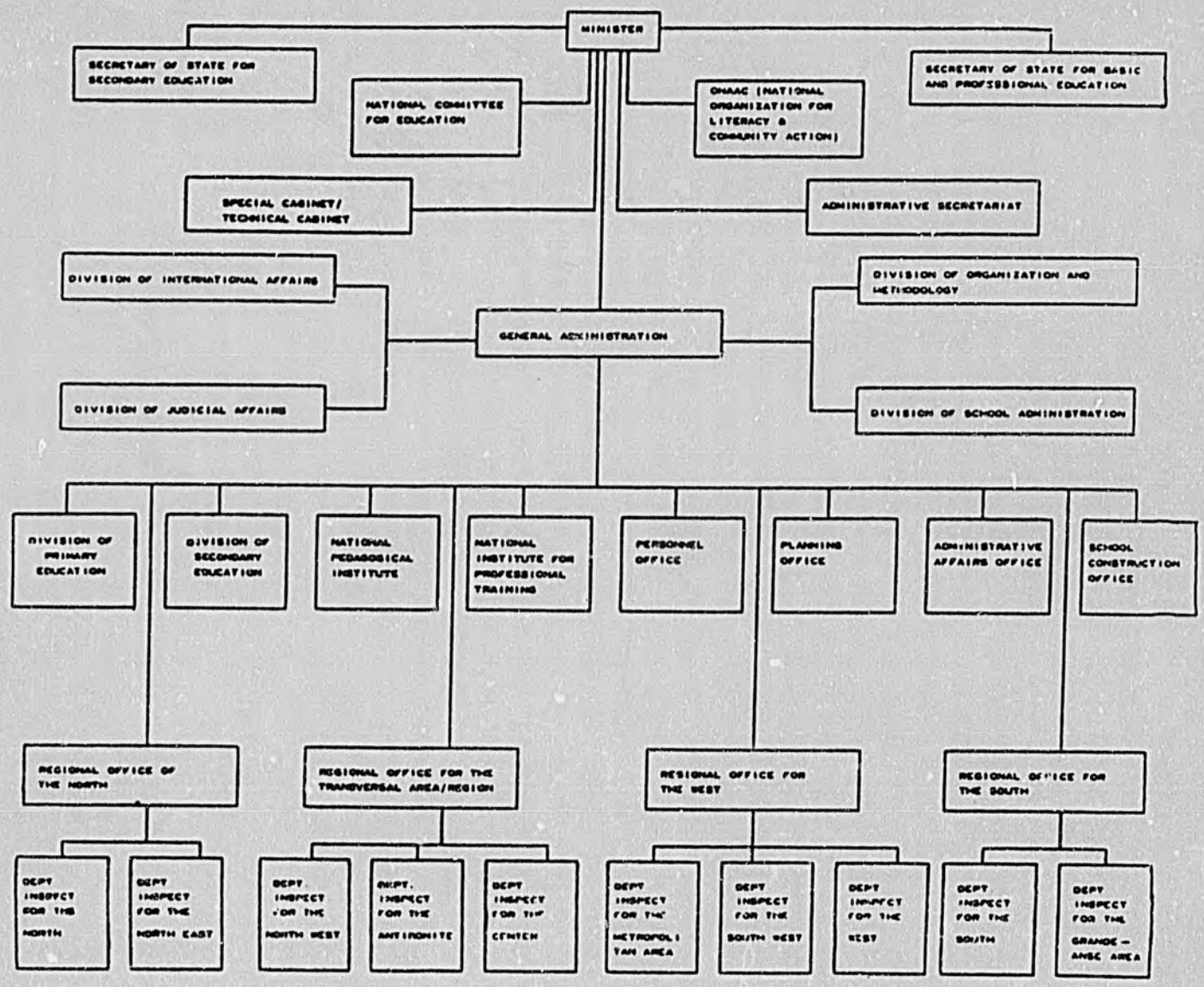
1. The Extern Program. At each CINEC center, the CINEC teacher known as a responsable, conducts the extern program, which is held monthly after intern participants have gone home. This program, which will enroll up to 200 children at each center, ideally is comprised of 50 one-year-olds, 50 two-year-olds, 50 three-year-olds, and 50 four-year-olds, for a total of 24,200 children nationally. Theoretically, a child may enter at the youngest possible age and remain in the program until the beginning of primary school at the age of six.

   The CINEC requirement is that children have no more than first-degree malnutrition to participate in the program. A first-degree malnourished child is one who does not exhibit severe symptoms and who, with appropriate nutritional care, can easily be restored to normal nutritional status. Using data from the 1978 national nutrition survey, this means that about 73% of preschool age children qualify for access to the program. (The remaining 27% are considered to be in need of rehabilitation and are too nutritionally deprived to benefit from the program.) In practice, the responsables tend to enroll 50 children in each class without paying particular attention to nutritional status. They often over-enroll to compensate for anticipated dropouts.

   Mothers of enrolled children receive monthly allotments of cornmeal, bulgur, vegetable oil, and nonfat dry milk which is made available through donor programs. Each month the children's weight and height are recorded on a chart so that the well-being of children in

FIGURE 4.2

Organizational Structure of the Ministry of Education



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the extern program can be monitored. Mothers receive health and nutrition information when they pick up food rations.

2. The Intern Program. Children from the extern program enter the intern program at age five. The intern program can accommodate 50 children in each CINEC center. At the end of the 1984/85 school year, 6,050 children are scheduled to move from CINEC centers to primary school. As in the extern program, the responsables often over-enroll to allow for dropouts from the program. For example, Table 4.1 shows enrollments in the intern and extern programs in 36 CINEC centers in the Artibonite Department in October 1984. Total enrollment is 1,735, giving a student/teacher ratio of 48:1, for an average class size of 48; that figure is already below the ideal of 50 in the first month of the program. About half of those enrolled are girls.

   In the CINEC program, hygiene and nutrition are considered as important as the development of a child's intellectual, social, and psychomotor skills. Children who complete this program are guaranteed a place in a Reform primary school.

Teachers. According to Government policy, a preprimary teacher should be formally trained as a kindergarten teacher with an understanding of sociology, child psychology, nutrition and hygiene, human relations, and art and games for children. Such a training may be obtained through the teacher training colleges (écoles normales), secondary schools (by obtaining Baccalauréat Pédagogique), or a center that emphasizes educational psychology.

At a minimum, a CINEC teacher should have completed three years of secondary school and have participated in the six-month training program established by the National Pedagogical Institute, a major division of the Ministry of Education (see Figure 4.2). This course includes nutrition, maternal and child hygiene, first aid, and family education. The course is followed by practical training in an operational preschool program. In special cases, and in consultation with appropriate government agencies, intensive training and a diploma in kindergarten teaching may be substituted for these requirements.

Every CINEC center has a teacher assigned to it. Teachers in the CINEC schools earn the same salary as any other government teacher ($100 a month), but they work a significantly longer period than do teachers in the primary and secondary schools run by Government. The school day extends from 8:00 a.m. to about 2:30 p.m., and the CINEC program covers 10 months rather than the nine months in the primary and secondary school year.

TABLE 4.1

**Artibonite Department: Enrollments in the CINEC Intern and Extern Programs by Center, October 1984**

| Center | Interns | Externs |
|---|---|---|
| Savane Christ | 50 | 200 |
| La Croix | 32 | 200 |
| Fosse Saint-Jean | 38 | 200 |
| La Tapie | 50 | 200 |
| Rossignol | 50 | 200 |
| Souvenance | 50 | 200 |
| Bigot | 50 | 200 |
| Savane Tapion | 61 | 215 |
| Poteaux | 45 | 200 |
| Moreau Drouet | 40 | 200 |
| Niel | 50 | 200 |
| St. Michel | 32 | 200 |
| Bardon Marchand | 40 | 200 |
| Payen | 78 | 240 |
| Ségur | 58 | 200 |
| Jean Denis | 40 | 200 |
| Ectère | 60 | 200 |
| Hatte Chevreau | 36 | 200 |
| Docine | 48 | 200 |
| Grand Rac | 50 | 200 |
| Hatte Grammont | 35 | 200 |
| Aux Sources | 42 | 200 |
| Mapou Lagon | 50 | 200 |
| Savane à Roches | 50 | 200 |
| Chevreau Lombard | 50 | 200 |
| Daranne | 50 | 200 |
| Tamise | 50 | 200 |
| Petites Desdunes | 50 | 200 |
| Dolan | 62 | 200 |
| Trou Jean-Pierre | 35 | 200 |
| Las Cidras | 40 | 200 |
| Bassin | 50 | 200 |
| Hatte Desdunes | 50 | 200 |
| Bas de Sault | 50 | 200 |
| Savien | 55 | 200 |
| St. Michel de l'Attalaye | 50 | 200 |
| Total | 1,735 | 7,255 |

Source: CARE (1984)

Supervision of the CINEC teachers is the responsibility of three sources: the National Organization for Literacy and Community Action (Office National d'Alphabétisation et d'Action Communautaire - ONAAC); primary school inspectors (four inspectors, two of whom are not currently in post, are designated as responsible for all preschool activities); and the Chief of Service for Preprimary Education, who has a position in the Division of Primary Education. Thus, all inspection is performed by the Ministry of Education. Because of the focus of the CINEC program, most of the supervision is done by the ONAAC employees. These eight individuals receive $65 per month from CINEC (in addition to their monthly salary of $90) for supervising the 121 centers and providing adult education classes to mothers. CARE has also provided short-term training (in addition to ONAAC training) for these inspectors, at a cost of about $10 per person. However, it is the primary school inspectors who have the major decisionmaking role regarding the CINEC centers and their responsables. They work closely with the Chief of Service for Preprimary Education, who coordinates their activities with those of the ONAAC representatives.

The important role of the primary school inspectors in relation to preprimary programs and the administrative structure of the Ministry of Education should not be overlooked. The new structure of the Ministry of Education has lines of control linking inspectors to the General Director of the Ministry (see Figure 4.2) and not to the Division of Primary Education which is where preprimary activities are based and is the office from which they are administered.

Curriculum. In 1982 the National Pedagogical Institute formed a committee to develop a detailed curriculum for preschool education in Haiti. In addition to establishing the general objectives for the government preschool program (to promote the development of children's intellectual, social, and spatial psychomotor skills in preparation for primary school), it lists specific learning objectives and content, suggests activities, and indicates the kinds of materials needed for the learning objectives to be met. CARE and representatives of the CINEC program contributed to the development of the curriculum which CINEC now follows.

Participation in the CINEC intern program requires children to engage in activities such as bathing and washing hands (in support of hygiene objectives), and responsables are encouraged to develop a supportive learning environment for the children. Even though responsables are encouraged to stress the affective domain (e.g., social and communication skills) in their classrooms, observations suggest that the method used is often didactic--children are expected to respond to teachers in prescribed ways. And, even though toys are to be seen at the

centers, children are seldom observed playing with them. This atmosphere is probably partly due to the teacher's earlier training and experience, which may be more deeply ingrained than the CINEC training program which stresses exploration and play as appropriate teaching methodologies.

Examinations. Upon entering the intern program, children are given a simple test designed to identify their strengths and weaknesses in the areas emphasized by the CINEC program, such as spatial perception. Each child has a card on which height and weight are recorded at admission into the CINEC program and which allows for the teacher's remarks regarding progress. These cards are designed to be filled in at the beginning of each year in the first four years (cycle I) of primary school.

Specific objectives are set for the CINEC intern program and, upon completion of the program, a child should, at a minimum, fit the specified profile. This profile has 21 points that relate directly to curriculum objectives.

Quality of Instruction. Two 1984 evaluations of the CINEC centers operated by CARE suggest that the quality of instruction in the centers is reasonably high. (One evaluation was commissioned in July by CARE and another in May by CARE and USAID, which provided funding for the CINEC centers.) Teachers seem to be motivated and to carry out their responsibilities to the children, as well as serving as adult educators for the mothers. For example, they have continued to meet their responsibilities even when they have been without pay for as long as seven months. Teaching aids are available in the classrooms and are used. Some concern was expressed that teachers tend to ask questions having "right" or "wrong" answers rather than questions that are open and that encourage exploration.

It has been hypothesized that children who complete the CINEC program will tend to stay in primary school and perform better than their non-CINEC counterparts. An attempt to assess the validity of this position was made in the May 1984 CARE/USAID evaluation. About 1,400 students in the first three grades of primary school were tested on their performance in examinations at the end of the third trimester. Of these students, 818 had been through the CINEC program and 558 served as a control group.

At the end of the first year about 85% of CINEC children and 65% of non-CINEC children passed the examination, and at the end of the second year about 80% of CINEC and 62% of non-CINEC children passed. At each grade level the frequencies of passing were higher for CINEC than for non-CINEC children, but the difference was not so marked at the end of the third year. These results are persuasive, and they are supported by numerous accounts by knowledgeable

educators in Haiti. Some caution should be observed in interpreting them, however. For example, promotion from the first to the second year under the Reform curriculum is supposed to be automatic, so the significance of pass/fail rates in the evaluation at this level is not clear.

The Director of CARE's CINEC program stated that over 80% of children in one of the first CINEC classes had completed the full four years of the first primary cycle. (A government-sponsored evaluation supporting these findings unfortunately was not available to the assessment team.) A comparison of these figures with records on general progression through primary school, which are discussed in Chapter 5 of this assessment, suggests that the CINEC program has high external efficiency in that its participants are well prepared for primary school and perform well there. No information was available on the relationship between CINEC program participation and dropout rates. During site visits by the sector assessment team, one school director indicated that teachers preferred to have CINEC students because they are better learners.

While this sector assessment was being conducted, agreement was reached that CINEC should be included in a major ten-year longitudinal study on preprimary participants being conducted by UNICEF. (This study is described later in this chapter.) As of the end of 1984, between 100 and 150 CINEC children will be part of this study.

Results of the May 1984 evaluation of the CINEC program suggest that CINEC has a positive impact on the nutritional status of interns. The sector assessment team visited three CINEC centers and was favorably impressed by the apparent good health and nutritional status of the children in attendance.

Facilities and Equipment. Each CINEC center has a room in which the responsable meets with the children. In some cases, rooms provided under CINEC II were judged inadequate by the CINEC Director, and CARE provided a low-cost circular hut with its roof supported by a central post. All CINEC centers have cooking facilities and latrines. Each center is also meant to have bathing facilities for the children, running water, and filtered water for drinking. CINEC center kitchens have been equipped by CARE, and the maintenance of equipment and furnishing of supplies is now the responsibility of DEN.

Each CINEC center was also equipped with playground equipment, such as swings and climbing bars; maintenance of this equipment has proved to be a problem. In some CINEC II schools there was not sufficient space to install the equipment, so materials and equipment designated for the playground were used to support other CINEC activities.

Costs and Financing. The costs of the CINEC program are divided between DEN and CARE, with DEN taking on an increasing proportion of the costs. Govern-



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ment's contributions between 1981 and 1984, a total of $809,105, are summarized in Table 4.2. The costs to CARE during the 1980-83 period, a total of $1,791,935, are shown in Table 4.3. In 1984, Government contributed $377,102 and CARE contributed $80,000, providing an operating budget of $457,102. As CARE does not have sufficient funds to open more CINEC centers during 1984-85, these costs can be assumed to be spread over the estimated 6,050 CINEC children who will pass on into primary school. Thus, the unit cost for the CINEC program is $76. These costs are not spread over the 200 externs at each center, because it is assumed that calculating the unit cost on interns every year also covers extern costs for those children.

CARE calculates its unit costs somewhat differently, as shown in Table 4.4, which gives unit costs of $50 for CINEC I and $18 for CINEC II. CARE attributes the decrease in unit costs between CINEC I and CINEC II to a significant reduction in capital costs for buildings. Costs incurred in building and furnishing the circular CINEC center mentioned in the section on facilities and equipment were as follows: classroom, $1,701; kitchen, $455; latrine, $224; total, $2,380. This cost analysis does not include bathing facilities, which are considered a crucial part of any CINEC center.

The estimated annual operating costs of a CINEC center, based on the data presented above, are summarized in Table 4.5. Capital costs are amortized over 20 years and equipment over five years. Training costs are limited to those specific to CINEC and do not include general training, such as teacher or IPN-sponsored inspector training. These data suggest that total costs amount to approximately $3,300 and that annual operating expenses are currently a little over $2,500. Using the figures from Table 4.5, unit costs of the CINEC program are $67. The capital and unit costs would be lower if existing structures were used.

### 4.1.5 Timoun Byen Vini

The second approach to early childhood development, adopted by UNICEF and designed to provide quality services to a large number of preschool children between the ages of three months and six years, is the Timoun Byen Vini ("properly developed child" in Creole) Project. The project, which started in 1981, is offered through the Ministry of Social Affairs. The goal of the Timoun Byen Vini program is to encourage the physical, intellectual, and emotional development of the children in the program. It is designed to promote the psychomotor, language, and effective improvement of children in rural and poor urban areas. As a community-based and parent-oriented program, this approach is significantly different from the one offered by the CINEC program.

TABLE 4.2

Government Contribution to CINEC Project

| | 1981 | 1982 | 1983 | 1984 | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Land | $61,440 | $46,080 | $23,920 | $52,800 | $184,240 |
| Buildings | -0- | -0- | -0- | 143,000 | 143,000 |
| Support Salaries | 675 | 7,500 | 3,938 | 3,342 | 15,455 |
| Communications | 283 | 1,872 | 891 | 750 | 3,796 |
| Gasoline | 4,305 | 6,864 | 2,700 | 1,560 | 15,429 |
| Vehicle Insurance | 353 | 1,092 | 810 | 90 | 2,345 |
| Teacher's Salaries | 58,080 | 71,920 | 137,280 | 175,560 | 444,840 |
| TOTAL | $125,136 | $137,328 | $169,539 | $377,102 | $809,105 |

Source: CARE (1984)

TABLE 4.3

Summary of CARE Costs and Estimated Costs for CINEC Project

| | Actual | | Estimated | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | FY80 | FY81 | FY82 | FY83 | Total |
| National Personnel | $93,260 | $134,940 | $135,000 | $136,722 | $499,922 |
| Local Travel | 9,251 | 16,487 | 12,000 | 9,101 | 46,839 |
| Office Expenses | 4,134 | 16,242 | 19,000 | 10,956 | 50,332 |
| Vehicle Maintence and Repair | 31,038 | 48,250 | 48,000 | 44,936 | 172,224 |
| Other Support Costs | 827 | 3,483 | 3,600 | 2,690 | 10,600 |
| Evaluation Costs | --- | --- | 25,000 | 25,000 | 50,000 |
| Training Costs | 7,455 | 10,954 | 12,000 | 7,831 | 38,240 |
| Material & Equipment | 169,963 | 294,884 | 200,153 | 135,000 | 800,000 |
| Overhead at (7.42%) | 23,442 | 38,973 | 33,743 | 27,620 | 123,778 |
| TOTAL | $339,370 | $564,213 | $488,496 | $399,856 | $1,791,935[a] |

(a) Source cites total as $1,971,778.

Source: CARE (1984)



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TABLE 4.4

Costs of CINEC I and CINEC II

| | CINEC I | CINEC II |
|---|---|---|
| Year Opened | 1978-1983 | 1984 |
| No. Schools | 96 | 25 |
| No. Beneficiaries, 0-5 years | 19,200 | 5,000 |
| No. Beneficiaries, 5-6 years | 28,800 | 1,250 |
| No. Parents Benefited | 24,000 | 3,125 |
| Total Program Costs | $2,400,000 | $111,740 |
| Cost per Child (over 5 years) | $50 | $18 |
| Cost per Center | $ 25,000 | $ 4,470 |

Source: CARE Project Staff

TABLE 4.5

Estimated Annual Operating Costs of a CINEC Center

| Type of Cost | Source of Funds: Government | Donor | Community | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Capital Costs | | | | |
| Building ($2500 over 20 years maintenance) | | $125 | | $125 |
| Furniture & Equipment ($700 over 5 years) | | 140 | | 140 |
| Training | | | | 557 |
| ONAAC Inspectors | 5(a) | 10 | | |
| Preprimary Inspectors | 10(a) | | | |
| Teachers | | | | |
| Stipend ($72 x 6 mo.) | | 432 | | |
| Training Costs | | 100(a) | | |
| Subtotal | 15 | 807 | | 822 |
| Recurrent Costs | | | | |
| Salaries | | | | 1,621 |
| Teacher ($100 x 12 mo.) | 1200 | | | |
| Kitchen assistants | | | $250(a) | |
| Inspectors | | | | |
| ONAAC | 71(a) | 52(a) | | |
| Preprimary | 48(a) | | | |
| Food ($14 x 50) | | 700 | 100 | 800 |
| Supplies | | 100 | | 100 |
| Subtotal | 1,319 | 852 | 350 | 2,521 |
| TOTAL | $1,334 | $1,659 | $350 | $3,343 |

(a) Estimated

Because it offers an alternative approach to child development, and because it reaches a significant number of children, its program is described below.

Administration. The project is managed by the Center for Special Education (Centre d'Education Spéciale - CES), which is under contract to the Ministry of Social Affairs. The CES is an arm of the Haitian Association of Rehabilitation of the Handicapped (l'Association Haïtienne pour la Réhabilitation des Handicapés), a domestic nongovernmental organization. The child development programs are implemented by several nongovernmental organizations throughout Haiti, particularly those that are community based. This program is only a part of the activities of the CES, which also provides a wide range of rehabilitative services to individuals of all ages. In fact, development of Timoun Byen Vini resulted from recognition of the need for a preventive program for children at risk of physical, emotional, or intellectual impairment as a result of deprivation

The administrative structure of the program is shown in Figure 4.3. Activities at the child development centers are conducted by monitors. The monitors are supervised by individuals who, like themselves, are trained by CES and approved by the local community. The supervisors report both to the local organization and to CES. Programs are also offered through ONAAC, whose agents perform the same services as monitors.

Supervisors attend three training sessions. The initial one is three weeks long, and the second two are each for two weeks. Supervisors are encouraged to work with monitors and provide them with additional skills for working with families.

The original approach of working primarily through families has been adapted somewhat. It was found that working with individual mothers required considerable time and that greater emphasis on working with groups at community centers would allow resources to reach a larger number of intended beneficiaries.

Students. Timoun Byen Vini project activities are designed to reach two age groups: three months to three years and three to five years. The intent is to offer services to both age groups at every location. Because the groups are formed at the request of community organizations and because these organizations tend to prefer programs for older children, there are more programs for children in the second age group.

In October 1984, for the 3- to 5-year age group, UNICEF had 140 preprimary groups in 47 locations, providing services to approximately 6,000 children. These centers are located in seven departments of Haiti (Ouest, Nord-Ouest, Grand-Anse, Sud, Artibonite, Nord, and Nord-Est) and are listed by department in Table 4.6. The average student/monitor ratio is 43:1. In November 1984, four more centers were added, each with 40 children. In October 1984, for the age

FIGURE 4.3

Administrative Structure
of the
Timoun Byen Vini
Program

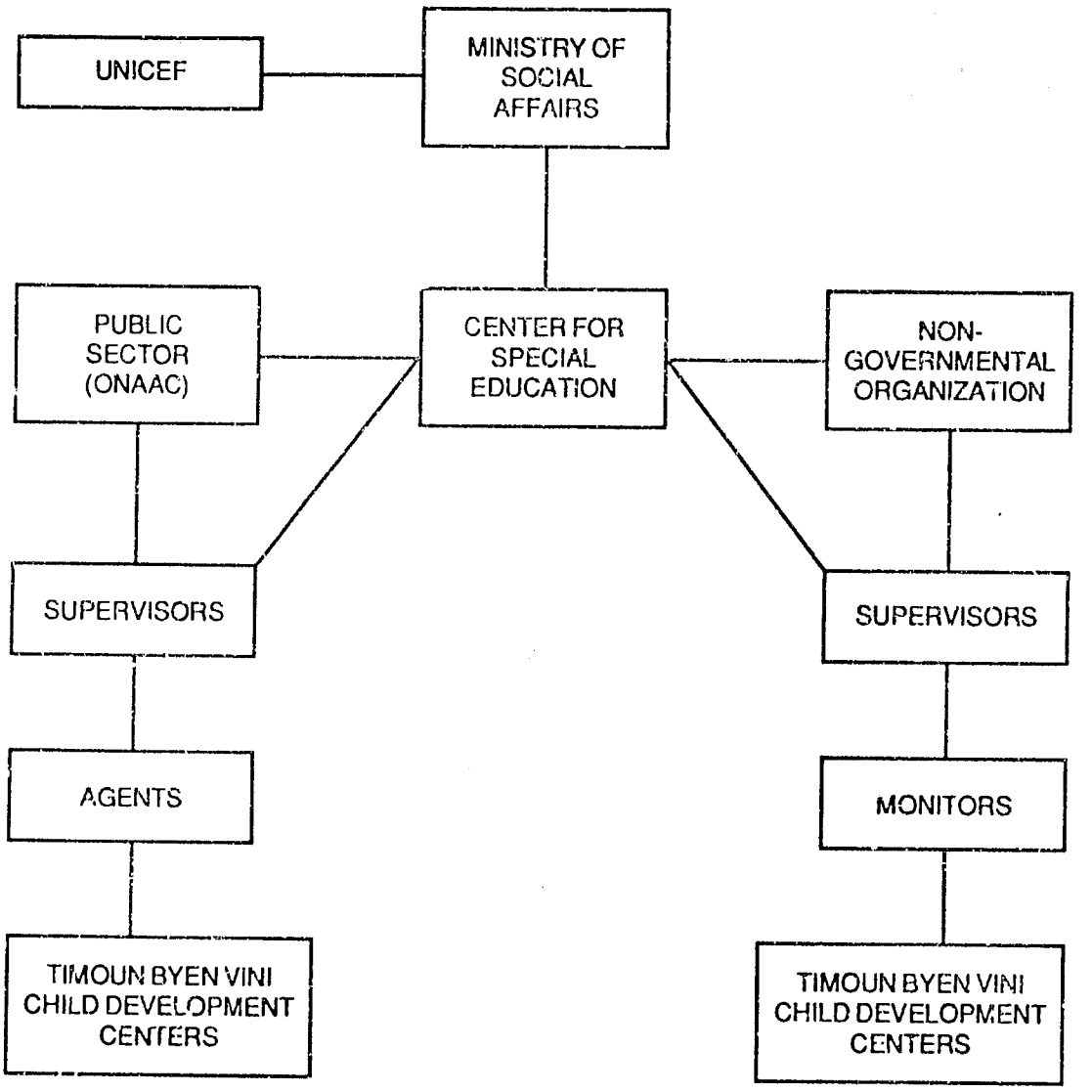

TABLE 4.6

Early Childhood (3-5 years) Development Centers Assisted by UNICEF Timoun Byen Vini Project

| Department | Center | No. of Classes |
|---|---|---|
| Ouest | Brooklyn | 16 |
| | St. Martin | 10 |
| | Sous Dallas | 3 |
| | Carrefour | 3 |
| | Cazeau | 2 |
| | Bon Repos | 1 |
| | Lillavois | 5 |
| | Léogâne | 2 |
| | Croix-des-Bouquets | 1 |
| Nord-Ouest | Bassin Bleu | 3 |
| | Port-de-Paix | 3 |
| | Jean-Rabel | 3 |
| | Soval | 1 |
| | Bombardopolis | 1 |
| Grand-Anse | Jérémie | 4 |
| | Chambellan | 5 |
| | Abricots | 1 |
| Sud | Aquin | 2 |
| | Vieux Bourg d'Aquin | 2 |
| | Fonds des Nègres | 2 |
| | Guérot | 1 |
| | Camp-Perrin | 13 |
| | Armée du Salut | 7 |
| | St. Georges | 1 |
| | Guinaudée | 2 |
| | Pitimi | 1 |
| | Grande Rivière de Nippes | 2 |
| | Jacquet | 1 |
| | Dufailly | 1 |
| | Boudette Grande Place | 2 |
| Artibonite | Gonaives | 3 |
| | Gros-Morne | 12 |
| Nord | Cap-Haitien | 11 |
| | Port-Margot | 2 |
| | Terrier Rouge | 4 |
| | Ste. Suzanne | 1 |
| Nord-Est | Ouanaminthe | 2 |

Source: Center for Special Education

group between three months and three years, a total of 39 centers provided services to 1,300 children. These centers are spread throughout all nine departments, and are listed in Table 4.7.

A basic aspect of student access to these programs is the fact that Timoun Byen Vini is designed to reach all children who are considered at risk, that is, the 75% of Haiti's children who are highly likely to develop handicaps as a result of deprivation. A second important aspect of access is that the program is community-based (i.e., a community organization must request the program and be willing to make significant contributions to maintain it). Mothers are required to play an important role in their children's development and in monitoring their well-being.

Teachers. Forty children make up a group which is the responsibility of a monitor, assisted by mothers. Each mother works one day each month so that two mothers work with a group every day. Monitors may be responsible for more than one group. They are selected jointly by the CES and the local community, with the community having veto power over any appointment.

Training of monitors, who (under ideal circumstances) will have completed primary school, takes place over an 18-month period. Monitors initially participate in a three-week training session. Six months later there is a two-week training program, and a year later another two-week program. Training is given by the CES, which also pays training costs.

Monitors are trained in the objectives of the Timoun Byen Vini program and taught how to manage activities to achieve these objectives. They work extensively with materials adapted from the Portage Guide to Early Education (a pretested program that has been in use since 1969) and also have classes that teach them how to work with mothers and families. A large part of their training program consists of practical activities.

In August 1984, there were 113 monitors for the 3- to 5-year age groups. Of these, 45 had completed all three training cycles, 42 had completed two, and 26 one. The work of these monitors is currently overseen by 22 supervisors. Twelve supervisors are responsible for the work of the 76 monitors who work in the 39 centers for children from three months to three years. In November 1984, 30 additional monitors were in training and were to be available for placement in December. The monitors are paid a modest monthly salary of about $50.

Timoun Byen Vini also uses primary school children as monitors for children in the three months to three year age group. These children are responsible for only five or six children, rather than 40, and serve as volunteers.

TABLE 4.7

Early Childhood (Under 3 Years) Development Centers
Assisted by UNICEF Timoun Byen Vini Project

| Department | Center |
|---|---|
| Ouest | Centre de Pédiatrie Sociale à La Saline |
| | Centre de Récupération Nutritionnelle à Brooklyn |
| | Belloc |
| | Lèogâne |
| | Martissant |
| | Gressier |
| Centre | Centre Emmaux a Papaye |
| | Hinche |
| | Thomassique |
| | Thomonde |
| Sud-Est | Saint Limye Timoun Kontan |
| | Dispensaire St. Joseph |
| | Bois Neuf |
| | Bainot |
| | Valée de Jacmel |
| Sud | Port-Salut |
| | Boilot-Gavaillon |
| | Valère |
| Grand-Anse | Jérémie |
| | Gommier |
| | Roseaux |
| Artibonite | Dispensaire Ste. Cécile |
| | Centre d'Education Spéciale |
| | Desbarrieres |
| | Jean-Denis |
| | Saint-Michel |
| | Saint-Marc |
| | Labrande |
| | Verrettes |
| Nord | Centre d'Education Spéciale |
| | Pignon |
| | Limonade |
| | Leroux-Pilette |
| | Ravine Desroches |
| | Milot |
| Nord-Ouest | Port-de-Paix |
| Nord-Est | Centre de Protection aux Enfants |
| | Ouanaminthe |
| | Dilaire |

Source: Center for Special Education

Curriculum. The curriculum followed throughout the Timoun Byen Vini program is based on the Portage Model, a program for preschool children that is community based, low cost, and centered around parents and the home environment. The major goal of this program is to promote the motor, cognitive, language, and affective development of young children. Parents and monitors work with the Portage Guide to Early Education and other materials such as child monitoring charts, which have been adapted for Haiti and translated into Creole.

A major responsibility of the monitors is to work with families and to train family members to work in the program. To accomplish this, the CES has allocated significant resources to materials development and has worked closely with UNICEF in this regard. Emphasis is on the development of low cost learning aids. Both organizations develop and share materials to support child development. For example, materials developed are shared with the Family Life Education program, which is carried out in cooperation with ONAAC and which now reaches 18,000 children. The CES is preparing guides for mothers and monitors to help them use Portage materials more effectively. Children's learning activities include stories, songs, and dances adapted from Haitian folklore. Children attend a center for three and one half hours a day, five days a week.

Examinations and Evaluations. Progress through the program depends on successful completion of activities described in the Portage Guide, which are monitored in the checklist a mother keeps for each child. Because most mothers are not literate, CES is developing a simplified checklist that requires little explanation.

Several studies that could have an important impact on child development activities are being conducted. In October 1984, UNICEF began a 10-year longitudinal study on the effects of early intervention on the development of preschool children living in poor areas. Approximately 900 children will be studied. Of these, 100 to 150 will come from the CINEC program, as noted earlier in this chapter. Of the remaining 750 children, half will be from Timoun Byen Vini centers and half will be non-program participants. Three other studies of interest also began in October 1984: an assessment of nutritional and health status among children living in 20 communities; a cost analysis of UNICEF-assisted early childhood programs in Haiti; and a study to design a low-cost (approximately $1,000) modular structure for a child development center, using local materials and appropriate technology.

Quality of Instruction. Little information is available regarding the quality of instruction in the Timoun Byen Vini centers. Observations by the assessment team at centers in the Brooklyn area, a poverty-stricken section of Port-au-Prince, showed children and teachers engaged in a variety of activities.

Children in these centers were very active, playing with materials and enjoying what they were doing. From discussions with the director of a nearby school, who is knowledgeable about education in Haiti, it was clear that performance of children who have been in the Timoun Byen Vini program differs significantly from those who have not, once they are in primary schools using the Reform curriculum. Children with a preprimary experience perform significantly better.

Facilities and Equipment. A second area where community involvement in the Timoun Byen Vini program is evident, in addition to curriculum, is in providing facilities and equipment. Before CES will assist a group of mothers, they must provide a place for the group to meet, obtain health services for the children, and identify sources of food for the feeding program. Availability of food is not a requirement for a center to function, however. CES representatives will often help communities contact representatives of the Ministry of Health and agencies that might be able to assist with food.

Although monitors are urged to develop their own materials in the community, toys and other learning aids are developed by CES. For example, the rehabilitation program for disabled adults is responsible for making toys that are used in the Timoun Byen Vini program.

Costs and Financing. The costs of the Timoun Byen Vini program are distributed over a number of sources--UNICEF, the Ministry of Social Affairs, and a variety of nongovernmental organizations (NGO). The budget proposed for the Timoun Byen Vini project from 1983 through 1986 is shown in Table 4.8. Using the 1984 budgeted costs of $497,800 and the 1984 number of beneficiaries (7,300), the unit cost in 1984 for one child was $68. This figure is a reasonable estimate of costs, although not totally accurate. For example, Government did not provide $21,000 for monitors' salaries; in 1984 it paid the salaries of only 13 monitors, approximately $7,800. (In general, a monitor received a salary of about $50 a month, provided by the local community organization that requested a Timoun Byen Vini center.) This would have reduced the 1984 total expenditures to $484,600 and the unit costs to $66.

Given that these figures were estimates at the time a budget was drawn up, another way to examine the costs of the program is to look at the operating costs of a center. Table 4.9 estimates the various operating costs of one group at a center and shows these costs by source. Displaying the costs this way illustrates two important characteristics of the Timoun Byen Vini program. First, the community pays a significant proportion of the costs of the program (63%). Second, the community pays some capital as well as recurrent costs. Community payment of recurrent costs increases the likelihood that the program will continue after the project is over.



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TABLE 4.8

Timoun Byen Vini Budget Proposed for 1983-86
for Development of Children Between 0 and 5 Years
($000)

| Budget Item | 1983 | | | 1984 | | | 1985 | | | 1986 | | | Total | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Govt | UNICEF | NGO | Govt | UNICEF | NGO | Govt | UNICEF | NGO | Govt | UNICEF | NGO | Govt | UNICEF | NGO |
| Materials Development | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Production and Printing of Guides for Monitors and Parents | -- | 17.0 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | 10.0 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | 27.0 | -- |
| Training of Supervisors and Monitors | -- | 30.0 | 40.0 | -- | 30.0 | 40.0 | -- | -- | 80.0 | -- | 30.0 | 120.0 | -- | 120.0 | 280.0 |
| Services | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Technicians' Salaries | -- | -- | 25.0 | -- | -- | 25.0 | -- | -- | 25.0 | -- | -- | 25.0 | -- | -- | 100.0 |
| Coordinators' Salaries | -- | 4.8 | -- | -- | 4.8 | -- | -- | -- | 4.8 | -- | -- | 4.8 | -- | 9.6 | 9.6 |
| Supervisors' Salaries | -- | -- | 18.0 | -- | -- | 18.0 | -- | -- | 36.0 | -- | -- | 54.0 | -- | -- | 126.0 |
| Monitors' Salaries | 21.0 | 6.3 | 68.4 | 21.0 | -- | 120.0 | 21.0 | -- | 180.0 | 21.0 | -- | 240.0 | 84.0 | 6.3 | 608.4 |
| Maintenance of Centers | -- | 12.0 | 100.0 | -- | -- | 120.0 | -- | -- | 118.0 | -- | -- | 114.0 | -- | 12.0 | 452.0 |
| Supervision | -- | 13.0 | 3.0 | -- | -- | 15.0 | -- | -- | 18.0 | -- | -- | 21.0 | -- | 13.0 | 57.0 |
| Equipment | -- | 44.0 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | 49.0 | -- | -- | 49.0 | -- | 93.0 | 98.0 |
| Follow-up and Evaluation | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Costs, Follow-up, and Evaluation | -- | 15.0 | 46.0 | -- | 10.0 | 45.0 | -- | 10.0 | 40.0 | -- | 20.0 | 40.0 | -- | 55.0 | 171.0 |
| Subtotal | 21.0 | 142.1 | 300.4 | 21.0 | 93.8 | 383.0 | 21.0 | 50.0 | 550.8 | 21.0 | 50.0 | 667.8 | 84.0 | 335.9 | 1,902.0 |
| GRAND TOTAL | | $463.5 | | | $497.8 | | | $621.8 | | | $738.8 | | | $2,321.0 | |

Source: Based on statistics from the Center for Special Education.



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TABLE 4.9

Estimated Annual Operating Costs of a
Timoun Byen Center for One Group
(3-5 Years)

| Type of Cost | Source of Funds: Government | Donor | Community | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Capital Costs | | | | |
| Building | | $12 | 38 | 50 |
| ($1000 over 20 years maintenance) | | | 50 | |
| Furniture and Equipment | | 100(a) | | 100 |
| Training | | | | 188 |
| (4 weeks at $6/day) | | 120 | | |
| (1/5 of 3 weeks at $6/day) | | 18 | | |
| (transportation) | | 50 | | |
| Salaries for Materials (7 @ $350/mo over 3 years and 140 centers) | | 70 | | 70 |
| Subtotal | | 370 | 88 | 458 |
| Recurrent Costs | | | | |
| Salaries | | | | 1,592 |
| Monitor ($50/mo) | | | 600 | |
| Supervisor (1/5 of annual @ $80/mo) | | | 192 | |
| Mothers (2/day @ $2) | | | 800(b) | |
| Food ($14x40) | | 560 | 100(b) | 660 |
| Supplies | | 100 | | 100 |
| Subtotal | | 660 | 1,692 | 2,352 |
| TOTAL | | $1,030 | $1,780 | $2,810 |

(a) Estimated
(b) Volunteer



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On the basis of Table 4.9 estimates, the unit costs for the Timoun Byen Vini program ($2,810/43) are $65, approximately the same as for the CINEC program. It must be recognized, however, that in the program for 3- to 5-year-olds, each center currently provides services for an average of two groups, meaning that annual and capital costs must be spread over 86 rather than 43 children (average group size = 6,000 beneficiaries/140 groups). Unit costs ($2,810/86) are then estimated at $33 per child per year.

### 4.1.6 Private Sector Preprimary Programs

The private sector is very active and influential in Haitian education at all levels. At the primary level, about 60% of all enrollments are in the private sector, and this percentage is growing. The public sector has not met the education demands of the country and demands on the private sector have continued to increase. Analysis of the private sector is not easy because it consists of many activities that are not easily classified. The complex structure of this portion of the preprimary subsector makes generalization difficult. It is an important group of activities, however, and donor agencies and Government, more and more, are seeking information on the potential for expanding responsibilities of the private sector, their operating activities, and their related costs.

The limited time and resources of this sector assessment were not sufficient to support a complete survey of all private preschool programs. However, some information was available from a questionnaire distributed at a workshop UNICEF conducted in the first half of 1984 for owners of 53 private preschools. As the workshop was held in Cap-Haitien, the majority (91% of the programs represented are from the Nord Département (see Figure 4.1). The information from these 53 programs is used in this subsector to describe the private preschool programs in Haiti. While these data include a wide range of programs from a mission-supported preschool to independent, for-profit institutions that vary greatly in size, it appears that this sample does not include a representation of the wealthier preprimary programs that may be found in some urban areas. Nor does it adequately represent the large number of programs that are at least partially supported by missions based outside of Haiti.

Administration. Available information indicates that often the owner of the preschool is also the school director. The requirement is that all private schools are to be inspected by Government representatives, but the public inspectorate is so understaffed that it is not able to provide adequate coverage even for the public schools. Interviews during field trips, and interviews with individuals familiar with the status of education in Haiti, suggest that the

majority of contacts between Government and the private sector schools deal with keeping a record of the number of students enrolled.

Students. Enrollment in the 53 schools represented at the UNICEF workshop was 4,283, an average of 81 students per school. To obtain a rough estimate of the number of preprimary-age children receiving some kind of education service from private preschools on a national basis, the ratio of students from the schools in the Nord to the number of children in the first level of primary school in that department in the 1981/82 school year was calculated (4,283/10,605=.40). This ratio was then used to calculate, by geographic department, the number of preschool age children participating in private preschool programs, based on enrollment in the first year of school. These estimates are shown in Table 4.10. This weighting procedure is approximate, but serves as a rough estimate that is sufficient for the purpose of this assessment. These figures probably underestimate the number of participants. First, many church-sponsored programs are not included; second, 1981/82 enrollment (the only available data at this time) was used as a base, but it is known that primary school enrollment has been consistently on the increase. In any event, the total estimate of more than 31,000 children participating in private preprimary activities suggests that these preschools can potentially have an important role in developing Haiti's human resources.

TABLE 4.10

Estimated Number of Children in Private Preschool Programs by Department 1981/82

| Department | Number of Students | Estimated Preprimary |
|---|---|---|
| Ouest | 40,811 | 16,324 |
| Nord | 10,605 | 4,283 |
| Nord-Est | 2,405 | 969 |
| Artibonite | 8,640 | 3,482 |
| Centre | 3,508 | 1,414 |
| Nord-Ouest | 3,589 | 1,446 |
| Sud-Est | 2,229 | 898 |
| Sud | 6,484 | 2,613 |
| Grand-Anse | 6,347 | 2,258 |
| Total | 4,618 | 33,987 |

Source: Based on Ministry of Education Annuaire Statistique, 1981-82.

School size ranged from 20 (at Ecole Evangélique de Vertières) to 325 (at Ecole du Galop), and student ages ranged from three to seven. With a total of 90 teachers, the student:teacher ratio was 48:1. No information was available on student gender, progression through preprimary or into primary school, socioeconomic characteristics, or location (e.g., urban versus rural).

Students in these schools face serious health problems. In only 27 schools (51%) were students vaccinated, and in 33 schools (62%) diarrhea was noted as a problem among students.

Teachers. These private preschools tend to be small, with an average of 1.7 teachers per school; the number of teachers per school ranged from one to six. The data may be unreliable in this area, as the largest school is recorded as having 325 students, seven classrooms and three teachers, without mention of double shifts. No information is available on the training or length of service of preschool teachers.

Curriculum and Instruction. Forty-two percent (42%) of the schools indicated that they followed the requirements of the Reform curriculum. No information was available on examination practices. Concerning the quality of instruction, informed individuals suggest that many preprimary programs are managed by individuals who are insufficiently trained and are in institutions where learning materials are not adequate.

Facilities and Equipment. In the sample of 53 schools, the average number of classrooms per school was two. The range in number of classrooms was from one to seven, with one being the most commonly occurring size. Twenty-eight schools (53%) had kitchen facilities, with two respondents indicating that these facilities were inadequate. Forty-three schools (83%) had latrines. There was no information on school equipment.

Costs and Financing. Most private preprimary schools charge both registration and monthly fees. The average registration fee for the sample was $1.06 and the average monthly fee was $2.35; these fees ranged from zero to $9.00 and from zero to $6.00, respectively. Information was not available on costs to parents for items such as school uniforms or materials or on costs to the schools for items such as building maintenance, textbooks, and teachers' salaries. Informed opinion and a rough estimate based on funds available for operating expenses suggest that resources for teachers' salaries, equipment, and maintenance, for example, must be very limited. Table 4.11 gives an estimate of annual funds available to operate preschools in the sample (the average number of students was assumed for each calculation). Thus, annual fees from each student could range from zero to $22.20 for an average school, and as high as $63.00 for the most expensive school in the sample.

TABLE 4.11

Estimated Annual Operating Funds Available to Private Schools

| | Average | Least Expensive(a) | Most Expensive |
|---|---|---|---|
| Registration fee times average number of students | $85.86 | 0 | $729.00 |
| Monthly fee times 9 months times average number of students | 1,713.15 | 0 | 4,374.00 |
| Total | $1,799.01 | 0 | $5,103.00 |

(a) Centre St-Vincent de Paul. Where costs are probably paid by a donor.
Source: UNICEF Questionnaires

These estimates suggest that the sample schools are operating on very close margins. Visits by the assessment team to several small schools indicated that parents contribute at least $15 annually for such items as school uniforms, shoes, notebooks, and supplies. There were no data on unit costs for these preprimary programs.

## 4.2 ANALYSIS

This part of the assessment indicates which needs should be addressed to improve the efficiency and quality of preprimary programs. It also notes several constraints that should be taken into account if these needs are to be approached realistically. It raises several important issues related to the organization and efficiency of preprimary programs and states basic conclusions, giving a rationale for these conclusions and suggesting areas where additional resources would have a significant impact on preprimary activities. The final section presents a series of recommendations for the preprimary subsector, derived from this analysis.

### 4.2.1 Needs

Five major needs in relation to early child development and preprimary education emerge from consideration of the present situation. First of all, there is a pressing need for current and accurate information about the status of early childhood development.

Second, there is a need for research that better describes the relationships between disease, nutritional level, cognitive functioning, feeding



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programs, and later school performance, which also identifies the characteristics that place a Haitian child at risk of developing handicaps as a result of deprivation.

Third, and related to the second, is a need to emphasize the education of parents about children's needs. In particular, greater efforts could be made toward educating mothers, because it is well documented that their level of education has a strong positive influence on children's performance in school and the likelihood that they will remain in school.

Fourth is a need for better coordination and supervision of many preprimary programs. Coordination could prevent duplication and encourage an appropriate distribution of scarce resources. Monitoring of the many strategies, outcomes, and problems of the diverse programs could provide useful information to support their improvement. More effective supervision would also improve the quality of existing services.

Fifth, there is a need for an analysis of the specific skills required of preschool teachers. A better understanding of the kind of training that produces an effective preschool teacher is very important because teacher training represents such a large investment among existing programs.

4.2.2 Plans

Plans in the Ministry of Education, and in the other organizations that provide uniform preprimary services for children, are to increase the coverage and quality of those services that are available. All units involved in preprimary activities recognize that health and nutrition are important factors that influence the potential and the future of children, although organizations differ in their emphasis on these factors. Specific plans deal with ways to increase the number of centers that offer preprimary services and develop methods of extending present services as well as making more effective use of available personnel. The shortage of trained personnel has led to plans to find additional resources for training.

UNICEF has begun action on plans to gather additional data within this subsector through a series of studies: a longitudinal evaluation of its Timoun Byen Vini program (including CINEC children in the sample), an assessment of children's health and nutritional status, the development of a low-cost learning center that can be built by local communities, and a cost analysis of UNICEF-supported early education programs.

Although they are not yet well developed, there are plans throughout the subsector to work more closely with, and to support preprimary programs in, the private sector, particularly programs sponsored by small, for-profit organizations.



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### 4.2.3 Constraints

Major constraints in the preprimary subsector relate to shortages in human and financial resources, organizational structures, and the physical environment.

Human Resources Constraints. The high emigration rate and a history of slow development in the formal educational system has resulted in serious manpower shortages. The situation in education is further complicated by the low salaries and status of teachers and the lack of fringe benefits in the teaching profession. This has serious implications in three areas of preprimary activity.

First, few individuals have received training appropriate to the demands that are placed on them in the preprimary subsector. This is particularly troublesome in programs where health and nutrition are important elements, because available teachers may not have taken academic programs in which such subjects were taught. Furthermore, the major preprimary programs require teachers to work with parents, and few of the teachers have had any opportunity to learn the skills that are needed.

Second, because a national emphasis on preprimary activities is relatively new and there is now an attempt to monitor the quality of such services, an effective supervisory service is needed. Supervisory functions are currently shared by several units of the Ministry of Education. This may be the best that can be done with available resources and the current institutional structure, but the preschool program will not reach its full potential until there is an effective supervisory system that can also support all preprimary educators.

Third, the lack of trained manpower has meant that Haiti has not been able to plan and implement the necessary research and evaluation on the effects of different approaches to preprimary programs or on the relative importance of the different components of such programs (e.g., the relative value in a given location of a feeding program compared to educating mothers or attending to sanitation problems).

Financial Constraints. The worldwide recession combined with Government's pattern of limited investment in education and its recent conservative fiscal policies, makes substantial increases unlikely in Government funds for the preprimary subsector. Yet Government's desire to provide preprimary opportunities to all disadvantaged children, even at current levels of quality, will require additional funds. As the private sector is already providing preprimary opportunities to a large percentage of children, it is important to determine whether that sector can realistically absorb more of the costs of such services, in view of the inability of most Haitians to pay more for the education of their children.

Organizational Constraints. The nation's policy on preprimary activities is clearly stated, but effective implementation of that policy will require careful coordination and cooperation among the involved agencies. Moreover, establishing an effective nationwide system will require a substantial cadre of trained inspectors who fully understand the goals of Government and who can provide support and training to teachers in addition to serving as inspectors. Preprimary education is further hampered by a lack of appropriate mechanisms to identify, collect, and interpret the information necessary to develop and evaluate programs.

Environmental Constraints. Reaching Haiti's widely dispersed population of children is difficult with the current state of roads, means of transportation, and communications. The harsh environmental conditions, particularly shortage of arable land and serious environmental degradation, mean that family survival depends on many economic activities which compete for any time that young children or their parents might have to devote to preprimary activities.

### 4.2.4 Issues

Five sets of issues are identified within these constraints. They are addressed under the five thematic topics used throughout this assessment: external efficiency, internal efficiency, access and equity, administration and supervision, and costs and financing.

External Efficiency. External efficiency issues concern the relevance of linkages between preprimary activities and subsequent performance in primary school. These issues are discussed in three general areas: returns on preprimary investments, women's education, and the coordination of preprimary with primary school.

1. Returns on Preprimary Investments. Preprimary education in Haiti has a dual purpose: school readiness and child welfare to support school readiness. For effective planning, it is important to distinguish between expected outcomes that are educational and those related to the child's general welfare.

   Numerous studies have established the value of focusing on health and nutrition in young children for their well-being. Significant improvements in the situation of children have been noted to occur as a result of health and nutrition programs. Thus, it is important to recognize that there is a positive effect on the life opportunities and welfare of Haitian children who are fortunate enough to participate in preprimary activities that have a school feeding program and activities related to health and nutrition.

What has not yet been demonstrated adequately, however, is the extent to which these feeding programs influence subsequent performance in primary school. One may ask if feeding programs are appropriately placed in preprimary programs or if the same outcomes might be obtained by providing food assistance through other delivery mechanisms. The question is not whether food assistance is effective, but rather what is the most efficient and cost-effective way of getting available food to children who are at risk.

Putting aside the health and well-being arguments, the critical external efficiency question in preprimary education is the extent to which such investments have positive returns in performance or retention rates in subsequent grades. Research from other developing countries provides mixed results. Preprimary education in some cases has been shown to be effective in this regard, but results have not always been positive. Some local evidence suggests that preprimary activities have a positive impact on performance in Haitian primary schools.

Serious involvement in preprimary activities in Haiti requires an understanding of what kind of outcomes--educational and/or health--are expected. If educational outcomes are expected, further involvement ought to be based on research that provides planners and practitioners with substantive data on the educational impact of specific activities.

The argument for or against inclusion of school feeding, however, is not so clear. Obviously the existence of a feeding program in a school serves as an important incentive for parents to send children to school and to keep them there. If a major goal is to keep children in school long enough for them to obtain a useful basic education, then a school feeding program might be an important incentive.

If preprimary activities are seen to have a substantial effect on children's performance, then planners should consider the kinds of activities and combinations of activities that might have the greatest impact. For example, the available evidence suggests that the preprimary services provided by Timoun Byen Vini and CINEC are much more efficient than the general preschool program in the enfantine classes that are part of the traditional Haitian curriculum. This would be expected, as research has demonstrated that children under six perform better if they are involved in school-readiness activities rather than in learning a formal school curriculum. Thus, if both health and educational outcomes are desired, perhaps a combination of

available food and a preprimary program could be offered. In fact, because the availability of food at schools is an incentive to families to send their children to school and to keep them there, food might be used as a mechanism to encourage those providing preprimary activities to offer the kind of curriculum that has been shown to be most effective.

2. Women's Education. An investment in the education of mothers has consistently been demonstrated to have significant positive effects on the education of children. Many studies indicate strong linkages between children's educational performance and their mothers' educational level. Both the CINEC and the Timoun Byen Vini programs stress family, and particularly mothers', involvement. Both are engaged in educating mothers in child stimulation, child development, health, and nutrition. The basic education of families and mothers is the responsibility of ONAAC and other agencies involved in nonformal education. As mothers of preprimary participants are already engaged in educational activities, thought should be given to coordinating with the agencies offering these adult education opportunities (e.g., ONAAC's nutrition classes), so that content of adult classes might be expanded to include basic education.

Expansion of preprimary activities into providing basic education in communities could be used as a vehicle to increase the national literacy rate. More important, however, is that increasing the educational level of mothers would probably attract more children to preprimary programs. If preprimary programs have a positive effect on children's later performance in primary school, then, combined with mothers' education, they could have significant outcomes in terms of enrollment and retention of children in primary and perhaps even secondary school. Use of the existing mechanisms would require coordination with other agencies, such as ONAAC and nongovernmental organizations, but could have several advantages. Reaching out to provide basic education to those who have already shown an interest in educational activities might improve the likelihood of maintaining participation in basic education programs. This is particularly relevant because Haitian women are busy with commercial, marketing, and family responsibilities. Combining child care educational activities with other activities could be a more efficient use of the time that women are willing to devote to their own education.

3. Coordination of Preprimary With Primary School. Any investments in preprimary activities should be made with an understanding that the purpose of preprimary education is to build the foundation for learning in primary school. Thus, such investments should be centered in programs that are closely coordinated with primary education and in activities that could provide a better development base for the children.

A large number of Haitian children are currently enrolled in preprimary programs that do not focus on child development and school readiness. A significant amount of limited resources, particularly those of parents with very modest incomes, is thus being used for activities that probably have low returns. The willingness to pay for and participate in preprimary activities already exists in Haiti. What is needed is an improvement in their quality, so that the limited resources spent on them are more likely to improve a child's performance in primary school.

Internal Efficiency. Internal efficiency concerns address the use of available resources to obtain the maximum designed effect. In the preprimary subsector these concerns lie in the following areas: training of teachers, use of locally produced materials, selection of the CINEC model, and integration of preprimary programs into a national system.

1. Training of Teachers. The CINEC program requires a very different kind of teacher than those currently employed to teach the enfantine classes or classes in the Timoun Byen Vini program. The programs that focus on child development and school readiness each have developed their own training programs. Although both are well regarded, the CINEC teacher training program, which is somewhat more extensive, is generally accepted as being more effective. The CINEC program is short-term and it has been demonstrated that, to be successful, CINEC teachers need not have completed a course at a normal school.

The current government proposal is to add a preschool program to the Ecole Normale qualification (see Chapter 7 on teacher training). Requiring preprimary teachers to complete a course at an Ecole Normale represents a three-year postprimary investment; although evidence from both the CINEC and the Timoun Byen Vini programs demonstrates that this degree of training is not necessary. In fact, an appropriate six-month program is sufficient. This proposed qualification should be re-examined in light of current knowledge about training and the best use of available resources in this area. If the shorter training



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program were used, with appropriate increases in support and staff, significantly more preprimary teachers could be trained for the same investment.

2. Use of Locally Produced Materials. Visits to CINEC and Timoun Byen Vini centers demonstrated that the sponsoring agencies provide appropriate materials for children to use. The two programs have somewhat different philosophies regarding materials, but materials are present in both cases. Observations in enfantine classes, however, suggested an extreme shortage of materials, appropriate or not. An assessment of the operating budgets of the sample of private preschool programs indicated few resources for purchasing materials.

   Both CINEC and Timoun Byen Vini use objects to teach concepts and to encourage questions and the development of self-confidence. Songs and stories are appropriate to the Haitian context. Toys for use by Timoun Byen Vini are made by a school for disabled adults.

   Coordination between these two programs could be much better in the area of materials development and sharing. UNICEF is investing substantial amounts in materials development, but the CINEC program is not involved with testing them and does not use materials, such as pictures, that are available to them. Thus, the two programs that use approaches differing significantly from classe enfantine are not providing leadership regarding a coordinated alternative to the traditional preprimary program. Appropriate development and testing of materials that could be used in a variety of programs could serve all children who are enrolled in preprimary programs.

3. Selection of the CINEC Model. The positive policy of Government regarding preprimary education makes it much easier to coordinate and direct efforts toward improving activities within the subsector. However, the existence of two strong and excellent preprimary programs creates a need for greater cooperation. Each program has its strengths and each has learned from its experience. If the opportunity for preprimary education is to be extended to significantly more children under six, the best aspects of each of these programs must become known and shared throughout the country.

   For example, among the strengths of the Timoun Byen Vini program is the emphasis on the value of play to learning; a visit to one of those centers demonstrated that children can engage in active learning through playing with educational materials. Similarly, CINEC is particularly promising because it has become institutionalized in the



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Ministry of Education, thus increasing the likelihood that the policy of providing quality preprimary programs will be implemented. Both programs provide training for teachers, monitors, and inspectors; perhaps economies could be realized through coordination in this area. Both programs emphasize health and nutrition, with CINEC taking a much stronger position regarding the contribution of these elements to child development. Both programs emphasize community participation. The Timoun Byen Vini program has managed to obtain significant financial and in-kind contributions from the local communities, and this type of community contribution would help the CINEC program as expansion begins.

One of the strengths of preschool education in Haiti is the competence and commitment of those in leadership positions in the area. It would be a gain if these characteristics were to encourage flexibility and effectiveness in relation to cooperation and, thus, expand the preschool educational opportunities for young children.

4. Integration of Preprimary Programs Into a National System. The Ministry of Education faces a major challenge in deciding to support a preprimary system throughout Haiti based on the CINEC model. Those in the public sector familiar with the enfantine classes and methods will have to be retrained to understand and implement the very different goals and approach of the CINEC model. This change will involve inspectors, school directors, teachers, and parents. Perhaps the largest investment will have to be in retraining preprimary teachers. There will be practical problems as well. For example, CINEC is a year-long program and many have come to believe that, to be effective, a preprimary program may need to be several years long. Also the CINEC program is aimed toward five-year-old children whereas many enrolled in classe enfantine are older than five.

The private sector presents a different challenge. A number of private voluntary organizations (PVOs) offer preprimary activities through their individual school systems. Many of these school subsystems are coordinated by a large mission organization. Any assistance to these kinds of programs can probably best be accomplished through their coordinating mechanisms and in relation to the change to using the Reform curriculum. Though the task is not easy, there does seem to be an effective means of assistance that could be used.

Also in the private sector are many small, independent, preprimary programs. Many are offered through organizations such as local churches, and many provide services on a for-profit basis.



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Coordinating and controlling these independents could be a problem in the attempt to standardize the curriculum and content of preprimary programs. The difficulties faced in running the May 1984 conference provided an example of the extent and complexity of the challenges that need to be overcome to coordinate preprimary programs in the private sector. Any assistance to this part of the subsector will require creativity and the development of an incentive system that will bring private, preprimary programs into harmony with national objectives.

Access and Equity. This part of the assessment is concerned with issues relating to access to preprimary programs and to the distribution of preprimary program benefits to subgroups. The three main issues here are: the relationships between access and equity, the use of preprimary activities as a screening mechanism, and limits to access.

1. Relationships Between Access and Equity. An assumption underlying the policy and emphasis on preprimary activities is that preprimary activities have a democratizing effect--that they give all participants an equal opportunity to succeed in primary school. This assumption gives rise to several concerns.

   Participation in a preprimary program does not in itself guarantee that all students will have equal skills upon entry into primary school.

   Children from poorer families may be less able to take advantage of opportunities or may miss many classes due to poor health or participation in family economic activities. There is evidence that quality varies considerably within the subsector. Children from wealthier families are more likely to have an opportunity to attend programs that have better materials, facilities, and trained teachers. Also, it is possible that particular preprimary institutions will have a reputation for producing well-prepared students, and so their students will receive preferential treatment when primary school places are allocated--once again limiting access for some children.

2. Use of Preprimary as a Screening Mechanism. It is possible that the desire to have all children participate in preprimary activities could be reinterpreted so that preprimary completion becomes a requirement for primary education. This would be, essentially, a return to the traditional approach to preprimary education in which completion of the enfantine class, which can take as long as three years, is required for admission to primary school



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If such a trend were to develop, it would be particularly harmful to rural children in the isolated hilly parts of the country. These are the children who, for reasons of distance, are the least likely to be able to participate in preprimary activities.

3. Limits to Access. Government's desire to provide universal access to high-quality preprimary activities is laudable, but time, money, and personnel will be needed to achieve this goal. The CINEC program is designed as a preparatory program for the Education Reform, so expansion of CINEC is necessarily linked to primary schools' adoption of the Reform. Although exact figures are not available, only about 25% of primary schools follow the Reform curriculum and there is not yet a firm schedule for the rest of the schools. Thus, expansion of CINEC can only occur in certain locations, and a time-phased plan for universal access to CINEC cannot yet be developed.

Administration and Supervision. Administration and supervision issues concern the organizational structures, management, and control of performance at the level where services are delivered. Three areas are addressed in this section: the important role of professionals, supervisory functions, and quality control across programs.

1. Trend Toward Community-Based Programs. To have some preprimary program costs paid by the beneficiaries of these programs, as well as by the sponsoring agencies such as Government or a private organization, emphasis on community participation has increased. Another reason for this emphasis is the sponsor belief that, if a program is to become fully established within a community, it is essential for the community to participate in and feel that they own a part of the program.

   Sharing costs is advantageous for both these reasons. There are some tradeoffs, however. When investments are shared, so is decisionmaking. This can affect the efficiency of a program and also its quality. This is not to suggest that community participation is to be avoided; exactly the opposite is appropriate. But it is essential to recognize that, although a decentralized preprimary program may reduce start-up costs, it may also require that the supervisory and coordination budgets be increased.

2. Relationships Between Unit Costs and Benefits. Comparable unit cost data cannot be obtained for the full range of preprimary programs. If decisions about levels of funding or redistribution of funds are to be useful, they need to be based on accurate information about program

costs and benefits. If food is part of the program, for example, these costs should be included in the analysis.

There are two areas where the lack of information on costs and benefits is a particular problem. Within a preprimary program it is difficult to know where to place limited funds to obtain the greatest benefits. For example, is a limited amount of money better invested in a teacher training workshop or in the development of low cost learning materials? The other area concerns the status of preprimary education within the education sector. Primary education in Haiti, for example, is in need of attention and investment, and the benefits of primary education in comparison to its costs are well documented. If preprimary education is to be given an increased budget for program expansion and improvement, there should be some evidence of the positive impacts that can be anticipated.

### 4.2.5 Conclusions

Eight broad conclusions emerge from the issues identified in the preceding analysis. These lead to the specific recommendations in the final portion of this chapter.

#### Conclusion 1 - Demand

There is a high demand for preprimary education and for preprimary programs that include food for the participants. Families have demonstrated a willingness to invest significantly in the preprimary education of both male and female children because they believe that this will improve their chances of success in school and in life. This demand is understandable because recent evidence suggests that some of the newer preprimary and child development programs do have significant positive outcomes in performance in Reform curriculum schools and in improvements in children's health and nutrition. Moreover, research results generally indicate that investments in preprimary education have particularly high returns, long-term and short-term, for children of lower socioeconomic status.

#### Conclusion 2 - Information Need

There is a critical need for more information on preprimary activities and on their outcomes. In particular, there is a great scarcity of information on the variety of programs in the private sector, even though the limited available figures suggest that it is the private sector that is reaching the majority of children. Information from this chapter of the assessment suggests that the private sector may be reaching thousands more children of preschool age than the large centralized preprimary programs, excluding classe enfantine.



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Little is known about the private sector curricula, costs, and strengths and yet the private sector appears to be a vigorous part of the preprimary environment.

The new centralized programs are based on theory and research related to child development and school readiness, but the extent to which the theory and research are valid for the Haitian context has not yet been fully explored. Little information is available on the outcomes of preprimary programs in Haiti. A commitment to the well-being and future of Haiti's children and continuation of these programs demand better data as a basis for informed decisionmaking.

Information is also needed on the financial operations of institutions providing preprimary services. Cost data can be particularly useful when linked to outcome data. Moreover, an understanding of the financial operations of the small, for-profit organizations might make it easier to increase the quality of instruction that they offer.

Conclusion 3 - Consistency

The stated policy on preprimary education demands consistency in the preprimary programs, but implementation of this policy presents a formidable problem. Reaching some measure of consistency within the subsector is an enormous challenge. The lack of information on outcomes of the CINEC-type program lessens the incentive for other programs to adopt the model. Many of the preprimary programs are managed on a for-profit basis, and they might lose clients if they change curriculum without any clearly demonstrable reasons. A further complication is that legislation in this regard would be impossible to enforce, given the current level of manpower at the supervisory level.

Conclusion 4 - Quality

Although some good programs exist, the quality of preprimary education is generally low and in need of improvement. Compared to the number of preprimary programs to be taught, the number of teachers who are trained in the more current and research-based techniques is extremely low. The majority of preschool programs provide little guidance for teachers, virtually no supervision, and minimal resources for materials. Though materials appropriate to the Haitian context are being developed, the weak infrastructure for educational information makes it almost impossible to distribute these materials to the most needy institutions.

Conclusion 5 - Staffing

Staffing for preprimary education needs immediate attention. Expansion

and improvement of preprimary activities demand more and better trained staff at all levels. Moving teachers from the enfantine class to CINEC-style programs will require substantial retraining costs. Government training policy does not seem to take into account what is known about training needs. A desire to improve quality and to bring the private sector into closer coordination with the Government-endorsed curriculum will require training and materials development for the private sector, along with a significant increase in the supervisory staff so that the private sector activities can be better monitored. To create a coordinated preprimary system, even if it is not unified, there will have to be a well-trained and highly skilled planning and training staff that has a vision of the future and recognizes what steps need to be taken to bring that vision closer to reality.

Conclusion 6 - Innovations

Preprimary activities appear to offer excellent opportunities to introduce innovations. Preprimary activities have already served to involve women and families in activities to support their young children, such as gardening and nutrition. Judging from this experience, these activities may provide an opportunity to introduce other kinds of learning activities, such as basic education or information on income generation and new agricultural techniques.

Conclusion 7 - Commitment

Government has a clear commitment to preprimary education, as indicated by implementation of its stated policy and by its financial allocations. Government has set forth a clear and consistent policy on preprimary education. It has adhered to its agreement to pay for the teaching staff of the CINEC program and it is willing to move the teachers from the enfantine classes into the CINEC-style preprimary classes as public schools change to the Reform curriculum. While the budget for preprimary education is small, as demonstrated by its small staff and lack of funds for materials development, Government has met its financial commitments, even though some payments have been late.

Conclusion 8 - Resources

Given the serious economic constraints in Haiti, there is a surprising resource base available for preprimary education. Much of this resource base comes from local communities. These contributions in many cases represent a large portion of family income so it is important that these resources be directed to activities with high benefits. Increasing access to CINEC-type programs will require a substantial investment, however.



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## 4.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

The recommendations for preprimary education are based on the main conclusions presented above. Where it was felt that appropriate information exists, possible action steps are presented after the recommendation. Prior to listing these recommendations, a rationale for involvement in preprimary activities is discussed.

The early years of life comprise a powerful learning experience. For children born into poverty, the first learning environment is generally not appropriate for development because of lack of access to commodities that meet basic needs. Since it is well documented that early childhood is a crucial period for a child's total development, concern for national development implies a concern for the environment that affects the nation's future human resources.

The majority of children in Haiti, those who live in rural and poor urban areas, are victims of poverty. They suffer from deprivation in a number of areas and this deprivation is manifest in the stark statistics that describe them. Preprimary activities may be viewed as a link between cultures--the culture of poverty and the culture of formal schooling. Through these activities, a deprived child can gain enough background so that teaching has meaning and the child no longer has to depend on rote learning. This kind of preschool learning is specifically designed to relate to primary education, where children must learn and communicate through symbols. Through activities relating to the world that children will have to live in, they can be prepared for later instruction in the language of symbols and through the process of inquiry. The success of Education Reform at the primary level in part depends upon students being prepared to learn under the new pedagogical style that is part of the reform.

Research has shown that preprimary activities should provide for the development of psychomotor, language, intellectual, and social environmental skills. A uniform, nationwide program available to all children should give each child a more nearly equal chance to succeed in basic education.

When resources are scarce, selecting among several high-priority areas for investments in education may become necessary. Questions are often raised about the relative utility of investment in preprimary education. To the extent that preprimary education has been shown to increase the efficiency of primary education, there is an educational basis for investing in the subsector. There is another strong basis: Government commitment to preprimary education. Support of this commitment will strengthen a national institution.

Recommendation 1 - Information. Develop a base of information on preprimary activities, including costs and outcomes.

Attention to this recommendation would address internal efficiency, external efficiency, and costs and financing issues. It would encourage more rational planning and more effective use of available resources. Of particular value would be information about the private sector, because so little accurate information is now available.

Possible Action. Consider involvement in preprimary activities across the subsector that would enable data collection. Such involvement might include assistance to private programs that are willing to engage in activities such as moving to the Reform curriculum at the primary level, using simple accounting procedures to monitor income and expenses, and participating in follow-up studies of students completing the program. Use could be made of existing instruments, such as the survey that has been designed by UNICEF to study the costs of preprimary education and the 10-year follow-up study that has just begun. This kind of involvement could have the added advantage of enhancing coordination and cooperation within the subsector.

Recommendation 2 - Quality. Improve the quality of preprimary programs.

Efforts to improve the quality of preprimary programs could significantly increase the internal efficiency of the subsector. Combined with activity under Recommendation 1, this would make it possible to compare the results of different interventions designed to enhance quality.

Possible Action. The development of low cost learning aids and teacher guides, perhaps coordinated with radio broadcasts, might raise the quality of available services, especially in the private sector. Of particular value might be short-term training for preschool teachers in areas such as pedagogical methods and diagnosis of student performance. Again, assistance in this area would provide an opportunity to encourage coordination and cooperation and could assist in developing a stronger materials development and support unit for preprimary education within the Ministry of Education.

Another area for possible action might be in teacher training. Efforts to identify the strengths of the various current training programs and to encourage agencies to develop coordinated training could result in better use of resources, better training, and more uniform programs.

Recommendation 3 - Supervision. Improve the supervisory and planning capacities in the subsector.

Activities in this area should serve to improve the administration and supervision of the subsector. Currently there is insufficient staff to



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perform the management and supervisory duties that would be necessary if Government were to implement all aspects of its policy in a comprehensive fashion.

Possible Action. One approach might be to work with the Ministry of Education and/or nongovernmental organizations to identify individuals who might participate in training activities designed to build management and supervisory skills. For such a program to be successful in the long run, it would be necessary to develop a clear understanding of the kind of investments that Government is willing to put into supervisory and planning activities and how much it is willing to decentralize and delegate to nongovernmental organizations (both profit and non-profit).

Recommendation 4 - Access. Increase access to preprimary programs linked to primary schools using the Reform curriculum.

There is an obvious demand for an opportunity to participate in preprimary activities. Any attempts to meet this demand would address access and equity issues identified earlier.

Possible Action. A very effective way to increase access might be to assist in establishing a large number of CINEC centers in those public schools that are changing to the Reform curriculum. These investments could include non-recurrent costs to cover buildings, basic equipment, and retraining of enfantine teachers so that they can participate effectively in the reform program.

The cost implications of this recommendation can be estimated using data cited in the status section of this chapter. Capital costs for building, equipping, and staffing a CINEC center amount to about $3,300 (this can be amortized), and annual operating expenses are about $2,500. Thus, adding 500 CINEC centers could amount to $1,650,000 in capital costs (assuming existing structures cannot be used) and $1,250,000 in recurrent costs. As has been noted earlier, the rate of introduction of new CINEC centers could be influenced by the rate by which primary schools change to the Reform curriculum. This recommendation could be combined with Recommendations 1 and 2.

Recommendation 5 - Cooperation. Encourage better cooperation among agencies involved in preprimary programs.

Efforts in this area should increase the internal efficiency of the subsector.

Possible Action. This recommendation could be carried out with minimal investment. Currently, the major preprimary programs are engaged in similar work but with very little interaction and collegial sharing. This offers a

significant opportunity for an agency that does not have large vested interests in preprimary education to serve as a mediator and facilitator to ensure that the important work being done by each program is improved by the successes of the others.

Recommendation 6 - Mothers' Education. Use preprimary involvement to increase the educational level of mothers.

Attention to this recommendation should improve both external efficiency and internal efficiency.

Possible Action. Work in this area would require coordination and cooperation with other units in the Ministry of Education (e.g., ONAAC) and perhaps other ministries, as well as with a wide range of organizations in the private sector. Programs relating to income generation are particularly recommended. It should be noted that outcomes from following this recommendation would necessarily be long-term. It takes time for returns on investments in mothers' education to be realized, and building the monetized portion of the rural poor and urban poor economies is a slow process. Nevertheless, both of these investments can have a positive effect on children's education.

Recommendation 7 - Incentives. Develop an incentive system to encourage private sector programs to adopt the general model recommended by the Government.

Activities in this area should serve to improve external efficiency and internal efficiency.

Possible Action. Access to available food for children or to materials or grants to support curriculum and teaching improvement might be offered to for-profit schools that use the CINEC program model after teachers have been retrained.

Recommendation 8 - Parent Support. Encourage parental support of preprimary programs.

Some costs of preprimary programs can be borne by parents of the beneficiaries. Attention to this recommendation would address issues of costs and financing.

Possible Action. One set of activities might be to encourage communities to bear some of the costs and responsibilities of CINEC centers that are begun in conjunction with public schools adopting the Reform curriculum. There is evidence that communities can and will assume this responsibility. In the private sector, consideration might be given to developing cooperatively owned preschool centers. Support to these centers might be in the form of simple

financial management techniques, training, and materials development. This recommendation could be implemented with Recommendations 1 and 2, and perhaps 3; it could be an alternative or an addition to Recommendation 4; it would support Recommendations 6 and 7.

*Chapitre*

# 5

Chapter

## *Enseignement Primaire*

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## Primary Education

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## AVANT PROPOS

Le chapitre 5, "Enseignement Primaire" a été revu et corrigé en Haïti le 16 avril 1986 par les personnes suivantes :

| | |
|---|---|
| Mr. Rodrigue Jean | Directeur, Bureau de l'Enseignement Primaire, Ministère de l'Education, (MOE) |
| Mr. Lionel Hogu | Bureau de l'Enseignement Primaire, (MOE) |
| Mme. Marie-Marthe B. Siven | Bureau de l'Enseignement Primaire, (MOE) |

Mr. Rosny Desroches, Ministre de l'Education et Mr. Delille Antoine, Directeur d'Etude au College Canado-Haïtien, ont également donné leur point de vue au cours d'entretiens menés séparément. Mme Mary Pigozzi, AMESED/Institut pour la Recherche Internationale, a pris part à chaque entretien en tant que facilitatrice.

La première partie de la séance a été consacrée à un certain nombre de corrections de détails et de présentation des données statistiques. Ces corrections ont été incorporées à la version finale de ce chapitre. Dans l'ensemble les participants ont jugé ce chapitre satisfaisant, mais ont regretté l'excessive importance accordée au secteur privé, par moment. Ils ont également tenu à souligner la nature quelque peu superficielle de la version abrégée du texte original, qui a servi de support à la traduction française.

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## 5.0 ENSEIGNEMENT PRIMAIRE

Ce chaptire traite de l'enseignement primaire et de l'immense opportunité qu'un système amélioré offre, dans le cadre du développement économique et social d'Haïti, fece aux nombreux défis que confrontent ce pays en tant que nation. Il présente le système traditionnel de l'enseignement primaire et la "Réforme de l'Education" actuellement en cours d'élaboration et de mise en oeuvre.

### 5.1 SITUATION ACTUELLE

Haïti est l'un des pays les plus pauvres du monde, et est certainement le plus pauvre de l'hémisphère occidental. L'amélioration du système éducatif pour promouvoir le développement socio-économique offre cependant des possibilités énormes. En 1971, le taux d'alphabétisation était de 21%, et 23% est probablement un chiffre réaliste pour 1984. Les 723.000 inscrits à l'enseignement primaire en 1983 représentent moins de 50% de l'ensemble des enfants en âge de fréquenter l'école primaire, âge qui se situe entre 6 et 12 ans.

Du temps de la colonie française, il existait très peu d'écoles en Haïti, et à l'Indépendance en 1804 très peu d'haïtiens avaient bénéficié d'une forme institutionnelle d'éducation primaire. Tout au long du dix-neuvième siècle, les inscriptions sont restées faibles dans les quelques écoles existantes. Les bouleversements politiques du début du vingtième siècle ont eu des retombées négatives sur le système éducatif et l'école a continué à n'avoir que très peu d'influence sur la vie rurale. Dans les zones rurales, le pourcentage d'inscriptions des enfants en âge de fréquenter l'école, par exemple, est pratiquement demeuré en 1970 ce qu'il était en 1950, soit entre 10% et 12%.

Dans les années 1970, toutefois, les efforts faits pour augmenter les inscriptions dans les écoles publiques ont donné des résultats satisfaisants, en même temps que le secteur privé prenait son essor. Vers la fin des années 1970, la possibilité d'une réforme dans le domaine de l'éducation a été sérieusement envisagée. Et en 1982 a été lancé un nouveau système, consistant en 10 années d'éducation de base, connu sous le nom de "Réforme de l'Enseignement."

Dans le domaine de l'éducation, la demande qui est déjà exceptionellement élevée dans les pays en voie de développement continue à être exceptionnellement élevé en Haïti. Dans le primaire, les inscriptions ont considérablement augmenté pour passer, de 1971 à 1983, de 322.725 à 723.041, parallèlement les écoles sont passées, pour la même période de 2.191 à 3.241. En prenant l'année 1957 comme point de départ, les augmentations sont de

l'ordre de 239% pour les inscriptions. Avec 1959 comme point de départ, celles-ci seraient de 113% pour les écoles et de 217% pour les enseignants. Les augmentations d'inscriptions pendant cette dernière décennie ont surtout été enregistrées dans le secteur privé et les régions urbaines (schéma 5.1).

Une bonne partie de l'analyse qui suit a été faite pendant la période de transition qui caractérise l'introduction de la Réforme. Elle porte donc en grande partie sur le système traditionnel. Pourtant, en discutant des perspectives d'avenir (i.e. dans la recherche des solutions), l'accent sera mis sur la Réforme. Schéma 5.1 Indices de croissance des inscriptions dans les écoles primaires par secteur et par localisation, 1974-1983.

### 5.1.1 La Réforme du Système de l'Enseignement Primaire

Le gouvernement se propose d'atteindre deux objectifs au niveau de l'enseignement primaire :

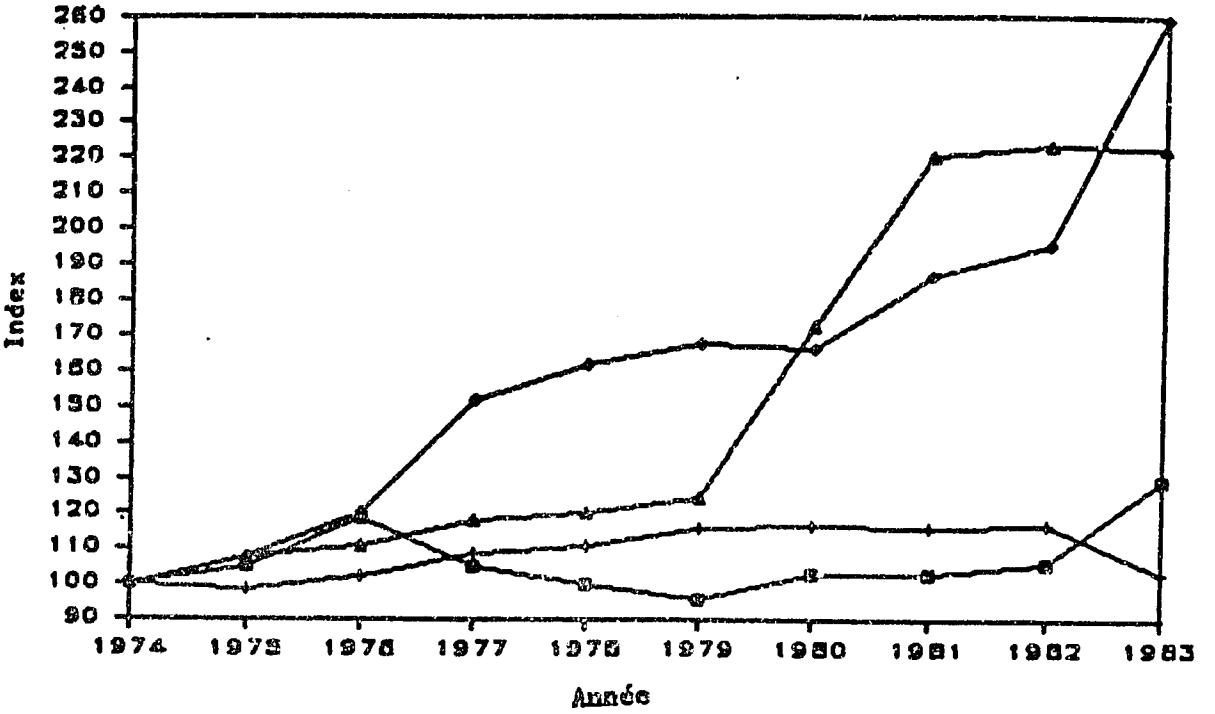
- Assurer à la totalité des enfants d'âge scolaire l'accès gratuit à l'alphabétisation d'ici l'an 2000. Le gouvernement estime que ceci demandera un taux d'inscriptions brut (rapport entre le nombre d'élèves inscrits et la population d'âge scolaire, 6-12 ans) d'approximativement 83% d'ici la fin de 1986.
- Poursuivre la mise en oeuvre de la Réforme, c'est-à-dire la mettre en application dans un cycle primaire de 10 ans devant s'achever en 1991-1992, pour réaliser un programme complet d'Education de base. La Réforme résulte de nombreuses mesures pédagogiques dont les principales sont : la réorganisation des programmes, l'adoption de nouvelles méthodes, l'introduction de la promotion automatique à la fin de la première et de la troisième année, ainsi que la revalorisation du rôle de l'inspectorat.

La Réforme constitue un changement radical du système éducatif et requiert des investissements substantiels, prévoyant une augmentation massive des inscriptions, la fourniture de nouveaux matériels d'enseignement, le recyclage général des enseignants et une adéquation idoine de l'inspectorat. Le gouvernement base l'essentiel de ses prévisions sur un emprunt d'assistance financière et technique de l'UNESCO pour la mise en oeuvre du projet.

La stratégie de mise en oeuvre du gouvernement s'appuie sur la présomption que le secteur privé continuera d'assumer à court et à moyen terme la plupart des coûts de l'enseignement primaire. De son côté, le gouvernement prendra des dispositions pour la prévision d'une assistance coordonnée aux écoles privées en vue de la fourniture d'enseignants, de cours de formation pour enseignants,

Schéma 5.1

Indices de croissance des inscriptions dans les écoles primaires par secteur et par localisation, 1974/1983




**Légende:**

- Ecoles Publiques Urbaines
- Ecoles Publiques Rurales
- Ecoles Privées Urbaines
- Ecoles Privées Rurales

**Source:** DEN, *Annuaire Statistique*, 1982-83.



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d'installations de facilités, de relèvement du niveau et de la qualité des études, de meilleurs services.

L'application de la Réforme a été entreprise en conformité avec les dispositions de la Loi Organique de 1979 portant réorganisation du Département de l'Education. Le nouveau système d'éducation comporte dix années d'éducation de base divisée en trois cycles (quatre ans + trois ans + trois ans) et suivies d'un cycle d'enseignement secondaire de trois ans. En pricipe les enfants qui terminent au moins le premier cycle de quatre ans devront avoir atteint un niveau d'études suffisant pour ne plus retomber dans l'analphabétisme.

Le nouveau système d'éducation est représenté graphiquement dans le schéma 5.2 qui indique l'âge de l'élève, son niveau et sa progression dans le système. Les élèves qui entrent dans le troisième cycle du primaire (cycle correspondant aux 8e, 9e, et 10e années de scolarité) peuvent suivre soit une filière classique soit une filière technique ou professionnelle. Il est envisagé également de créer à partir du deuxième cycle, une filière professionnelle non formelle, parallèle au système scolaire. Le premier cycle d'éducation primaire est le seul qui ait été réalisé à ce jour (décembre 1984).

Dans un tel sytème les enfants doivent commencer à aller à l'école au premier mois d'octobre qui suit leur sixième anniversaire. Le passage est automatique de la première à la deuxième année et de la troisième à la quatrième (alors que dans le système traditionnel il y a de nombreux redoublements et abandons à ces niveaux). Ce changement à lui seul devrait améliorer de façon considérable l'efficacité de l'enseignement primaire. Redoubler toutes les autres années est possible, bien que la politique générale du gouvernement n'autorise pas plus de 20% de redoublement à chaque niveau. Le créole est la langue d'instruction de premier cycle, le français étant introduit en deuxième langue. A partir du deuxième cycle du primaire, la langue d'instruction prévue est le français.

Le Département de l'Education Nationale est chargé de la supervision de l'enseignement primaire. La Direction de l'Enseignement Fondamental a quatre fonctions : dispenser des conseils pédagogiques, mettre en place des programmes préscolaires, organiser le recyclage et la formation continue des enseignants, établir des critères et des methodes d'évaluation, et gérer le centre de documentation de l'Institut Pédagogique National (IPN).

### 5.1.2 Le Système Primaire Traditionnel

Le système traditionnel et son programme sont basés sur l'ancien système français. D'après le FISE, 73% des écoles continuaient d'appliquer ce système en 1984. Le cycle primaire traditionnel est précédé d'une classe enfantine. Le cycle primaire comprend six années de classe : les Cours Préparatoires I et



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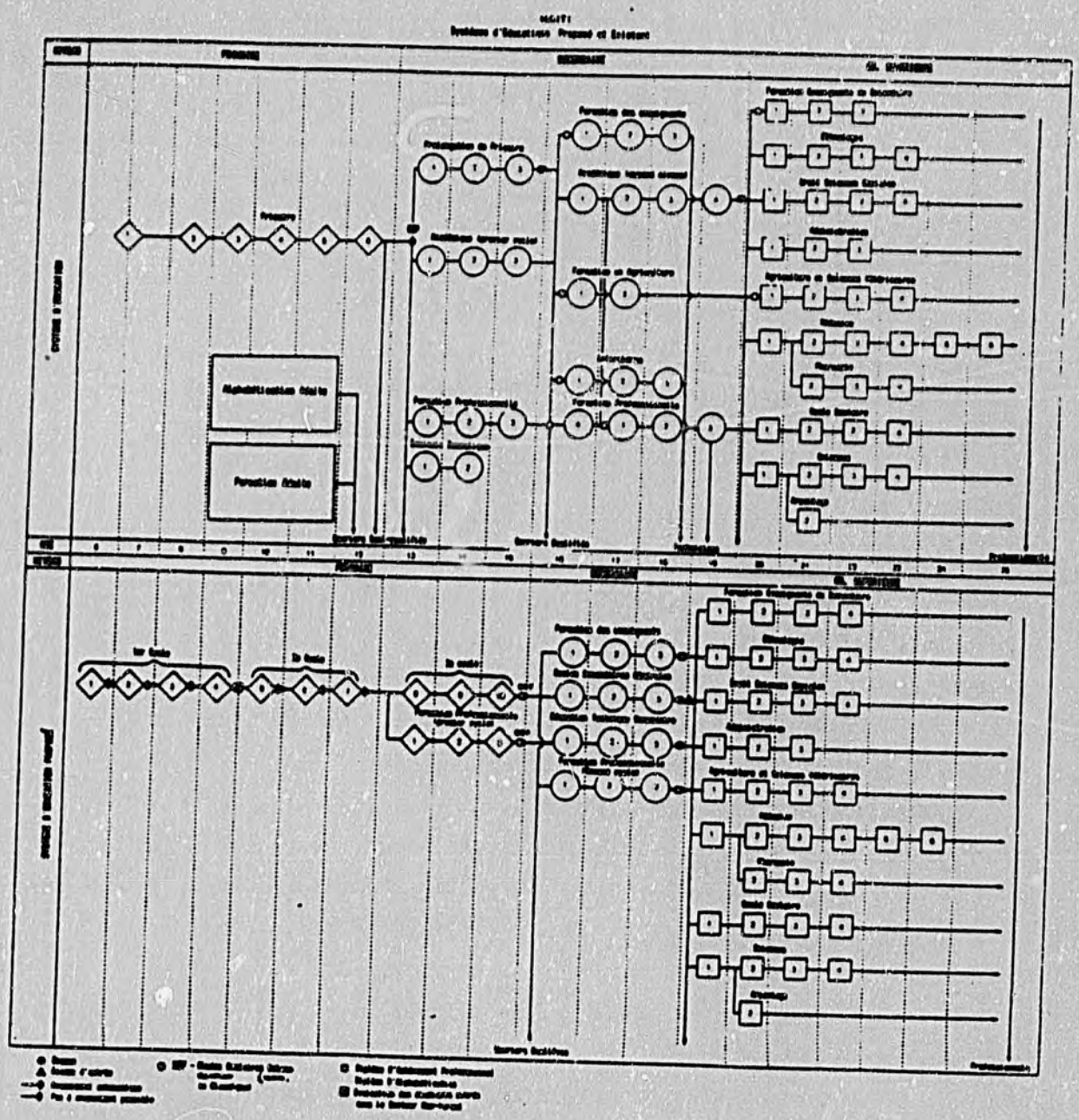
Schéma 5.2

Structure des systèmes Scolaires Traditionnels et de la Réforme



II, les Cours Elémentaires I et II, et les Cours Moyens I et II. L'élève peut redoubler une classe à n'importe quel niveau, bien que certaines écoles privées limitent le nombre de redoublements.

Le système de l'enseignement haïtien se signale surtout par un secteur privé dynamique et de plus en plus important. Ce secteur privé est composé d'écoles financées par des collectivités, par des organisations religieuses ou par des institutions privées de volontaires, aussi bien d'écoles auto-financées ou à but lucratif. Près de 60% des élèves du primaire étaient inscrits dans des écoles privées en 1982/83 avec plus de 50% répartis dans tous les départements, le Nord-Est et le Sud-Est exceptés. La proportion variait de 47 à 68.%.

Entre 1973/74 et 1981/82, le rythme d'accroissement du nombre des écoles privées (45%) a été bien plus élevé que celui des écoles publiques (12%). La différence en taux de croissance pour la même période est progressivement de plus en plus frappante quant aux inscriptions. Les inscriptions ont augmenté de 16% dans les écoles publiques et de 40% dans les écoles privées. En 1978/79, par exemple, 50% des élèves étaient dans des écoles privées. Quatre ans plus tard le chiffre était déjà passé à 59%.

Toutes les écoles, qu'elles soient publiques ou privées, sont sous responsabilité d'un directeur d'école, qui s'occupe à la fois du fonctionnement quotidien et de la politique éducative de l'établissement. Le directeur assure la liaison avec le Département de l'Education, le service d'inspection et, éventuellement, le réseau scolaire auquel il appartient.

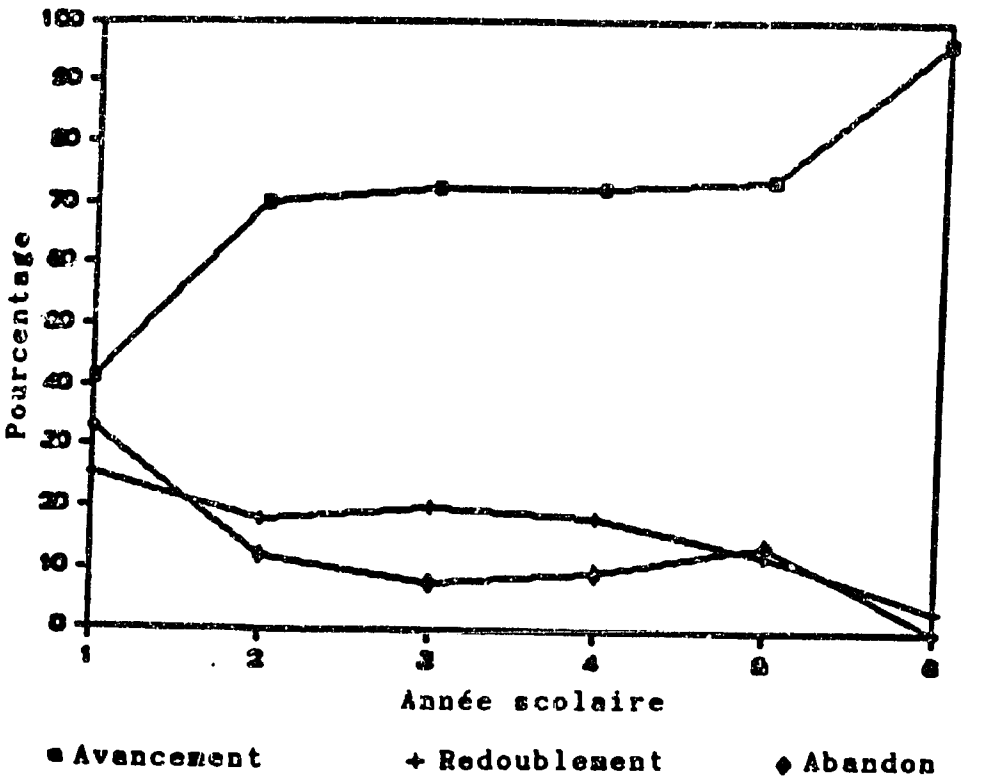
La majorité des élèves (53.8%) sont inscrits dans des écoles établies dans les régions urbaines qui, du reste sont bien mieux pourvues que les régions rurales. Alors que 28% seulement de la population vivait dans les régions urbaines en 1982, les élèves des écoles urbaines représentaient 53.8% de l'effectif total. Toutefois, l'ensemble des inscriptions urbaines ne dépasse les inscriptions rurales que dans les départements de l'Ouest, du Nord, du Nord-Ouest et du Sud. Des 59% d'élèves inscrits dans des écoles privées, 52.5% sont en milieu urbain et 47.5% en milieu rural. Dans le secteur public, les écoles urbaines comptent 55.8% des inscriptions contre 44.2% pour les écoles rurales.

Il y a plus de garçons que de filles dans les écoles primaires publiques (55.1% contre 44.9%) ainsi que dans les écoles primaires privées (52.4% contre 47.6%). Dans l'ensemble, il faut compter 336.567 filles et 386.474 garçons inscrits à l'école primaire. Du côté des écoles publiques, ont été dénombrés 293.328 enfants, dont 131.787 filles. Dans le secteur privé il y a 204.780 filles et 224.993 garçons, soit un total de 429.773.

Le système d'éducation primaire est également caractérisé par le nombre élevé d'enfants qui redoublent des classes ou bien qui abandonnent l'école correspondant à des taux de passage très faibles, particulièrement au cours des premières années de scolarité (Schéma 5.3). Le taux de passage est très réduit à la première année (41.3%) pour varier de 69.9% à la deuxième année à 96.6% à la sixième année. Quant au taux de redoublement, il est élevé pour les cinq premières années du cycle primaire (variant de 12.4% à 25.5%) puis tombe à 3.4% pour la sixième année. Le nombre d'enfants qui abandonnent à la fin de la première année est particulièrement élevé (33.2%). Sur 1.000 élèves qui entrent à l'école 313 termineront les six années de primaire. Mais 108 seulement le feront sans redoubler. Il faut une moyenne de 12.5 années d'études primaires pour produire un diplômé, mais les taux varient avec les secteurs et les régions. Les écoles urbaines (avec 11 années par diplômé) sont plus efficaces que les écoles rurales (14 années). Les écoles privées urbaines donnent les meilleures performances (10 années) et les écoles privées rurales les pires (15 années).

Schéma 5.3

Taux de passage, de redoublement et d'abandon dans les écoles primaires, 1981/1982

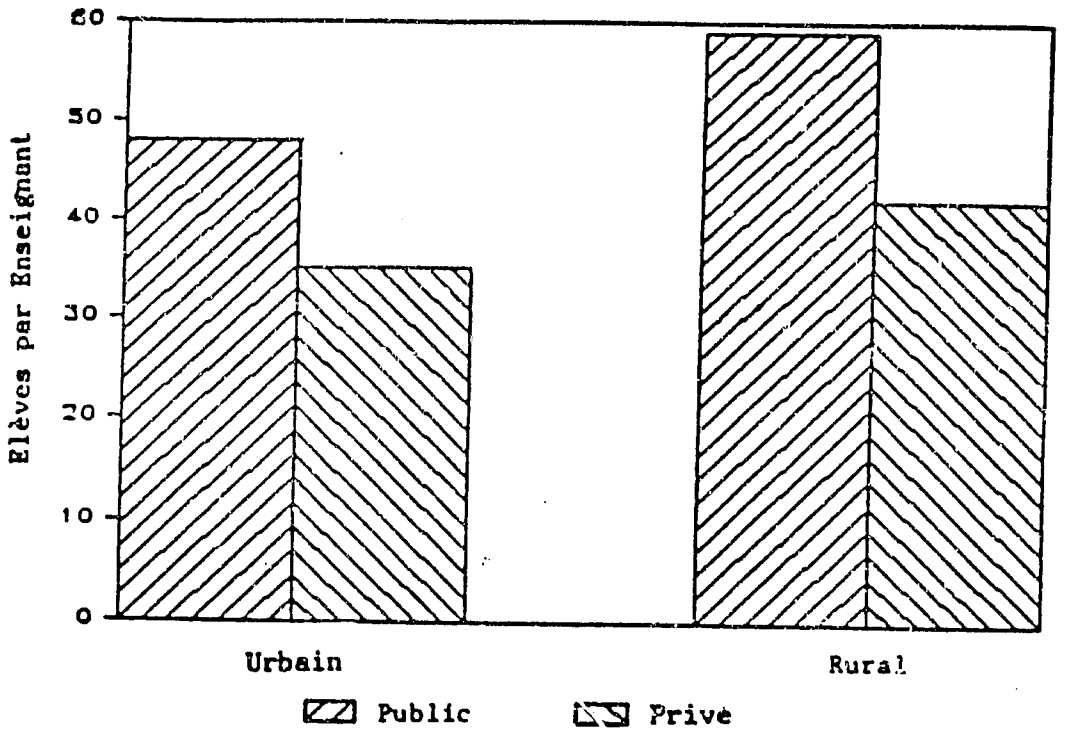


L'âge des élèves constitue une autre caractéristique de l'enseignement primaire qui mérite d'être examinée. En principe, l'âge de fréquentation de l'école primaire (exception faite de la classe enfantine) se situe entre 6 et 14 ans. En fait, il y a bon nombre d'enfants surâgés à tous les niveaux. A la primière année (cours préparatoire I), par exemple, 79% des élèves ont plus de six ans. La grande diversité des âges crée des problèmes pédagogiques pour les maîtres, et à tous les niveaux il y a un manque de matériel didactique adapté aux élèves plus âgés. Avec l'introduction de la Réforme et du passage automatique du premier niveau au deuxième et du troisième au quatrième, le nombre réel de places au premier cycle devra augmenter de manière considérable.

Le nombre d'élèves par enseignant était d'environ 43 pour 1 variant avec la région et le secteur (voir schéma 5.4). En général, la proportion est plus élevée dans les écoles rurales. Elle est également plus élevée dans les écoles publiques. Les écoles privées urbaines se placent au bas de l'échelle avec 35 pour 1, et les écoles publiques rurales en haut avec 59 pour 1. Le Département de l'Ouest a la portion la plus faible élève/enseignant (36 pour 1) et le Sud-Est la plus forte (59 pour 1). Ces proportions sont normales. La grande

Schéma 5.4

Ratios élèves/enseignant dans les écoles primaires, par region et par secteur, 1982/1983



majorité des enseignants préférant un poste urbain, les abandons de poste en milieu rural sont donc nettement plus fréquents. La capitale et ses environs sont le principal pôle d'attraction. Il s'ensuit que le taux d'encadrement y est le plus élevé.

La disponibilité d'enseignants qualifiés est essentielle pour la bonne marche de l'enseignement primaire et le succès de la Réforme. Au cours des 10 dernières années, le nombre des enseignants a augmenté de 65% (passant de 10.265 à 16.986). Les enseignants urbains ont vu leur nombre s'accroître de 56% et les ruraux de 75%. L'augmentation a été plus importante dans le secteur privé. Entre 1974 et 1984 le nombre d'enseignants dans les écoles publiques n'a augmenté que de 18,5%, par rapport à une augmentation de 106% pour les écoles privées. Parallèlement, les enseignants des écoles privées représentaient 54% du nombre total d'enseignants en 1974 ; pour atteindre 67% en 1983.

Le nombre des enseignants est presenté par niveau de formation, secteur, et région dans le Tableau 5.1. S'il est pris comme critère d'évaluation les qualifications officiellement requises, moins de 10% des enseignants des écoles primaires (1.285) pourraient être considérés comme qualifiés. Et, s'il est considéré comme critère 10 ans d'éducation de base, 30% d'entre eux peuvent être considérés comme remplissant les conditions requises.

Tableau 5.1

Enseignants des écoles primaires par secteur et niveau de qualification, 1982/1983

| | Public | | Privé | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Qualification** | **Urbain** | **Rural** | **Urbain** | **Rural** | **Total** |
| CEP | 21 | 10 | 420 | 784 | 1,235 |
| 6e | 29 | 6 | 260 | 754 | 1,049 |
| 5e | 55 | 17 | 521 | 695 | 1,288 |
| 4e | 203 | 172 | 958 | 778 | 2,111 |
| 3e | 448 | 636 | 1,013 | 622 | 2,719 |
| B.E. | 534 | 289 | 436 | 93 | 1,352 |
| 2e | 355 | 393 | 658 | 284 | 1,690 |
| *Rheto* | 381 | 381 | 1,127 | 264 | 2,153 |
| *Philo* | 41 | 28 | 213 | 35 | 317 |
| *Normalien* | 599 | 54 | 362 | 74 | 1,089 |
| Université | 2 | -- | 19 | 26 | 47 |
| CAP | 70 | 28 | 60 | 21 | 179 |
| Pas Déterminé) | 632 | 168 | 337 | 398 | 1,535 |
| Total | 3,448 | 2,195 | 6,508 | 4,835 | 16,986 |

**Source: Etabli d'Après l'Annuaire Statistique de Den, 1982-83 (Non-Publié)**

Le nombre de livres scolaires disponibles varie considérablement. Ceci est partiellement dû à la situation économique des parents, qui doivent payer les livres dans la majorité des cas, et partiellement au système de distribution nationale qui n'a pas toujours correctement fonctionné. Mais, même dans le meilleur des cas, il n'y a pas une quantité suffisante de manuels scolaires appropriés (voir annexe IIA). Le marché d'occasion des livres scolaires est très développé.

Pour un grand nombre d'enfants, les programmes d'alimentation scolaire représente un aspect très important de l'école primaire ; on estime que 60% des élèves participent à ces programmes. Le problème de la nourriture est critique, étant donné qu'environ trois-quarts des enfants haïtiens souffrent d'un certain degré de malnutrition. Les parents apprécient beaucoup une école qui participe à un programme d'alimentation scolaire. La majorité des écoles reçoivent la nourriture du programme d'alimentation subventionné par les Etats-Unis.

Comme il a été fait mention dans le deuxième chapitre, la part du PNB consacrée à l'éducation par le gouvernement est relativement faible, comparé à celle dépensée par d'autres pays en voie de développement. Les coûts de l'enseignement primaire sont répartis entre le gouvernement, les parents et un large éventail d'organisations extérieures. Des frais de scolarité sont souvent réclamés et, de façon générale, les parents acceptent de payer une large portion des coûts de l'enseignement. En plus des droits d'inscription, les parents paient en général les livres, les uniformes, le matériel, les cartables et parfois même pour l'entretien de l'école et la cantine scolaire.

Les coûts par élève varient considérablement dans le secteur privé, allant de 30 à 265 dollars par an. Ces frais ont tendance à être plus élevés dans les écoles urbaines : en moyenne 146 dollars contre 52 dollars dans les écoles rurales. La différence entre les écoles publiques et privées est généralement assez faible. Cependant il faut noter que le gouvernement, prenant en charge un peu plus de 40% des coûts pour les écoles publiques, ne verse rien pour les écoles privées, où sont inscrits 60% des élèves.

Les donateurs fournissent une aide importante au système éducatif haïtien. Les principaux donateurs pour l'enseignement primaire sont la Banque Mondiale, la Banque Interaméricaine de Développement (BID), le FISE, l'Organisation des Etats Américains (OEA), l'UNESCO et le Programme des Nations Unies pour le Développement (PNUD), le Fonds des Nations Unies pour les Activités en matière de Population (FNUAP), et toute une série d'organisations telles que les missions religieuses. La Banque mondiale a déjà réalisé deux projets importants, en exécute un troisième et négocie un quatrième avec le gouvernement.

## 5.2 CONTRAINTES

Les Ressources humaines. L'une des contraintes les plus sérieuses de l'enseignement primaire est la mauvaise condition physique des enfants. Un grand nombre de d'entre eux souffrent de malnutrition ou de sous-alimentation, facteurs associés à leur faible capacité de rétention. En d'autres termes, ceux à qui l'enseignement primaire devrait être offert en tout premier lieu sont ceux qui peuvent ne pas être en mesure d'en tirer le plein avantage. D'ailleurs il y a carence d'enseignants qualifiés et il n'y a pas assez de directeurs et d'inspecteurs pour guider et seconder ces derniers. Enfin, aux plus hauts niveaux, souvent les cadres supérieurs n'ont pas la compétence requise en matière de gestion et d'administration. Il y a encore le problème des fréquents changements et mutations de personnel correspondant à de fréquents investissements en formation pour les nouveaux employés. On estime en outre que 10% des enseignants abandonnent leur profession chaque année. En fait, les changements de personnel sont courantes à tous les niveaux du secteur public ayant souvent pour résultat d'imprimer une nouvelle orientation politique générale et d'entraîner un certain gaspillage des efforts fournis.

Les Ressources financières. Etant donné la politique fiscale conservatrice du gouvernement, sa dépendance aux fluctuations du marché mondial pour ses revenus d'exportation, et les faibles montants généralement investis en éducation, une augmentation substantielle des ressources publiques consacrées à l'enseignement primaire apparaît peu probable. Pourtant il faudra nécessairement trouver de substantielles ressources financières. Les parents paient déjà une part considérable des frais occasionnés par l'enseignement primaire. Une grande partie de l'enseignement public et privé est subventionnée par des donateurs.

Les Problèmes d'ordre administratif. Pour que le secteur public puisse travailler de manière efficace, la coordination et la coopération s'imposent entre enseignants, directeurs d'école, inspecteurs de district et régionaux et les représentants de l'IPN et de la Direction de l'Enseignement de base. La coordination et la coopération sont également nécessaires dans le secteur privé bien que cela soit rendu difficile par la grande diversité des écoles de ce secteur. Il existe des éléments rudimentaires de coordination dans le secteur privé dans la mesure où bon nombre d'écoles privées sont déjà regroupées dans de "sous-systèmes" qui fonctionnent de façon plus ou moins autonomes. Mais il y a carence de mécanismes propres à l'identification, la collection et l'interprétation des données d'évaluation et d'exécution de programme.

Les Obstacles socio-économiques, matériels et de l'environnement. Il est difficile d'assurer un enseignement primaire à la population haïtienne si

dispersée à travers le pays, l'état actuel des voies de communication, des moyens de transport public etc. Les enseignants ne veulent pas vivre dans les régions trop isolées, et beaucoup d'enfants vivent trop loin des écoles. L'environnement difficile (particulièrement le manque de terre arable) atteste du fait que de nombreux parents n'ont pas les moyens de payer les frais scolaires, voire de se passer de la contribution de leurs enfants au soutien économique familial.

## 5.3 PROBLEMES

Les problèmes se posent en termes d'efficacité externe ou interne, d'accessibilité et d'équité, d'administration et de gestion, de coûts et de financement.

Efficacité externe. Bien que le programme scolaire ait été repris et corrigé afin de mieux tenir compte des objectifs fixés par le Département de l'éducation nationale au niveau de l'enseignement primaire, il n'est toujours pas entièrement adapté à la réalité haïtienne. Il y a lieu de s'interroger non seulement sur la valeur pédagogique de la Réforme mais également sur sa "pertinence" - à savoir, dans quelle mesure les nouvelles méthodes et matières répondent aux nécessités de la réalité haïtienne ou préparent à un autre style de vie. Par exemple, les élèves qui ont achevé leurs études primaires peuvent entrer et réussir en secondaire. Mais, ceux-ci sont peu nombreux (voir chapitre 6) ; on peut se demander si le programme de la Réforme donne des connaissances utiles au très grand nombre d'élèves qui ne vont pas au-delà du primaire. De toute façon, la plupart des écoles suivent, encore à l'heure actuelle, le programme traditionnel. Tant qu'il sera considéré comme nécessaire pour réussir, la majorité des écoles privées continueront probablement à le suivre, ce qui limitera les opportunités d'évaluer l'adéquation de la Réforme.

Le différend existant entre les partisans du programme traditionnel et de la Réforme se manifeste très nettement sur la question de la langue d'enseignement. Même ceux qui reconnaissent qu'il est bon pour un enfant d'apprendre à lire et à écrire dans sa langue maternelle peuvent se demander s'il est sage d'utiliser le créole comme langue d'enseignement. Une bonne maîtrise du français est nécessaire pour entrer à l'école secondaire, et elle est une condition sine qua non d'accès aux postes de responsabilité et aux emplois bien payés en Haïti. La Réforme fera la preuve de son efficacité externe, en partie, dans la mesure où elle se montrera capable de produire des diplômés ayant une maîtrise suffisante du français. Il existe cependant deux incertitudes : à quel niveau le français sera-t-il introduit comme langue

d'enseignement dans les écoles de la Réforme ? et comment ? Il faudra trouver une réponse à ces questions ou bien la Réforme perdra du terrain. Souvent l'accent a été mis sur un enseignement entièrement en français ou totalement en créole ; mais également pourrait être considérée la possibilité d'une éducation bilingue.

Un autre problème se pose à propos de ceux, très nombreux, qui veulent travailler une fois qu'ils sont diplômés de l'école primaire. Ils refusent le plus souvent de vivre dans les régions rurales. Ils préfèrent aller à la ville à la recherche d'emplois non-agricoles. Mais il n'y a pas assez d'emplois en ces lieux. Le taux élevé de chômage et de pénurie d'emplois pour les jeunes diplômés est tel qu'il suggérerait que l'école n'a pas armé ces jeunes pour le travail.

Efficacité interne. De nombreux facteurs sont à considérer pour établir dans quelle mesure le système éducatif fait un bon usage de ressources : le flux des étudiants dans les écoles, l'importance des classes, l'âge des élèves, la disponibilité du matériel d'enseignement, la langue d'enseignement, les examens, le programme d'études et le flux des étudiants entre les écoles.

La progression scolaire. A l'intérieure des écoles la progression normale est perturbée par le taux élevé d'abandons et de redoublements. Il faut une moyenne de 12.5 années par élève pour produire un diplômé, et plus de 60% de ceux qui entrent à l'école primaire ne terminent pas les premières quatre années. Nombreux sont les élèves qui sont trop âgés par suite de redoublement, d'entrée tardive, ou de reprise après abandon. Les enseignants n'ont pas la formation nécessaire pour enseigner à des élèves d'âges divers ; le matériel d'enseignement n'est pas adapté aux élèves plus âgés. Les taux de passage très bas ont pour effet de réduire le nombre de places disponibles dans les écoles et de gaspiller les ressources financières.

L'Efficacité des enseignants - c'est-à-dire, leur capacité à promouvoir et à faciliter l'apprentissage - est généralement faible. La qualité de l'enseignement est inégale, les écoles privées offrant à la fois le meilleur et le pire en la matière ; ce sont les élèves des écoles privées en milieu rural qui reçoivent l'éducation la plus médiocre. Dispenser une formation à tous les enseignants qui en ont besoin, ou encore, recruter suffisamment d'enseignants nouvellement formés ne sont pas de solutions réalistes à court-terme. Un système de recyclage rapide des enseignants pour améliorer la qualité de l'enseignement dispensé aux étudiants serait une approche plus pratique.

La Langue d'enseignement est étroitement liée à la qualité de l'enseignement. En principe, dans le programme traditionnel, l'enseignement

est donné uniquement en français, mais en réalité une grande partie de celui-ci se fait en créole avec des devoirs écrits en français. Le problème pédagogique à ce niveau n'est pas de savoir de quelle langue les enfants ont besoin pour réussir dans la vie, mais quelle approche linguistique permettrait aux enfants d'apprendre le maximum à l'école primaire.

Le Manque de matériel d'enseignement constitue un sérieux problème. Peu d'élèves sont en mesure d'acheter tous les manuels scolaires nécessaires et certains ne peuvent même pas acheter les fournitures essentielles. Il y a carence du plus simple instrument d'enseignement dans les classes.

Accessibilité et équité. L'accessibilité à l'enseignement primaire pose un sérieux problème. Moins de la moitié des enfants d'âge scolaire vont à l'école. Même si l'objectif de 84% d'inscriptions est atteint à la fin du Plan Biennal (1984-86), beaucoup de ceux qui appartiennent au groupe du primaire ne seront pas scolarisés. Améliorer l'accessibilité coûtera très cher. De nombreuses familles des régions isolées ne peuvent mettre leurs enfants en mesure de couvrir les longues distances qui les séparent de l'école. Dans les régions isolées, on ne trouve guère que des écoles religieuses financées par l'aide extérieure. Dans les régions urbaines, le nombre de places pourrait être augmenté au moyen de classes alternées, mais ceci nécessiterait des fonds importants pour couvrir les salaires des enseignants.

La participation des filles ne pose pas un problème d'équité. Les inégalités surgissent quand on compare les régions urbaines aux rurales ou les écoles publiques aux privées. Les régions urbaines sont mieux pourvues en écoles tant publiques que privées. Bien entendu, la classe sociale est déterminante quant à la question de choix ; ceux qui ont les moyens de le faire fréquentent les écoles privées de haut niveau des régions urbaines. Mais, la plupart des élèves doivent se contenter d'une petite école publique ou privée des régions rurales n'offrant que deux ou trois années d'études avec peu d'enseignants qualifiés, et les autres désavantages que la situation comporte.

Administration et contrôle. La qualité de l'inspection scolaire, qui est un élément très important, varie considérablement entre les écoles. Dans le secteur public, l'inspectorat vient d'être réorganisé. La plupart des réseaux d'écoles privées ont leur propre inspectorat qu'il soit insignifiant ou peu qualifié. Bien des écoles privées indépendantes fonctionnent sans service d'inspection. La fourniture d'une assistance judicieuse à ce secteur améliorerait grandement la qualité de l'enseignement.

Il y a pénurie de cadres moyens compétents qui affecte aussi bien les secteurs public que privé. Dans le quatrième prêt de la Banque mondiale ce genre de fonctions est prévu pour le secteur public, mais le personnel du

secteur privé quant à lui a peu d'occasions d'acquérir les connaissances nécessaires en administration et en gestion. Cette situation crée un appel d'interventions qui pourraient améliorer le fonctionnement des écoles privées, notamment par des programmes de formation destinés aux directeurs d'école.

Le gouvernement a dans ses projets l'établissement d'un meilleur contrôle du secteur privé aux fins d'une certaine homogénéité dans la qualité de l'enseignement. Mais les perspectives financières ne semblent pas favorables quant à cet objectif. Toute action qui améliorerait la qualité de l'enseignement dans le secteur privé relèverait le niveau du système primaire dans son ensemble.

Coûts et financement. Comparé aux autres pays en voie de développement, le gouvernement haïtien alloue relativement une somme très faible à l'éducation, la plus grande partie de cette aide allant, comme il se doit, à l'enseignement primaire. Le fait que le gouvernement n'assume pas la totalité des coûts de l'enseignement primaire le rend inapte à en contrôler l'évolution ou les déviations. Ceci s'observe surtout à l'occasion de l'application de la Réforme. En effet le gouvernement souhaiterait que toutes les écoles adoptent le programme de cette réforme mais n'est pas en mesure de le leur imposer.

Elargir le système éducatif afin que l'enseignement primaire devienne accessible à tous serait extrêmement coûteux. Il faut à la fois des fonds pour l'investissement initial et les dépenses de fonctionnement. Cependant, serait-il raisonnable d'investir dans la construction de nouvelles écoles avant que le gouvernement situe le troisième cycle de la Réforme.

A côté des coûts d'élargissement, il faut également tenir compte des frais d'amélioration du système d'enseignement. C'est à juste titre que l'accent est mis sur la nécessité de la formation des cadres de l'enseignement et de l'inspectorat. L'introduction du statut des enseignants est une démarche extrêmement importante vers une amélioration du statut de la fonction. Mais il reste encore que sont requis des investissements en temps, en argent et en personnel pour un certain nombre d'années. Quant à la portée d'un investissement en matériel d'enseignement, son importance ne saurait être minimisée. L'intention du gouvernement de développer la radio éducative sur le plan national mérite d'être soutenue.

Une grande partie des frais de l'enseignement primaire (voir Chapitre 2) est prise en charge par les familles, particulièrement dans le cas des écoles privées. Des donateurs petits ou grands en assument également une grande partie. Une situation en résulte que la question de l'application de la Réforme et du nouveau Statut des enseignants a rendu évidente. Cette si grande responsabilité est laissée à tant de groupes différents que le gouvernement a

beaucoup de difficultés à mettre en place un système uniforme d'éducation. Des données supplémentaires sur les opérations financières des écoles du secteur privé pourraient servir de base à l'établissement des moyens nouveaux peu coûteux pour améliorer la qualité de l'enseignement et en faciliter l'accès. On pourrait par exemple mettre sur pied un système d'incitation à la participation de ces écoles au programme de la Réforme.

Les taux de rendement des investissements dans l'enseignement primaire en Haïti sont relativement bas par rapport aux autres pays en voie de développement (voir Chapitre 2). La moyenne des taux de rendement privés de l'enseignement primaire en Haïti est de 25% comparée à une moyenne de 29% dans des pays semblables, mais le taux social moyen total est de 12% seulement comparé à une moyenne de 27% ailleurs. Ces taux relativement bas sont dûs en partie à la faible efficacité interne de l'enseignement primaire et en partie à la structure du marché de l'emploi en Haïti. Toutefois, ceci ne constitue pas une raison suffisante pour ne pas y investir.

## 5.4 CONCLUSIONS

### Conclusion 1 - Demande.

La demande d'éducation primaire est élevée ; cependant les possibilités d'accès à l'éducation primaire ont besoin d'être augmentées.

Les familles accordent une haute valeur à l'éducation et y consacre une partie importante de leurs revenus. En dépit de l'augmentation sensible du nombre de places dans les écoles au cours des dix dernières années, les places restent insuffisantes pour un grand nombre d'enfants, pour la plupart pauvres et de régions rurales.

### Conclusion 2 - L'Efficacité.

Le système de l'enseignement primaire est inadéquat.

Les taux de redoublements, d'abandons, de même que les taux de déperdition chez les enseignants sont des indicateurs d'inefficiences du système. Il est à noter un important gaspillage de ressources.

### Conclusion 3 - La Qualité.

La qualité de l'enseignement primaire a besoin d'être améliorée.

La qualité de l'enseignement pourrait être améliorée de façon significative, ce, en vue d'une meilleure performance des élèves. Il existe de nombreuses méthodes de relever le niveau de l'enseignement et d'inciter à de nouvelles approches de la fonction d'enseignante.

Conclusion 4 - La Réforme.

La Réforme de l'Education traverse actuellement une période critique.

Bien que la Réforme ait été introduite il y a plusieurs années, le grand public n'a pas encore bien compris ses idées-forces et son potentiel d'impact. Si la mise en application de la Réforme doit se poursuivre, elle doit bénéficier d'une acception plus générale de la part de la population. Ceci requiert une compagne nationale de sensibilisation centrée sur les buts et objectifs, ainsi que sur les succès déjà enregistrés de la Réforme. Le gouvernement doit convaincre particulièrement le secteur privé du bien fondé de la Réforme.

Conclusion 5 - La Langue.

Le problème de la langue d'enseignement est extrêmement important et complexe, et il nécessite une étude plus approfondie.

Historiquement, la performance linguistique a toujours été une cause de discrimination entre les haïtiens. Tout programme national perçu comme décourageant l'acquisition du français est vu comme une restriction des opportunités de promotion pour le pauvre. De plus, cet aspect linguistique de la Réforme est celui qui est le plus facile à généraliser dans un premier temps. Par contre, d'autres aspects tels des méthodes d'apprentissage par la découverte et l'étude du milieu le seront moins faciles à généraliser parce que moins concrets et d'intégration moins aisée. La question de la langue ne doit ni occulter ni minimiser les autres éléments de la Réforme qui peuvent contribuer à l'amélioration fondamentale de l'enseignement primaire.

Conclusion 6 - La Gestion.

Une révision générale des structures de la gestion et de l'administration du secteur primaire du système éducatif haïtien doit être conduite.

Des faiblesses au niveau de la gestion ou de l'administration sont facteurs d'inefficacité. Elles peuvent provenir d'un manque de données ou de capacité, devant permettre de procéder aux analyses nécessaires à la planification. Ces analyses et planifications sont, parmi d'autres, des éléments essentiels à la bonne gestion de tout système éducatif. A cela doit s'ajouter un leadership dynamique, créatif et respecté capable de représenter une force morale, de prodiguer des encouragements et de fournir une supervision de qualité à tous les niveaux. L'administration scolaire est un domaine où les investissements peuvent donner des résultats inestimables.

Conclusion 7 - Le Secteur Privé.

Il doit être tenu compte du facteur que constitue le secteur privé.

Il est indispensable d'effectuer une évaluation systématique du secteur privé, évaluation qui, par conséquent, ne se limitera pas aux inscriptions

scolaires dans le secteur. Il a un immense potentiel de développement et d'amélioration, et il peut jouer un rôle déterminant dans l'adoption ou le reject éventuel de la Réforme. Mais à côté de son potentiel, il présente des challenges ardus en raison de sa complexité et de sa variété.

Conclusion 8 - Nutrition.

Le programme d'alimentation scolaire mérite d'être maintenu et étendu, au bénéfice de l'éducation et de la santé.

En fait, la cantine scolaire n'est pas un simple déjeuner gratuit. Elle renforce les facultés d'apprentissage de nombreux enfants et contribue donc à l'amélioraiton de la santé et du bien-être de la population.

## 5.5 RECOMMANDATIONS

Sept recommandations découlent des conclusions exposées ci-dessus. Elles sont énumérées par ordre de priorité en trois sous-sections correspondant respectivement au secteur public, au secteur privé, et aux objectifs de l'ensemble du système.

### 5.5.1 Le Secteur Public

Recommandation 1 - Reforme. Intensifier le rythme de mise en oeuvre de la Réforme de l'Education dans le secteur public.

La Réforme touche aux problèmes d'accessibilité d'efficacité interne et externe et de gestion. Elle vise à renforcer le système de l'enseignement public par une approche couvrant des questions telles que la formation, le recyclage des enseignants, l'élaboration de matériel et la réorganisation de l'inspectorat. Le gouvernement doit faire montre d'une plus grande détermination quant à l'application de la Réforme dans le secteur public, s'il veut démontrer l'importance qu'il attache à celle-ci. Pour que la Réforme réussisse, il faudra entreprendre une planification sérieuse du troisième cycle, aux fins de son financement à long et à court terme. Une campagne d'information devrait être au prime abord déclenchée en vue d'une meilleure compréhension des parents et des éducateurs. Ceci pourrait être réalisé au moyen d'annonces radio-diffusées.

### 5.5.2 Le Secteur Privé

Recommandation 1 - Qualité. Améliorer la qualité de l'enseignement afin de promouvoir l'adoption de la Réforme dans le secteur privé.

Nombreuses sont les opportunités qui s'offrent pour améliorer la qualité de l'enseignement dans le secteur privé par la conception et la fourniture d'assistance - par exemple, en distribuent à l'intention des maîtres du privé des gadgets instructifs peu coûteux ou des guides pour enseignants ou en



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préparant des programmes radiophoniques. Pourrait être également organisés des cours de formation de courte durée portant sur des sujets variés allant de l'élaboration de matériel au fonctionnement de la salle de classe. On pourrait expérimenter de nouvelles stratégies d'intervention telles des unités mobiles de formation d'enseignants semblables à celles proposées par les écoles de l'Eglise Méthodiste, ou des stages de gestion administrative et financière pour les directeurs d'écoles. Il sera important d'établir un mécanisme d'échange d'information et de ressources à l'intérieur du secteur privé. Les écoles prises en charge par les missions offrent un bon exemple de ce genre d'organisation. La possibilité d'établir d'autres associations d'écoles privées devrait être explorée. Une association des directeurs d'écoles serait déjà un bon départ.

Toute assistance technique au secteur privé devrait être coordonnée à l'intérieur d'une stratégie globale qui tienne compte de la diversité des écoles et de la nécessité de respecter le principe de la participation volontaire. Dans cette stratégie, il pourrait être utile d'envisager un grand éventail d'encouragements et de stimulants y compris des incitations non-monétaires, et des actions qui pourraient ne pas être directement liées à l'amélioration de l'enseignement telles la création de coopératives de consommation pour les enseignants ou un système de retraite dans le secteur privé.

Recommandation 2 - Information. Effectuer un étude d'information sur le secteur privé.

Pour fournir aide et assistance au secteur privé il faut une meilleure base d'information. Le gouvernement et les donateurs doivent connaître la structure et les fonctions des différentes branches de l'enseignement privé afin de pouvoir offrir une assistance adéquate. Cette première démarche est un pas important vers l'établissement d'un premier système national tel que défini par la suite.

Recommandation 3 - Financement. Rechercher des méthodes pour fournir aux écoles privées les ressources financières nécessaires à l'amélioration de la qualité de l'enseignement.

Les organisations privées bénévoles opérant dans les régions rurales, y compris celles qui n'interviennent pas dans le domaine de l'éducation, pourraient participer à un programme destiné à améliorer la qualité de l'enseignement. Elles pourraient, par exemple, fournir une assistance technique ou des prêts aux écoles pour leur permettre de rénover leurs bâtiments. Il

pourrait être également envisagé de créer des coopératives qui prendraient en charge une partie des frais scolaires des enfants.

### 5.5.3 L'Ensemble du Système

Recommandation 1 - Information. Améliorer les méthodes de collecte de données.

Le personnel du Département de l'Education reconnaît que la plupart des statistiques dont il dispose ne sont ni exactes, ni à jour. Une grande partie des données est inscrite à la main, de sorte qu'elles ne sont pas rapidement disponibles pour analyse et interprétation.

Recommandation 2. Réexaminer le problème de la langue d'enseignement pour savoir à quel niveau et comment le français sera introduit dans le programme des écoles primaires.

Il faudrait établir un programme sérieux d'enseignement de la langue. Il sera très important d'engager des spécialistes pour l'enseignement de la première et de la deuxième langue, et aussi pour l'élaboration du matériel approprié à l'enseignement de ces langues.

Recommandation 3 - Gestion. Améliorer les capacités de gestion et de planification des responsables des institutions scolaires publiques et privées.

Cet objectif peut être atteint au moyen d'un programme de formation conçu pour répondre aux besoins particuliers des personnes visées. Il s'agirait d'une formation pratique visant à l'acquisition de connaissances spécifiques, plutôt qu'une formation théorique générale en gestion.

## CHAPTER PREFACE

Chapter 5, "Primary Education," was reviewed in Haiti on April 16, 1986 by the following persons:

| | |
|---|---|
| Mr. Rodrigue Jean | Director, Office of Primary Education, Ministry of Education (MOE) |
| Mr. Lionel Hogu | Office of Primary Education, MOE |
| Mrs. Marie-Marthe B. Siven | Office of Primary Education, MOE |

Mr. Rosny Desroches, Minister of Education and Mr. Delille Antoine, Director of Studies of College Canado-haïtien, also gave their views on the chapter in separate interviews conducted during the same week. Mrs. Mary Pigozzi, IEES/Institute for International Research, participated in each of the discussions as facilitator.

Corrections of factual detail and statistical presentation were made at the outset of each of the sessions. These have been incoroporated into the final version of the chapter. Reviewers expressed general satisfaction with the document, but felt that disproportionate emphasis had been given to the private sector in some instances. They also noted that the abstract that had served as a basis for the French translation was too superficial a summary of the English text.

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# 5.0 PRIMARY EDUCATION*

This chapter deals with primary education in Haiti and the prospects it holds for helping to solve the many challenges Haiti faces as it seeks to develop as a nation. The chapter describes both the traditional primary system of instruction and the new Education Reform which is now being developed and implemented. It then discusses the country's basic educational needs and the constraints which make it difficult to meet these needs.

From these analyses of the primary education system, recommendations are developed that bear on both the public and the private sectors of the system. In the public sector, it is recommended that implementation of the Education Reform be intensified. In the private sector, educators are urged to adopt the Reform, to develop an information base about private schools, and to explore ways of improving educational quality. Systemwide, it is recommended that the information base for decisionmaking be improved, that the language teaching issue be readdressed, and that management and planning capabilities be broadened through training.

## 5.1 STATUS

As Haiti attempts to improve its economic conditions and strengthen its human resources, many areas need to be addressed. Haiti is one of the poorest countries in the world, and certainly the poorest in the Western Hemisphere; the per capita annual income in 1984 was less than $400, and 77% of Haitians live below the poverty level of $150 per year. The population growth rate is 2%, and in 1983, 110 infants per 1,000 died during their first year of life. The major causes of death are diseases that can be prevented: influenza, pneumonia, enteric disease, and tetanus.

The potential contributions that education could make toward solving such problems are linked to basic educational levels and conditions. In 1971, the literacy rate was 21%. Although Government estimates it at 35% in 1984, 23% is probably a more realistic figure. In 1982/83, 723,041 students were enrolled in primary schools. According to the World Bank, this represents a gross enrollment rate of 71.8% (total primary enrollment divided by total population 6-12 years old) and a net enrollment of 47% (percentage of the 6-12 age group that is enrolled in school). Thus, less than 50% of the children who should be in primary school are actually attending.

### 5.1.1 Historical Setting

The status of education today is best understood in the light of its

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* This chapter was drafted by Mary Joy Pigozzi, Institute for International Research, Inc.



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history. Education in Haiti had a slow start. While Haiti was a French colony, there were few schools and, by independence in 1804, few Haitians had a formal primary education. In 1816, the principle of free primary education was laid down by Pétion, but throughout the 1800s few enrolled in the small number of operating schools. The political upheavals of the early twentieth century took their toll on the educational system, and schools had almost no impact, on rural life in particular.

The American occupation of Haiti (which began in 1915 and ended in 1934) influenced Haitian education significantly. In 1924, the Service Technique du Département de l'Agriculture was formed to provide rural dwellers with agricultural education. Thus, there were two separate public primary school systems--one that provided agricultural education administered by the Department of Agriculture and one administered by the Department of Public Education that continued to offer traditional education in both urban and rural areas. The agriculturally oriented schools received the larger share of financial appropriations. In 1931, all rural schools were unified under the Department of Agriculture, but the quality of education remained poor. By the mid-1930s, the important role of private religious schools (both Catholic and Protestant) was evident.

After the 1946 revolution, the school system was reorganized and rural and urban education became the responsibility of the Department of National Education. This was not to last, however. After François Duvalier came into office in the early 1960s, he again transferred rural education to the Ministry of Agriculture. There it remained until rural and urban education were again unified under the Ministry of Education in 1978.

Operating in this kind of a historical setting, education in Haiti has often been stagnant. For example, the percentage of school-age rural children enrolled in school was virtually the same in 1970 as it was in 1950 (between 10% and 12%). In the 1970s, however, efforts to increase public school enrollments were successful and the private sector schools began to multiply rapidly.

In the late 1970s, serious consideration was given to reform in the education sector. In 1979, the Organic Law provided for reorganization of the Ministry of Education (Département d'Education Nationale - DEN). A new education system, consisting of 10 years of basic education and known as the Education Reform (or the Reform), was introduced experimentally in 1979 and adopted for nationwide replication in 1982. The Reform is a significant departure from the traditional Haitian school curriculum. It includes new subjects, new syllabi, new teaching methods, initial instruction in Creole, automatic promotion in certain grades, and greater attention to supervision and

inspection. The 10 years of Basic Education, called Education Fondamentale (EF), is broken into three cycles--4+3+3 years.

There is evidence that the Haitian demand for education, which already is unusually high for developing countries, is on the increase. In the last 10 years, both the net and the gross enrollment rates have increased by approximately 10%. The 723,041 students enrolled in 3,241 primary schools in 1982/83 were in contrast to 332,725 students in 2,191 primary schools in 1971/72. The substantial growth in primary schools, enrollments, and numbers of teachers from 1957 to 1982 is shown in Table 5.1. Since 1957/58, the number of enrollments has increased by 239%. And, since 1959, the number of schools has increased by 113% and the number of teachers has increased by 217%. The rate of growth in student enrollments over the last decade is shown in Table 5.2. As can be seen, the increases in the private sector (241%) and in urban areas (259% in the private sector and 129% in the public sector) are particularly marked.

The high demand for primary education was confirmed during this sector assessment, when visits to schools yielded additional evidence on the strong competition for places in primary school throughout the country. It is also important to note that approximately 60% of the students in 1982/83 were enrolled in various of types of private primary schools.

The introduction of the Education Reform has put primary education into a state of transition, which has made it difficult to analyze and present data for this chapter. Most of the historical data have been collected and recorded within the context of the traditional system. Thus, much of the analysis, attention to trends, and information on costs and returns relating to primary education is based on the traditional system. In looking to the future (when addressing plans, needs, and issues, for example), the chapter attempts to focus on the Reform and its relationship to the primary system.

### 5.1.2 National Goals and Strategies

The following statements about goals, objectives, and strategies for primary education are taken from the Plan Biennal D'Education 1984-1986 and La Réforme Educative: Eléments d'Information, both published by the Ministry of Education, the former in 1984 and the latter in 1982.

Goals. The following goals are taken from La Réforme Educative:

> The principal goal of Education Fondamentale is to help individuals take charge of their own destiny. This involves acquiring a measure of self-confidence, becoming acquainted with the diverse modes of human thought and expression, and gaining an understanding of the social and economic environment in which one lives.
>
> This process can occur in part through every social contact and exposure to mass media, but it is in school that children learn how to



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TABLE 5.1

Primary Enrollments, 1957/58 to 1982/83

| Year | Schools | Pupils | Teachers |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1957/58 | | 213,000 | |
| 1958/59 | | 233,834 | |
| 1959/60 | 1,522 | 238,304 | 5,265 |
| 1960/61 | 1,793 | 231,849 | 5,533 |
| 1961/62 | 1,616 | 260,692 | 5,793 |
| 1962/63 | 1,628 | 271,779 | 5,903 |
| 1963/64 | 1,683 | 264,383 | 6,260 |
| 1964/65 | 1,947 | 274,136 | 6,198 |
| 1965/66 | 1,949 | 282,847 | 6,210 |
| 1966/67 | 1,955 | 283,851 | 6,460 |
| 1967/68 | 1,968 | 292,822 | 6,741 |
| 1968/69 | 1,977 | 314,073 | 7,821 |
| 1969/70 | 1,981 | 315,704 | 7,770 |
| 1970/71 | 2,191 | 332,725 | 7,833 |
| 1971/72 | 2,142 | 361,237 | 7,893 |
| 1972/73 | 2,216 | 387,713 | 8,074 |
| 1973/74 | 2,418 | 431,607 | 10,265 |
| 1974/75 | 2,730 | 451,140(a) | 11,320 |
| 1975/76 | 2,788 | 487,135 | 11,816 |
| 1976/77 | 2,798 | 510,720 | 12,953 |
| 1977/78 | 2,841 | 517,723 | 12,554 |
| 1978/79 | 2,966 | 528,611 | 12,751 |
| 1979/80 | 2,996 | 580,127 | 13,401 |
| 1980/81 | 3,271 | 642,391 | 14,581 |
| 1981/82 | 3,221 | 658,102 | 15,113 |
| 1982/83 | 3,241 | 723,041 | 16,986 |

(a) This figure is estimated using the rate of change between 1974 and 1983.

Source: DEN, Annuaire Statistique, 1981/82 (1983).



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TABLE 5.2

Indices of Growth of Primary School Enrollments

by Sector and Location, 1974-83

(percent)

| Year | Public | | | Private | | | TOTAL |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Urban | Rural | Total | Urban | Rural | Total | |
| 1974 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| 1975 | 105 | 99 | 102 | 108 | 108 | 108 | 105 |
| 1976 | 119 | 102 | 111 | 120 | 111 | 116 | 113 |
| 1977 | 105 | 109 | 107 | 152 | 118 | 135 | 118 |
| 1978 | 100 | 111 | 106 | 162 | 120 | 141 | 120 |
| 1979 | 96 | 116 | 106 | 168 | 125 | 146 | 122 |
| 1980 | 103 | 117 | 110 | 166 | 173 | 160 | 134 |
| 1981 | 103 | 116 | 110 | 187 | 221 | 204 | 149 |
| 1982 | 106 | 117 | 112 | 196 | 224 | 210 | 152 |
| 1983 | 129 | 103 | 116 | 259 | 223 | 241 | 168 |

Source: DEN, Annuaire Statistique, 1982/83 (unpublished).

read, write, count, and think scientifically. Moreover, schooling can also contribute to an understanding of values and an appreciation of aesthetics, and it can instill a sense of objectivity, an awareness of universal laws, and knowledge about social norms.

Thus, Education Fondamentale consists of the development of a cluster of behaviors, attitudes, knowledge, values, and experiences which should enable a person to:

- Become a productive citizen, who, by being employed, actively participates in social and economic life;
- Undertake secondary or vocational studies; and
- Pursue a lifelong education and develop creativity and a critical mind, so as to continue to contribute to personal progress as well as to that of the family and the nation.

Objectives. Two major objectives for primary education are derived from the above goals. These are:

- To provide universal access to primary education in order to ensure universal literacy in the country by the year 2000. It is estimated by Government that this will require a gross enrollment rate (total primary school enrollment/total population 6-12) of approximately 83% by the end of 1986.
- To implement the Reform--that is, to put the 10-year primary cycle Education Fondamentale into place so that it will be completed in 1991/92. This Reform is founded on several instructional innovations which include:
  - The reorganization of teaching programs,
  - The use of new methods,
  - The introduction of automatic promotion at two levels (between the first and the second years and between the third and the fourth years), and
  - The strengthening of the inspectorate.

These general objectives have been made more specific with regard to the four years of the first cycle of primary education. As given in La Réforme Educative, specific objectives at this level are to stimulate and develop in Haitian children:

- The mental mechanisms involved in learning to read, write, count, and the ability to express themselves so they can participate in development and political life at regional and national levels;
- Perceptual and motor skills, which are important as a part of the human growth process and as means of expression;



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- The acquisition of knowledge about, and an understanding of, the environment, along with skills which will enable them to act upon it;
- A sense of cultural identity and a sense of belonging to the broader human family;
- The practice of moral, social, and religious norms and a sense of civic responsibility;
- The capacity and desire for continuous self-development and expression, based on feelings of self-esteem and awareness of their own capacities; and
- The mental structures and appropriate curricula to enable them to fruitfully pursue school studies.

Strategy. The Education Reform is a major change in Haiti's education system, and it requires substantial investments to meet the demands for increased enrollments, new materials, retrained teachers, and an improved inspectorate. Government is relying heavily on financial and technical support from a World Bank loan and on technical support from Unesco for implementation of the Reform.

The basic approach is to expand existing school enrollments while retraining teachers, increasing classroom space, and developing appropriate materials and administrative structures. The strategy assumes that the private sector will continue to provide the majority of primary educational services in the foreseeable future. In the longer term, Government will attempt to implement a coordinated approach to needs such as teacher supply, improved teacher qualifications, increased facilities, improved instruction, better inspection, and more comprehensive monitoring of education in the private sector.

### 5.1.3 Structures

The primary education system is complex because it exists in two spheres, the public and the private, and because schools follow either the Reform or the traditional curriculum. Moreover, the traditional curriculum itself has variations. This part of the sector assessment will describe the Reform system in some detail, as it is to become the standard primary system throughout the country. The role and the structure of primary education in the private sector will also be described.

The Reform Primary System. Implementation of the Reform was begun in accordance with the 1979 Organic Law which reorganized the Ministry of Education. A new education system was established, consisting of 10 years of primary education followed by three years of secondary education. The 10 years of basic education are divided into three cycles (4+3+3). The proposed system is designed so that children who complete the first four-year cycle will have



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finished an educational package; it is hoped that completers will have achieved permanent literacy.

The new educational system is illustrated in Figure 5.1, showing student age, level, and progression through the system. As will be discussed later, the examination system for selecting those students who move on to the next cycle has not been fully developed. Students in the third cycle (years 8, 9, and 10) of EF may be in either a classical or a technical/professional stream. Starting with the second cycle, parallel to the formal system of education, a nonformal vocational-type system is proposed.

The remainder of this discussion focuses mainly on the first cycle of primary education, as it is the only one implemented to date. The educational system proposed under the Reform is also described.

Primary school has three terms (trimesters) per year, beginning in October. Pupils are supposed to begin school in the first October following their sixth birthday. Promotion is automatic from years one to two and from three to four. As discussed later in this chapter, this change alone should significantly improve the efficiency of primary education. Repetition is possible in all other years though Government policy dictates that not more than 20% of a class should repeat. In the first cycle, a teacher stays with a cohort for two years; thus, the four-year primary cycle has two levels. Ideally, children are grouped in classrooms according to levels of ability and evaluated by intermediate trimestral objectives. Teachers conduct evaluations to determine whether students should be promoted to the next level. Creole is the language of instruction in the first cycle, with French taught as a second language. By the second cycle, the language of instruction should be French.

A system of vocational/technical education (called nonformal education) is planned to start with the third cycle of primary education, parallel to the continuing academic track trial leads toward secondary and higher education. (See Chapter 10 for a discussion of this aspect of the Reform.)

Overall managerial responsibility for primary education is vested in the Ministry of Education, whose new organization (effective December 1984) is shown in Figure 5.2. Public school enrollments accounted for 41% of total primary enrollments in 1982/83. The Ministry is also technically responsible for overseeing the conduct of primary education in private schools which account for the other 59% of enrollments.

Although the Ministry of Education in Port-au-Prince is responsible for overall management, decentralization of some of the responsibilities is being sought as part of an overall administrative reform. Four regions (Sud, Ouest, Transversale, and Nord) are to have some planning, administrative, and technical responsibilities. At the next level, the country is divided administratively

FIGURE 5.1

Structure of the

Traditional and Reform School Systems

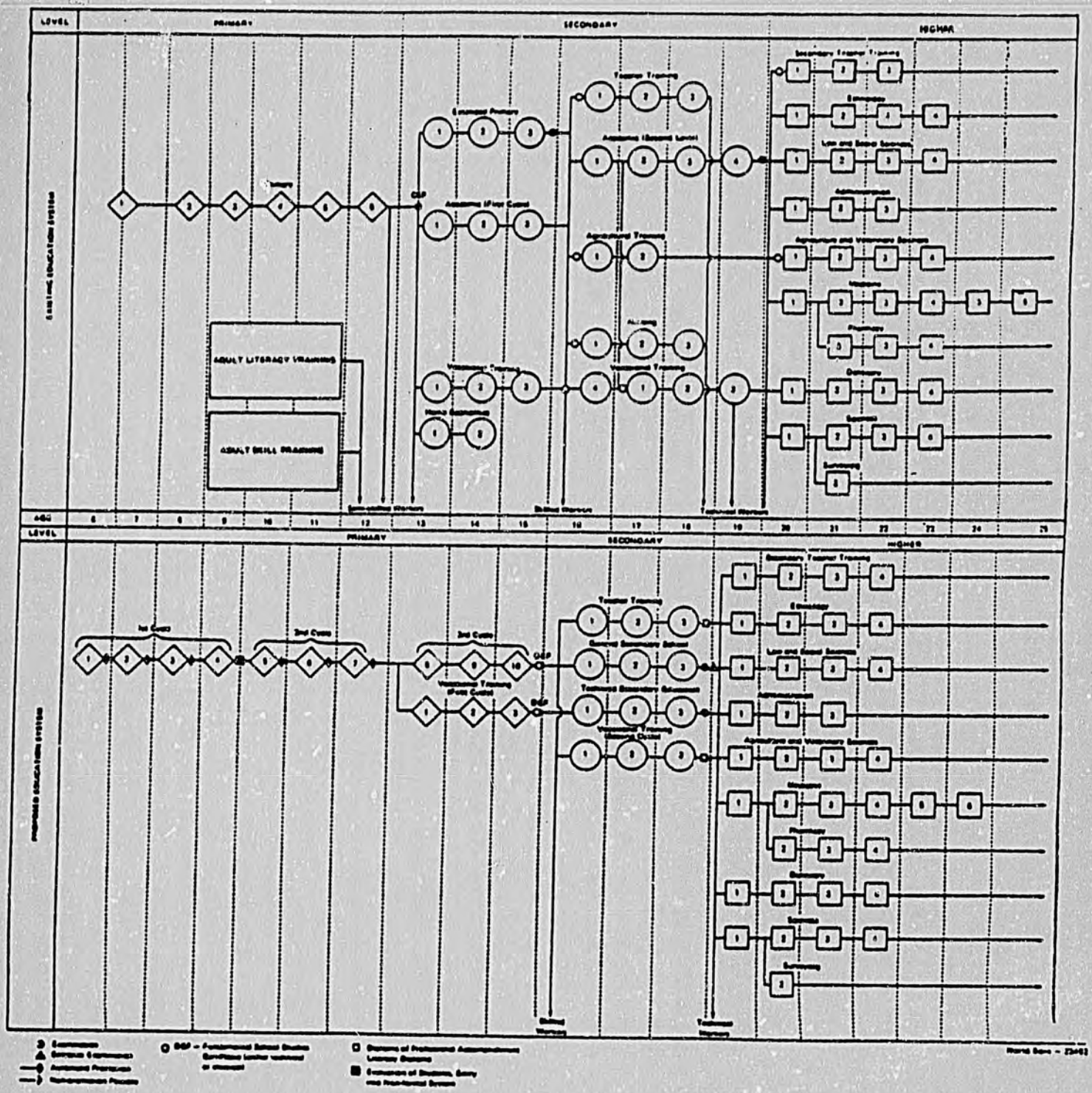




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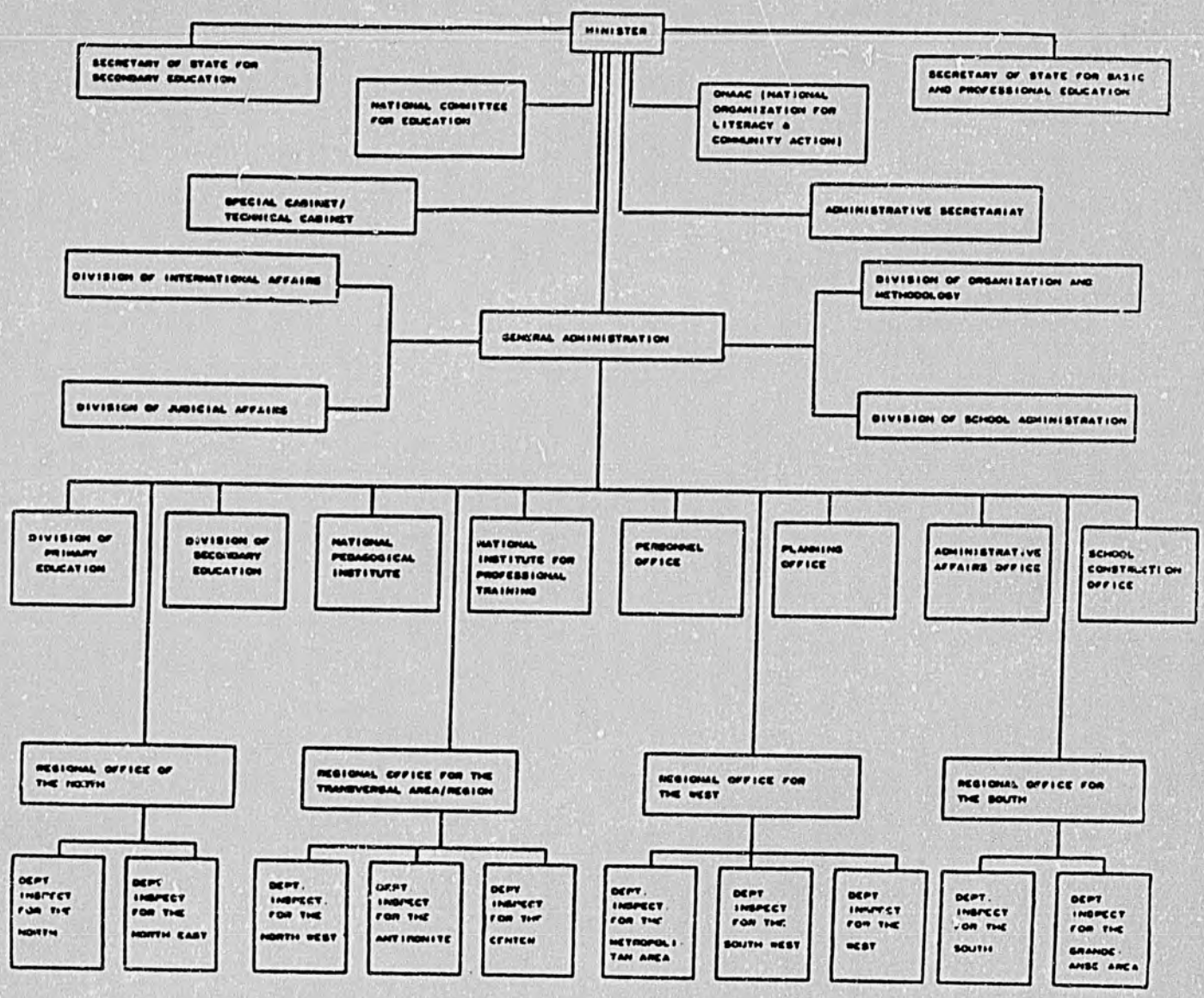
FIGURE 5.2

Organizational Structure of the Ministry of Education




Source: Ministry of Education



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into nine departments (départements): Ouest, Nord, Nord-Est, Nord-Ouest, Artibonite. Centre, Sud, Sud-Est, and Grand-Anse. The location of these departments is shown on Figure 5.3. The Ministry of Education has added another area, Port-au-Prince, for administrative purposes. Educational data are collected and reported by department.

At Ministry headquarters, the Division of Basic Education (Direction de l'Enseignement Fondamental) is to perform four services: pedagogical advice, preschool services, professional development, and the development of evaluation criteria for primary education and the documentation of the National Pedagogical Institute (Institut Pédagogique National - IPN). As the new organizational structure has just been introduced (December 1984), it is not yet clear how communications from the departmental level through the four regional offices to the Division of Basic Education and other divisions that are involved with primary education will occur on a daily basis.

The Traditional Primary System. The traditional system is founded on an antiquated curriculum based on the old French system. According to Unesco, 73% of schools were following the traditional curriculum in 1984. The traditional primary system consists of one cycle that is six years in length: Cours Préparatoire I et II, Cours Elémentaire I et II, and Cours Moyen I et II. The cycle is preceded by a classe enfantine, a preparatory class planned to last for one year. In many instances, there are two or three enfantine classes and children may repeat this class a number of times. Figure 5.1 illustrates the structure of the traditional system and shows its relation to the Reform system.

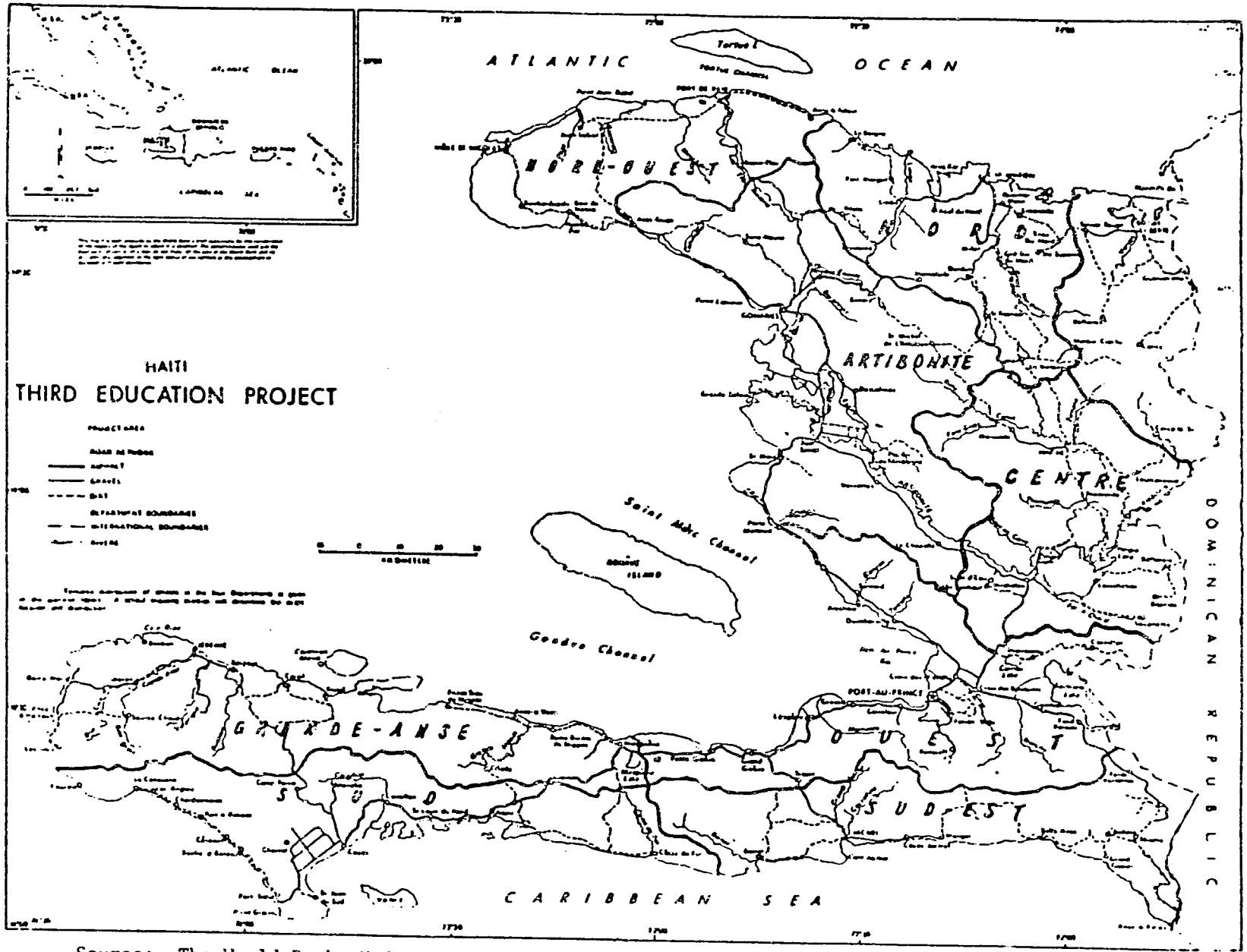
There is no automatic progression, although some private schools limit the number of times a student may repeat. All instruction is supposed to be in French, but many schools teach in Creole. At the end of the sixth year students used to take the primary education certificate (Certificat d'Etudes Primaires - CEP) examination, which was a state set and graded examination. The examination that replaced the CEP is set by district inspectors and organized and graded locally.

Types of Public Schools. The public sector consists of three types of schools (these types also exist in the private sector, to be described below):

- Lay. These schools are managed and financed by the central government.
- Congregational. These are managed by a Catholic religious order that organizes and directs the school. These schools also receive financial support (usually in the form of teacher's salaries) from Government.
- Communal. These schools are sponsored and supported by communal governments--that is, government at the level of the commune, which is a geographical administrative unit.

FIGURE 5.3

Administrative Department of Haiti




Source: The World Bank, Haiti: Staff Appraisal Report, Basic Education Project (Education III), 1982.

Role of the Private Sector. One of the distinguishing features of Haiti's educational system is the presence of an active and growing private sector. It includes schools supported by communities, religious organizations and private voluntary organizations, as well as schools that are operated on a self-supporting or for-profit basis. Thus, the term "private sector" encompasses a wide range of educational activities.

Any assessment of primary education requires a sense of the nature of the private sector, because it is such an important part of the lives of the majority of the primary school population. As mentioned earlier, 59% of Haiti's primary school students in 1982/83 were enrolled in private schools, and in all departments except Nord-Est and Sud-Est private school enrollments are more than 50% of the total. Private school enrollments by department range from 47.0% to 68.8% (see Table 5.3).

TABLE 5.3

Percent Enrollment in Private Schools by Department, 1982/83

| Department | Private | Percent of Total | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| Ouest | 154,459 | 68.8 | 224,622 |
| Nord | 45,121 | 52.9 | 85,353 |
| Nord-Est | 13,318 | 47.0 | 28,326 |
| Nord-Ouest | 25,870 | 54.2 | 47,741 |
| Artibonite | 69,823 | 62.0 | 112,600 |
| Centre | 24,806 | 61.4 | 40,383 |
| Sud | 38,283 | 54.2 | 70,614 |
| Sud-Est | 19,929 | 47.0 | 42,410 |
| Grand-Anse | 8,114 | 53.7 | 70,992 |
| Haiti | 429,713 | 59.4 | 723,041 |

Source: DEN, Annuaire Statistique, 1982/83 (unpublished).

The growth in numbers of public and private schools can be compared by looking at Table 5.4. The increase in private schools has been much greater than in public schools between 1973/74 and 1981/82--45.4% as compared to 11.6%. The difference in growth rates is even more striking when one considers enrollments in public and private schools over the same period. These are listed in Table 5.5, which shows that public enrollments have increased by 15.9% and private enrollments by 140.5%. Private school enrollments have increased at a much greater rate than public, and recent increases are particularly noticeable. In 1978/79, for example, 50.4% of students were in private schools; only four years later (1982/83), the figure was 59%. Moreover, it is quite likely that a number of pupils enrolled in private schools are not counted, as informed opinion suggests that some private schools are not registered with Government.

TABLE 5.4

Numbers of Public and Private Schools by Year,
1973/74 to 1981/82

| Year | Public | Private |
|---|---|---|
| 1973/74 | 891 | 1,527 |
| 1974/75 | 900 | 1,830 |
| 1975/76 | 904 | 1,884 |
| 1976/77 | 900 | 1,898 |
| 1977/78 | 906 | 1,935 |
| 1978/79 | 935 | 2,031 |
| 1979/80 | 958 | 2,038 |
| 1980/81 | 994 | 2,277 |
| 1981/82 | 995(a) (1000) | 2,221 |
| Percent increase | 11.6 | 45.4 |

(a) Additional correction made; figure in parentheses appears in original document.

TABLE 5.5

Enrollments in Public and Private Schools
1973/74 to 1982/83

| Year | Public | Private | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1973/74 | 252,996 | 178,611 | 431,607 |
| 1974/75 | 257,999 | 193,141 | 451,140 |
| 1975/76 | 180,187 | 206,948 | 487,135 |
| 1976/77 | 269,729 | 240,987 | 510,716 |
| 1977/78 | 266,204 | 251,519 | 517,723 |
| 1978/79 | 267,112 | 261,499 | 528,127 |
| 1979/80 | 277,458 | 302,669 | 580,127 |
| 1980/81 | 277,268 | 365,123 | 642,391 |
| 1981/82 | 282,366 | 375,736 | 658,102 |
| 1982/83 | 293,328 | 429,713 | 723,041 |
| Percent increase | 15.9 | 140.5 | 67.5 |

Source: Compiled from DEN, Annuaire Statistique, Vols. 1-6



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In 1974, a law was passed making the Ministry of Education responsible for the whole educational system, including private sector. This law defines the conditions under which private sector schools may operate and stipulates that Government inspectors are responsible for enforcing the regulations. In practice, the private sector is often left alone, as the inspectors frequently are not even able to respond to the needs of the public schools where their main responsibility lies.

The private sector is characterized by heterogeneity, and it seems to be very responsive to public demand. However, an understanding of its components is important for anyone making decisions about educational interventions in the education sector. Several more types of schools exist in the private sector than in the public sector, and there is considerable variation within each type. The types may be described as follows:

- Lay. These schools are started and operated by individuals and are operated for profit, or at least to meet costs. Generally, these are located in urban areas, in places where population density and effective demand are high--that is, where people can, and want to, pay for education. These schools vary greatly. They may be small or large, poor or wealthy and elite, and staffed by well- or poorly-trained teachers.
- Congregational. These are similar to public congregational schools (i.e., they are operated by a Catholic religious order) except that they are supported locally, often by a combination of fees and church support. These schools may be urban or rural.
- Presbyterial. Also Catholic schools, these are organized and operated by the diocesan structure--that is, by the network of parishes and parish priests placed beneath the authority of each bishop. In general, much of the support for the school comes through the diocese rather than from the local community. Presbyterial schools may be located in rural or urban areas.
- Outside Church-Supported. These schools are started by (predominantly Protestant) religious organizations, local or foreign, and receive some support from outside the local area. In many cases, support might be from large mission organizations. Outside church-supported schools tend to have a plan for, or activities to encourage, increasing responsibility of local communities to operate and finance the school. Though some of these schools are located in towns, the majority seem to be in rural areas--and, in many cases, in remote rural areas.
- Local Church-Supported. For the most part, these schools are started by local churches which often provide facilities and perhaps a teacher, who



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might be the local minister or his wife. If students have to pay fees, these fees are usually low. As with the outside church-supported schools, the majority seem to be in rural areas, and in many cases, in remote rural areas.

- Community. Community schools are a result of communities organizing a school for their children and finding the resources to pay for instructional staff, facilities construction or rental and materials. These tend to be in rural areas where access to public schools is limited.

The classification described above differs slightly from the one currently in use in Haiti, which would place the outside church-supported and the local church-supported schools into one category, "confessional." An opportunity to learn about the private sector made it clear that the means of support and the mode of operation are what account for much of the variability. Observations suggested that the confessional category contained too great a range in terms of these aspects to be useful for this analysis. This is discussed in more detail in Chapter 2, Section 2.8 (Microeconomic Analysis) and at appropriate points in the program section of this chapter. Available published data used in this assessment do not subdivide the confessional schools as is done in the above classification.

Unfortunately, the classification developed cannot stand alone because another important structure--school systems--influences much of the private primary sector. Also, attention needs to be paid to "feeder" schools and to student movement among schools in both private and public sectors. These aspects are discussed below. For clarity, examples are used.

- School Systems. Not all private schools stand alone. In fact, a large number participate in some system of schools. These systems vary greatly in structure and function and have differing degrees of control over the quality of instruction in their schools.

The mini-school system supported by the Salesian Fathers in four poverty-stricken areas of Port-au-Prince is an example of lay schools that have been united into a system. In October 1984, there were 137 private, Haitian-owned schools--each with two to five teachers, serving approximately 13,000 children--that were members of the mini-school system. Schools cannot be added to the system after October and there is a minimum daily attendance. Once a school is admitted as part of the system, the school director may not prevent a child from attending for nonpayment of fees. As a member of the mini-school system, each school receives $25 per month for each teacher, some basic materials, a meal for each child every day, and teacher training activities. Teacher training consists of meetings twice a week and an annual three-day seminar. In these



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schools, the majority of the students are in the enfantine class and the first two levels. In each of the four very poor areas (La Saline, Cité Simone, Brooklyn, and Boston), there is a central school, which provides facilities and some equipment for classes that have reached the fourth year. Teachers move here with a group of students from their mini-school and schooling continues at this location. The Salesians have also started an elementary level vocational school as part of the system. Funds for salaries, food, teacher training, and the central schools' buildings are obtained by the Salesian Fathers.

In each of the six dioceses in Haiti, presbyterial schools are organized into a chapel school system. These schools are operated by parishes. There are 700 to 1,000 chapel schools, with about 150-200 children in each school. Five to seven small schools feed into a larger school. Although it is technically a requirement, not all chapel schools are registered with a bishop. Teachers are paid $20-30 per month by the parish and children pay some money toward their own education.

The outside church-supported schools exhibit the greatest variety in terms of school systems. The Methodist Church of Haiti (Eglise Méthodiste d'Haïti) has an extensive system consisting of 52 primary schools that served 9,091 students in 1982/83. These schools follow the Reform curriculum. They are divided into five circuits, each with an inspectorate that monitors quality of instruction in the schools. Schools are divided into categories according to the extent to which the school is self-supporting. Only one primary school is totally self-supporting; the majority of the schools receive at least 20% of their expenses from parents. These schools are the ones that receive the greatest amount of support from the Methodist church, because they are regarded as schools that are trying to improve themselves. Other schools receive support through the circuits, but not as much. In addition to the schools that receive support, many other schools consider themselves Methodist but are not officially part of the system. The growth of this borderline group is seen by the Methodist church as overwhelming, and quality of instruction is generally so low in these unsupervised schools that they cannot be readily incorporated into the system.

The Baptist Haiti Mission has an extensive system of schools--2,830 primary schools with 32,583 students in November 1984. The schools are divided into level II and level III schools. The 285 level III schools reach 8,600 students. These schools offer seven years of primary school and some offer up to five years of high school. The majority of schools are level II schools (2,545 schools with 23,983 students), many of which provide the first four primary years and the enfantine class. Level III schools receive a far higher subsidy from the Haiti Baptist Mission than level II schools. Schools generally follow

the traditional curriculum and are monitored by a small inspectorate. The Haiti Baptist Mission estimates that another 64,000 children in Haiti are served by other Baptist missions.

The Seventh Day Adventist World Service (SAWS) has two regional school systems, one in the North and one in the South. The North Mission has 86 schools and 9,328 students. In the South, there are 40 primary schools with 5,456 students (1984/85). Seventeen are recognized schools (écoles reconnues); 100% of their costs are covered by SAWS. The other 23 schools are supported by local churches. There are two inspectors for the 40 schools, and 10 of the 17 recognized schools follow the Reform curriculum.

Another example of a school system is the Association des Ministres Internationaux d'Haïti. This association of 300 domestic churches has 200 primary schools. A sample of 20 of these schools showed an enrollment range of 15 to 250 students. This is a loose confederation of urban and rural schools that receive at least a portion of their funds from sponsoring churches outside of Haiti.

Compassion International works with private local mission schools, though some may have been started and formerly supported by an outside mission. There are 250 schools (about 95%, or 236, of these are at the primary level) serving approximately 18,000 students. For active and functioning schools that are willing to operate under fairly rigorous accounting rules, Compassion International will support one-half of the enrollment--at present this averages 72 children per school. They have found that this support has had a significant impact on decreasing the dropout rate in these schools. There is a staff of 38 (35 of whom are Haitian) which monitors the system and provides training for school directors and teachers. Compassion International sets no particular qualifications for teachers, and about half of the schools in the system have already adopted the Reform curriculum.

- Feeder Schools. Because the majority of primary school students are in classe enfantine and the first two years of primary school (428,175 of 723,041) many of the schools do not offer all six (under the traditional curriculum) or 10 (under the Reform) years of primary school. A large number of schools offer only a few levels, particularly in rural areas. Students from these lower level feeder schools transfer to larger primary schools once they complete the highest class offered at the school they are attending. This may require boarding with a family in another village or town during the week. As a result of this feeding mechanism, it is hard to accurately determine student flow within a school.

- Student Movement. An unusual characteristic in Haitian primary education is the tendency for students to move from one school to another. Several reasons can be given. The first, the existence of feeder schools, was described above. Second, informed opinion notes that the presence of a meal at a school is sufficient for parents to move children out of a school that does not have a school feeding program. In fact, parents will even move children from public schools to schools where they have to pay fees if it means the children receive food. (Most of this food is available from the United States Government through PL-480.) Third, students may change schools because of performance: their own and that of the school. Often, if students repeat a particular level more than once, they will move to another school in the hope that it will increase the chances of success. Although less important now that the CEP is no longer administered nationally, students will move to schools that are perceived to have high pass rates on examinations.

### 5.1.4 Program

An overview of the current program in primary education is presented in this subsection, describing the status with respect to administration, students, teachers, curriculum, examinations, facilities and equipment, costs and donor support, and quality of instruction. This information will constitute the basis for the analysis of needs, plans, constraints, and issues in a later section of this chapter.

Before details on status are presented, data sources and the structure of this overview will be described. Both public and private education (as defined earlier) are covered.

Information on public primary education comes mainly from Government and from documents of the World Bank, which is collaborating with Government and Unesco in expanding the public primary education system and in introducing and implementing the Reform. This collaboration is major and long-term. Three large loans have been made to Government for the improvement of primary education, and a fourth loan is under discussion. Details on the financing of public education are contained in Chapter 2 of this assessment. Whenever possible in the discussion that follows, 1982/83 data which are not yet published, are used.

Information on private primary education was much more difficult to obtain. Basic data in the educational statistics published by the Ministry of Education are very broad in nature and not very useful as one attempts to understand the particulars of private education. Because of this lack of detailed information, and in a departure from the assessment methodology being employed in other

sectors, this part of the assessment contains data on the private sector that was collected and analyzed especially for this assessment.

A three-stage procedure was used. First, two sets of questions were developed--one for individuals knowledgeable about private education in Haiti and one to gather information on specific schools. The school questionnaire was designed to obtain information on students, student flow, efficiency, costs and financing, teachers, facilities, curriculum, and sponsorship. The individual questionnaire was designed to get general information and information that would contribute to and strengthen the interpretation of information on the private schools.

Next, sets of schools and individuals were identified. More than 100 individuals spent many hours with team members. These individual ranged from school inspectors (both public and private) to missionaries, local pastors, education experts, researchers, and people responsible for school feeding programs. Almost all were practitioners in primary education and, in sum, they were able to address education in every region. To get a cross-section of schools, a matrix was developed to ensure visits to urban and rural, large and small, and better-off and poor schools, as well as schools that represented the different types in the classification. The kinds of schools that were visited are shown in Figure 5.4. Public schools were included to make comparisons possible. Because community schools comprised only 5% of private schools in 1982/83, this type of school was not visited. In requesting information, the sector assessment team guaranteed anonymity to schools--a prerequisite to open discussion. Schools were located in the following places: Callebasse, Camp-Perrin, Milot, Petit-Goave, Les Cayes, Desbarrières, La Branle, and Port-au-Prince. Thus, school visits were made to the Ouest, Sud, Nord, and Artibonite Départements.

Visits were made in the third stage. The information collected was analyzed, and summaries are presented in the following subsections. Several more schools were visited than the 11 shown in Figure 5.4, and data were gathered on an even larger number through key informants. It is important to emphasize that this cannot be considered a "scientific" sample, but it is a good representation of the range of schools in the private sector.

5.1.4.1 Administration

Public or private, schools are the responsibility of the school director, both for day-to-day operations and for policy. The director is the link to the Ministry of Education, the inspectorate, and the school system (if the school participates in one).

No quantitative data are available on directors. In many cases, especially in private lay schools, the director is a teacher who has decided to start a



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FIGURE 5.4

Types of Schools That Provided Survey Information

| Category | URBAN | | | | RURAL | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Better Off | | Poor | | Better Off | | Poor | |
| | Large | Small* | Large | Small* | Large | Small* | Large | Small* |
| Public (includes Lay and Congregational) | X** | | X | | X** | | | X |
| Lay | | | | X | X | | X | |
| Mission (includes Congregational, Presbyterial, and Outside-Supported) | X | | | | X | | | |
| Local Church | | | | | X | | X | |

* One hundred or fewer students.

** Prior to visit, information suggested this was a private school.



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school. Thus, directors usually have no better qualifications than their poorly trained teachers. In general, they receive significantly higher salaries than teachers.

Clearly, school directors play an important role in providing primary education, for it is they who are responsible for school leadership. This role is especially important, because the inspectorate systems are generally not very strong and inspection visits are hampered by difficult communications. Leadership from outside the school is infrequent. In fact, the majority of independent primary schools do not receive any visits from inspectors.

Unfortunately, most directors have not received training in support of their joint administrative and pedagogical tasks. Though they receive some guidance from the Ministry of Education (particularly in the case of public schools), this is usually at the policy level and does not address day-to-day operations or provide examples, suggestions, or opportunities for acquiring skills on how to manage a school. In the private school systems, especially those supported by outside missions, there may be some guidance for school directors in the form of a structure that supports both management and pedagogy in the schools. For example, Compassion International requires participating schools to have fairly tight fiscal management and related accounting procedures. Several of the mission-supported systems also provide inservice training for school directors.

5.1.4.2 Students

Because education is considered very important, parents make strong demands about educational opportunities for their children. Families have three major expectations with regard to the children sent to primary schools: They believe the child will complete primary school, and they expect the child to teach other family members after school each day and to be able to help support the family as a result of participating in school. The data that describe those children in primary school are examined in this subsection.

Enrollments. Between 1973/74 and 1982/83, primary enrollments increased by 60%. Further evidence for the demand for education has been discussed already, in this Chapter and in Chapter 2. Nevertheless, it was estimated that only 47% of the children six to 12 years old were in school in 1981/82.

Enrollments in the 3,241 primary schools for the 1982/83 school year are presented in Table 5.6, by geographic department, sector or type of school (public or private), and location (urban or rural). Of the 723,041 pupils, 429,713 are enrolled in private schools and 293,328 in public. There are slightly more urban (389,699) than rural (333,342) pupils. As indicated in this table, the largest number of pupils attends school in the Ouest (31%), with significant numbers in Artibonite (15%) and Nord (11.8%). These three



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departments account for almost 60% of primary enrollments. These figures are to be expected in the cases of Ouest and Artibonite, but they are unusual in the case of Nord if these figures are compared with the population in these regions, as shown in the table. The Nord does not have the next highest population after Ouest and Artibonite. The apparently high number of enrollments in the Nord may be partially explained by over-age students, a topic that will be discussed later in this section.

Using 1980/81 data, the World Bank gives a gross enrollment rate of 71.8 (108.7 urban and 55.5 rural). It must be noted, however, that the gross enrollment rate takes into account all primary enrollments, including those who are over-age. Net enrollments give a better idea of the extent to which the educational system is providing places for "of age" children. Although enrollments have increased significantly over the last decade, net enrollments have changed only from 39% to 47% between 1973/74 and 1981/82. Over this period, the gain was due to increases in rural net enrollments (26% to 34%); in urban areas net enrollments decreased (89% to 76%). This shows that access has increased, but that over-age children occupy a large percentage of the places, particularly in urban areas. (This will be discussed in more detail later in this section.)

As can be seen in Table 5.6, a majority of the students (53.8%) are in schools classified as urban. This suggests that schools serve the urban areas much better than the rural areas, as only 28% of the population lived in urban areas in 1982. However, the majority of students is not urban in all regions. Urban enrollments exceed rural ones only in Ouest, Nord, Nord-Est, and Sud. In the other five regions (Nord-Ouest, Artibonite, Centre, Sud-Est, and Grand-Anse), rural enrollments are in the majority. The rural/urban disparity also exists with regard to net enrollment rates. Using 1980/81 data, the World Bank 1984 draft Sector Memorandum gives a 34% rural net enrollment and 76% urban net enrollment. The same memorandum notes a range in net enrollment rates among departments varying from 36% in Sud to 64% in Nord-Ouest.

Fifty-nine percent of the students are enrolled in private schools (52.5% urban and 47.5% rural), with the remaining 41% in public schools. Of the public school children, 55.8% are urban and 44.2% are rural. Although the majority of pupils are in private schools, this does not hold for each department. In Nord-Est and Sud-Est more pupils are in public and than private schools (53% in each department). The relationship between private and public schools and their location (rural or urban) will be discussed in more detail under the section on facilities and equipment.

Enrollments by gender, sector, and department are shown in Table 5.7. There are 336,567 girls and 386,474 boys enrolled in primary school. Of the



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TABLE 5.6

NUMBER OF PRIMARY SCHOOL STUDENTS BY SECTOR, LOCATION, AND GEOGRAPHIC DEPARTMENT, 1982/83

| DEPARTMENT | PUBLIC | | | PRIVATE | | | PUBLIC AND PRIVATE | | | TOTAL POPULATION |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | URBAN | RURAL | TOTAL | URBAN | RURAL | TOTAL | URBAN | RURAL | TOTAL | |
| OUEST | 51,701 | 18,462 | 70,163 | 108,119 | 46,340 | 154,459 | 159,820 | 64,802 | 224,622 | 1,716,803 |
| NORD | 20,947 | 19,285 | 40,232 | 26,632 | 18,489 | 45,121 | 47,579 | 37,774 | 85,353 | 456,692 |
| NORD-EST | 6,977 | 8,041 | 15,018 | 9,207 | 4,101 | 13,308 | 16,184 | 12,142 | 28,326 | 235,965 |
| NORD-OUEST | 12,818 | 9,053 | 21,871 | 8,656 | 17,214 | 25,870 | 21,474 | 26,267 | 47,741 | 288,790 |
| ARTIBONITE | 17,751 | 25,026 | 42,777 | 31,241 | 38,582 | 69,823 | 48,992 | 63,608 | 112,600 | 664,807 |
| CENTRE | 6,136 | 9,441 | 15,577 | 11,831 | 12,975 | 24,806 | 17,697 | 22,416 | 40,383 | 360,734 |
| SUD | 20,305 | 12,026 | 32,331 | 19,113 | 19,170 | 38,283 | 39,418 | 31,196 | 70,614 | 509,996 |
| SUD-EST | 10,411 | 12,070 | 22,481 | 3,000 | 16,929 | 19,929 | 13,411 | 28,999 | 42,410 | 178,812 |
| GRAND-ANSE | 16,770 | 16,108 | 32,878 | 8,084 | 30,030 | 38,114 | 24,854 | 46,138 | 70,992 | 640,590 |
| HAITI | 163,816 | 129,512 | 293,328 | 225,883 | 203,830 | 429,713 | 389,699 | 333,342 | 723,041 | 5,053,189 |

MINISTRY OF PLANNING, RESULTATS ANTICIPES DU RECENSEMENT GENERAL (1982).

SOURCE: DEN, ANNUAIRE STATISTIQUE, 1982/83 (UNPUBLISHED).

TABLE 5.7

Primary Enrollments by Gender, Sector, and Department

1982/83

| Department | Public | | Private | | Total | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M | F | M | F | M | F |
| Ouest | 37,000 | 33,163 | 72,904 | 81,555 | 109,904 | 114,718 |
| Nord | 20,747 | 19,485 | 24,811 | 20,310 | 45,558 | 39,795 |
| Nord-Est | 8,675 | 6,343 | 6,856 | 6,452 | 15,531 | 12,795 |
| Nord-Ouest | 12,221 | 9,650 | 13,908 | 11,962 | 26,129 | 21,576 |
| Artibonite | 25,497 | 17,280 | 38,835 | 30,988 | 64,332 | 48,268 |
| Centre | 8,876 | 6,701 | 14,529 | 10,277 | 23,405 | 16,978 |
| Sud | 16,970 | 15,361 | 20,565 | 17,718 | 37,535 | 33,079 |
| Sud-Est | 12,696 | 9,785 | 11,353 | 8,576 | 24,049 | 18,361 |
| Grand-Anse | 18,859 | 14,019 | 21,172 | 16,942 | 40,031 | 30,961 |
| HAITI | 161,541 | 131,787 | 224,933 | 204,780 | 386,474 | 336,567* |

* Regional female totals, 336,531; error in source figures for departments.

Source: Compiled from DEN, Annuaire Statistique, 1982/83 (unpublished).



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293,328 public school children, 131,787 are girls and 161,541 are boys. In the private sector, there are 204,780 girls and 224,933 boys, a total of 429,713. Enrollments are reasonably equally divided among boys (53.5%) and girls (46.5%). In only one region, Ouest, do girls (51%) outnumber boys in school; what is even more striking about this figure is that it is girls' enrollment in private schools in the Ouest that accounts for this. In every other instance, boys outnumber girls in both public (55.1% to 44.9%) and private (52.4% to 47.6%) schools.

Enrollments in public and private schools by level and gender for the 1982/83 school year are given in Table 5.8. This table contains some disturbing statistics. Nationally, 59% of enrolled students are in the first two years and the enfantine class; inclusion of the third year increases this figure to 73%. There is a significant difference between the percentage of children in the first two years and classe enfantine in public schools (54%) and in private schools (63%). The difference lessens somewhat when the third year enrollments are included--76% of all private school students and 70% of those in public schools are enrolled in the first three years of primary school. These figures alone suggest that there are inefficiencies in primary education.

Repetitions and Dropouts. Several factors contribute to inefficiency. Specifically, Haitian primary education is characterized by high repetition and dropout rates and low promotion rates, particularly in the first few years. Promotion, repetition, and dropout rates for primary schools in 1981/82 are given in Table 5.9. Promotion rates are low (41.3%) in the first year and range from 69.9% in the second year to 96.6% in the sixth year. Repetition rates are high for the first five years (ranging from 12.4 to 25.5%) and drop to 3.4% in the sixth year. Dropout rates are particularly high in the first year (33.2%).

Using these rates one can trace the progress of a cohort of pupils through primary school. As stated in Chapter 2, it is important to note that a "larger number of children from a given initial cohort go through primary school in seven or more years than go through in six." The procedure for tracing students involves taking a cohort of 1,000 pupils and applying these rates according to the grade that the cohort is in. Because repeaters are persistent, it is important to follow the students not just for the assumed six years of primary school (under the traditional system), but to allow sufficient time to trace those who repeat one or more grades and do, nevertheless, progress through primary school. This procedure was used and the results are displayed in Table 2.61. From this table it can be seen that 313 pupils, out of a cohort of 1,000 pupils, can be expected to complete six years of primary school, but only 108 of them will do so without repeating a grade. In fact, it would take 10 years for these 313 pupils to complete six years of primary school.

TABLE 5.8

Public and Private Primary School Enrollments
by Sector and Gender, 1982-83

| Grade | Gender | Sector: Public | Sector: Private | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Enf.* | Male | 22,277 | 57,450 | 79,727 |
| | Female | 16,303 | 56,986 | 73,289 |
| 1st | Male | 33,534 | 46,449 | 79,983 |
| | Female | 28,267 | 39,056 | 67,323 |
| 2nd | Male | 32,694 | 36,306 | 69,000 |
| | Female | 26,653 | 32,200 | 58,853 |
| 3rd | Male | 26,196 | 28,865 | 55,061 |
| | Female | 21,743 | 26,438 | 48,181 |
| 4th | Male | 20,342 | 23,922 | 44,264 |
| | Female | 17,217 | 21,371 | 38,588 |
| 5th | Male | 15,349 | 17,555 | 32,904 |
| | Female | 12,945 | 15,690 | 28,635 |
| 6th | Male | 11,149 | 14,386 | 25,535 |
| | Female | 8,659 | 13,039 | 21,698 |
| Total | Male | 161,541 | 224,933 | 386,474 |
| | Female | 131,787 | 204,780 | 336,567 |

Source: Compiled from DEN, *Annuaire Statistique*, 1982-83 (unpublished).

TABLE 5.9

Primary School Promotion, Repetition, and Dropout Rates, 1981-82
(Percent)

| Rate | School Year | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| Promotion | 41.3 | 69.9 | 72.5 | 72.5 | 73.7 | 96.6 |
| Repetition | 25.5 | 18.0 | 19.9 | 18.2 | 12.4 | 3.4 |
| Dropout | 33.2 | 12.1 | 7.6 | 9.3 | 13.9 | 0 |

Source: *Projections of Recurrent Expenditure in Public Primary Education*, 1984.



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Further examination of this cohort's progression through primary school as detailed in Table 2.6 allows calculation of the number of years required to produce a primary school graduate. On average, 12.5 years of primary school produce a graduate, but the rates vary according to sector and location. This is discussed in Chapter 2. The estimated number of years required to produce a primary school graduate are shown in Table 5.10 by sector and location. As can be seen, urban schools (11 years) are more efficient than rural ones (14 years). Urban private schools are the most efficient (10 years) and rural private schools the least efficient (15 years). These figures provide further evidence for the high wastage in primary schools. The system does appear, however, to become increasingly efficient as the grade level rises.

Visits to several private schools generally confirmed these findings. First, enrollments decrease significantly between the first and the sixth year. Second, the range of decrease varies greatly between schools. And, third, repeaters combined with movement of students between public and private schools and from feeder schools can obscure dropout rates in a given school.

Discussions with representatives of the private sector confirmed that dropouts and repetitions are particularly high in the first three years. For example, Figures 5.5 and 5.6 show the drop in enrollments by year in four Methodist-run schools in the Cap-Haitien area and three in the Petit-Goave area, respectively. In Cap-Haitien, the largest drop is after the third year, whereas it is after the second year in Petit-Goave. The Haiti Baptist Mission estimates that a child takes nine years to complete primary school in that system (the maximum allowed is 14 years). The majority of children drop out at the end of the third year in this system.

Two reasons are given for the high dropout rate: financial stringencies and poor health. Financial constraints may be due to lack of money for fees or the family's need of the child's labor. Both the Compassion International program and the mini-school system have evidence to suggest that providing schools with financial incentives can decrease the dropout rate significantly. For example, Compassion International notes that in the rural area where it works 50% of pupils normally drop out by the end of the second year and 95% by the end of year six. Representatives have found that with long-term financial sponsorship, student retention can be increased to 90%. There does not appear to be any social stigma to dropping out.

Four factors, in addition to addressing issues of finance and health, were cited during interviews as being important in decreasing dropouts. These were preschool education (as distinguished from classe enfantine), the availability of food, better paid and better qualified teachers, and availability of teaching materials. Apparently the benefits of food often outweigh the costs of tuition

TABLE 5.10

Number of School Years Required
to Produce a Primary Graduate, by Sector and Location

| Location | Public | Private | Overall |
|---|---|---|---|
| Urban | 12 | 10 | 11 |
| Rural | 13 | 15 | 14 |
| Overall | 12.5 | 12.5 | 12.5 |



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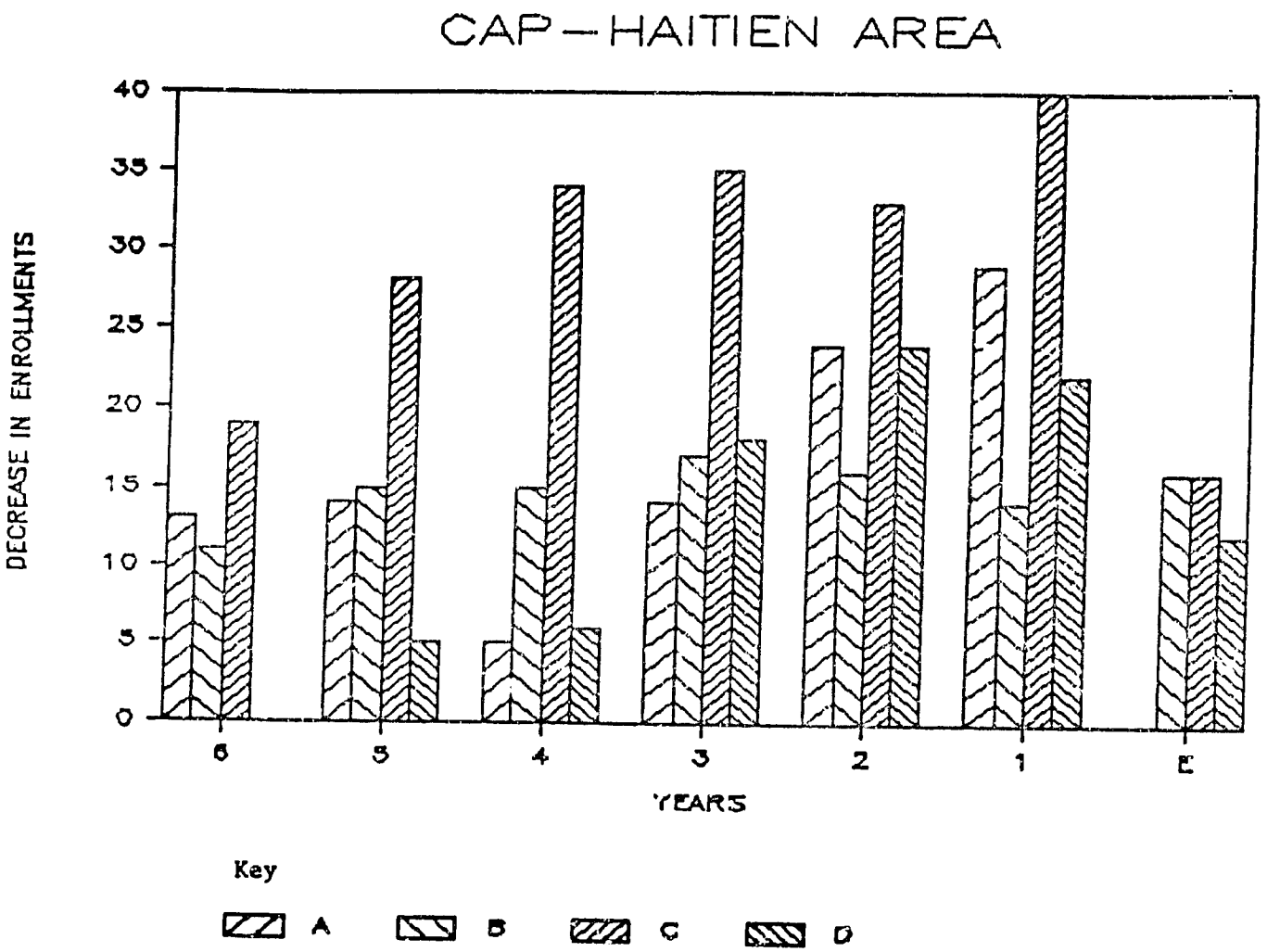
FIGURE 5.5

Drop in Enrollments in Four Private Schools




| Year | Schools with Enrollments A | B | C | D | Total Decrease |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 6 | 13 | 11 | 19 | 0 | 43 |
| 5 | 14 | 15 | 28 | 5 | 62 |
| 4 | 5 | 15 | 34 | 6 | 60 |
| 3 | 14 | 17 | 35 | 18 | 84 |
| 2 | 24 | 16 | 33 | 24 | 97 |
| 1 | 29 | 14 | 40 | 22 | 105 |
| E | 0 | 16 | 16 | 12 | 44 |



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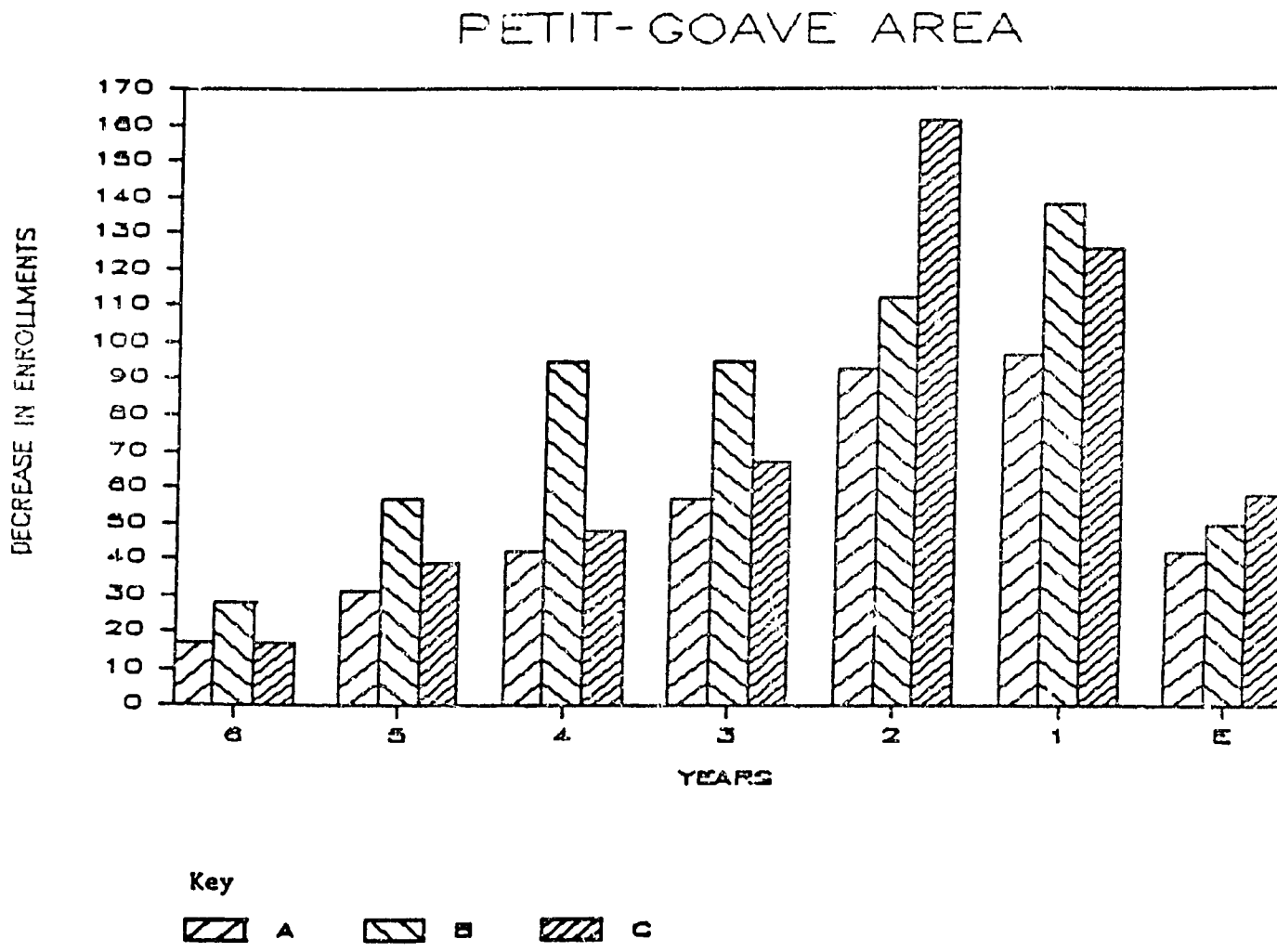
FIGURE 5.6

**Drop in Enrollments in Three Private Schools**




| Year | Schools with Enrollments A | B | C | Total Decrease |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 6 | 17 | 28 | 17 | 62 |
| 5 | 31 | 57 | 39 | 127 |
| 4 | 42 | 95 | 48 | 185 |
| 3 | 57 | 95 | 67 | 219 |
| 2 | 93 | 112 | 161 | 366 |
| 1 | 97 | 138 | 126 | 361 |
| E | 42 | 50 | 58 | 150 |



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in private schools in parents' estimation. It is important to note that these are clearly defined inputs that could be attended to if attempts were to be made to improve the efficiency of primary education.

Repetitions are also an important factor in the inefficiency of primary education. In 1982/83, 13% of the places (95,069) were occupied by repeaters. The distribution of repeaters by location and sector is shown in Table 5.11. Rural schools have the highest percentage of repeaters (15%) and urban schools have the lowest (11%). Private schools match the national average for percentage of repeaters (13%), and in public schools 14% of the places are occupied by repeaters.

TABLE 5.11

Primary School Repeaters by Location and Sector, 1982/83

| Sector | Urban | Rural | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| Public | 17,910 | 22,992 | 40,902 |
| Private | 52,674 | 27,393 | 54,167 |
| Haiti | 44,684 | 50,385 | 95,069 |

Source: Compiled from DEN, Annuaire Statistique, 1982/83 (unpublished)

The number of repeaters is shown by gender, by year, and by department in Table 5.12. Nationwide, 54% of repeaters, or 51,418 of 95,069, are boys, and there is no level where more girls than boys are repeating. Similarly, in all regions there are more male than female repeaters.

Additional understanding of primary education in Haiti can be gained by examining the age structure of those enrolled. The legal age for primary school attendance is six to 14 years, beginning with the first year of primary school, which follows classe enfantine. Enrollments by gender, year, and age are shown in Table 5.13. There are many over-age children at every level. Considering only those children between 13 and 16 years--which is a very conservative way to define over-age children because it does not account for students over 16 in the unknown category, or students between seven and 12 who are over-age for a given level--30% of children in primary school (216,912 of 723,041) are over-age. An example further illustrates the seriousness of this situation. In the first year of school at the national level, only 21% of the students are of age or under, the other 79% being over-age. At every level, the percentage of over-age is higher for boys than for girls. Visits to schools confirmed that there is a significant number of over-age children; in these schools pupil ages ranged from four to 23. The large range of ages makes instruction difficult, and there is a serious lack of materials at all levels that are appropriate for older students.

TABLE 5.12

PRIMARY SCHOOL REPEATERS BY YEAR, GENDER, AND DEPARTMENT

| | ENF | | 1 | | 2 | | 3 | | 4 | | 5 | | 6 | | TOTAL | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| DEPARTMENT | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F |
| OUEST | 2,440 | 2,259 | 2,722 | 2,442 | 2,522 | 2,251 | 1,936 | 1,926 | 1,448 | 1,697 | 918 | 1,223 | 382 | 473 | 12,368 | 12,271 |
| NORD | 1,792 | 1,503 | 1,056 | 607 | 952 | 959 | 796 | 1,012 | 728 | 837 | 538 | 669 | 196 | 321 | 6,053 | 5,908 |
| NORD-EST | 780 | 593 | 541 | 612 | 664 | 463 | 324 | 358 | 234 | 252 | 227 | 210 | 91 | 59 | 2,861 | 2,547 |
| NORD-OUEST | 614 | 354 | 752 | 439 | 537 | 337 | 490 | 391 | 415 | 258 | 290 | 210 | 180 | 88 | 3,278 | 2,077 |
| ARTIBONITE | 2,098 | 1,600 | 1,785 | 1,162 | 1,611 | 1,209 | 1,305 | 952 | 938 | 692 | 666 | 415 | 598 | 390 | 9,001 | 6,420 |
| CENTRE | 686 | 477 | 449 | 399 | 402 | 299 | 357 | 259 | 247 | 209 | 165 | 110 | 76 | 60 | 2,382 | 1,813 |
| SUD | 713 | 585 | 951 | 691 | 1,168 | 916 | 1,105 | 997 | 852 | 797 | 508 | 602 | 250 | 229 | 5,547 | 4,817 |
| SUD-EST | 1,301 | 1,159 | 1,110 | 773 | 780 | 640 | 518 | 386 | 353 | 224 | 187 | 133 | 169 | 64 | 4,418 | 3,379 |
| GRAND-ANSE | 1,136 | 926 | 1,082 | 818 | 1,260 | 875 | 781 | 729 | 683 | 660 | 455 | 285 | 108 | 126 | 5,505 | 4,419 |
| HAITI | 11,560 | 9,456 | 10,448 | 7,943 | 9,896 | 7,949 | 7,612 | 7,010 | 5,898 | 5,626 | 3,954 | 3,857 | 2,050 | 1,810 | 51,418 | 43,651 |

SOURCE: DEN, ANNUAIRE STATISTIQUE, 1982/83 (UNPUBLISHED).

TABLE 5.13

PRIMARY SCHOOL STUDENTS BY YEAR AND GENDER ACCORDING TO AGE, 1982/83

| | ENF | | 1 | | 2 | | 3 | | 4 | | 5 | | 6 | | TOTAL | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| AGE | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F |
| <5 YEARS | 1,109 | 1,173 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1,109 | 1,173 |
| 5 YEARS | 10,588 | 9,507 | 8,503 | 2,070 | 2,069 | 16 | 16 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 11,593 | 10,588 |
| 6 YEARS | 17,075 | 14,378 | 13,624 | 13,686 | 1,078 | 1,521 | 2 | 27 | - | - | - | - | - | - | 31,839 | 29,612 |
| 7 YEARS | 14,518 | 11,372 | 12,871 | 11,135 | 7,498 | 8,372 | 688 | 909 | 14 | 41 | - | - | - | - | 35,587 | 31,829 |
| 8 YEARS | 10,803 | 16,951 | 12,006 | 9,943 | 9,573 | 9,287 | 3,921 | 5,415 | 579 | 701 | 50 | 45 | - | - | 36,732 | 42,342 |
| 9 YEARS | 7,468 | 6,225 | 9,403 | 7,769 | 9,050 | 8,214 | 5,561 | 6,587 | 2,660 | 3,531 | 256 | 408 | 57 | 39 | 34,455 | 32,773 |
| 10 YEARS | 6,005 | 4,808 | 8,494 | 6,752 | 10,095 | 8,081 | 6,490 | 6,331 | 4,162 | 4,643 | 1,643 | 2,141 | 336 | 446 | 37,225 | 33,202 |
| 11 YEARS | 3,596 | 2,892 | 5,873 | 4,667 | 8,012 | 6,064 | 6,681 | 5,792 | 4,689 | 4,892 | 2,688 | 2,638 | 1,198 | 1,558 | 32,737 | 28,503 |
| 12 YEARS | 2,765 | 1,929 | 4,703 | 3,836 | 6,906 | 5,211 | 7,455 | 5,994 | 5,836 | 5,129 | 3,123 | 3,564 | 2,156 | 2,324 | 32,944 | 27,987 |
| 13 YEARS | 1,875 | 1,377 | 3,251 | 2,504 | 5,190 | 4,018 | 6,807 | 5,056 | 5,983 | 4,963 | 4,084 | 4,043 | 2,556 | 2,534 | 29,746 | 24,495 |
| 14 YEARS | 1,137 | 792 | 2,335 | 1,666 | 3,979 | 2,847 | 5,579 | 4,271 | 5,635 | 4,716 | 4,620 | 3,906 | 2,986 | 3,243 | 26,271 | 21,441 |
| 15 YEARS | 672 | 439 | 1,486 | 860 | 2,507 | 1,857 | 4,071 | 2,850 | 4,766 | 3,794 | 4,747 | 3,924 | 3,973 | 3,445 | 22,222 | 17,169 |
| 16 YEARS | 1,637 | 955 | 2,627 | 1,480 | 4,422 | 2,694 | 7,121 | 4,403 | 9,400 | 5,635 | 11,276 | 7,572 | 11,838 | 7,705 | 48,321 | 30,444 |
| UNKNOWN | 1,560 | 1,495 | 1,100 | 956 | 876 | 671 | 685 | 546 | 540 | 543 | 417 | 394 | 435 | 404 | 5,693 | 5,009 |
| TOTAL | 79,727 | 75,289 | 79,983 | 67,323 | 69,000 | 58,853 | 55,061 | 48,181 | 44,264 | 38,588 | 32,904 | 48,635 | 25,535 | 21,690 | 386,474 | 336,567 |

SOURCE: DEN, ANNUAIRE STATISTIQUE, 1982/83 (UNPUBLISHED).

The fact that so many places are filled by over-age children may partially explain the unmet demand for primary education in Haiti. With the introduction of the Reform and automatic promotion in the first cycle between levels one and two and between levels three and four, the number of available primary places in the first cycle could increase significantly.

Student/Teacher Ratios. Student/teacher ratios for 1982/83 are shown in Table 5.14. The system-wide ratio is 42.5:1, but this varies according to location and sector. In general, rural schools have a higher ratio than urban ones, and public schools are higher than private. The private urban schools have the lowest student/teacher ratio (34.7:1), followed by private rural schools and public urban schools (47.5:1), leaving the public rural schools with the highest student/teacher ratio (59:1).

TABLE 5.14

Primary Student/Teacher Ratios by Location and Sector, 1982/83

| | Students per Teacher | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Location | Public | Private | Average |
| Urban | 47.5 | 34.7 | 39.1 |
| Rural | 59.0 | 42.2 | 47.4 |
| Average | 51.9 | 37.8 | 42.5 |

Source: Compiled from DEN, Annuaire Statistique, 1982/83 (unpublished)

In Table 5.15, it can be seen that the Ouest Département has the lowest student/teacher ratio (36.2:1) and the Sud-Est and Centre the highest, with ratios of 59:1 and 54.5:1 respectively. These proportions are to be expected. Employment in rural areas is generally viewed as less desirable than employment in urban centers, and the Ouest, with its relatively high concentration of urban places, is likely to be chosen as a work location by teachers if at all possible.

Current Unesco projections (published in Projections of Recurrent Expenditure in Public Primary Education) suggest a student/teacher ratio of 46:1. More recently, however, Government and the World Bank have considered 50:1 an appropriate student/teacher ratio. Accepting this figure would mean that there could be some expansion of class size in all departments except Centre and Sud-Est. This assumes that quality of instruction will not be significantly reduced. It is important, however, to recognize that these average figures mask the large range in class size. In rural areas, overcrowded classrooms are common, often with as many as 95 students per teacher.

TABLE 5.15

Primary Student/Teacher Ratios by Department

| Department | Teachers | Students | Student/Teacher Ratio |
|---|---|---|---|
| Ouest | 6,202 | 224,622 | 36.2 |
| Nord | 2,041 | 85,353 | 41.8 |
| Nord-Est | 646 | 28,326 | 43.8 |
| Nord-Ouest | 982 | 47,741 | 48.6 |
| Artibonite | 2,375 | 112,600 | 47.4 |
| Centre | 740 | 40,383 | 54.5 |
| Sud | 1,622 | 70,614 | 43.5 |
| Sud-Est | 718 | 42,410 | 59.0 |
| Grand-Anse | 1,660 | 70,992 | 42.7 |
| Haiti | 16,986 | 723,041 | 42.5 |

Source: Compiled from DEN, *Annuaire Statistique*, 1982-83 (unpublished).



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Interviews confirmed the great range in student/teacher ratios in the private sector: they ranged from 14:1 to 60:1 in the schools visited. Key informants indicated that ratios in rural private schools are often as high as 50:1 or 75:1 and even as high as 150:1. The high student/teacher ratios combined with large age ranges in a given class provide difficult, and in some cases virtually insurmountable, challenges for teachers.

Even figures as simple as student/teacher ratios can be deceiving, however. In one of the schools visited, the ratio was 50:1 (two teachers for 100 students) but there were seven grades in the school.

Projections. The Ministry of Education projects the following enrollments for 1985/86 through 1989/90 in its Two-Year Plan:

| | |
|---|---|
| 1985/86 | 829,700 |
| 1986/87 | 862,900 |
| 1987/88 | 897,400 |
| 1988/89 | 933,300 |
| 1989/90 | 970,600 |

These projections are based on the net change after accounting for repetition and dropout rates given in Table 5.9. These estimates are probably conservative, because they do not take into account the increase in promotion and decrease in repetition and dropout rates that are expected to occur with the gradual adoption of the Reform. Another reason to believe that these figures are conservative is that the average increase in primary enrollment between the 1975/76 and the 1982/83 school years was 6%, according to data in Table 5.1. If this rate of growth is assumed for the same period projected by the Two-Year Plan, then enrollments may be expected to increase as follows:

| | |
|---|---|
| 1983/84 | 766,423 |
| 1984/85 | 812,408 |
| 1985/86 | 861,153 |
| 1986/87 | 912,822 |
| 1987/88 | 967,591 |
| 1988/89 | 1,025,647 |
| 1989/90 | 1,087,186 |

This would suggest that enrollments would be approximately 12% higher than anticipated in the Two-Year Plan.

Because of the significance of the private sector, it is important to consider its projected enrollments for the same period. Approximately 60% of primary enrollments are now in private schools. Two sets of projections for primary private enrollments have been calculated. The first assumes that the percentage of private enrollments will remain at 60%. This is based on the

premise that most families are already spending as much as they can afford on education and that the percentage of private enrollments will not increase significantly due to lack of money.

However, even though data in Chapter 2 show that many poor families are paying relatively high proportions of their family incomes for education, this assumption may not be realistic. From Table 5.5, it can be seen that private school enrollments have increased on average of 14% each year since 1978/79. Therefore, a second projection, still considering the limited availability of financial resources for education, is made that assumes a 5% increase in private enrollments.

The projected low and high private school enrollments under these calculations are shown in Table 5.16. This shows the possible range for planning purposes. For the 1989/90 school year, enrollments are expected to fall between a low of 582,360 and a high of 804,517 pupils. The low projection gives figures for the continuing stable 60% of enrollments projected in the Two-Year Plan. The high projection uses the 6% growth in primary education figures and an annual 2% increase in the private sector's share of those enrollments. These two figures provide an estimate of the possible range of private primary enrollments.

TABLE 5.16

Projected Private Primary Enrollments

| | Low | | High | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Year | Number | Percent | Number | Percent |
| 1983-84 | -- | -- | 475,182 | 62 |
| 1984-85 | -- | -- | 519,941 | 64 |
| 1985-86 | 497,820 | 60 | 568,360 | 66 |
| 1986-87 | 517,740 | 60 | 620,718 | 68 |
| 1987-88 | 538,440 | 60 | 677,313 | 70 |
| 1988-89 | 559,980 | 60 | 738,465 | 72 |
| 1989-90 | 582,360 | 60 | 804,517 | 74 |



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Interviews with school directors and key informants provided opportunities to ask about those who did not get into schools. Fully 80 of the directors of schools visited, as well as representatives of the private school systems, indicated that they had to limit enrollments due to lack of space. For example, in a school near Les Cayes, an individual indicated that 300 students applied for the enfantine year. Applicants were given a simple test and 200 passed it, but there were places for only 90. For the most part, those allowed in at entry level are treated on a "first come, first served" basis. In a few cases, ability to pay was mentioned as a factor that was used to make a decision.

Furthermore, many children are not in school because schools may not be accessible. This is especially the case for children who live in remote, mountainous areas. Even where children do not have to walk long distances to school, the terrain may cause them to take a long time to get there. The Carte Scolaire, the school mapping project begun by Government in cooperation with the World Bank and Unesco in 1982, has begun to collect data relevant to this problem. For example, in 1982/83 in the Sud-Est Département more than 60% of the pupils lived more than one-half hour from school and 98% of pupils walked to school. These overall figures did not differ significantly between urban and rural zones. Informants told of children who walked as much as two or three hours to attend school.

5.1.4.3 Teachers

The availability of suitable numbers of skilled teachers is essential to implement primary education and the Reform effectively. In the last decade, the teacher force has increased by 65%, from 10,265 to a total of 16,986 as shown in Table 5.17. The urban force has grown by 56% and the rural by 75%. What is more remarkable, however, is the increase of teachers in the private sector compared to the public sector. Between 1974 and 1984, the increase in the number of public school teachers was only 18.5%, compared with 106% for the private schools. Corresponding with this, private school teachers accounted for 54% of the total teaching force in 1974: the private sector's share had increased to 67% by 1983.

Distribution. The distribution of primary teachers is shown by department, gender, level of class taught, sector, and location in Tables 5.18 through 5.21. The total teacher force of 16,986 teachers is divided almost equally between men and women. The distribution is not equal, however, when the data are further broken down. In the public urban schools female teachers (73%) exceed male teachers at every level, and there are more female than male teachers in every region. In public rural schools there are significantly more male (61%) than female teachers; although female teachers exceed their male counterparts in



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TABLE 5.17

Primary Teachers by Sector and Location, 1974-83

| Year | Public | | | Private | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Urban | Rural | Total | Urban | Rural | Total | |
| 1974 | 3,038 | 1,724 | 4,762 | 3,218 | 2,285 | 5,503 | 10,265 |
| 1975 | 3,127 | 1,756 | 4,883 | 3,975 | 2,462 | 6,437 | 11,320 |
| 1976 | 3,310 | 1,760 | 5,070 | 4,206 | 2,540 | 6,746 | 11,816 |
| 1977 | 3,413 | 1,831 | 5,244 | 5,019 | 2,690 | 7,709 | 12,593 |
| 1978 | 3,197 | 1,891 | 5,088 | 4,869 | 2,597 | 7,466 | 12,554 |
| 1979 | 3,304 | 1,803 | 5,107 | 4,984 | 2,660 | 7,644 | 12,751 |
| 1980 | 3,106 | 1,995 | 5,101 | 4,381 | 3,919 | 8,300 | 13,401 |
| 1981 | 3,191 | 2,168 | 5,359 | 4,456 | 4,766 | 9,222 | 14,581 |
| 1982 | 3,272 | 2,215 | 5,487 | 4,419 | 5,021 | 9,440 | 14,927 |
| 1983 | 3,448 | 2,195 | 5,643 | 6,508 | 4,835 | 11,343 | 16,986 |

Source: DEN, Annuaire Statistique, 1982/83 (1984).



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TABLE 5.18

URBAN PUBLIC PRIMARY TEACHERS BY LEVEL TAUGHT AND GENDER

ACCORDING TO GEOGRAPHIC DEPARTMENT, 1982/83

| Department | Total | | Enf | | 1 | | 2 | | 3 | | 4 | | 5 | | 6 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F |
| Ouest | 245 | 961 | 3 | 15 | 18 | 144 | 18 | 134 | 22 | 118 | 18 | 108 | 30 | 83 | 27 | 75 |
| Nord | 82 | 379 | 6 | 11 | 6 | 48 | 11 | 53 | 12 | 42 | 9 | 34 | 10 | 28 | 13 | 20 |
| Nord-Est | 63 | 89 | - | 4 | 4 | 10 | 6 | 12 | 2 | 10 | 5 | 7 | 6 | 7 | 11 | 4 |
| Nord-Ouest | 53 | 88 | 1 | - | 4 | 13 | 3 | 18 | 6 | 13 | 5 | 11 | 9 | 8 | 10 | 5 |
| Artibonite | 108 | 211 | 2 | 4 | 10 | 44 | 15 | 45 | 18 | 40 | 18 | 27 | 19 | 19 | 20 | 14 |
| Centre | 40 | 71 | - | - | 3 | 6 | 6 | 13 | 8 | 11 | 3 | 10 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 4 |
| Sud | 81 | 304 | 5 | 17 | 4 | 53 | 6 | 60 | 19 | 49 | 10 | 47 | 12 | 27 | 12 | 28 |
| Sud-Est | 61 | 119 | - | 3 | 5 | 19 | 9 | 20 | 11 | 12 | 10 | 14 | 8 | 8 | 10 | 6 |
| Grand-Anse | 190 | 303 | 2 | 2 | 9 | 26 | 10 | 38 | 15 | 34 | 21 | 21 | 19 | 19 | 13 | 13 |
| Total | 923 | 2,525 | 19 | 56 | 63 | 363 | 84 | 393 | 113 | 329 | 99 | 279 | 119 | 204 | 121 | 169 |

| Department | 1-2 | | 1-2-3 | | 1-3-4 | | 3-4 | | 5-6 | | 4-5-6 | | 3-4-5-6 | | Not Det. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F |
| Ouest | 1 | 1 | - | - | 1 | - | - | - | 2 | 1 | - | 1 | - | - | 105 | 281 |
| Nord | - | 2 | - | - | 1 | - | - | - | 1 | 2 | - | - | - | - | 13 | 139 |
| Nord-Est | 2 | - | - | - | - | - | 2 | - | 2 | - | 2 | - | 2 | 4 | 19 | 31 |
| Nord-Ouest | - | - | - | 1 | 3 | - | - | - | 1 | 1 | 1 | - | - | - | 10 | 18 |
| Artibonite | 1 | - | - | 1 | - | - | - | - | 3 | - | - | 1 | - | - | 2 | 16 |
| Centre | 1 | - | - | - | 2 | - | - | - | 3 | - | 1 | - | - | 1 | 2 | 21 |
| Sud | 3 | 1 | - | - | 2 | 1 | - | - | 5 | 1 | - | - | - | - | 3 | 20 |
| Sud-Est | - | 2 | - | - | - | 2 | - | - | 6 | 2 | - | - | 2 | 3 | - | 28 |
| Grand-Anse | - | 2 | - | 1 | 3 | 1 | - | - | 9 | - | - | - | - | 1 | 89 | 145 |
| Total | 8 | 8 | - | 3 | 12 | 4 | 2 | - | 32 | 7 | 4 | 2 | 4 | 9 | 243 | 699 |

SOURCE: DEN, ANNUAIRE STATISTIQUE, 1982/83 (UNPUBLISHED).

classe enfantine and the first two levels. In each region except Nord and Sud, there are also more male than female teachers.

In private schools, the distribution is somewhat different. Overall, in urban schools there are more female (55%) than male teachers, (as was the case in public urban schools). However, five departments (Nord-Est, Artibonite, Centre, Sud-Est, and Grande-Anse) have more male than female teachers. The only levels at which females exceed male teachers is in classe enfantine and the first two years, again showing the female bias in classes at the beginning of the primary cycle. In private rural schools, there are more male teachers (69%) than females (as is the case in public rural schools) and this is true at every level and in every region.

In spite of the increase in numbers of teachers, improvement is needed in a number of areas related to teacher qualifications and the professional environment in which teachers work. These will be discussed first, followed by a description of the inspectorate for primary schools.

It is evident from Tables 5.18 through 5.21 that many teachers are teaching several grades simultaneously. Altogether, 2,978 (17%) of the 16,986 teachers are responsible for more than one level. Teachers may teach two, three, or even four levels concurrently. In every case (level, sector, and location) except two, the proportion of male teachers teaching multilevels exceeds the proportion of female teachers with similar responsibilities. The percentage of teachers involved in multilevel teaching, however, varies considerably by sector and location. In the public sector, the comparative rural/urban rates are 37% and 3%. In the private sector, the rates are the same, 21%.

These figures suggest that multilevel teaching is a significant factor in Haitian primary education except in public urban schools. During data collection the assessment team was shown a sheet of suggestions for teaching six levels simultaneously that had been developed by one of the mission school systems. Multilevel teaching places additional demands on a teacher--a situation that is probably compounded when the multilevels also contain students exhibiting a wide range of ages.

In the public sector, the Ministry of Education is responsible for teacher placement. In theory, graduates of écoles normales (EN) are assigned to go to their place of origin or residence. If there are not enough teachers after EN graduates have been assigned, the Ministry recruits locally. These recruits must have completed 10 years of education and pass an examination that is set by the Ministry. Transfers will now be handled according to the guidelines in the recently formulated Teacher Charter.

Training and Status. The kind of training teachers receive effects the way they respond to classroom challenges. The numbers of teachers by level of

TABLE 5.19

URBAN PRIVATE PRIMARY TEACHERS BY LEVEL TAUGHT AND GENDER

ACCORDING TO GEOGRAPHIC DEPARTMENT, 1982/83

| Department | Total | | Enf | | 1 | | 2 | | 3 | | 4 | | 5 | | 6 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F |
| Ouest | 1,347 | 1,991 | 83 | 345 | 108 | 342 | 119 | 267 | 142 | 187 | 173 | 155 | 141 | 114 | 158 | 94 |
| Nord | 362 | 380 | 26 | 81 | 35 | 62 | 51 | 41 | 31 | 35 | 39 | 24 | 33 | 18 | 26 | 18 |
| Nord-Est | 131 | 108 | 10 | 15 | 13 | 21 | 18 | 6 | 13 | 17 | 23 | 8 | 11 | 11 | 15 | 5 |
| Nord-Ouest | 108 | 124 | 2 | 12 | 7 | 26 | 12 | 28 | 16 | 12 | 5 | 16 | 5 | 7 | 12 | - |
| Artibonite | 415 | 349 | 43 | 84 | 36 | 63 | 41 | 45 | 25 | 38 | 34 | 14 | 22 | 5 | 20 | 4 |
| Centre | 170 | 123 | 5 | 25 | 10 | 22 | 13 | 13 | 13 | 5 | 10 | 3 | 7 | 5 | 5 | 5 |
| Sud | 217 | 369 | 11 | 33 | 7 | 69 | 18 | 33 | 29 | 40 | 22 | 40 | 25 | 25 | 36 | 11 |
| Sud-Est | 54 | 27 | 7 | 8 | 4 | 4 | 7 | 1 | 5 | 2 | 6 | 2 | 4 | - | 2 | - |
| Grand-Anse | 142 | 91 | 13 | 33 | 7 | 18 | 7 | 9 | 5 | 5 | 11 | 2 | 11 | 2 | 13 | 2 |
| Total | 2,946 | 3,562 | 200 | 639 | 227 | 627 | 286 | 443 | 279 | 341 | 323 | 264 | 259 | 187 | 287 | 139 |

| Department | 1-2-3 | | 4-5-6 | | 1-2 | | 3-4 | | 5-6 | | 3-4-5-6 | | Not Det. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F |
| Ouest | 6 | 8 | 11 | 3 | 42 | 47 | 66 | 39 | 128 | 34 | 11 | 3 | 159 | 353 |
| Nord | 4 | 2 | 4 | 2 | 18 | 15 | 22 | 18 | 42 | 18 | - | 2 | 31 | 44 |
| Nord-Est | 2 | - | - | - | 5 | 6 | 7 | 2 | 8 | 2 | - | - | 6 | 15 |
| Nord-Ouest | - | - | - | - | 5 | 2 | 9 | 5 | 23 | - | 2 | - | 10 | 16 |
| Artibonite | 5 | 2 | 4 | - | 26 | 9 | 39 | 7 | 59 | 5 | 2 | - | 59 | 73 |
| Centre | 2 | 3 | 5 | - | 20 | 17 | 22 | 3 | 20 | - | 13 | - | 25 | 22 |
| Sud | 11 | - | 4 | - | 7 | 25 | 7 | 11 | 29 | 3 | 4 | 3 | 7 | 73 |
| Sud-Est | - | - | - | - | 5 | 1 | 4 | 1 | 6 | 1 | - | - | 4 | 7 |
| Grand-Anse | 9 | 4 | 2 | - | 13 | 5 | 18 | 2 | 15 | 2 | - | - | 18 | 7 |
| Total | 39 | 19 | 30 | 5 | 141 | 127 | 194 | 88 | 330 | 65 | 32 | 8 | 319 | 610 |

SOURCE: DEN, ANNUAIRE STATISTIQUE, 1982/83 (UNPUBLISHED).

TABLE 5.20

RURAL PUBLIC PRIMARY TEACHERS BY LEVEL TAUGHT AND GENDER

ACCORDING TO GEOGRAPHIC DEPARTMENT, 1982/83

| Department | Total | | Enf | | 1 | | 2 | | 3 | | 4 | | 5 | | 6 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F |
| Ouest | 265 | 194 | 11 | 29 | 23 | 59 | 32 | 41 | 30 | 17 | 25 | 14 | 13 | 2 | 11 | - |
| Nord | 165 | 210 | 7 | 46 | 9 | 27 | 9 | 36 | 5 | 23 | 14 | 7 | 2 | 11 | 7 | 5 |
| Nord-Est | 86 | 41 | 10 | 2 | - | 5 | 2 | 2 | - | - | - | - | 5 | - | - | - |
| Nord-Ouest | 74 | 40 | 4 | 3 | 1 | 4 | - | 3 | - | 1 | 3 | - | - | - | - | - |
| Artibonite | 265 | 125 | 11 | 24 | 18 | 28 | 15 | 23 | 19 | 11 | 19 | 16 | 16 | 2 | 23 | - |
| Centre | 85 | 33 | 7 | 2 | 4 | 2 | 5 | 2 | - | 7 | 2 | 2 | 4 | - | 4 | - |
| Sud | 85 | 101 | 3 | 3 | - | 13 | 7 | 14 | 4 | 9 | 6 | 8 | 6 | 7 | 9 | 3 |
| Sud-Est | 93 | 31 | 11 | 2 | 12 | 6 | 12 | 7 | 6 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 3 | - | 4 | 1 |
| Grand-Anse | 214 | 88 | 14 | 10 | 13 | 11 | 11 | 10 | 8 | 5 | 11 | 2 | 10 | - | 8 | - |
| Total | 1,332 | 863 | 78 | 121 | 80 | 155 | 93 | 138 | 72 | 75 | 83 | 50 | 59 | 22 | 66 | 9 |

| Department | 1-2-3 | | 4-5-6 | | 1-2 | | 3-4 | | 5-6 | | 3-4-5-6 | | Not Det. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F |
| Ouest | 4 | - | 5 | - | 13 | 11 | 25 | 4 | 36 | 5 | 23 | - | 14 | 12 |
| Nord | 16 | 2 | 5 | 2 | 14 | 14 | 23 | 2 | 27 | 7 | 7 | - | 20 | 28 |
| Nord-Est | 12 | 2 | 5 | - | 15 | 5 | 20 | 7 | 7 | - | - | - | 10 | 18 |
| Nord-Ouest | 3 | 4 | 7 | - | 8 | 8 | 11 | 3 | 15 | 1 | 7 | - | 15 | 13 |
| Artibonite | 11 | 3 | 6 | - | 18 | 13 | 29 | 1 | 45 | 2 | 8 | - | 27 | 2 |
| Centre | 7 | - | - | 2 | 2 | 7 | 7 | - | 9 | - | 11 | - | 23 | 9 |
| Sud | 1 | - | 1 | - | 9 | 3 | 10 | 6 | 16 | 3 | 4 | - | 9 | 32 |
| Sud-Est | 7 | 3 | 5 | 1 | 7 | 3 | 8 | 2 | 7 | 2 | 8 | 1 | - | - |
| Grand-Anse | 19 | 5 | 8 | - | 14 | 11 | 26 | 3 | 27 | - | 21 | - | 24 | 21 |
| Total | 80 | 19 | 42 | 5 | 100 | 75 | 159 | 28 | 189 | 20 | 89 | 1 | 142 | 145 |

SOURCE: DEN, ANNUAIRE STATISTIQUE, 1982/83 (UNPUBLISHED).

TABLE 5.21

RURAL PRIVATE PRIMARY TEACHERS BY LEVEL TAUGHT AND GENDER

ACCORDING TO GEOGRAPHIC DEPARTMENT, 1982/83

| Department | Total | | Enf | | 1 | | 2 | | 3 | | 4 | | 5 | | 6 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F |
| Ouest | 767 | 432 | 91 | 139 | 98 | 64 | 78 | 52 | 63 | 17 | 60 | 23 | 40 | 12 | 33 | 6 |
| Nord | 311 | 152 | 68 | 53 | 42 | 24 | 53 | 13 | 24 | 14 | 18 | 18 | 14 | 11 | 11 | 5 |
| Nord-Est | 96 | 32 | 25 | 8 | 16 | - | 10 | 1 | 4 | 3 | 6 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 3 | 4 |
| Nord-Ouest | 306 | 189 | 63 | 57 | 27 | 32 | 23 | 20 | 22 | 15 | 33 | 7 | 22 | 12 | 20 | 12 |
| Artibonite | 681 | 221 | 137 | 105 | 97 | 41 | 76 | 23 | 70 | 14 | 58 | 14 | 39 | 6 | 31 | 2 |
| Centre | 168 | 50 | 38 | 7 | 17 | 9 | 9 | 4 | 9 | 6 | 6 | 2 | 9 | - | 7 | 2 |
| Sud | 306 | 159 | 66 | 52 | 54 | 30 | 44 | 17 | 37 | 13 | 25 | 5 | 18 | 7 | 19 | 2 |
| Sud-Est | 261 | 72 | 46 | 16 | 38 | 16 | 35 | 13 | 31 | 2 | 16 | - | 17 | 3 | 2 | - |
| Grand-Anse | 425 | 207 | 51 | 49 | 38 | 21 | 45 | 12 | 33 | 14 | 24 | 28 | 24 | 12 | 18 | 9 |
| Total | 3,321 | 1,514 | 585 | 486 | 427 | 237 | 373 | 155 | 293 | 98 | 246 | 98 | 184 | 66 | 144 | 42 |

| Department | 1-2-3 | | 4-5-6 | | 1-2 | | 3-4 | | 5-6 | | 3-4-5-6 | | 1-3-4 | | Not Det. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F |
| Ouest | 18 | 12 | 18 | - | 35 | 6 | 60 | 3 | 71 | 15 | 10 | - | - | - | 92 | 83 |
| Nord | 7 | - | 7 | - | 7 | - | 5 | - | 14 | - | 7 | - | - | - | 34 | 14 |
| Nord-Est | 17 | 6 | - | - | 8 | 6 | 6 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Nord-Ouest | 5 | 2 | 3 | - | 13 | 8 | 20 | 7 | 28 | 2 | 7 | - | - | - | 20 | 15 |
| Artibonite | 10 | 2 | 8 | - | 56 | 2 | 41 | 4 | 52 | 8 | 6 | - | - | - | - | - |
| Centre | 12 | 2 | 2 | - | 4 | - | 12 | - | 9 | 4 | 4 | 4 | - | - | 30 | 10 |
| Sud | 7 | 2 | 9 | 7 | 6 | 9 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 7 | 2 | 4 | 5 | 2 | 1 |
| Sud-Est | 7 | 2 | - | - | 5 | 2 | 14 | 2 | 10 | - | 10 | - | - | - | 30 | 16 |
| Grand-Anse | 24 | 12 | 14 | 8 | 62 | 12 | 38 | 4 | 38 | 6 | 2 | 18 | - | - | 14 | 2 |
| Total | 107 | 40 | 61 | 15 | 195 | 45 | 201 | 24 | 225 | 38 | 53 | 24 | 4 | 5 | 222 | 141 |

SOURCE: DEN, ANNUAIRE STATISTIQUE, 1982/83 (UNPUBLISHED).

training, sector, and location are given in Table 5.22. According to the Ministry of Education, successful completion of studies at a teacher training college (*école normale*), completion of the *CAP troisième*, or university studies are the levels of training that should qualify a teacher for primary school.

TABLE 5.22

Primary Teachers by Sector and Qualification, 1982/83

| | SECTOR | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Public | | Private | | |
| Qualification | Urban | Rural | Urban | Rural | Total |
| CEP | 21 | 10 | 420 | 784 | 1,235 |
| 6e | 29 | 6 | 260 | 754 | 1,049 |
| 5e | 55 | 17 | 521 | 695 | 1,288 |
| 4e | 203 | 172 | 958 | 778 | 2,111 |
| 3e | 448 | 636 | 1,013 | 622 | 2,719 |
| B.E.P.C | 534 | 289 | 436 | 93 | 1,352 |
| 2e | 355 | 393 | 658 | 284 | 1,690 |
| *Rhéto* | 381 | 381 | 1,127 | 264 | 2,153 |
| *Philo* | 41 | 28 | 213 | 35 | 317 |
| *Normalien* | 599 | 54 | 362 | 74 | 1,089 |
| University | 2 | -- | 19 | 26 | 47 |
| CAP | 70 | 28 | 60 | 21 | 179 |
| Not Determined | 632 | 168 | 337 | 398 | 1,535 |
| Total | 3,448 | 2,195 | 6,508 | 4,835 | 16,986 |

Source: Compiled from DEN, *Annuaire Statistique*, 1982-83 (unpublished).

The current minimum, stated requirement to teach in primary school is 10 years of basic education or enrollment in secondary school at the troisième (3e) level or above. Using the desired qualifications as a criterion, less than 10% of primary school teachers (1,285) could be considered qualified. Using the 10 years of basic education criterion, approximately 30% can be considered trained. These figures are very low and present a serious problem in the educational system.

There are significant differences by sector and location with respect to the number of trained teachers. In rural areas, only 6% of teachers are normaliens (graduates of an école normale) or their equivalent, whereas 14% of urban teachers are trained.

There is a similar disparity between private and public schools. In private schools only 5% of teachers are trained. The percentage is much higher in public schools--19%. Considering that many schools have multilevel classes and there are many over-age children enrolled, it appears that the majority of teachers are not adequately prepared to teach their classes.

Though teacher training is the topic of a full chapter of this sector assessment, some comments are appropriate at this point. The Ministry of Education is engaged in a large-scale, inservice teacher training program to enable both public and private school teachers to participate effectively in Education Reform classes. According to the National Pedogogical Institute, over 7,000 teachers have participated in recyclage, or inservice training for the Reform; details by sector or location are not available. Two different types of training are provided. One is a two-month program at an école normale, which was designed to be supported by radio broadcasts when the teachers return to their classrooms, and the other is a five-day training program that is offered at different locations around the country.

In six of the private schools visited, some of the teachers had participated in the Reform recyclage. Some private schools indicated that it was difficult to be accepted for IPN training if teachers had not already successfully completed a course at an école normale. The demand for recyclage is apparently high and one school was told that there was not enough space or funds for its teachers to participate in IPN inservice training. There were some complaints from individuals in private schools that the IPN training is too short and that it is not designed for teachers who are inadequately trained.

Some of the private school systems have their own training program. The one at the mini-schools in Port-au-Prince has already been described. The Methodist Church provides inservice training at its teacher training college and through workshops offered by its inspectors.

One of the most serious problems facing primary education relates to the teaching profession and the pay scale for teachers. In the public sector, trained teachers receive $100 per month regardless of their years of service. Net salary is less because there are several deductions for items such as health insurance, pension, and contributions to Duvalier's tomb and the lottery. Key informants indicated that many public sector teachers have difficulty getting their paychecks and that they often receive less than the amount they should. In an attempt to remedy this, and as part of the Reform, Government approved a Teacher Charter in October 1984. This document and its implications are covered more fully in Chapter 7 of this assessment, which addresses teacher education. The Teacher Charter lists an improved pay scale and gives criteria for each scale level. It also addresses items such as leave and recruitment and placement of teachers. The Charter is a major step toward improving the situation of teachers, but it remains to be seen whether there are funds to meet the new salaries and to implement the necessary monitoring systems.

The situation in the private sector is no better. The teacher salary ranges in 11 of the schools visited are shown in Table 5.23. They vary from $25 to $130 a month, with an average monthly low salary of $44 and an average high of $83. Variability is much greater than in the public sector, and the average salary is less. It should be noted that there also is significant variability in the public sector. For example, in one of the public schools visited, a teacher was "waiting to retire," and as long as she continues to receive her teacher's salary, she pays $40 of it per month to a young man to teach for her.

TABLE 5.23

Example of Teacher Salaries in the Private Sector, 1984

| | Salary Range | |
|---|---|---|
| School | Low | High |
| 1 | 50 | 100[a] |
| 2 | 80 | 100[b] |
| 3 | 25 | - |
| 4 | 55 | 85 |
| 5 | 80 | 95 |
| 6 | 60 | 80 |
| 7 | 40 | 106 |
| 8 | 40 | 70 |
| 9 | 30 | 40 |
| 10 | 30 | 60 |
| 11 | 40 | 130 |
| Average | 44 | 83 |

[a]Public school included for comparison
[b]Public congregational school; that is, teachers paid by Government.



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Being aware of the salary structure and teaching conditions in some of the private school systems is important, because they provide alternative professional structures for teachers. Two examples are described:

1. The Seventh Day Adventist World Service (SAWS) has two school systems, one in the Nord and one in the Sud. In the southern region, 40 schools are divided into two types--17 écoles reconnues and 23 écoles nonreconnues. The recognized schools (écoles reconnues) receive substantial financial support from SAWS, whereas the others receive very little. There are 19 permanent teachers in the recognized schools who receive an average monthly salary of $134, which is supplemented by a rent allocation that averages $18 per month, a family allowance that averages $43 per month, and coverage of 75% of all medical bills. Thus, these teachers are relatively well paid, with a reasonably high salary plus supplements covered by SAWS. Teachers have a contract that delineates responsibilities. The écoles nonreconnues receive only a small amount of support from SAWS and are usually operated by a a local church.
2. In the Eglise Méthodiste d'Haïti system there are 292 teachers. Data are not available on grade and qualifications, but a study that includes this will soon be completed. Teachers without a diploma start at $55 per month, with some variation according to level of school in the Port-au-Prince and Petit-Goâve circuits. Those with a diploma and no experience start at $77 per month and will receive a raise each year. In addition, there are several allocations: for additional responsibilities at $5-$10 per month (e.g., people who work late in the evenings with higher levels), for transportation ($6-$10 per month), and for living in remote areas ($10-$20 per month).

The interviews provided a sense of the kinds of people in the teaching profession in the private sector. Many are fairly young, and in at least one school, several are also pursuing secondary studies after teaching in the morning. Teachers' ages in the schools visited range from 20 to 50. Most teachers do not have many years of experience in the school in which they are teaching. The range of experience encountered was one to 22 years, with less than five being most common.

Informed educators described turnover among teachers as extremely high and said that many teachers are only "in transit" as teachers until they can find employment with a higher salary. For many, teaching is a short-term employment activity; they want to get out of the profession and would like to move to a job such as a chauffeur or a tailor because they will earn more. Thus, teacher retention is a serious problem.

The problem for many others is that their profession does not receive much respect and they do not respect it themselves. This low status of the profession relates to the low salaries associated with it. Many teachers hold a second job just to meet their minimum financial obligations. Discussions and observations indicate a greater level of professional support and encouragement for teachers in some private school systems. These systems provide incentives (SAWS provides lodging and other supports, for example) and also pedagogical support.

The outcome of these circumstances is an interesting contradiction. On one hand, there is an inadequate supply of qualified and experienced teachers. On the other, the economic situation is so severe that there are individuals who are willing to teach for as little as $25 or $30 a month.

The situation regarding availability of trained manpower for the primary subsector is serious. Chapter 7 (Teacher Training) points to the large decrease in the number of applicants to teacher training colleges between 1983 and 1984 (from 1,900 to 662). The same chapter indicates that in the 1983/84 academic year, only 857 students enrolled in the 10 accredited teacher training schools. Using even the most conservative figures related to projected enrollments cited earlier in this Chapter, there is a significant gap between the potential number of available teachers and the number of teachers needed, using a student/teacher ratio of 50:1. The following calculation on an annual basis illustrates the point:

| | |
|---|---|
| Number of pupils | 829,700 |
| Number of teachers in system less 10% attrition | 15,288 |
| Number of expected teacher training college graduates | 285 |
| Estimated total number of teachers | 15,573 |
| Number of teachers required (50:1 ratio) | 16,594 |
| Shortage of teachers | 1,021 |

A 10% attrition has been observed in Haiti. If the trend in decreasing enrollments in the écoles normales continues, as the student enrollments increase, the situation will become more serious.

Inspection. The inspectorate of the Division of Primary Education of the Ministry of Education is responsible for supervising teaching in both public and private sectors. As part of the plan to decentralize, major responsibility for inspection is at the departmental levels. There are 10 departmental inspectors--one for each department and one for the Port-au-Prince area. Each departmental inspector receives $500 per month.

In October 1984, the Ministry of Education informed all departmental inspectors that all public schools and all schools receiving subsidies from the state or international organizations are to form school management committees

which will have pedagogical, administrative, and social responsibilities. This committee will consist of elected teachers and community leaders selected by Community Action Councils (see Chapter 11 for a description of these). Actual operation of these committees has not yet started.

The Ministry of Education is currently reorganizing the next level (district) of inspection. Formerly there were two groups of inspectors, district inspectors who had administrative tasks and pedagogical advisors who provided pedagogical support to teachers. As part of the Reform, these two types are being integrated into a single corps of 193 district inspectors. They receive $250 per month, plus transportation and per diem allowances. Each will be responsible for 20-30 schools (3,241 schools/193 = 17) and will be expected to visit every school six times during the school year. This expectation is unrealistic, given the distances, terrain, and lack of logistics support; evidence suggests that only public schools are visited. These new district inspectors are being trained by IPN for the Reform, with 175 of the 193 having received their training to date. Concerns have been voiced within the Ministry of Education that the training they receive concentrates too heavily on information and not enough on the learning process.

The merging of the two types of inspectors presents problems. The new district inspectorate is generally expected to emphasize its pedagogical functions, providing support and guidance to teachers to improve the quality of education. Although this is not a new concept for the former pedagogical advisors, it is a very different function for the 71 district inspectors who formerly had only an administrative and monitoring role. Moreover, the district inspectors are an important link between the schools and the regional and central operations of the Ministry of Education.

Improvement within the inspectorate is an important first step toward improving the quality of instruction. A next important step is the development of uniform inspection standards. Interview data indicate that visits from public school inspectors are generally short and not particularly helpful. In one public school visited, it was noted that the only inspectoral visits were from a very helpful inspector who is part of one of the private school systems. The majority of private school directors interviewed indicated that they sometimes saw public school inspectors, but not often. A representative from one of the private school systems stressed that visits from public inspectors have to be requested and that these visits are essentially a formality.

The major private school systems visited all had developed their own inspectorates. For example, the Methodist Church of Haiti has eight inspectors for its five circuits. These individuals are former school directors who use motorcycles to make frequent visits to Methodist (and also to some public)

schools. They are responsible for giving local seminars to teachers and for collecting data on schools. Twice a year they receive a week of training in administration at the Methodist sponsored teacher training college in Port-au-Prince. Current plans are to have a mobile teacher training team of which inspectors would be a part.

The Seventh Day Adventist World Service has two inspectors for its 40 schools in the southern region. Their work is facilitated by inspection forms which address a range of factors that should be considered in an inspection. Inspectors for the Baptist Haiti Mission are responsible for from six to 20 schools, depending on the terrain. Their liaison role is viewed as particularly important. Inspectors, who are paid $100-$150 a month, take part in an annual seminar but they are not able to give a great deal of pedagogical advice.

5.1.4.4 Curriculum

Although specific information is not available, informed opinion suggests that the majority of private and many public schools do not follow the Reform curriculum. They instead continue to follow the traditional curriculum which includes the following subjects at the primary level: French, history, geography, civics, natural sciences, drawing, mathematics, and sewing (the last subject for girls). Many private schools add religious studies to the curriculum.

In the public schools all materials are in French. In schools following the traditional curriculum, French is supposedly the language of instruction; although in most schools this is probably not the case. Evidence collected during the assessment suggested that Creole is the language of instruction virtually everywhere. Many of the texts available to support the traditional curriculum are outmoded and totally inappropriate for the Haitian context.

There are many departures from the traditional curriculum in the private sector. Some of the better private schools produce their own texts or acquire them elsewhere to compensate for or supplement the approved texts. In many other schools, the traditional curriculum is taught, but the language of instruction is Creole. In these cases, Creole texts are usually used as well.

The composition of the new curriculum is best understood within the context of the goals of the Reform. The Reform is designed to make schooling relevant to the realities of life in Haiti. It is an attempt to allow an expansion of the number of children who attain a basic education and to improve the quality and utility of that education. The primary curriculum for all three cycles has been planned, but materials are as yet available only for the first cycle, that is, the first four years.

The rate of Reform implementation that was planned in public schools is illustrated in Figure 5.7. It shows the projected number of students and classrooms involved in the Reform by year and by level. For the 1983/84 school year, these projections show 1,215 first-year classrooms and 143,600 pupils (18.7%) participating in the Reform. They also show fully 36.5% of first-year students studying under the Reform. It is not clear how many schools are actually participating in the Reform, however. According to Unesco, 927 of 3,340 schools (27%) were participating in 1984. The IPN thinks that at least 1,180 schools are following the Reform program to some extent. No estimates regarding the public/private split are available, but once the new inspectorate is functioning, it should be able to provide such information, perhaps by spring 1985.

Subjects taught at primary school in the Reform program are reading and writing readiness: reading and writing Creole; reading, writing, and speaking French; mathematics; and environmental/multidisciplinary studies. (This last subject includes topics such as science, nature study, history, and geography.) The Reform program, which includes teacher guides and student workbooks, emphasizes discovery-oriented approaches to ensure student participation in learning, as well as mastery of content.

The curriculum for the first cycle has been implemented in a number of schools. Subjects taught and number of hours to be devoted to each, according to the year of the cycle, are listed in Table 5.24. A total of 22.3 contact hours per week is planned. The following subjects are covered: school readiness; reading, writing, and speaking French; reading and writing Creole; mathematics; environmental studies; physical education; religious education; and orientation. Texts and teacher guides prepared for the first cycle of the Reform are listed in Table 5.25. A total of 44 books have been finished.

Experimental work on the texts was begun in 1978, and 1984 was the initial year for the fourth year of the first cycle. This means that schools using fourth-year materials received them without charge from Government through financial support from the Third Education Project (World Bank).

Starting this year, students have had to purchase Reform textbooks, whereas teacher's guides are still available without charge to public schools. The textbooks are inexpensive, however. The average price for a textbook is $1 and for a teacher's guide $2. Textbooks are delivered by the publisher (Deschamps) to 150 locations in the country for distribution and sale through private sector marketing channels. There have been some complaints regarding lack of availability of textbooks throughout the country; this was partly due to the publisher's printing far fewer textbooks than specified by the contract with the Ministry of Education. (Primary school textbooks are discussed in more detail in Chapter 12 of this assessment.)

FIGURE 5.7

Implementation of Education Reform

Number of Classrooms by Year

| 1979-80 | 1980-81 | 1981-82 | 1982-83 | 1983-84 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 110 | 400 | 600 | 874 | 1,215 |

**Number of Students (Thousands) by Year**

| LEVEL | 1979-80 | 1980-81 | 1981-82 | 1982-83 | 1983-84 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 5.5 | 14.6 | 24.6 | 52.4 | 72.9 |
| 2 | | 4.7 | 12.2 | 21.3 | 36.9 |
| 3 | | | 3.3 | 11.2 | 20.8 |
| 4 | | | | 1.6 | 10.3 |

| | 1979-80 | 1980-81 | 1981-82 | 1982-83 | 1983-84 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total Pupils | 580,100 | 642,300 | 658,100 | 723,000 | 767,100 |
| Reform Pupils | 5,500 | 19,300 | 40,100 | 86,500 | 143,600 |
| % of Pupils in Reform | 0.9% | 3% | 6.1% | 12% | 18.7% |
| % of First Year Pupils in Reform | 4.3% | 10.7% | 15.3% | 29.1% | 36.5% |

Source: DEN *Plan Biennal D'Education, 1984-86* (1984).



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TABLE 5.24

Weekly Schedule for First Cycle of Reform Instruction (Years 1-4)

(Hours/Minutes by Subject)

| Subject | 1st Year | | | 2nd Year | 3rd Year | | 4th Year |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1st Period | 2nd Period | 3rd Period | | 1st Period | 2nd Period | |
| School Readiness | 11. | 2. | 1. | - | - | - | - |
| Oral French | 5. | 5. | 5. | 5. | 5. | 2.30 | 2.30 |
| Reading & Writing French | - | - | - | - | - | 4.15 | 4.15 |
| Reading & Writing Creole | - | 5. | 7.30 | 7.30 | 5. | 3. | 3. |
| Mathematics | - | 3.45 | 3.45 | 3.45 | 3.45 | 3.45 | 3.45 |
| Environmental Awareness | - | - | - | 2.45 | 6.15 | 6.30 | 6.30 |
| Physical Education | 1.30 | 1.30 | 1.30 | 1.30 | 1.30 | 1.30 | 1.30 |
| Religious Education | 1. | 1. | 1. | 1. | 1. | 1. | 1. |
| Orientation | 1.30 | 1.30 | 1.30 | 1.0 | - | - | - |
| Variation of Activities | 1. | 1.15 | 1.15 | - | - | - | - |
| Communication in Creole | 1.30 | 1.30 | - | - | - | - | - |
| Total hours per week | 22.30 | 22.30 | 22.30 | 22.30 | 22.30 | 22.30 | 22.30 |

Source: DEN, La Reforme Educative, 1982.

TABLE 5.25

Materials Prepared by IPN for Classes Following the Reform

| Teachers Guides | Student Texts & Workbooks |
|---|---|
| **First Year** | |
| Premeye konesans mwen Gid met la (Preapprentissages) | Kaye egzesis desen-ekriti-matematik (77 pages) |
| Matematik le ane Gid met la | |
| Lekti-Ekriti le ak 2em ane<br>Pol ak Anita<br>Gid met la | Pol ak Anita<br>Lekti le ak 2em ane (93 pages) |
| Langage Français<br>Première année<br>Guide du maître Nos 1-2-3 | Bilten pou chak twamwa<br>Bullatin trimestriel |
| 42 Planches d'images collectives | |
| **Second year** | |
| Konprann sa nou li<br>Gid met la<br>Lekti 2 em ane | Konprann sa nou li<br>Lekti dezyem ane<br>2em edisyon ak kek chanjman<br>(127 pages) |
| Activite pou devlope lespri<br>Cheche knonen sa ki nan alantou nou. (Eveil)<br>Gid met la - 2em ane<br>115 pages (couverture jaune abricot) | Egzesis pou devlope lespri<br>2em ane (31 pages)<br>(couverture jaune abricot) |
| Matematik 2em ane<br>Gid met la | Matematik 2em ane<br>Kaye elev (54 pages) |
| Français oral<br>Deuxième anée<br>Guide du maitre Nos 1-2<br>20 planches d'images collectives | Bilten pou chak twamwa<br>Bullatin trimestriel |
| **Third Year** | |
| Konprann sa nou li<br>3em ane-Gid met la (1984) | Konprann sa nou li<br>Lekti twazyem ane (1984) |
| | Konprann sa nou li<br>Egzesis 3em ane (1984) |
| Grame kreyol 3em ane<br>Gid met la (1984) | Grame kreyol<br>Liv elev 3em ane (1984) |
| Lire et ecrire en francais-Parler français<br>Guide dumaitre 3eme année | Lire et écrire en français<br>Livret de l'elev 3eme annee (1984) |



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Table 5.25 (continued)

| Teachers Guides | Student Texts & Workbooks |
|---|---|
| **Third Year** (continued) | |
| | Parler français<br>Livret de l'eleve 3eme annee (1984) |
| Matematik 3em ane<br>Gid met la | Matematik liv elev 3em ane<br>(1984) |
| Cheche knonen sa ki nan alantou nou<br>Gid met la 3em ane (1984) | Cheche konnen sa ki nan alantou nou<br>Liv egzeris elev 3em ane |
| | Bilten pou chak twamwa<br>Bulletin trimestriel |
| **Fourth Year** | |
| Knonprann sa nou li<br>4em ane Gid met la | Konprann sa nou li<br>Lekti 4em ak 5em ane |
| | Konprann sa nou li<br>Egzeris 4em ak 5em ane |
| Grame kreyol<br>4em ane Gid met la | Grame kreyol<br>Kaye elev 4em ane |
| Le français en 4eme année<br>Guide du maitre | Le français en 4em et 5eme annee - Livre de l'eleve |
| Matematik 4em ane<br>Gid met la | Matematik<br>Liv elev 4em ane |
| Cheche konnen sa ki nan alantou nou: Moun bet plan - Gid met la 4em ane | Cheche konnen sa ki nan alantou nou: Moun bet Plan 4em ak 5em ane |
| Cheche konnen sa ki nan alantou nou: Istwa. Jeografi Gid met la 4em ane | Cheche konnen sa ki nan alantou nou: Istwa. Jeografi 4em ak 5em ane. |
| | Bilten pou chak twamwa<br>Bulletin trimestriel |

Source: IPN (1984)

Also under the World Bank project, each public school utilizing the Reform curriculum receives several sets of books at no cost to the school for each Reform class. This support provides free textbooks for 25% of the students in each Reform class; for simplicity, each school receives 11 sets of books per class. These books are for use by students who are not able to purchase books; the sets are to remain at the school to guarantee access to them. The free textbooks are delivered to the schools by inspectors who receive them at the regional centers.

In general, the books for the first two years of the primary cycle have been well received. There have been criticisms that the teacher's guides are too difficult for the majority of teachers to follow, and the IPN plans to revise these materials. The Ministry of Education has approved some textbooks produced by the Catholic church as appropriate supplemental materials for the Reform curriculum; these are also available through commercial channels. Some of the private mission school systems produce their own books which they use to supplement the Reform materials. For example, the Methodist system has a series of more than two dozen books which it produced before it adopted the Reform and which are still used by the Methodist schools and some other private schools.

The curriculum for the second cycle (years 5-7) has been planned and the subjects and numbers of hours of instruction are shown in Table 5.26. As in the first cycle, 22.3 hours per week are planned for studies in languages, mathematics, natural and social sciences, technology and productive activities, and physical education. The IPN indicates that a major obstacle to developing a detailed curriculum for the second cycle is that they are not sure how to put into operation the planned content on "an introduction to technology and productive activities." They are uncertain whether to make it a separate course or to integrate the subject matter into other courses, such as mathematics and environmental studies. There is also concern that there might not be sufficient funds for developing this important subject area. Neither IPN nor the Division of Primary Education has provisions for physical education, and no staff is available to plan that part of the curriculum for either of the first two cycles.

The mathematics teacher guide and students' workbook for the fifth year have been developed. Teacher guides and workbooks under preparation are listed in Table 5.27. Books are being prepared for French, Creole, social sciences, and experimental sciences. Curriculum planning for the third cycle is in its formative stages.

Some educators in the private sector have indicated that, although they are very pleased with the first two years' curriculum, they feel that content in the second two years of the primary cycle is insufficient. In at least one of the

TABLE 5.26

Weekly Schedule for Second Cycle of Education Reform
(Hours/Minutes by subject)

| Subject | 5th Year | 6th Year | 7th Year |
|---|---|---|---|
| Language - Communication | 7 | 5 | 5 |
| Mathematics | 5 | 5 | 5 |
| Environmental and social studies | 6.30 | 7.30 | 7.30 |
| | (4) | (4.30) | (4.30) |
| Introduction to moral, civic, and spiritual values | (1.15) | (1.30) | (1.30) |
| Introduction to creative activities and artistic appreciation | (1.15) | (1.30) | (1.30) |
| Introduction to technology and productive activities | 3 | 4 | 4 |
| Physical education | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Total hours per week | 22.30 | 22.30 | 22.30 |

Source: IPN (1984)

TABLE 5.27

Second Cycle Books in Preparation, December 1984

| Year | Subject | Guide | Workbook |
|---|---|---|---|
| Five | Written and oral French | X | X |
| Five and first part of six | French grammar, Creole grammar, written and oral Creole | X<br>X | X<br>X |
| Five and first part of six | Social sciences (first part) | X | X |
| Five and first part of six | Experimental sciences (first part) | X | X |

Source: IPN



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private primary systems, additional materials are used to supplement the curriculum. The IPN believes that it is lack of familiarity with the new pedagogy that causes individuals to feel this way (i.e., teachers are expected to explore and develop additional materials with students). This question will be addressed further in the analysis section of this chapter.

In the private schools visited, about half were following the Reform curriculum. Ten of the 17 Écoles reconnues in the SAWS system and all the Methodist schools are using the Reform. Data collected on the private sector suggest that the list of schools in the team's survey was not representative and that the majority of private schools follow the traditional curriculum.

In general, teachers and school directors find the Reform easier to teach and note that students learn better and more quickly. Once teachers understand the objectives and pedagogical style of the Reform, they seem to prefer it to the traditional curriculum.

There has been substantial resistance to the new curriculum. Parental resistance was initially strong, and Reform schools report that they have lost students to schools that retained the traditional curriculum. From discussions with educators in both the private and the public sectors, it would appear that parents are gradually accepting the Reform, because they are coming to realize that their children are learning more.

Regardless of the curriculum being used, teachers regard French as the most difficult subject to teach and indicate that students find it the most difficult subject to learn. Factors limiting achievement in French include the fact that teachers themselves do not master the language and it is not used much in childrens' environments. Mastery of French is important for primary school pupils, and it is a difficult task because, for the vast majority, French is a foreign language that distinguishes elite Haitians from the majority of the population (children from wealthy families grow up speaking both French and Creole).

Instruction begins in French with the first year of the traditional curriculum. This partly explains why the enfantine class is focused on language learning and why some children spend so much time in that first level of school (see Chapter 4 on Preprimary Education). Under the Reform, the first cycle instruction is in Creole. In the first two years, oral French is taught; in year three, reading and writing in French are introduced. Originally plans were for French to be the language of instruction in the last year of the first primary cycle, and instruction was to be all in French for all subsequent years. At present, plans are to intensify use of French in years five and six and move to its use as the language of instruction by the beginning of the third cycle. Creole will continue to be taught in the third cycle.



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Objective evidence is scarce concerning the extent to which French is actually used for instruction in the schools following the traditional curriculum, but informed opinion and field visits suggest that achievement in French is severely limited by the widespread use of Creole in many of the schools. In cases where French is used, it is used only in the classroom; the majority of teachers, students, and parents do not use French outside the classroom.

Clearly, a major part of the difficulty with teaching French lies in the limited French language fluency of many primary teachers. The majority of these teachers have come from the traditional system with its weaknesses in language instruction.

5.1.4.5 Examinations

With the change to the Reform, the primary school examinations system is in a state of flux. Procedures for examination in the Reform and the traditional curriculum will be summarized.

Reform students are given an examination at the end of the first cycle. Their performance on this examination determines whether they may proceed to the second cycle. This examination is set and graded by the school director, who also issues a certificate under the supervision of the inspectorate. The inspectorate is responsible for ensuring that the questions are appropriate and approving the award of certificates to individuals. This mechanism was not followed for the first students who passed from the fourth to the fifth year (the experimental classes), since the new inspectorate was not in place.

The examination at the end of the second cycle is planned to be somewhat more centrally controlled than the first cycle examination. An official policy statement is currently being developed.

There will be a national examination at the end of the third cycle. This examination (the Diplôme d'Enseignement Fondamental) will be established by IPN and the Division of Primary Education, whose staff will be responsible for administering and supervising the examination at central locations around the country, for grading it, and for issuing certificates.

The former national examination (the Certificat d'Etudes Primaires) has been abolished with the introduction of the Reform. A new examination system is now in effect for those students who have completed six years under the traditional curriculum. A (Test d'Evaluation de Fin d'Etudes Primaires) is given to students who complete the sixth year of primary school. It is usually prepared by school directors and teachers under the direction of the school inspectors; although several schools in an area might have the same examination. Examinations are graded by teachers, again under the supervision of the inspectorate. There was no information on how this system is working or how it has been received.

5.1.4.6 Facilities and Equipment

There were 3,421 primary schools in 1982/83, according to Government statistics--a 34% increase in the decade since 1973 when there were 2,418 schools (63% private, 37% public). In 1982/83, the schools were 69% private, 31% public. The greatest increase in schools over this period has been in the private sector (47%); public schools increased only 11%. The evolution of number of schools for the period under discussion is shown in Table 5.28, which also provides information on schools by sector and location. As of 1982/83, 42% of the schools were urban and 58% rural. As would be expected from the findings regarding students, urban areas are better served that rural ones.

The total of schools (both urban and rural) by type and by geographical department are shown in Table 5.29. There are 1,000 public schools, of which 127 are congregational. There are 2,241 private schools: 1,102 mission, 601 lay, 312 presbyterial, 119 community, and 107 congragational. Nord-Est has the fewest schools with 135, and Ouest the most with 833. A comparison of the percent of schools by department to the percent of enrolled pupils shows that most regions have approximately equal proportions of pupils and schools. The Ouest is a notable exception in that it has 26% of the schools and 31% of the students, suggesting that it is underserved. With 12% of the schools and 10% of the students, Grand-Anse appears slightly overserved. It is important not to consider these figures alone, however. Differences in population density from region to region could explain why some regions appear overserved and another underserved. For example, an area with a very dispersed population may require more schools in relation to its population than a densely populated one.

In rural areas, 33% of schools are public and 67% are private. Of the private rural schools, 78% are church-sponsored and only 15% are lay schools; the remainder are community schools. The percentage of private schools is slightly larger in urban areas (72%). Approximately one-half of the urban schools are congregational. There are significantly fewer private church-sponsored schools in urban areas (55% as compared to 78% in rural areas). In the urban areas, 42% of schools are lay schools. Clearly, it is the church-supported schools that serve the remote rural populations. The concentration of private lay schools in urban areas is not unusual in that the urban areas usually have more money and this is where for-profit schools are more likely to survive. (This topic is discussed in greater detail in Chapter 2 of this assessment.)

Individuals within IPN indicate concern regarding the reliability of statistics that are used for decisionmaking. The basic information on numbers of schools suggests that this is a valid concern. Government statistics cite

TABLE 5.28

Primary Schools by Sector and Location, 1973-74 to 1982-83

| Year | Public | | | Private | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Urban | Rural | Total | Urban | Rural | Total | |
| 1973-74 | 326 | 565 | 891 | 447 | 1,080 | 1,527 | 2,418 |
| 1974-75 | 329 | 571 | 900 | 673 | 1,157 | 1,830 | 2,730 |
| 1975-76 | 332 | 572 | 904 | 724 | 1,160 | 1,884 | 2,788 |
| 1976-77 | 328 | 572 | 900 | 738 | 1,160 | 1,898 | 2,798 |
| 1977-78 | 334 | 572 | 906 | 775 | 1,160 | 1,935 | 2,841 |
| 1978-79 | 337 | 598 | 935 | 871 | 1,160 | 2,031 | 2,966 |
| 1979-80 | 335 | 623 | 958 | 862 | 1,176 | 2,038 | 2,996 |
| 1980-81 | 344 | 650 | 994 | 939 | 1,338 | 2,277 | 3,271 |
| 1981-82 | 348 | 652 | 1,000 | 897 | 1,324 | 2,221 | 3,221 |
| 1982-83 | 381 | 619 | 1,000 | 967 | 1,274 | 2,241 | 3,241 |

Source: DEN, Annuaire Statistique, 1981-82 (1983).

TABLE 5.29

Primary Schools by Sector, Type, and Department, 1982-83

| | Public | | | Private | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Department | Lay | Congreg. | Total | Lay | Congreg. | Presby. | Mission | Comm. | Total | Total |
| Ouest | 168 | 30 | 198 | 275 | 47 | 26 | 267 | 18 | 635 | 833 |
| Nord | 130 | 23 | 153 | 55 | 13 | 29 | 147 | 8 | 252 | 405 |
| Nord-Est | 57 | 6 | 63 | 9 | 6 | 16 | 37 | 4 | 72 | 135 |
| Nord-Ouest | 57 | 6 | 63 | 13 | 5 | 28 | 93 | 5 | 144 | 207 |
| Artibonite | 130 | 12 | 142 | 70 | 5 | 64 | 229 | 18 | 386 | 528 |
| Centre | 67 | 5 | 72 | 34 | 8 | 14 | 85 | 14 | 155 | 227 |
| Sud | 70 | 26 | 96 | 56 | 14 | 60 | 71 | 9 | 210 | 306 |
| Sud-Est | 71 | 7 | 78 | 29 | 1 | 25 | 54 | 14 | 123 | 201 |
| Grande-Anse | 123 | 12 | 135 | 60 | 8 | 48 | 119 | 29 | 264 | 399 |
| Total | 873 | 127 | 1,000 | 601 | 107 | 312 | 1,102 | 119 | 2,241 | 3,241 |

Source: DEN, Annuaire Statistique, 1982-83 (1984).

the total number of schools in 1982/83 as 3,241. Information collected by the sector assessment team in private schools produces the following estimates for private schools alone:

| | |
|---|---|
| Mini-schools | 137 |
| Chapel schools | 1,000 |
| Methodist schools | 52 |
| Baptist Haiti Mission | 283 |
| SAWS (South) | 40 |
| SAWS (North) | 86 |
| Association of Christian Schools | 200 |
| Total | 1,798 |

The above total is rough and it only refers to those school systems visited by the sector assessment team and not all private schools. Even so, this total accounts for 80% of private schools recorded by Government only two years previously. This suggests that the government statistics might suffer from serious undercounting of private schools.

Government, in collaboration with the World Bank and Unesco, is engaged in a nationwide school mapping project (Carte Scolaire) being done by region. The results will provide detailed information on both quantitative and qualitative aspects of all schools. Started early in 1983, data collection has been completed on three departments (Grand-Anse, Sud, and Sud-Est) and the information has already been used to support planning decisions. School mapping in the other six departments and the Port-au-Prince area will be completed by the end of 1985. This project is an important step to a better understanding of access to primary education. Results have already shown that more classrooms are needed and that approximately 20% of private schools and 30% of public schools need to be replaced or improved.

There were 17,362 classrooms for Haiti's 723,041 pupils in 1982/83. The ratio of pupils per classroom by sector and location is presented in Table 5.30. Public schools have more students per classroom than private schools, regardless of location. Public rural schools have fewer per classroom than urban ones. The reverse is true for private schools--the student/classroom ratio is lower in urban than in rural areas.

The student/classroom ratio by geographical department is shown in Table 5.31. The Sud-Est and Nord-Ouest have the highest numbers of students per classroom (59 and 56 respectively). The lowest number per classroom is 36 in the Ouest.

Using a student/classroom ratio of 50:1, there does not appear to be a major deficit of classrooms. This overall figure masks several problems, however. First, the school mapping project has found that a significant percentage of schools operate out-of-doors, many schools are in need of repairs,



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TABLE 5.30

Primary Student/Classroom Ratios
by Location and Sector, 1982/83

| | Students per Classroom | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Public | Private | Average |
| Urban | 52.1 | 34.7 | 40.3 |
| Rural | 49.3 | 40.2 | 43.3 |
| Average | 50.8 | 37.0 | 41.6 |

Source: DEN, Annuaire Statisque, 1982/83 (unpublished).

TABLE 5.31

Primary Student/Classroom Ratios by Department

| Department | Students | Classrooms | Student/Classroom Ratio |
|---|---|---|---|
| Ouest | 224,522 | 6,323 | 35.5 |
| Nord | 85,353 | 2,247 | 37.9 |
| Nord-Est | 28,326 | 634 | 44.8 |
| Nord-Ouest | 47,714 | 853 | 55.9 |
| Artibonite | 112,600 | 2,427 | 46.3 |
| Centre | 40,383 | 850 | 47.5 |
| Sud | 70,614 | 1,717 | 41.1 |
| Sud-Est | 42,410 | 718 | 59.0 |
| Grand-Anse | 70,992 | 1,593 | 44.5 |
| Haiti | 723,041 | 17,362 | 41.6 |

Source: Compiled from DEN Annuaire Statistique, 1982/83 (unpublished).



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and many of the buildings that are currently serving as schools are not really appropriate. Second, the differences in population density between urban and rural areas mean that the student/classroom ratio varies widely from classroom to classroom. In some urban areas, overcrowding is a serious problem.

Some of the shortage of classroom space in urban areas could be compensated for through the use of double shifts. According to the World Bank, only 3% of schools currently use a double shift. Double shifts would be only a partial solution, however. In rural areas, where the population is widely dispersed, children are already walking great distances to attend school. Teachers might be willing to teach two shifts, as many already have a second job because a teacher's salary is not sufficient to live on. Finding money to cover their salaries might be extremely difficult, however, in light of the discussion in Chapter 2 on the availability of funds in the education sector. Already, 93% of the primary education budget is committed to salaries.

Visits to schools showed that it is quite feasible for classes to be held in buildings that were not originally designed as schools. There were several examples of the multiple use of facilities. The identification of churches that could be used as classrooms on weekdays, for example, could help remedy the need for classrooms.

A critical issue that needs to be addressed by the Ministry of Education is the question of number and location of classrooms for the last three or four years of the new primary cycle. Currently, complete primary schools generally have classroom space for six levels (or seven if there is an enfantine class), and a large number of schools do not have all six levels. The first two cycles of the Reform require space for seven levels and the addition of the third cycle would require space for a total of 10 levels.

Several choices exist with regard to meeting the need for additional primary classroom space. Among these are to:

- Use extra shifts in existing schools,
- increase classroom space in existing schools,
- further develop the concept of feeder schools to accommodate the third cycle, and
- consider using existing space in secondary schools.

Attention needs to be given in the near future to the advantages and disadvantages of the various choices and combinations of choices. When construction is necessary, low-cost alternatives to the current style of buildings should have a high priority.

The school mapping project has already shown that many schools lack facilities such as potable water, electricity, adequate blackboards, teaching aids, and sufficient seating space for children. Money for supplies comes from



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school fees. Of the $2.50 annual fee required per student in public schools, only $1.35 goes towards supplies. Not all students pay the fees, however; one public school informant indicated that about 10% of students are not able to pay. In many of the private schools the situation is very serious. For example, one informant indicated that the rural areas where he had worked, if a student had desk space at all, it amounted to nine inches of space.

The availability of textbooks varies considerably. This variation is due in part to economic circumstances, because parents provide textbooks in the majority of schools, and in part to the national distribution system which has sometimes not functioned properly. Because textbooks are so important in primary education, a section of this assessment (Annex IIA) is devoted to this subject. Regardless of the variation, the availability of appropriate textbooks is generally inadequate. In at least one of the outside church-supported school systems, books are provided for children because the lack of texts is seen as such a serious problem; this provision requires sponsorship of children from donors outside of Haiti. In another instance, an educator spoke of only one textbook per 10 students in remote rural areas. In some of the schools visited, there were enough textbooks so that four or five students could share one.

The market for used textbooks is substantial. In one area, a school director indicated that each textbook is used for three years. This may partially explain why so many parents invest in the small protective book bags that children carry.

School feeding is an important part of primary school for a large percentage of Haitian children. An estimated 60% of primary school children receive food at school. Availability of food is critical, as approximately three-fourths of Haiti's children suffer some degree of malnutrition. It is estimated that rural Haitians consume only 60% of the calories and 50% of the grams of protein required daily to maintain health and moderate energy levels.

A school that participates in a school feeding program is viewed very positively by parents. In fact, one informant indicated that parents would rather send a child to a private school where there is food than to a less expensive public school where there is no food. Almost all the schools visited were providing children with food. The majority were receiving food from the U.S.-sponsored feeding program, but in two cases the schools provided food from their own resources, which include a fee for food. Of those schools that do receive food without charge, more than one-half add other ingredients to the meal, usually making a small charge.

The role of school feeding in primary school demands that many schools have kitchens (cantines) and that they maintain staff or use volunteer help to

operate the program. In some cases, children bring their own bowls or plates for the meal.

Teachers and school directors indicated in interviews that food improves school performance noticeably. Many children walk to school for several hours without any morning meal. For those who have eaten, breakfast may have been only a cup of black coffee and a banana. Educators are raising questions about the timing of the school meal in light of this situation. They notice that children are most alert and active after they have eaten and suggest that providing a breakfast, rather than lunch at the end of the school day, might have significantly higher educational returns.

5.1.4.7 Costs and Financing

As discussed in Chapter 2, Government expenditure on education as a proportion of gross domestic product is very low in Haiti when compared to other developing countries. This means that little is spent per child in public education, and if this expenditure is spread over those in private schools as well, the figure is lowered significantly. The costs of primary education are shared by Government, parents, and support from a wide range of outside organizations. School fees are very common, and parents are willing to pay a large portion of school costs. In addition to fees, parents usually pay for books, uniforms, materials, book bags, and sometimes a contribution toward school maintenance and a meal.

Primary school finances, including analyses of unit costs and the rate of return, have been discussed fully in Chapter 2 of this assessment. As shown in Chapter 2 (Table 2.54), unit costs vary considerably within the private sector, ranging from $30 to $265 per year. Urban private schools tend to be more expensive than rural ones, averaging about $146 and $52, respectively. In general, there is not a great deal of difference between the unit costs of private ($99) and public schools ($100). What is significant is who bears the burden of that cost. Government bears a little over 40% of the cost of those in public schools and none of the cost of the 60% of children who are in private schools.

As noted in this chapter and in Chapters 2 and 3, donors make significant contributions to the education sector. Major donors to primary education include the World Bank, Inter-American Development Bank (IDB), UNICEF, Organization of American States (OAS), Unesco/United Nations Development Program (UNDP), United Nations Fund for Population Activities (UNFPA), and a variety of organizations such as religious missions.

The World Bank has completed two major projects, is implementing a third, and is negotiating a fourth with Government. The First Education Project concentrated on building schools and providing technical assistance in the areas



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of educational statistics and administration. It extended from 1976 to 1982. The Second Education Project (1978-83) also contained funds for construction, but 45% was for technical assistance, including teacher training, materials development, evaluation, school radio programming, and the school mapping project. The Third Education Project, which began in 1983, is scheduled for completion in 1986. Again, emphasis is on technical assistance rather than construction. Technical assistance is in curriculum, radio, materials development, materials evaluation, data collection, supervision, and teacher training. The Fourth Education Project, currently under discussion and negotiation, is scheduled to extend from 1985 to 1988. Construction is not anticipated in this project. Support is expected for school facilities planning, implementation of the Education Reform, teacher training, school equipment and supplies, and implementation of the Teacher Charter. Contributions of the World Bank and other major donors to primary education are summarized in Table 5.32.

The Inter-American Development Bank is currently reformulating the CEIDER project. It is developing a project called the Expansion and Improvement of Primary and Teacher Education in Haiti (Expansion et Amélioration de Système d'Enseignement Primaire et Normal en Haïti - EASPNH). Focusing on rural areas, this project will include school construction, development of materials in support of the reform, teacher training, and provision of school equipment.

UNICEF provided support to primary education in 1982. In 1983, UNICEF turned these funds over to DEN with the work of the United Nations Fund for Population Activities (Fond des Nations Unies pour les Activités en Matière de Population - UNFPA). Specifically, this money is to go toward the areas of health, nutrition, and hygiene. The work of UNFPA is mostly concentrated on curriculum development with IPN.

The Organization of American States supports primary education through teacher education. The Projet d'Appier à la Formation de Personnel Enseignant is scheduled to extend from 1982 to 1987. Most of the funds are for inservice training of teachers and inspectors. Some funds provide for teachers of Spanish at the secondary level.

Unesco and the United Nations Development Program are the other major donors to primary education. Their contributions have been in support of the Education for Development Project (Education pour le Développement). The second phase of this project extends from 1982 to 1986. Unesco and UNDP collaborate closely with the activities of the World Bank. The areas in which they are involved are planning, statistics, curriculum for the Reform, materials production, radio, school mapping, and teacher training.

As has been noted elsewhere in this chapter, many of the private



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nongovernmental organizations working in Haiti are providing and/or supporting primary education. Though their contributions are known to be significant, there is little information on their extent.

5.1.4.8 Quality of Instruction

The product of all the elements in an education system--the overall goal of the system--is the learning that actually takes place as a result of the effective combination of these elements. Examinations are often used as a measure of teaching effectiveness. Unfortunately, data on examination results were not available at the time of the assessment and no nationwide examination exists at the primary level. Nevertheless, classroom observations and interviews, considered in light of the data presented in this chapter, do allow some assessment of the quality of instruction. Essentially, this part of the assessment considers the quality of the inputs to instruction and makes the assumption that they are positively related to the quality of the output--that is, learning.

One of the key elements in the learning process is the skill of the teacher. The level of training of teachers has already been discussed. It is instructive to consider whether those in teaching positions are, in fact, able to teach. Observations indicate that the French language skills of teachers are very low and that they use Creole even when they are supposed to teach in French. Furthermore, there is evidence, at least in some of the private schools, that teachers do not have a good grasp of the content, so explanations in French may be even more difficult for children to understand.

Nor do many teachers have adequate knowledge of pedagogical methods. There is considerable unproductive time in classes--for example, one child may be at the front reading from a book slowly while 40 others are uncomfortable sitting on small benches and not participating in the lesson at all. Teachers often rely on rote memorization. The following example observed during a school visit suffices:

| | |
|---|---|
| Teacher: | The finger has two joints. |
| Class. | The finger has two joints. |
| Teacher: | How many joints does the finger have? |
| Class: | Two. |
| Teacher: | Wrong. The finger has two joints. |

Though it might be argued that the above example illustrates a teacher's commitment to have students respond in complete sentences, there was no discourse in the classroom that suggested that correct sentence structure was an objective of the lesson.

Lack of materials and books for students and teachers' guides is another indication of the quality of education available to students. Without these supports, poor teaching is even less likely to be effective. Furthermore, facilities can influence the quality of instruction to a certain extent. For example, there are schools where classes have to be canceled when it rains because the classrooms are flooded. There are also schools where the lighting is so poor that it is difficult to read in the classroom.

As part of the Reform, IPN made an attempt to use radio for language instruction. Of those private schools visited, only a few had tried to use it. Those that had tried it reported that they found it unsatisfactory or too difficult. Thus there is some indication that, even when support materials have been available, they may not have been appropriate.

Time on task is another key area that reflects the quality of instruction. The schedule calls for 22.5 hours of instruction each week. The planned distribution of these instructional hours is shown in Table 5.24. Figure 5.8 gives the 1984/85 school calendar, which has 162 school days, divided into trimesters. The school day often begins late, and attendance on Tuesdays and Fridays is low in many schools because those are market days. Furthermore, in many areas Friday is a half day of school. Public holidays also reduce the number of school days significantly. In addition to those shown on the calendar, approximately 20 holidays are announced at short notice by the President. When several holidays occur in one week, such as at carnival time, many students may not attend for the entire week. These factors all serve to decrease the number of contact hours between teachers and their students.

As discussed earlier, supervision of the primary system is inadequate. This means that there are few means to support and assist teachers and very weak mechanisms for quality control. Elsewhere in this chapter, it has been shown that public schools are generally more efficient (measured by number of student years it takes to produce a graduate) than private schools. It is important to note, however, that some of the highest quality primary schools are private--the private sector contains examples of the best and the worst schools.

While this discussion does provide some indications of the quality of instruction, it serves mainly to raise a number of questions. It is not clear which of these inputs has greatest impact on learning. For example, is there evidence that training in an <u>école normale</u> qualifies a person to teach? Are there examples of the kinds of materials that could significantly improve the quality of instruction? How can the current examination system be used effectively to provide valid measures of performance?

Some of these topics will be treated in this chapter, including a discussion of several needs and issues. Finally, a number of recommendations



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FIGURE 5.8

School Calendar, 1984-85

| DEPARTEMENT DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE - DEN - | CALENDRIER SCOLAIRE 1984 - 1985 (162 Jours de Classe pour l'Année) |
|---|---|

PREMIERE PERIODE: 50 Jours de Classe

| OCTOBRE 16 Jours de Classe | | | | | | | NOVEMBRE 20 Jours de Classe | | | | | | | DECEMBRE 14 Jours de Classe | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| L | M | M | J | V | S | D | L | M | M | J | V | S | D | L | M | M | J | V | S | D |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | | | | (1) | (2) | 3 | 4 | | | | | | 1 | 2 |
| [8] | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 3 | 4 | (5) | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| 15 | 16 | (17) | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 |
| 22 | 23 | (24) | 25 | 26 | 27 | 28 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 | 25 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | (21) | 22 | 23 |
| 29 | 30 | 31 | | | | | 26 | 27 | 28 | 29 | 30 | | | (24) | (25) | (26) | (27) | (28) | 29 | 30 |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | (31) | | | | | | |

DEUXIEME PERIODE: 58 Jours de Classe

| JANVIER 19 Jours de Classe | | | | | | | FEVRIER 18 Jours de Classe | | | | | | | MARS 21 Jours de Classe | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| L | M | M | J | V | S | D | L | M | M | J | V | S | D | L | M | M | J | V | S | D |
| | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | 5 | 6 | | | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | | | | | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| [7] | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 |
| 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 | 25 | 26 | 27 | (18) | (19) | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 |
| 28 | 29 | 30 | 31 | | | | 25 | 26 | 27 | 28 | | | | 25 | 26 | 27 | 28 | 29 | 30 | 31 |

TROISIEME PERIODE: 54 Jours de Classe

| AVRIL 18 Jours de Classe | | | | | | | MAI 20 Jours de Classe | | | | | | | JUIN 16 Jours de Classe | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| L | M | M | J | V | S | D | L | M | M | J | V | S | D | L | M | M | J | V | S | D |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | (5) | 6 | 7 | | | (1) | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | | | | | 1 | 2 |
| (8) | (9) | (10) | (11) | (12) | 13 | 14 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 3 | 4 | 5 | (6) | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| [15] | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 13 | 14 | 15 | (16) | 17 | 18 | 19 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 |
| 22 | 23 | 24 | 25 | 26 | 27 | 28 | 20 | 21 | (22) | 23 | 24 | 25 | 26 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 |
| 29 | 30 | | | | | | 27 | 28 | 29 | 30 | 31 | | | 24 | 25 | 26 | 27 | △28 | 29 | 30 |

RAPPEL DES DATES IMPORTANTES

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 8 Octobre | : | Ouverture des Classes |
| 17 Octobre | : | Mort de Dessalines |
| 24 Octobre | : | Nations-Unies |
| 1er Novembre | : | La Toussaint |
| 2 Novembre | : | Les Morts |
| 5 Décembre | : | Découverte d'Haiti |
| 21 Décembre | : | Vacances de Noel |
| 7 Janvier | : | Réouverture des Classes |
| 18 - 19 Février | : | Carnaval |
| 4 Avril | : | Vacances de Paques |
| 15 Avril | : | Réouverture des Classes |
| 1er Mai | : | Agriculture et Travail |
| 16 Mai | : | Ascension |
| 18 Mai | : | Fête du Drapeau |
| 22 Mai | : | Souveraincté Nationale |
| 6 Juin | : | Fête-Dieu |
| 28 Juin | : | Grandes Vacances |

LEGENDES

□ : Ouverture des Classes ○ : Jour de Congé △ : Fermeture des Classes



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for improving the overall operations of the primary system will be presented.

## 5.2 ANALYSIS

This section begins with a presentation of several needs that have been identified on the basis of information so far cited. These form the foundation for a discussion of issues in the areas of external efficiency, internal efficiency, access and equity, administration and supervision, and costs and financing.

### 5.2.1 Needs

Major needs identified relate to the efficiency of the system, access and equity, quality of instruction, and administration and supervision. These are discussed below. Unless otherwise specified, these needs relate to both the public and the private sectors.

Efficiency. This is a significant opportunity to improve the internal efficiency of primary education by improving the high dropout and repetition rate. The majority of children are in lower levels. Efforts have already begun to address this problem through the introduction of the Reform, which requires automatic promotion at a number of levels. These efforts need to be expanded and combined with activities that improve achievement.

Where promotion is not automatic, information is needed on the success rate of the many repeaters. Information is also needed on possible mechanisms that can decrease dropout.

The need to improve external efficiency has also begun to be addressed with the introduction of the Reform curriculum designed to be relevant for living in Haiti. Its purpose is to prepare children to function well once they leave primary school, whether or not they pursue further studies. Related to this, it is critical that language instruction be of high enough quality that students who have followed the Reform curriculum are able to speak, read, and write French so they can function successfully in Haitian society.

At this time few mechanisms are in place to monitor the changes of efficiencies that are expected from the implementation of the Reform. To identify key elements in improving efficiencies, such mechanisms are necessary.

Access. Less then 50% of children 6-12 years old are enrolled in primary school. Factors that contribute to this are location, number of school places, costs of schooling to families, and poor health. These are all factors that can be ameliorated if resources are made available and if appropriate strategies are followed. Many of those who do have access to schools may have little choice regarding the type and quality of school they attend.

Quality of Instruction. Low achievement indicates several areas where targeted interventions could improve the quality of primary education. Teacher

qualifications are low; in addition to their lack of pedagogical training, their low subject-area comprehension and lack of appropriate language skills often impair student learning. There is a need to make the teaching profession more attractive so trained teachers stay on their jobs. Weak public and private inspectorates do not provide the support they should for an already poor teacher force. School directors need a wide range of supports to assist in the development of quality primary schools.

Textbooks, teacher guides, and learning materials are not available in sufficient quantities to support a strong instructional program. In many schools, even the basic materials, such as chalk, are not available. Some of the texts that are available are inappropriate. This areas special attention to research has shown that in many developing countries textbooks can be the single most cost-effective component of the instructional system.

Government has attempted to use radio for language instruction and teacher training. To date, it has not worked well. The reasons for this should be explored as radio can be a highly cost-effective element in an instructional system. It may be useful to reconsider this instructional mode.

Unit costs per student are low compared to those in other developing countries. So much of expenditure in education in Haiti is allocated to teacher salaries that little money is left for instructional supplies. Many of the school facilities are very inadequate; their condition is such that it adversely affects the learning environment.

Administration and Supervision. A major need is to focus on the primary activities in the private sector. Currently those are not very well understood, much less coordinated, and yet it is the private sector that reaches the majority of children. While there is a major effort to improve the public education system, a similar effort has not been initiated for the private sector.

### 5.2.2 Plans

At the national level, there are two major areas of planned activity. These are:

- To increase the gross enrollment to 83% by 1986.
- To complete the implementation of the Reform by 1991/92.

Within the public sector this involves continued preparation, evaluation, and revision of materials by IPN, and planning for completion of the second cycle and the entire third cycle. As part of the Reform, there are plans for continued emphasis on retraining teachers, strengthening the inspectorate and administrative infrastructure, and ensuring the materials are available to



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schools. These are also plans to reintroduce the use of radio as a support to the Reform.

As part of the expansion, new schools and classrooms are planned according to the needs identified through the school mapping project. These plans have significant funding implications. Representatives of the Ministry of Education acknowledge that funding is a serious problem but feel that support in the form of major loans from the World Bank and the continued involvement of the private sector will cover most of the costs.

At the national level there are plans for a continued reliance on the private sector to provide primary education to the majority of the students. The Biennial Plan refers to the need to develop a more effective means of monitoring the private sector and harnessing it so that it will better complement the public sector. At this time it would appear that Government has an extremely full agenda as it attempts to implement the Reform and that it is unlikely to be able to assume this monitoring role in the near future.

### 5.2.3 Constraints

Major constraints to improving operations of the primary school system relate to human factors, shortages in financial resources, organizational structures, and the socioeconomic/physical environment. These are discussed below.

Human Resources Constraints. One of the most serious constraints within the primary system is the physical condition of the children. A very large percentage suffer from malnourishment and undernourishment. It is well known that these factors are associated with low retention rates. Thus, the very people whom primary education is designed to serve may not be able to take full advantage of it.

Haiti's history of a formal educational system that developed slowly has resulted in a nationwide shortage of trained educators at every level of the primary system. There is a shortage of trained teachers and of trained directors and inspectors to guide and assist them. At higher levels in the hierarchy, many of those in managerial and administrative staff lack the skills to carry out their responsibilities.

A third constraint is that staff turnovers and transfers occur fairly frequently, requiring additional training for newly placed employees. It is estimated that 10% of teachers leave the profession every year. Furthermore, public sector staff changes at all levels are also fairly common, often resulting in new policy direction whereby many former efforts were, in fact, wasted.

Financial Constraints. Government's conservative fiscal policies, its dependence on fluctuating prices in the world market, and its low investments in

education make it unlikely that there will be a substantial increase in funds for primary education from Government. Yet, plans to increase access and quality of education and to implement the Teacher Charter, require substantial amounts of money. As noted elsewhere in this assessment, families are already meeting significant proportions of the costs of primary education. Much of education, both public (in terms of expansion of the Reform) and private, is supported by donors. If this support is withdrawn or not renewed, additional demands will be placed on local sources.

Organizational Constraints. For the public sector to be effective, there must be coordination and cooperation among teachers, school directors, district inspectors, regional inspectors, and representatives of both IPN and the Division of Primary Education in the Ministry. As long as there is no open two-way communication, the system will operate below optimum levels.

Coordination and cooperation are necessary in the private sector as well. The variety of schools in the private sector will make coordination and cooperation difficult, but it is essential if primary school children are to be better served. There are some rudimentary mechanisms for coordination within the private sector--the variety of school systems that are currently operating independently.

Both the private and the public sectors are further restricted by the lack of appropriate mechanisms to identify, collect, and interpret data necessary for evaluation and program implementation. Even if the data were available, there is some question whether there is sufficient political will to bring about the changes required in the educational system to alter the socioeconomic/political situation.

Socioeconomic/Physical Environmental Constraints. Providing primary education to the widely dispersed population is difficult with the current state of roads, means of transport, and communication. Teachers do not want to be located in remote areas, and many children live too far from schools to attend them. The harsh environmental conditions (particularly the lack of arable land) mean that families are poor and can ill afford to pay school fees or to free children from economic duties that help support the family.

### 5.2.4 Issues

Five sets of issues are identified within these needs and constraints. They are addressed under the following topics: external efficiency, internal efficiency, access and equity, administration and supervision, and costs and financing.

5.2.4.1 External Efficiency

External efficiency refers to the relevance of the education program to anticipated activities of school leavers. Although the curriculum has recently been revised to closely reflect Government educational goals at the primary level, some major issues remain. These are the relevance of the Reform to current Haitian reality, the language of instruction, and the relationship between primary school completion and employment.

Relevance of the Reform. As stated in the goals of the Reform, the curriculum is meant to be relevant to Haiti's social reality and to prepare children as active participants in the building of their nation. Is this really the case? If successful, the Reform will result in citizens who have been trained to question and to solve problems that conform them. One must question, however, whether the new methods and subjects are training children to be part of Haitian reality or providing them with skills for a very different kind of Haiti than exists today.

The subjects covered in the Reform are generally appropriate for a basic education. Primary school completers should have sufficient knowledge and information to enter and succeed in secondary school if he plans for the Reform to continue to be implemented. But, as only a low percentage of children who start primary school actually enter and complete secondary school (see Chapter 6), it is important to consider the extent to which the Reform curriculum provides sufficient life skills for those who leave before completing primary school. So far, there is too little evidence to indicate the extent to which the content and the methods of the Reform equip pupils to participate in the economy. The acquisition of French is perceived as an important skill, and this will be discussed separately below.

As long as two very different curricula exist side by side, there is likely to be some tension between them. The majority of schools follow the traditional curriculum, and it is the traditional curriculum that is regarded as having enabled those few who get through primary and later levels of schooling to succeed in life. As a result, it is perceived as having a history of success. This tension results in a difficult dilemma. As long as the traditional curriculum is regarded as necessary for success, the majority of private schools are likely to follow it. And as long as they follow this curriculum, there are few opportunities to check on the relevance of the Reform.

Language of Instruction. The tension between proponents of the traditional and the Reform curriculum is probably best understood with respect to the issue of language of instruction. The questions regarding the external efficiency of a particular language of instruction will be raised here. Additional questions

related to the language of instruction will be raised under the section on internal efficiency.

Even those who recognize the value of children learning to read and write in their own language may have questions about the wisdom of using Creole as the language of instruction. Fluency in French currently is a requirement for continuation in secondary school, and it is essential for any high-level positions in the country. In part, the Reform will be externally efficient to the extent that it produces graduates who can function effectively in French. The wavering and uncertainty regarding when French will actually be used as the language of instruction in Reform schools and how to introduce it, must be addressed soon if the Reform is not to lose ground.

Emphasis has be on instruction in either French or Creole. Given the importance that is attached to language of instruction, it is surprising that little attention has been given to the possibility of bilingual education. This has been conducted successfully in a number of situations and some excellent materials and resources exist on the topic. While bilingual education may be complex to implement, the language skills it imparts would increase the opportunities both of primary school leavers in the work force and of students who proceed to secondary school.

Some have questioned the emphasis on French in light of Haiti's geographical location and its economic linkages. Although some point to the importance of Spanish, particularly as that is the language of many neighboring countries, others maintain that English is essential for those who wish to participate in Haiti's modern sector. As discussed elsewhere in this assessment (see Chapter 10), English is necessary for many industrial jobs.

In any event, for the educational system to be externally efficient it must address the language issue. And, some elements related to the language issue have not received enough attention. Certainly, there are political dimensions to the choice of the language of instruction. If Creole is used in the schools, and skills in reading and writing in Creole are common, then the value of French as the language of official communication will surely be diminished. In the long run, this would decrease dependence on French and more and more people would be able to communicate with Government. This could have significant results in terms of control of information and a possible erosion of the power of the French-speaking elite.

Employment. Those who complete primary school but do not go on to secondary school are reluctant to live in rural areas. They prefer to go to towns in search of non-farm employment. Unfortunately, there are not enough jobs for these individuals. The high unemployment and underemployment rates of

out-of-school youths suggest that primary school has not prepared children particularly well for the world of work.

Insufficient information is available on the relationship between the Reform curriculum and subsequent employment. The new curriculum will have greater external efficiency than the traditional one to the extent that its graduates find appropriate placement either in secondary or vocational schools, or in jobs.

5.2.4.2 Internal Efficiency

Internal efficiency issues relate to the degree to which the educational system is making the best use of resources and operating in a cost-effective manner. Internal efficiency topics considered in this assessment include student flow within schools, class size, student age, teacher effectiveness, quality of instruction, availability of instructional materials, language of instruction, examinations, curriculum, and student flow between schools.

Student flow within a school is not very efficient. There are a large number of dropouts and repeaters. On average (public plus private), it takes 12.5 student-years to produce a graduate, and over 60% of those who enter primary school do not complete the first four years. A high percentage of those in primary school are over-age as a result of repetition, late entry, or reentry after dropping out. The low promotion rates result in fewer places in schools for new students and represent wastage of financial resources.

Class size does not appear to be a significant issue. There are no patterns to the relationship between student/teacher ratio and the efficiency of the system in terms of the number of years that it takes to produce a graduate. In fact, average class size could probably be increased slightly without affecting achievement adversely.

Student age is a significant factor in primary schools. The large number of over-age students in all grades presents difficult problems for teachers who have not been trained to teach classes with a wide range of student ages. Moreover, the available materials are not designed for use by older students.

Teacher effectiveness--defined as the ability of teachers to promote and facilitate learning--is generally weak. Although the lack of formal qualifications has been commented on earlier in this chapter, this should not necessarily be the focus of concern. To train all untrained teachers or to recruit enough newly trained teachers is not a realistic economic alternative in the near future. Short-term, targeted training to better qualify teachers to help students learn might be a much more effective approach to making teachers more effective.

Quality of instruction has already been identified as an area that could be strengthened. It is a major internal efficiency issue that is closely related

to teacher effectiveness. The quality of instruction is uneven, with both the best and the worst probably being in the private schools. Pupils in remote, rural, private schools are likely to receive the poorest instruction. Instructional quality can be improved significantly through the use of materials that enable the student and teacher to move through material together. Materials designed so that a teacher's lack of qualifications do not serve as a further obstacle to learning by the pupil would be especially valuable.

A critical issue that is closely related to the quality of instruction is the language of instruction. Under the traditional curriculum all instruction is supposed to be in French. In reality, even in schools that purport to follow the traditional curriculum closely, much of the instruction is in Creole with written assignments in French. Many private mission schools have adapted the traditional curriculum--maintaining the traditional content but teaching in Creole, with French taught as a second language.

There are really two issues that can be easily confused. The first is a social/economic issue relating to external efficiency and has already been discussed--that is, what language do children need to get ahead? The second issue is pedagogical in nature and is more difficult to answer. What is the best language of instruction for the primary school child? Is it French, which is necessary for successful functioning outside rural areas of Haiti? Do children learn other subjects better through use of their first language? Through use of which language will a child perform better in primary school?

The introduction of the Reform with the use of Creole as the language of instruction has raised many such questions. In a 1982 report, the World Bank stressed that:

- Emphasis on local language does not necessarily limit access to education or knowledge,
- literacy is more easily acquired in a first language,
- second language competence is much easier if a learner is already literate in the first language,
- oral training in a second language should precede literacy training, and
- native language competency is not necessarily hampered by bilingual programs.

Furthermore, this study suggests that instruction in the first language is appropriate in situations where the first language has lower status than the second one, where children have not developed cognitive and linguistic requirements in the first language to enable acquisition of literacy skills, and where parents want instruction to be in the first language.

The Haitian situation does not fit neatly in the model that suggests when learning in the first language is appropriate. Many parents do not favor instruction in Creole, because they feel that it may further disadvantage children who will need French to get ahead. Others argue that the quality of instruction is already very low and that student achievement is significantly hampered by the inability of both students and teachers to function in French at the elementary levels. Also, a growing body of knowledge suggests that children who do not know their first language well will not learn the second one well.

Although the overall picture as to language of instruction is far from clear, some things are evident. First, the traditional system was not and is not very effective except in a few elite schools where many of the children come from homes where French is spoken. High enrollments at the lower levels, frequent repetitions in the classe enfantine because of failure to acquire French, and low level of French skills in those who do move into upper levels of the primary cycle are all indicators that achievement in French is minimal for the majority. The fact that many of the church-sponsored schools have adapted curricula and even developed their own textbooks to enable teaching in and of Creole gives further evidence that French is not necessarily regarded as an appropriate language of instruction at primary entry levels.

If Creole is used as the initial language of instruction, it is essential that children do the following:

- develop good language skills in Creole,
- have an opportunity to gain good language skills in French through a language program that has been designed by individuals who understand the issues and problems related to learning and teaching a second language, and
- have an opportunity to start learning French early in their school career, so that those who do not complete the primary cycle are not further disadvantaged by lack of French language skills.

The lack of instructional materials is a serious issue. Few students are able to purchase all the necessary textbooks, and many are not able to afford even the basic school supplies. Classrooms lack even the simplest of instructional aids, such as blackboards.

It is well known that instructional aids can improve quality of teaching if they are appropriate and designed to complement the teacher. The vast majority of schools do not have staff who are sufficiently trained to develop materials, and even if they did, most schools do not have funds to pay for them.

The primary school examination system comprises an internal efficiency issue. Currently there is no national examination. One is planned for the end of the third cycle of primary school, but students who are not able to finish

all 10 years will not have a nationally recognized certificate to represent their achievement. More important, there will be few comparable measures of performance in primary school that could guide planners and administrators as they make decisions about allocating funds.

The primary Reform curriculum is still being developed. In general, the first-cycle curriculum is well received and the evaluation and improvement of textbooks and teacher guides is proceeding well. Work is in progress for the second cycle. Immediate planning is needed for the third cycle.

Student flow between schools demonstrates internal efficiency within the entire primary school system. Many schools offer only the first few grades, with students moving to larger schools once they complete the highest level of a small school. This seems to be particularly prevalent in private schools, but student movement does not seem to be limited in any way, except to lack of financial resources. As more and more public schools (and perhaps private schools) change to the Reform curriculum, student flow between schools may become more restricted. Also, with automatic promotion, demand may increase for schools that offer the second and third cycles of primary school.

5.2.4.3 Access and Equity

Access to primary education is a serious problem. Less than half of the school age children are in school. Even if the goal of an 83% gross enrollment is met by the end of the plan period (1986), this still means that a large number of children who are of primary school age will not be in school. To improve access will be a costly process. Many children live in remote areas, and many are from families who cannot afford to send their children away to attend school in another place. In remote areas that are not served by public schools, it is usually the church schools with outside support that are able to offer educational opportunities. Access may be further limited because a large number of school places are taken by over-age children.

The number of school places in urban areas could be increased significantly by implementing a policy of double shifts, but this would require significant funding for teacher salaries. This approach would probably not be feasible in more remote rural areas where schools are already serving very dispersed populations.

Equity with respect to females is not a serious problem. Slightly more boys than girls are in school at all levels. The ratio between girls and boys entering school may appear to be even greater than it really is because more repeaters are boys then girls.

There is a bia toward female teachers in the first three grades. This is not uncommon, however, and is not a situation that demands attention, given some

of the other issues facing primary education.

There are some disparities between urban and rural areas and between public and private schools. In general, urban areas are better served with schools--both public and private (Port-au-Prince has many schools but a very large school age population as well.) Thus, people living in urban areas have a much greater choice when it comes to schools. As would be expected, social class makes a great deal of difference in the choices individuals have; those with financial resources are able to go the excellent private schools in urban areas.

Those who live in rural areas have fewer choices. Often one must be pleased to have a place in a small school that does not have many levels. Rural schools and private schools tend to have far fewer trained teachers, so students in these schools may be at a disadvantage in quality of instruction.

5.2.4.4 Administration and Supervision

Several issues emerge with regard to administration and supervision. These relate to the inspectorate, middle-level management, and coordination of the private sector.

The inspectorate is a highly significant element in every educational system. In the public sector, the inspectorate has just been reorganized; how well it will function remains to be seen. The private sector has many opportunities to improve the inspection function. Most of the private school systems have an inspectorate, though it may be small and poorly trained. Many of the lay private schools are, in reality, without any inspectoral services. Individuals who could guide and assist them could improve instruction considerably and provide additional data on these schools.

In both public and private schools, there is a lack of middle-level management. Few people operate as a link between teachers and those who are in charge of school systems. Under the fourth World Bank loan, there will be support for this type of function in the public sector, but few opportunities seem to be available for individuals from the private sector to develop administrative and management skills such as school management and bookkeeping. In part, this is because the private sector has few mechanisms for professional development. This situation offers an excellent opportunity for interventions that could improve both the management and supervision and the internal efficiency of private schools, particularly through developing the skills of school directors.

One of Government's plans is to better monitor the private sector to encourage more consistent quality. Given that Government is engaged in implementing the Reform, it seems unlikely to have resources to devote to the private sector. Nevertheless, the private sector is a powerful force in primary education, and any activities that enable it to improve the quality of the

education if offers will contribute significantly to enhancing the entire primary system. It is the private sector that reaches the majority of pupils, and Government openly states its continuing reliance on the sector to provide these services.

The private sector also has the potential to influence the impact of the Reform. Currently, the majority of private schools are following the traditional curriculum. Private schools using the Reform curriculum believe that many parents move their children from Reform schools to traditional ones because they want to be sure that their children will learn French. If this movement becomes a trend, the impact of the Reform could be significantly diluted because few children will learn French. If this movement becomes a trend, the impact of the Reform could be significantly diluted because few children will have participated in it. On the other hand, if quality education is offered in both Reform and traditional schools, then Haitians will have an open choice with regard to type of education.

Whatever the role of the private sector in relation to the Reform, opportunity to work with the sector is apparent. Given the responsive nature of the private sector, it is likely that incentives would motivate its schools to improve and that additional legislation might not be necessary.

5.2.4.5 Costs and Financing

The issues related to costs and financing of primary education include consideration of the available resources for primary education, their sources, and their management. These call for an increased emphasis on educational financial planning.

Government provides relatively little support to education compared with other developing countries, and some evidence suggests that its commitment to education might be decreasing in terms of the proportion of money that it is willing to dedicate to the sector. It must be noted, however, that the major portion of the education budget goes to primary education, which is appropriate considering the status of education in Haiti.

The fact that Government does not provide the bulk of the support for primary education (particularly when the resources that go to the wide range of private schools are considered) means that Government is less able to control changes and developments in the subsector. This is most noticeable in implementing the Reform. Government would like to see all schools adopt the Reform curriculum but, in a practical sense, it is not in a position to make this happen.

The costs associated with expanding primary school toward universal access are extremely high. Funds are needed for both capital and recurrent costs. At

this stage one must question the wisdom of investing in school construction when Government has not yet decided on the locations where the third cycle of primary education will be made available. Currently, primary schools with adequate space have classrooms for six levels. With the implementation of the Reform, schools will need space for four levels for the first cycle, seven levels for the first two cycles, and 10 levels for all three cycles. Even if it is decided that the last part of the primary cycle should be offered at what are currently secondary schools, significant obstacles remain to be addressed. There are far fewer secondary than primary schools and the vast majority of secondary schools are private and, hence, not directly under Government's control.

Closely associated with the costs of expansion are the costs of improvement. The emphasis on improving the teaching cadre and the inspectorate is appropriate. The introduction of the Teacher Charter is an extremely important step in improving the status of the teaching profession. It must be recognized, however, that training is a long-term process that will require investments of time, money, and personnel for a number of years and that these will be expensive.

The emphasis on teaching materials is appropriate. Despite the cost of materials, ample evidence indicates that this is a wise investment. Government's desire to use radio to enhance learning throughout the country needs attention. To date, activities in this area have not been particularly successful and sensitivities regarding the use of radio should be noted. Its potential should be further explored as a low-cost activity to improve the quality of instruction.

Chapter 2 provides information on who pays the costs of primary education. Many of these costs are borne by families, particularly in the private sector. Attention needs to be paid to the relationship between family educational burden and socioeconomic status, because it is the poor who are paying high proportions of their income to ensure that family members have access to primary education. Attention also needs to be paid to the relationships between socioeconomic status and quality of available education. The poor, who pay heavily for education, often have access only to schools of low quality.

Donors, both large and small, also bear many of the costs. Their role is particularly evident in the implementation of the Reform where they are providing many of the development costs as well as covering some recurrent costs for components such as the Teacher Charter. The fact that so many different entities support primary education presents a difficult challenge for Government as it strives to develop and encourage a single educational system in Haiti.

This situation calls for careful coordination between Government and the donors and a thoughtful combination of the various resources that are available.

The calculation of rates of returns in this assessment is described in Chapter 2. Compared to other developing countries, both private and total rates of return are low in Haiti. The average private rate of return for Haiti is 25% against an average of 29% for comparable countries, and the average total rate of return is 12% as compared to 27%. These relatively low rates of return can be attributed to primary education's low internal efficiency and to the structure of the Haitian labor market, among other things.

The Haitian calculations are a little unusual in that they reflect lower rates of return for primary education than for other levels of the education subsector. This should not be interpreted as a reason for not investing in primary education. First, the planned improvement of internal efficiency is likely to increase the rates of return significantly. Second, primary education deserves improvement, because it is the foundation for participation in all other components of the formal educational system and Haitians recognize its importance as the gateway to higher educational levels. Third, given the nature of the available data, the rates of return computed may be regarded as indicative rather than precise; this issue is also dealt with in more detail in Chapter 2.

Understanding of the financial operations of schools in the private sector needs to be improved. A better understanding of how they operate could suggest, to planners, creative and cost-effective ways of improving quality and increasing access through an incentive program directed to private schools. A good opportunity also exists for working with the private sector to develop mechanisms for fiscal management and fiscal control that will increase efficiency.

### 5.3 Conclusions

The following eight conclusions regarding primary education are derived from the preceding analysis. These conclusions form the basis for the recommendations in the final section of this chapter.

Conclusion 1 - Demand.

There is a high demand for primary education; access to primary education needs to be increased. Education is valued highly and families are willing to pay significant portions of their income to ensure that children have an opportunity to participate. In spite of the substantial increase in the number of school places over the last decade, there are no places in schools for a large percentage of children. The majority of these children are rural and poor. Increasing access must also consider equity issues.

Conclusion 2 - Efficiency.

Primary education is inefficient. Dropout, repetition, and promotion rates, as well as teacher loss rates, are all indicators of inefficiencies in the system. They result in a significant wastage of educational resources. Every attempt should be made to prevent such wastage.

Conclusion 3 - Quality.

The quality of primary education needs to be improved. The quality of instruction, in particular, could be improved significantly and this would increase pupil achievement and contribute to improving the internal efficiency of the system. A wide range of activities could support better instruction and provide an opportunity to develop a multifaceted and creative approach to improved instruction.

Conclusion 4 - Reform.

This is a critical time for the Education Reform. Progress of the Reform should be carefully monitored. Although the Reform was introduced several years ago, its concepts and potential impact are not very well understood by the general population. If implementation of the Reform is to proceed, it needs to be more widely accepted. This will require a better understanding nationwide of its goals and objectives, some positive returns in terms of educational achievements of children, and a demonstration by Government to the private sector that there is a commitment to this primary school curriculum as the one that is appropriate for the country.

Conclusion 5 - Language.

The language issue is extremely important and complex and needs further attention. Language skills historically have served to discriminate among Haitians. Any nationwide program that is perceived as discouraging the acquisition of French language skills will naturally be viewed as something designed to restrict opportunities of the poor. Moreover, because of the nature of the components of the Reform, it is the language aspect that is likely to be adopted in all schools whereas other aspects such as discovery learning methods may not, because they are less concrete and less easy to incorporate. It is just as important that the language issue is disguised and diminish the other elements of the Reform that could contribute to fundamental changes in Haiti in the long run.

Conclusion 6 - Management.

Management and administrative structures throughout the subsector need to be improved. Weak management and administration results in serious inefficiencies throughout the subsector. In part, these are due to lack of

information and a lack of analysis and planning capabilities. These are critical, though not sufficient, elements in any educational system. Also needed is an active, creative, and respected system leadership that provides support, encouragement, and quality control at all levels. School administration is an area where investments could have extremely high payoffs.

Conclusion 7 - Private Sector.

The important role of the private sector must not be overlooked. It is critical to recognize that the importance of the private sector is not just in its enrollment strength. It has tremendous potential for development and improvement. Moreover, it could play a significant role in the eventual acceptance or rejection of the Education Reform. Along with its potential, it presents difficult challenges because of its complexity and variability.

Conclusion 8 - Food.

The continued and expanded availability of food in primary schools is necessary and has educational as well as health outcomes. School feeding programs are not just a free lunch. They make an important contribution to the learning achievements of children and, thus, to the health and welfare of the nation.

## 5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

Seven specific recommendations related to primary education follow from the conclusions stated above. They are listed in priority order in each of three subsections: public sector, private sector, and system-wide.

### 5.4.1 Public Sector

Recommendation 1 - Reform. Increase the rate of implementation of the Reform in the public sector.

The Reform signifies an important change in direction for education in Haiti. It addresses issues of access, internal and external efficiency, and management and administration. Major investments have been made in the Reform. It is strengthening public education and has the advantages of a broad-based approach that includes aspects such as teacher education, materials development, and an improved inspectorate. Increased emphasis on the implementation of the Reform in the public sector will serve to demonstrate Government's commitment to it. For the Reform to have a chance of success, necessary actions include serious planning with regard to the third cycle and the long- and short-term financing of education.

A necessary initial action step is an information campaign on the Reform to enable parents and educators to get a better understanding of its advantages. This might be undertaken through radio spot announcements.

### 5.4.2 Private Sector

Recommendation 1 - Quality. Improve the quality of education and encourage the adoption of the Reform in the private sector.

A substantial opportunity to improve the lives of many Haitians is available through improvement of education in the private sector. This can be done through developing and providing such supports as low-cost learning aids, teacher guides, and radio programs. Short-term teacher training could be provided in a variety of areas from materials development to classroom management. Within the private sector, innovative programs could be pilot tested--programs like the mobile teacher training unit suggested by the Methodist Church schools or training for school directors in such areas as school and financial management. Within the private sector, it will be important to establish mechanisms for sharing information and resources. The various systems of mission-supported schools are good examples of the kinds of mechanisms that can be established. The possibility of setting up other associations of private schools should be explored. A school directors' association would be a productive first step.

The technical assistance provided to the private sector would need to be coordinated within an overall strategy that recognizes the variety within the private sector and the necessity for voluntary participation on the part of private schools. Within this strategy, however, it might be useful to consider a wide range of incentives, including nonmonetary incentives and areas that may not be directly related to improving education, such as food cooperatives for teachers or the development of a pension plan within the private sector.

Recommendation 2 - Information. Conduct a survey of the private sector.

Providing support and assistance to the private sector requires a better database. To provide appropriate and targeted assistance, Government and donors need to be aware of both the structure and the functions of the various components that constitute private education. This recommendation is also an important first step in support of the first recommendation in Section 5.4.3.

Recommendation 3 - Funding. Explore methods to assist with funding improved instruction in private schools.

Ways should be considered in which private voluntary organizations that are already working in rural areas or in education might serve as partners in a program to improve the quality of education. These organizations might provide technical assistance or provide loans to schools wishing to improve facilities, for example. The feasibility of setting up cooperative activities that can help cover fees for children who are unable to pay for themselves should be considered.

5.4.3 System-Wide

Recommendation 1 - Information. Improve the procedures for data collection.

Within the Ministry of Education there is concern that the statistics they use are not accurate and that they are often unable to collect the statistics they need in time for decisionmaking. Much of the recording of data on the educational sector is done manually, meaning that even after data are collected, it may be a long time before they are available for analysis and interpretation.

Recommendation 2 - Language. Readdress the language issue with particular attention to when and how French will be taught to primary school pupils.

A serious program to get language learning on a strong footing should be developed. It will be important to engage experts in teaching both first and second languages, as well as experts in language materials development. Along with providing children with the best environment to learn subject matter, it is critical to ensure that the Reform does not lessen children's opportunities later in life.

Recommendation 3 - Management. Improve the management and planning capabilities of those in decisionmaking positions in public and private educational institutions.

This objective is best attained through a training program that allows for addressing an individual's specific needs. It calls for a pragmatic approach to attaining the specific skills required, rather than long-term training in more general areas such as theories of management.

*Annexe*

# II-A

Annex

*Manuels Scolaires pour l'Ecole Primaire*

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Primary School Textbooks

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## AVANT PROPOS

L'annexe IIA, concernant les manuels scolaires, a été revu à Port-au-Prince, le 14 avril 1986 par Monsieur Roger Ade et par Madame Jeanine McLaurin de l'Institute Pédagogique National (IPN), avec la collaboration de Monsieur Stephen Anzalone de l'Institut de Recherche Internationale (I.E.E.S.).

Des corrections de détail et de présentation des données statistiques ont été faites. Le groupe de révision est généralement satisfait du contenu du chapitre. Cependant il a formulé deux observations.

En premier lieu, bon nombre de problèmes rencontrés lors de la distribution des manuels scolaires ont trouvé une solution, pendant que le rapport de l'évaluation sectorielle était en cours de redaction.

Deuxièmement, les recommandations relatives à l'amélioration de l'évaluation formative durant la conception des manuels (l'annexe IIA) n'a pas tenu compte des mecanismes déjà établis au niveau de l'Institute Pédagogique National. La responsabilité de l'éxécution de cette fonction relève de la section des études de l'IPN quand bien même, formellement, aucune partie de la conception des manuels n'est couverte effectivement par les arrangements actuels.

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## ANNEXE A : MANUELS SCOLAIRES POUR L'ECOLE PRIMAIRE

Etant donné le rapport étroit entre la disponibilité de manuels didactiques et les taux de réussite scolaire dans les pays en voie de développement, une étude spéciale a été entreprise concernant les manuels d'enseignement primaire. L'objectif de cette étude était de faire des recommandations pour améliorer l'approvisionnement et la qualité des manuels scolaires tout en réduisant le coût. Ces recommandations sont basées sur une analyse des possibilités de production, de distribution et d'utilisation de ces manuels en Haïti.

### A.1 SITUATION ACTUELLE

Les manuels scolaires sont indispensables pour un enseignement efficace. Ainsi que la recherche le démontre, la disponibilité de manuels scolaires est le facteur associé le plus étroitement à la réussite scolaire des élèves dans les pays en voie de développement. Ce facteur a encore plus de poids que le niveau de formation des enseignants. La plupart des pays en voie de développement reconnaissent l'importance des manuels scolaires et ont accordé une grande priorité à l'amélioration de leur approvisionnement et de leur qualité.

Il y a une pénurie de manuels scolaires à tous les niveaux du système d'éducation en Haïti. La plupart des élèves des écoles primaires ne peuvent pas se procurer les livres nécessaires, en dépit des efforts considérables faits pour en réduire le coût. En 1982 seulement un élève du primaire sur quatre possédait un manuel scolaire. On retrouve à peu près la même situation dans le secondaire. Beaucoup de livres du secondaire sont importés et peuvent coûter de 8 à 12 dollars chacun. Le coût total des livres pour une année scolaire dans le secondaire peut varier de 18 à 150 dollars. Les manuels scolaires dans l'enseignement supérieur reviennent encore plus cher.

Le rôle critique des manuels à l'école primaire est particulièrement explicite dans le contexte de la Réforme de l'Education. Cette réforme (présentée en plus grand détail dans le Chapitre 5) a démarré en 1982 et vise à rendre l'enseignement primaire plus approprié et plus efficace. Le matériel pédagogique produit et distribué dans le cadre de la réforme en constitue l'élément clé. Etant donné que 80% environ des enseignants du primaire ne sont pas suffisamment formés et qu'il existe un manque évisent d'inspecteurs, le succès de la reh´forme dépend dans une très grande mesure de la disponibilité et de la qualité du matériel pédagogique.

Seulement 27% environ des écoles primaires appliquaient la Réforme en 1984. Alors qu'un nombre indéterminé d'écoles qui n'appliquent pas la Réforme

utilisent en fait le matériel pédagogique de la Réforme, de nombreuses écoles se servent de toute une variété d'autres manuels scolaires. Un grand nombre de ces manuels ont été élaborés et édités sur place, et quelques-uns de ces manuels locaux ont reçu l'agrément du Ministère de l'Education comme étant conformes aux objectifs de la Réforme. D'autres établissements scolaires produisent du matériel qui est utilisé soit à la place du matériel de la Réforme, soit conjointement.

Dans les écoles traditionnelles comme dans les écoles qui appliquent la Réforme, les élèves doivent acheter leurs livres. Il est donc indispensable d'éviter des augmentations de prix, ce qui les mettraient hors de portée de la majorité des enfants. Pour maintenir les prix aussi bas que possible, beaucoup de livres sont imprimés sur du papier de basse qualité avec des reliures bon marché et peu solides. Malgré ces imperfections matérielles, les manuels scolaires durent en général plusieurs années et sont souvent vendus et rachetés comme livres d'occasion.

Contrairement à beaucoup de pays pauvres, Haïti possède la capacité de produire des livres, et a décidé d'éditer ses propres manuels pour l'école primaire. Le fait que la plupart de ces manuels soient en créole a été un facteur important dans cette décision, étant donné que le choix de manuels scolaires en créole édités en dehors d'Haïti est très limité.

Haïti a opté pour une stratégie de production et de distribution des manuels scolaires de la réforme qui s'appuie sur l'activité conjointe des secteurs publics et privés. Le matériel pédagogique est élaboré pour le compte du gouvernement par l'Institut Pédagogique National (IPN). L'impression des manuels scolaires et des guides pour les enseignants est réalisée sous contrat par le secteur privé qui les fabrique et les distribue à un prix fixé d'avance.

Les efforts pour améliorer l'approvisionnement en manuels scolaires et la qualité de ce matériel dans les écoles primaires ont été entrepris sous l'égide de trois projets d'éducation financés par la Banque Mondiale. Le premier projet, lancé en 1976, a permis d'établir une section de production de matériel pédagogique au sein de l'IPN. Un deuxième projet (1978-82) a mis sur pied un programme expérimental d'élaboration et de production de manuels scolaires et de guides pour les enseignants destinés aux quatre premières années de l'école primaire. La Banque Mondiale continue maintenant à assister le gouvernement dans la mise en oeuvre de la Réforme au moyen d'un Troisième Projet d'Education dans le cadre duquel environ 0,8 millions de dollars ont été alloués pour la production et la distribution du matériel pédagogique. La production de manuels scolaires pour l'école primaire fait partie d'un effort plus grand de développement de programmes scolaires entrepris par la Section de Programmes et

de Matériel Pédagogique de l'IPN.

La conceptualisation et la rédaction des manuels scolaires sont apparemment entravées par le manque d'expérience des spécialistes dans les différentes matières. Des retards dans la production du matériel sont fréquents. Les manuels sont revus par le Ministère de l'Education et par un organisme indépendant, le Comité des Programmes. Le matériel est alors mis à l'essai sous forme d'une édition expérimentale et les documents sont tous revus avant d'être diffusés à plus grande échelle.

Le problème de la distribution des manuels scolaires de la Réforme est complexe et n'a pas encore été entièrement résolu. Il y a deux filières de distribution. La première est constituée par la distribution gratuite du matériel. Celle-ci comprend les manuels scolaires offerts gracieusement à la première promotion de chaque classe expérimentale dans les écoles appliquant la Réforme, les manuels (11 par classe) sont distribués aux écoles pour les enfants nécessiteux qui ne peuvent pas se les acheter, et les guides de l'enseignant sont distribués aux maîtres dans toutes les écoles publiques de même que les écoles privées en milieu rural. La seconde filière est constituée par la vente au détail des livres corrigés en fonction des résultats de l'édition expérimentale. La première filière de distribution fonctionne sous la direction de l'IPN par l'intermédiaire d'une série de centres régionaux, et la seconde fonctionne au moyen d'un réseau commercial de détaillants. Dans l'ensemble le système semble bien fonctionner, mais un certain nombre de petites écoles font état de difficultés au niveau de l'approvisionnement.

Les manuels de la réforme édités jusqu'à présent couvrent les trois premières années de l'école primaire. Durant l'année scolaire 1984/85, on devait essayer le matériel pour la quatrième année et entreprendre l'élaboration du matériel pour la cinquième année.

Le coût total des manuels scolaires de la Réforme est de 1,75 dollars pour la première année, 2,45 dollars pour la deuxième année, et 6,00 pour la troisième année. A l'instar des classes de troisième année, celles de quatrième année utilisent sept manuels scolaires (actuellement en édition expérimentale). Quand les manuels de la quatrième année seront mis en vente, vraisemblablement en 1986, leur coût total ne devrait pas dépasser celui des manuels de troisième année. Le gouvernement a réussi à maintenir le prix des manuels scolaires aussi bas que prévu car les prix actuellement en vigueur sont conformes à ceux adoptés au moment de l'évaluation du Troisième Projet d'Education effectuée en 1982. Il s'agit là d'un résultat remarquable, étant donné que les pays en voie de développement qui s'approvisionnent en manuels scolaires auprès de maisons commerciales ont dû faire face à une rapide augmentation des prix ces dernières

années.

## A.2 BESOINS

L'analyse de la situation actuelle des manuels scolaires a permis d'identifier une série de besoins explicites--auxquels il faudra répondre afin qu'un plus grand nombre d'enfants soit en mesure d'utiliser, et avec plus d'efficacité, les manuels scolaires.

Rabattement des prix. On a réussi à améliorer l'approvisionnement en manuels scolaires par une réduction des prix et par la distribution d'un certain nombre d'exemplaires aux écoles à titre gracieux. Malgré tout, il faut souligner que le nombre d'enfants qui ont accès à ces manuels reste trop faible. Il faut donc chercher des moyens de rendre ces manuels encore plus accessibles en diminuant davantage les prix.

Meilleure qualité. En dépit des sévePh`res contraintes financières, la qualité des manuels scolaires a besoin d'être améliorée. Une étude complémentaire est nécessaire pour déterminer dans quelle mesure et de quelle manière les manuels scolaires contribuent à la réalisation des objectifs d'enseignement. L'évaluation du matériel pédagogique ne doit pas s'arrêter à l'examen de facteurs tels que l'utilisation effective des manuels, les appréciations des enseignants, et l'efficacité des réseaux de distribution. Il serait indiqué de prévoir l'utilisation plus régulière et plus systématique des résultats des évaluations.

Matériel didactique supplémentaire. Le programme de l'école primaire doit être renforcé par l'élaboration d'une plus grande gamme de matériel pédagogique. Le matériel supplémentaire devrait permettre aux étudiants de pratiquer, de consolider et d'accroître leurs connaissances de base. Si les élèves n'ont pas de nombreuses occasions de mettre en application leurs connaissances en lecture et en calcul, surtout pendant les premières années de scolarisation, ils risquent de ne pas atteindre le niveau suffisant de connaissances et de se maintenir au degré minimum d'alphabétisation et de calcul indispensable pour la maîtrise des autres matières.

Meilleure distribution. La réduction des prix des manuels scolaires fera augmenter la demande. Il sera, par conséquent, nécessaire de mettre en place un meilleur système de distribution. Les écoles les plus petites et les plus isolées continueront probablement à rencontrer des difficultés dans l'approvisionnement en manuels scolaires. Il serait souhaitable d'identifier ces écoles et de trouver des moyens d'approvisionnement plus efficaces.

Matériel plus appropriés pour les enseignants. Il est admis généralement qu'il est nécessaire d'améliorer les guides pour les enseignants. Ceci n'est

qu'un aspect d'un problème plus général qui consiste à concevoir et à mettre en place un système de formation continue et d'appui pédagogique apte à amener les enseignants les moins formés vers une plus grande efficacité dans leur travail. Il convient de trouver de nouveaux moyens pour assurer aux enseignants et aux élèves la documentation et les éléments de formation nécessaires. Dans beaucoup de pays la radio s'est avérée être un moyen peu coûteux pour fournir aux enseignants et aux élèves un enseignement de bonne qualité.

## A.3 RECOMMANDATIONS

L'analyse ci-dessus permet de faire trois recommandations. Toutes les trois supposent que les donateurs poursuivront leurs activités d'appui à la Réforme et fourniront une assistance financière complémentaire pour le développement de matériel pédagogique dans le cadre des efforts déjà entrepris dans ce sens par la Banque Mondiale.

Recommandation 1 - Subventions. Examiner la possibilité d'utiliser des subventions pour réduire le coût des livres pour les élèves.

Il serait indiqué d'étudier la possibilité de réduire le coût des livres de la Réforme, peut-être de moitié, en accordant une subvention aux agences d'impression et de distribution. Une telle initiative devrait être planifiée sur une période de cinq ans au moins. Pour cela, l'aide de donateurs serait nécessaire.

Une assistance technique pourrait être utile pour évaluer l'impact de la réduction des prix sur la demande en manuels scolaires et sur leur utilisation. Cette évaluation pourrait également examiner les effets de la disponibilité des manuels sur les résultats scolaires. Ceci permettrait au gouvernement de déterminer si une politique de subvention aux prix des manuels scolaires est un bon moyen d'améliorer l'efficacité de l'éducation primaire.

Recommandation 2 - Contrôle systématique de la qualité. Renforcer de façon plus systématique les capacités institutionnelles d'évaluation formative du matériel pédagogique.

Il faut examiner de plus près dans quelle mesure les manuels de la Réforme contribuent à l'amélioration des résultats scolaires. Les manuels scolaires et les guides des enseignants ont besoin d'être évalués plus en détail afin de corriger les ouvrages déjà produits et d'en élaborer de nouveaux. Pour améliorer la qualité de ces ouvrages, des données supplémentaires sur l'impact du matériel déjà produit seront nécessaires.

Les capacités d'évaluation de l'IPN devraient être renforcées. L'assistance

de donateurs sera utile pour fournir le personnel supplémentaire, les éléments de formation et l'assistance technique nécessaires pour aboutir à un contrôle plus systématique du matériel pédagogique.

Recommandation 3 - Initiatives locales. Renforcer l'initiative locale afin d'améliorer l'approvisionnement des écoles en matériel peu onéreux.

Certains donateurs pourraient éventuellement aider des institutions capables d'adapter, d'améliorer, ou d'élaborer des documents pédagogiques pour compléter ceux qui sont déjà sur le marché. L'objectif n'est pas de copier le matériel (manuels scolaires, cahiers d'exercices, guides de l'enseignant, etc.) qui existe déjà. Il s'agit plutôt d'aider des auteurs, des petites maisons d'édition et des écoles au niveau local à créer toute une gamme de nouveau matériel didactique qui pourrait comprendre des fiches de lecture par matière, des livrets, des modules d'enseignement programmés, des jeux éducatifs, des cassettes, et des livres de lecture. Dans le cadre d'un tel projet, il faudrait prévoir également une assistance technique en matière de conception et d'élaboration de matériel didactique ainsi qu'un fond de contrepartie pour compléter l'apport financier au niveau local.

Le matériel supplémentaire devrait être conforme aux orientations de la Réforme et sa production devrait être étroitement coordonneé avec les activités de l'IPN. L'objectif est d'élargir le soutien à la Réforme en encourageant une plus grande participation aux activités de celle-ci et en prévoyant un moyen de faire appel aux capacités locales pour la production du matériel pédagogique nécessaire.

Cette recommandation, de même que la première, nécessiterait une sérieuse évaluation de l'efficacité du matériel didactique en question. Les leçons de l'évaluation indiqueraient les voies à suivre pour mettre en place, sur le plan national, une véritable capacité de production de matériel pédagogique pour toutes les classes.

## ANNEX PREFACE

Annex IIA, "Primary School Textbooks," was reviewed in Port-au-Prince on April 14, 1986 by Mr. Roger Ade and Mrs. Jeanine McLaurin of the National Pedagogical Institute (Institut Pedagogique National, IPN), with the collaboration of Mr. Stephen Anzalone, IEES/Institute for International Research.

Corrections of factual detail and statistical presentation were made at the outset of the review session. Reviewers expressed general satisfaction with the contents of the chapter but wished to note two points. First, many of the difficulties experienced in the distribution of books have in fact been resolved since the writing of the sector assessment. Second, the reviewers felt that the recommendation of improved formative evaluation during the textbook design process made in Annex IIA did not take account of the mechanisms already established for textbook evaluation within the IPN. This responsibility belongs to the Research Section ("Section des Etudes") of the IPN and, though not formally a part of textbook design, is adequately covered by present arrangements.

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ANNEX IIA

# A.0 PRIMARY SCHOOL TEXTBOOKS*

## A.1 INTRODUCTION

In view of the important relationship between textbooks and school achievement in developing countries, a separate study of the use of textbooks in Haitian primary schools was undertaken as part of this assessment. The purpose of this study was to make recommendations for increasing the supply and quality of textbooks in primary schools and lowering their cost to pupils. These recommendations follow from an analysis of the present capacity in Haiti for producing, distributing, and using textbooks. They take into account the educational materials being produced in connection with the Education Reform now underway at the primary level.

The study begins with some introductory remarks about the significance of textbooks in developing countries and the book situation in Haiti. The study then considers the background policy that determines textbook use in public and private primary schools. The local capacity to produce and distribute textbooks is then examined. Also analyzed are the costs associated with textbook production.

The study then describes the educational materials development project being undertaken by Government with support from the World Bank, and examines the titles, numbers, costs, and quality of the materials being produced. The section that follows compares these books written to support the Education Reform with other primary school textbooks used in Haiti. The study concludes with a discussion of existing needs in the area of primary school textbooks, and offers recommendations addressing these needs.

### A.1.1 Textbooks in Developing Countries

School textbooks are a significant component of the instructional process in all educational systems. In the typical school system, the broader questions of curriculum and curriculum development in practice often become matters of textbook selection and use. In addition to supporting the teaching/learning process, textbooks usually are the blueprint for that process. Textbooks provide the objectives, content, sequence, and pacing of instruction.

Textbooks are also a tangible linkage between the school and the community; they carry messages to parents and others about what is being taught in school.

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*The draft for this chapter was prepared by Stephen J. Anzalone, Institute for International Research, Inc.; consultant services were provided by Shelagh O'Rourke.

Locally produced textbooks, especially in developing countries, stand as symbols of development, of educational relevance, and of cultural autonomy.

Recent research has confirmed the importance of textbooks for effective school instruction in developing countries. A review of the research by the World Bank (Heyneman, et al., 1978) found that the availability of textbooks is the single school factor most correlated with student achievement. Textbook availability is usually more important than teacher training in explaining academic achievement of students. It is not entirely clear from the research why textbooks have such a positive effect on achievement, and the impact of textbook availability is not uniform across countries. Nevertheless, developing countries have recognized the importance of the relationship between textbooks and learning, and have assigned high priority to increasing their supply and quality.

Donor agencies have provided substantial support for projects to provide school textbooks. Since 1973, for example, the World Bank has financed about 45 projects with some aspect of textbook provision. The U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID) has also extensively supported the development of educational materials during the past two decades.

A.1.2 Books in Haiti

Census statistics indicate that 63% of Haitians cannot read or write. Haiti, however, cannot be described as an illiterate society. Like many other developing countries, Haiti is a nation of "restricted" literacy, where literacy skills and functions are unevenly distributed and performed throughout society. The literacy of a relatively small number of people is well developed: it has produced a "literate" tradition in which important parts of the national experience have been recorded and transmitted through books. This tradition includes a widespread respect for books, even among those who cannot read them.

Unlike many other low-income countries, Haiti has developed a capacity for book publishing. This capacity includes a population of local authors and facilities for commercial book production, manufacturing, and distribution. Although books are not as available as in wealthier societies, they are more frequently encountered in shops, the streets, and other public places than might be expected on the basis of literacy statistics. What separates the literate and the illiterate culture is not so much the general availability of books as much as their accessibility. To a major segment of the population, books are not accessible because of a lack of reading skills, insufficient income to buy books, inadequate access to libraries, and the inability to understand French, the language in which most of the available reading material is written.

Part of the general problem of book inaccessibility is a shortage of textbooks in classrooms at all levels of education in Haiti. In primary schools, the majority of children do not possess the necessary books. This is the case despite the considerable efforts already made to make textbooks more affordable and available. In secondary schools, textbooks are beyond the financial means of many students. Many books at the secondary level are imported and may cost from $8 to $12 each; the total cost of books for a year of secondary school ranges between $18 and $150. In higher education textbooks are even more expensive.

Local printers report that students often come to them with the only available copy of a prescribed textbook to see if it can be photocopied for students in the class. Students find that the costs for this kind of reproduction are prohibitive and do without the books.

## A.2 PRIMARY SCHOOL TEXTBOOKS: POLICY BACKGROUND

Describing the role of textbooks in Haitian primary schools is best approached in light of the reform of the educational system now underway. Education Reform, which is discussed in detail in Chapter 5, is an attempt to make the educational system more relevant and effective. The educational materials produced and distributed as part of the Reform are arguably its focal point. To the extent that they are effective, these materials, notably the textbooks for pupils and the guides for teachers, will give expression to the objectives of the Reform. In an educational system where as many as 80% of teachers at the primary level have not been adequately trained, and where there are so few supervisory personnel, curriculum reform is especially dependent on the educational materials used in the schools.

In 1984, only an estimated 27% of the primary schools in Haiti were following the Reform. While undetermined numbers of non-Reform schools are using the instructional materials produced for the Reform, there is still a large group of schools that are using a variety of textbooks obtained from other sources. Many of these textbooks have been written and produced locally, such as those materials prepared by the Catholic Order of the Frères de l'Instruction Chrêtienne - (FIC). Some of these local materials have been approved by the Ministry of Education as suitable for the Reform. Other schools and school establishments publish materials that are used instead of or as supplements to the Reform materials.

### A.2.1 Textbooks and the Issues of the Reform

Currently, the problems surrounding textbooks in primary schools are

closely linked to the issues underlying the conception and implementation of Education Reform. These include the following:

- The issue of control. The reform of the educational system is an issue of determining who is to control education in Haiti. The clash of public versus private educational goals is producing deeply felt consequences. The points to be resolved are: who decides on the contents of textbooks, who writes them, who produces them, who profits from their sale, and who selects them for use in schools.
- The issue of pluralism. The Reform is being pursued in a pluralistic environment. The educational system reflects divisions with respect to public versus private ownership, religious affiliation, participation or nonparticipation in the Reform, and Creole or French as the language of instruction. The selection and use of textbooks in primary schools reflects these differences.
- The issue of generalization. Closely related to the above is the anticipation that the Reform will be progressively generalized throughout the system. This will require greater public awareness and acceptance of the Reform. The Reform textbooks, in terms of their affordability and their perceived quality, are an important element of community relations.
- The issue of expansion. The Reform is concerned not only with improving primary education but also with expanding it. The goal of increasing access to primary education for children from lower income families suggests that incremental differences in cost would be more influential than similar differences in quality.

A.2.2 Book Ownership

The availability and utilization of textbooks in an educational system depends heavily on the system's policy concerning purchase and ownership of the books. One alternative to student purchase of textbooks--an alternative that seems well suited for low-income countries like Haiti--is for the schools to purchase or be given books. The schools then rent these books to students for a nominal charge. Books are reused in succeeding years, and money collected in rental fees is usually applied to book replacement. Under this kind of arrangement, textbooks tend to be expensive, because of the hard covers that are generally supplied on rental books. For parents of students, the book rental fee is usually considerably less than what it would cost to buy new books.

In Haiti, students are expected to purchase the books they use. This policy is followed by both traditional schools and those connected with the Reform. This system makes it imperative to keep book costs as low as possible

in order to maximize their availability. As a result, many books are printed on newsprint and manufactured with soft covers. Despite these physical shortcomings, textbooks in Haiti are generally used for two or more school years. They are often bought and sold in a secondary market, sometimes through street peddlers. Since the cost of school books is a burden for most families and since some of the expenses can be recovered through resale, most students take good care of their books. It is not uncommon to find books given a protective covering and carried to and from school in book bags.

The policy of having students buy rather than rent books increases the total private costs of primary school education in Haiti--a disadvantage to lower income families. This means that many children go without the books they need and that opportunities for learning are not distributed fairly. The Government is attempting to solve the problem of textbook costs for lower income families by supplying a certain number of free books to schools (see Section A.4.4 below).

The policy of requiring tudents to purchase textbooks does have benefits. Supplying and resupplying textbooks through an extended market almost surely results in a more efficient distribution system than would be realized through a rental arrangement run by schools or Government. Organizing and managing book rental materials and funds would be difficult for most schools; few Haitian educators regard this as a workable option.

## A.3 LOCAL TEXTBOOK PUBLISHING

A major practical decision faced by a developing country like Haiti, with respect to school textbooks, is whether to publish its own textbooks or to purchase them from a source outside the country. The latter option is the easier one, at least in the short-term. It often results in more rapid provision of higher quality textbooks. Textbook publishers in North America and Europe often will print textbooks written locally, or adapt to local settings those textbooks that are already being marketed. Nevertheless, purchasing textbooks from sources outside the country limits the control a country has over content, inhibits the future development of local capacity for textbook publishing, and restricts the degree to which a country can control costs.

Haiti has decided on the more difficult option of publishing its own textbooks for primary schools. The fact that most of the books will be in Creole is a major factor in this decision, since the selection of Creole textbooks published outside Haiti is fairly limited.

Haiti's decision to publish, rather than purchase educational materials from sources outside the country, leads to a second critical decision. Who

should produce the materials: Government or the private sector? Many developing countries have no option, because they have no private capacity to produce and distribute textbooks. When there is a choice, as in Haiti, there are advantages on either side. Providing textbooks through the public sector ensures greater public control over supply, content, cost, and distribution. Providing textbooks through the private sector has the advantage that Government need not embark on a complicated and costly organizational effort to write, produce, manufacture, and distribute books.

Haiti has chosen a strategy of mixed public and private sector involvement to produce and distribute textbooks for the Reform. Educational materials are planned and written for Government by the National Pedagogical Institute (Institut Pédagogique National - IPN). The printing of textbooks and teacher guides, and some production assistance, is performed under contract by the private sector. The private sector agrees to manufacture a specified number of copies and to distribute them at a set price. The details of this arrangement are discussed in sections that follow.

In Haiti, no businesses engage exclusively in textbook production. Most of the textbooks used in primary schools are produced by one company, Maison Henri Deschamps, which also engages in other printing activities as well as book retailing. The functions of textbook publishing are shared either between the printer and Government, or the printer and a private institution or individual. For the Reform materials, Government (through IPN) exercises many of the editorial and production functions normally associated with publishing. The private publisher's role is limited to printing and distribution; a minor role that is less desirable and less profitable. For production of other educational materials, more leeway is left for the publisher. In these cases, books are produced in consultation with the author, usually as the result of orders placed by schools. Rarely, if ever, do local publishers originate, produce, and market their own educational materials.

### A.3.1 Production Capabilities

Primary school textbooks in Haiti are printed and distributed through the private sector. Private sector publishing is dominated by a group of relatively large printing establishments, plus smaller companies that engage in printing and photocopying.

Most of the commercial printing in Haiti is done by three firms: Maison Henri Deschamps, Le Natal, and Fardin. Of these, the oldest and largest establishment is Maison Henri Deschamps. The firm is managed by Mr. Henri Deschamps, president, and his sister, Mrs. Mael Fouchard, chairperson of the board of directors. They are the third generation of a prominent Haitian

publishing family that has been in business for about 50 years. Deschamps manufactures about 90% of primary school textbooks, including all textbooks for the Reform.

The firm began as a retailer of imported textbooks, and continues to be a large retailer of books through its store in Port-au-Prince and a network of about 1,000 retail outlets throughout the country. Deschamps has sufficient resources to obtain the capital needed to accept large orders. Deschamps can also keep production costs down by importing large quantities of paper without going through a wholesaler. The company has recently acquired new printing equipment valued at about $1 million dollars.

At one time, Deschamps could effectively control competition because they controlled the paper supply. This situation has changed, and two other principal printing establishments now share the largest part of the Haitian market. The second oldest firm, Le Natal, is headed by the brother-in-law of the current president of Deschamps. Le Natal, like the third major printing firm, Fardin, owns high-speed rotary printing equipment and can deliver large orders of professional-quality materials. The local newspaper, La Nouvelliste, also does commercial printing with high-speed rotary equipment and has a share of the school notebook (cahiers) market.

A 1982 study conducted by consultant Bernard Dubreuil for the World Bank mentions another firm capable of doing quality printing, the Imprimerie des Antilles. This firm ranked second in quality to Deschamps, according to Dubreuil's assessment.

The Dubreuil study also mentions the capacity of the Government's printing unit, the Government Printer (Presses Nationales). Although this unit is capable of doing quality printing, its workload from various Government agencies does not give top priority to textbook production.

Some educational and other printed materials are produced by an undetermined number of smaller printing establishments. These firms accept smaller printing orders and rely on sheet-fed presses and more labor-intensive operations. Printing activities of these firms are sometimes supplemented by photocopying services provided to the public. These firms are interested in a larger share of the educational market, and maintain that they can compete with the larger firms because relatively low labor costs in Haiti make their operations cost-effective. One of these firms, Impressions Magiques, is seeking support for a proposal to establish a private center for developing a variety of educational materials.

A.3.2 Production and Manufacturing Costs

The availability of textbooks in primary schools depends in large part on the price that students must pay for the materials. A number of factors affect the price of textbooks: the cost of paper and printing materials; the costs associated with doing page composition, paste-up, illustrations, corrections, proofs, stripping, printing, collation, and binding; the cost of packing and distributing the books; and the profits realized by the manufacturer and the bookseller.

The cost of paper is the largest single item associated with production and manufacture of textbooks. Paper accounts for as much as half of the total cost. Haiti must import the paper it uses, most of it from the United States and Canada. High import duties were removed from newsprint in 1978, and new competition in the market for paper and printing supplies helped reduce prices for printed materials. Bond paper has also recently been exempted from import duties.

Lower prices and shipping costs favor the use of newsprint in school textbooks. In Haiti, however, the cost difference between newsprint and bond paper is not dramatic. Bond paper provides printed pages that are more legible, a little stronger, and more readily erased.

The cost of bond paper in a book about the size of the first-grade reading text Pol ak Anita (64 pages, with 5-1/2 by 8-1/2 inch pages) is estimated to be about $0.25. The paper costs for the same size book would be about $0.21 if newsprint were used. The paper costs would be about $0.18 - $0.19 for a firm importing paper in the volume that Deschamps does.

The costs for items such as corrections, proofs, stripping, printing, binding, packing, and distributing vary according to the printing establishment and the kind of equipment used. For a book of the size described above, the estimated cost for page composition is about $7.50 per page and $5.00 each per page for illustration and paste-up.

The use of a second color in a book like the example described above would add about $0.03 to the cost of a book if it were printed on appropriate multicolor presses. This cost could be considerably more for smaller printing establishments using presses that require a second run for a second color. These establishments also do not have automatic collating machinery and must pay for collation by hand. The costs in Haiti for this category of labor are low enough that hand collation would add perhaps only $0.01 - $0.02 to the cost of a book like the one described.

Most of the primary school textbooks being produced are small enough that inexpensive saddle stitch-binding (staples) can be used. Some of the teachers'

guides require perfect binding (glue), which is more expensive. The cost of the textbook is also increased slightly if a Bristol (light cardboard) cover is used.

Based on discussions with both a large and a small printing firm, the cost for producing and manufacturing 25,000 - 50,000 copies of a textbook of the size described above is estimated at about $0.50 to $0.53 per book. These figures are similar to the unit costs for a book with the specifications agreed upon by Government and the World Bank at the time the Third Education Project was being appraised. The small printing firm indicated it would be able to produce a book at these prices. Packing and distribution were not included in its estimate.

Haitian students purchase the book Pol ak Anita for between $1.00 and $1.10. Deschamps retails the book for $1.00 and wholesales it in orders of one hundred for about $0.79 per book. From these figures it can be concluded that it costs as much to distribute a textbook to students as it does to produce it.

## A.4 TEXTBOOKS FOR EDUCATION REFORM

The effective use of textbooks in primary schools is restricted by their price and quality. Families often pay an estimated $6-8 per child per year for the required primary books. Not surprisingly, only one in four primary students actually owns a textbook, according to a 1982 World Bank Staff Appraisal Report. Moreover, many of the available books are known to be out-of-date, and many are written in French and consequently not available to the majority of students.

Government is responding to this situation in connection with its Education Reform. The efforts to improve the supply and quality of educational materials in primary schools have been conducted under three education projects supported by the World Bank. Under the first project, which began in 1976, a production unit was established for educational materials. A second project (1978-82) launched an experimental program of production of textbooks and teacher guides for the first four years of primary school. UNDP/UNESCO and the French government also began providing assistance for curriculum revision and materials development for the Reform.

### A.4.1 The Third Education Project

The World Bank is now assisting Government in implementing the Reform through the Third Education Project. Some $8 million has been allocated for producing and distributing educational materials to support a wide range of curriculum revisions.

The objective of the educational materials component of the project is to "provide better and cheaper books to all school children." The project aims at developing student textbooks and teacher guides. The student books will be

produced and sold by the private sector to students throughout the country. About one quarter of these students will use textbooks supplied free to schools and paid for by the project. A variety of free teacher guides will be distributed to teachers in public and rural private schools. The project hopes to increase the demand for textbooks by making them available at a lower cost--$2-5 per grade ($6 as a maximum during the life of the project)--than the current average of $6-8.

A.4.2 Curriculum Development

Although only about one-fourth of the schools are following the Reform, the activities of the Third Education Project are significant. The arrangements for improving curriculum and materials constitute an official system for curriculum development. The relative importance of this system will be determined in the years ahead.

The production of textbooks for primary schools is linked to a larger process of curriculum development orchestrated by the Curriculum and Educational Materials Unit at IPN. This unit is managed by a Haitian with technical assistance from a UNESCO curriculum specialist. Much of this unit's work involves setting educational objectives at three levels: (a) general objectives of the Reform, which are often derived from criticism of the traditional system, and which often relate to matters of policy; (b) implementation of the general objectives of the Reform into a pedagogical approach; and (c) learning objectives for each school subject. Learning objectives are addressed in terms of the content of instruction and the action to occur in the teaching-learning process. Objectives are stated in behavioral terms and follow the widely used classification scheme of Benjamin Bloom.

The translation of educational objectives into the textbooks for the Reform is done by teams working in IPN's Materials Production Unit Section de l'Elaboration. These teams include Haitians and expatriate advisors and consultants supplied by the French government or Unesco. Teams have been formed in the areas of mathematics, environmental studies, natural sciences, and communications. The communications team has members responsible for spoken French, French grammar, written and spoken Creole, and Creole grammar. There is also a team responsible for writing supplementary library materials.

The task of writing instructional materials is restricted because of the various subject matter specialists' lack of experience. Delays in developing materials for production are frequent. This is often the result of such factors as the amount of time actually spent on the job by Haitian staff, who may be holding other jobs to supplement meager salaries. The Dubreuil study mentioned the tendency for materials writers to take their annual leave in July and

August, the time when materials must be made ready for printing in order to be completed for the coming school year.

Curriculum materials are reviewed by the Ministry of Education and a Curriculum Committee. This committee is an independent advisory board of education professionals. The materials are then tested in an experimental edition and revised before being produced for general use.

Again, it must be stated that this official process does not constitute a public monopoly over curriculum matters. The majority of primary schools are not following the Reform and make their own decisions on what materials to use. Furthermore, some materials produced privately in Haiti prior to the Reform have been endorsed by the Ministry of Education as being consistent with the Reform. The sharing of power in the pluralistic fabric of Haitian education means that it will be a long time before Haitian children follow a standard curriculum and use identical sets of educational materials.

A.4.3 Materials Production

After textbooks are written, their production becomes the responsibility of the Materials Production Unit at IPN, Unit à de Production de Matérial Didactique et Impression - (UPMDI). This unit prepares the manuscripts for printing. It consists of six staff members and is headed by an experienced Haitian, employed as a UNESCO local expert.

UPMDI gives camera-ready book pages to the printer, who takes responsibility for further production and distribution. This system results in savings, since no royalty fees are paid to authors. A printer is supposed to be selected on the basis of competitive bids. However, the first contract was awarded to Deschamps without solicitation of bids, because officials believed that no other firm would be able to obtain the necessary capital to fill the order. Other printers have expressed dissatisfaction with this decision. The current Deschamps contract expires in 1985, and informed sources indicate that it then will be offered for competitive bids. Deschamps, for its part, is examining its profit margin on the textbooks which it considers low in comparison with other commercial printing, and is re-evaluating its interest in the school textbook market.

IPN is responsible for negotiating prices and numbers of books to be printed as part of the contract with the printer. Book specifications and price targets were fixed at the time the World Bank appraised the project. The prices and specifications of the textbooks now being sold indicate a good degree of compliance with these agreements between Government and the World Bank. Some complaints have been made that the printer is not producing the specified number

of books, which apparently is in response to a lower than expected demand for the books.

A.4.4 Distribution and Utilization

The problem of distributing the textbooks produced for the Reform is complex and not easily resolved. There are two channels of distribution. The first is the distribution of the free material, which includes: textbooks in the one-year experimental edition for a particular grade; the textbooks that are distributed free to schools for children who cannot afford to buy books (see below); and the teacher guides to teachers in public schools and rural private schools. The second channel is the general sale to students of books that have been revised on the basis of the experimental edition.

The first distribution channel is operated by IPN through a series of regional centers established to supervise implementation of the Reform, the Regional Education Offices (Centres de Pédagogiques Régionaux). A large truck follows six different circuits in making deliveries to these regional centers. In principle, the centers deliver the books to schools, using jeeps or motorcycles. In practice, however, it is often the responsibility of school directors to travel to the centers for their books--a special problem for schools in more remote locations. Both IPN and the schools being served admit that problems have been encountered in this part of the book distribution system.

The second distribution channel is Deschamps' commercial network of retailers. When books are placed in general distribution after the experimental year, Deschamps sells them to students through at least 1,000 agents throughout the country. These agents make a small retail profit on books. Many of these agents are owners of boutiks, small stores selling essential provisions in the vicinities of local schools. Parents often obtain books for their children using credit arrangements established with the proprietor of the boutik.

In many cases, school directors or managers of larger school establishments obtain textbook supplies directly from the Deschamps factory in Port-au-Prince, and sell them to students at a small mark-up.

Criticism is expressed concerning the effectiveness of the system. Some smaller schools report difficulties in obtaining books. They indicate that there are no outlets in many remote regions, and that Deschamps has no supply points in these areas because they would be unprofitable to maintain. The Dubreuil study mentions that IPN has been considering getting involved in general distribution of textbooks to areas where service is not satisfactory. Dubreuil recommended that use of a helicopter be studied as a possible cost-effective way of reaching remote areas.

Not everyone is convinced that the "distribution problem" rests solely on the methods of distribution. Deschamps, for example, suggests that the problem is one of demand, and that if demand for the textbooks were sufficient, ways would be found to have them available for sale. The low demand for textbooks is the result of the price of the books, which many parents cannot afford.

One of the goals of the Third Education Project is to provide free textbooks to students who cannot afford them. The proportion of students in a classroom that cannot pay for textbooks was presumed to be 25%; for allocation purposes, this number was fixed at 11 students per classroom. Eleven copies of each title are purchased with World Bank funds and delivered to schools participating in the Reform. In many places, 11 books are not sufficient to cover the number of students who do not have their own books. Students are not allowed to take these books home, and parents complain that this restriction prevents their children from doing the homework necessary for effective learning. Similarly, there are complaints that students who are unable to purchase textbooks are not taken "seriously" by teachers.

A.4.5 Materials Produced

Materials produced for the Reform have so far covered the first three years of primary school. In the 1984/85 school year, materials are being tested for grade four, and work is underway to develop materials for grade five. The materials produced so far for general distribution to schools include the following:

| SUBJECT | TYPE | TITLE | COST |
|---|---|---|---|
| First Grade | | | |
| Reading | Student Text | Pol ak Anita | $1.00 |
| Multidisciplinary student workbook in writing, design, and arithmetic | | Kaye Egzesis | .75 |
| Reading | Teacher Guide | Pol ak Anita | 1.60 |
| Arithmetic | Teacher Guide | Matematik-le ane | 2.00 |
| Readiness | Teacher | Premye Konesans | 4.00 |

Second Grade

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Reading | Student Text | Konprann sa nou li | 1.10 |
| Arithmetic | Student Workbook | Mathematik-elev 2em | .75 |
| Environmental Study | Student Workbook | Egzesis pou devlope lespri | .60 |
| Reading | Teacher Guide | Konprann sa nou li | 2.00 |
| Arithmetic | Teacher Guide | Kaye elev 2em ane | 4.00 |
| Environmental Study | Teacher Guide | Egzesis pou devlope lespri | 3.00 |

Third Grade

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Reading | Student Text | Konpran sa nou li-lekti 3em ane | .90 |
| Reading/ Writing | Student Workbook | Konprann sa nou li-egzesis 3em ane | .70 |
| French | Student Text | Lire et écrire en français | .90 |
| French | Student Text | Parler français | .70 |
| Arithmetic | Student Text | Matematik-liv elev 3em ane | 1.10 |
| Environmental Study | Student Workbook | Cheche konnen sa ki nan alantou nou | .80 |
| Creole Grammar | Student Text | Grame kreyol | .90 |
| Reading | Teacher Guide | Konprann sa nou li | 2.60 |
| French | Teacher Guide | Lire et écrire en français | 4.60 |
| Arithmetic | Teacher Guide | Matematik-liv 3em ane | 3.80 |
| Environmental Study | Teacher Guide | Cheche konnen sa ki nan alatou nou | 3.40 |
| Creole Grammar | Teacher Guide | Grame kreyol | .40 |

Output. An exact count of the textbooks being produced each year has not been compiled. The World Bank will be receiving exact production figures in 1985. Deschamps reports that it prints about 100,000 copies of each new text. The Dubreuil study lists World Bank estimates for textbook production in coming years as follows:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| For 1985/86 | -- | 792,100 student textbooks |
| | | 85,550 teacher guides |
| For 1986/87 | -- | 530,000 student textbooks |
| | | 65,100 teacher guides |
| For 1987/88 | -- | 621,300 student textbooks |
| | | 78,600 teacher guides |

Costs to Students. Costs of the books for each year of school increase as the student progresses to higher grades. The prices indicated above are the advertised retail price that one would pay in a Deschamps store in Port-au-Prince. Students purchasing books from their schools may pay slightly more. For example, the Pol ak Anita book used by first graders is sold by some schools to students for $1.10 instead of $1.00.

The total cost of the Reform textbooks for first grade is $1.75. For second grade the cost is $2.45, and for third grade the cost increases to $6. Grade four textbooks are in the experimental edition. As in grade three, there are seven textbooks in grade four. These books should be ready for sale in the coming school year, and should cost about $6.

Government clearly has succeeded in keeping textbook costs as low as planned. Current prices for books are in line with those agreed upon at the time of appraisal for the Third Education Project (1982). This is significant, because developing countries that obtain their textbooks from commercial sources have found that prices have increased substantially in recent years. The Government of Liberia, for example, has learned that the costs of textbooks purchased from overseas will increase by 50% in three years.

It is not certain how long Haiti can maintain the present price levels in the face of rising costs of paper and other commodities. Increasing book prices to keep up with rising costs would result in a smaller number of students being able to afford books.

## A.5 TEXTBOOKS IN OTHER PRIMARY SCHOOLS

The majority of primary schools in Haiti are not following the Reform. These schools select their own educational materials. However, some of them do use the materials produced for the Reform together with other selections.

The major issue with textbooks used by the private non-Reform schools is their price. Discussions with representatives of three religious school establishments indicate that the cost of books varies widely among schools and grades. A set of books for grade six in some private primary schools costs as much as $25, and the estimated average price for books per year in private primary schools is $10. Although many families are able to reduce costs by obtaining second-hand books, and later reselling them, many children have no textbooks.

Only selected information about the books being used was collected within the time available for this study. The three lists obtained were not specific about what is being used in classrooms (e.g., "History of Haiti"). There was not sufficient time to examine books being used in private schools, except two that are mentioned in the following section. More information would be useful on this topic, given the relative predominance of private schools in Haiti.

## A.6 TEXTBOOK QUALITY

Although an evaluation of the textbooks currently being used in Haiti was not the purpose of this study, some comments are appropriate on how quality of the books is perceived. The comments presented below are a condensation of opinions stated by numerous persons who were interviewed during the assessment. Comments from the Sector Assessment Team are also offered. Time did not permit a comparison of the content of texts with instructional objectives, systematic exploration of what effects the books have on student achievement, or even how they are used in the classroom. Although the comments below on textbook quality must be viewed as tentative, they provide a useful starting point for discussion and further analysis.

### A.6.1 Comments from Educators

The consensus of educators who commented on the Reform textbooks suggests the following:

- The textbooks are generally good, and in some cases represent an improvement over materials previously used.
- Feedback given during the experimental year seems to be incorporated into revised editions.
- Many, if not most, teachers have difficulty following the teacher guides and using them effectively.
- Although the textbooks are satisfactory as far as they go, they do not go far enough. Supplementary materials are often required, especially with grade four materials.

### A.6.2 Comments From the Printer/Distributor

Mr. Henri Deschamps, whose firm is responsible for printing and distributing the Reform textbooks and most of the other educational materials used in primary schools, describes the Reform textbooks as a "decent job", and suggests that the textbooks are a "good product at their price." He mentions that the development of textbooks by committees, whose members may not have adequate expertise in a particular subject, limits their overall quality. He believes that publishers working with private authors might do a better job for less money.

### A.6.3 Comments From the Sector Assessment Team

The general reaction of the Sector Assessment Team to the Reform textbooks was positive. Team members noted that considerable progress has been realized in making appropriate learning materials more widely available. Some specific comments include:

- How well textbooks provide an adequate amount of material to cover the curriculum for a particular year is an empirical question. It does seem true that, when comparing the scope of the books used in Haiti to those in other countries, many of the Haitian books do not provide sufficient material. This is particularly noticeable for first-grade arithmetic, where the multidisciplinary workbook does not contain enough material.
- Although the shortage of material in student textbooks can be compensated for by supplementary material and exercises in teacher guides, this approach is often ineffective with undertrained teachers. The situation in Haiti seems to require that more "teaching" be contained in student books and less reliance be placed on the teacher guides, especially for reading in the early grades.
- On the whole, the teacher guides provide teachers with plans and schedules for instruction linked to the student textbooks. However, the guides seem to be written at a level that is difficult for teachers to follow. Even in countries where teachers have better educational preparation than in Haiti, publishers find it necessary to direct the readability of teacher guides to the lowest common denominator.
- To their credit, the teacher guides provide teachers with examples of learning activities that go beyond the usual range of "teacher talk." More active learning methods, however, are seldom followed because teachers do not understand what is to be learned from the activity, or because they do not have the necessary materials on hand. Attention must be given to determining whether the activities recommended in the teacher guides for environmental studies are being followed and are educationally productive.

- There is room for improvement even in textbooks that already have been revised. The Poi ak Anita textbook used for first grade reading is a good example. The illustrations in the book often do not function effectively, either providing little aid to reading comprehension or else being confusing. This textbook does not appear to be as good as the two non-IPN textbooks being used by some schools and costing about the same, N'ap li ak kte kontan and Piprit.

Again, it must be noted that IPN has made substantial progress in producing effective educational materials for primary schools. Improvements in the quality of these materials must be of constant concern to educators, and must be weighed against the price increase of books due to improvements.

A sufficient range of non-Reform materials have not been reviewed to allow any valid comment on their quality.

## A.7 NEEDS

The preceding discussion has identified a set of needs that must be satisfied to provide opportunities for more children to make effective use of textbooks in primary school. These needs may be summarized as follows:

Lower Costs. Progress has been made in increasing the supply and demand for textbooks by lowering prices and by distributing free copies to schools for use by children who cannot afford to purchase them. Even so, too few children have sufficient access to the necessary textbooks, and ways must be found to further increase supply and demand through even lower costs.

Better Quality. Despite the strict constraints of cost containment, the quality of textbooks must be improved. Since more effective textbooks must not become more expensive ones, the efficiency of learning must be a concern. There must be a continuing study of how efficiently textbooks contribute to the accomplishment of instructional objectives. Evaluation of materials must go beyond such factors as delivery, utilization, and teacher satisfaction. The need to keep costs to a minimum affords little room for error in the instructional design of the materials provided. The use of feedback to improve the design of materials must be more extensive and systematic.

Supplementary materials. The primary school curriculum needs to be supported by a more extensive range of materials than is being supplied as part of the Reform. Supplementary materials are necessary to allow students to practice, consolidate, and extend basic skills. Unless pupils have ample opportunity to practice skills in reading and arithmetic, especially in the early grades, attending school may not mean that they will acquire or retain literacy and numeracy.

Better Distribution. Lowering the price of textbooks will stimulate the market for them. Increased demand will lead to increases in supply throughout the country. Smaller schools and those in more remote regions probably will continue to encounter difficulties obtaining books; these schools must be identified, and ways must be found to reach them through new or improved delivery networks.

More Effective Materials for Teachers. The need to improve teacher guides has been recognized, and it is likely that this task will receive attention. The problem of teacher guides must be seen as part of a larger problem of how information and training can make the undertrained teacher more effective. Alternative channels for providing information and instruction to teachers and students need to be considered. In many countries, radio has proved to be an effective medium for reaching teachers and students with cost-effective instruction.

## A.8 RECOMMENDATIONS

The preceding analysis suggests three recommendations. These recommendations are offered on the assumption that additional activities, and assistance from donors, would take place within the framework of continuing World Bank support for the educational materials component of the Reform.

Recommendation 1 - Subsidies. Explore the possibility of using subsidies to reduce the cost of books to students.

The possibility should be considered to reduce the cost of the Reform books, possibly by as much as one-half, by subsidizing printing and distribution. Such an arrangement should be considered for a period of at least five years. Donor assistance to underwrite this activity would be necessary.

Also necessary would be technical assistance to design an evaluation system to determine the effects of lower prices on the demand for textbooks and their use by students. This evaluation would also specify what effect the availability of textbooks has on student achievement in Haiti. The information obtained would enable the Government and donors to decide whether supporting the use of textbooks through cost reduction is an effective option for improving efficiency in primary education.

Recommendation 2 - Systematic Quality Control. Strengthen capacity to allow for more systematic formative evaluation of instructional materials.

More concentrated attention is needed to determine empirically whether the educational materials being produced for the Reform are contributing to the accomplishment of learning objectives. Both student textbooks and teacher

guides need more detailed evaluation for the purposes of revising materials already produced, and contributing to the design of materials to be produced in the future. What is required for improving the quality of materials is more specific and objective evidence of the successes and failures in the materials that have been produced.

The evaluative capacity within IPN should be strengthened. Donor assistance will be required to permit the additional staff training, and technical assistance will be required for more systematic quality control of educational materials.

Recommendation 3 - Local Initiatives. Assist local initiatives to increase the supply of low-cost materials in schools.

Donor assistance could be provided to suitable institutions that would support promising efforts to adapt, improve, or write materials to supplement those currently available. The intention is not to duplicate what is already being produced in the form of student textbooks and workbooks or teacher guides. Rather, it is to establish a mechanism to assist local authors, publishers, and school establishments to develop a range of materials. These materials might include such things as topical worksheets, booklets, self-instructional modules, programmed teaching units, instructional games, audiocassettes, and supplemental readers. This mechanism would provide technical assistance in areas of instructional design and materials preparation, and might include a fund to match local contributions to produce and distribute materials.

The supplementary materials should follow the educational directions of the Reform, and be closely coordinated with IPN's activities. The intention is not to produce a new set of non-Reform materials, but rather to broaden support for the Reform by encouraging greater participation in Reform activities. Furthermore, it should provide the means for more effective utilization of local capacity to produce needed educational materials.

Like the first recommendation, this one would require a careful evaluation of the effectiveness of the materials. The insights gained would contribute to development of a national capacity to produce instructional materials for all educational levels.

*Annexe*

# II-B

Annex

*La Cantine Scolaire*

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School Feeding Programs

## AVANT PROPOS

L'annexe IIB, a été revu à Port-au-Prince le 6 avril 1986 par Madame Adeline André, Directrice de la C.I.N.E.C. et responsable du Service de l'Education Préscolaire du Ministère de l'Education et par Madame J. François, nutritioniste en service au susdit Ministère. Monsieur Stephen Anzalone de l'IEES, l'Institute pour la Recherche Internationale, a collaboré à cette revision.

Quelques corrections ont été faites concernant certains détails factuels et certaines méthodes de présentation des données statistiques. Mais d'une manière générale le document a été jugé satisfaisant et ses conclusions acceptées. En plus, le groupe de revision a exprimé le voeu que le programme d'alimentation scolaire soit mieux en rapport avec les objectifs de l'éducation.

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## ANNEXE B : LA CANTINE SCOLAIRE

Il est fort probable que l'existence du programme de cantine scolaire soit le facteur qui contribue le plus à augmenter les chances de l'enfant issu d'une famille à faible revenu de fréquenter l'école primaire en Haïti.

### B.1 SITUATION ACTUELLE

Cette étude se propose d'analyser dans quelle mesure et de quelle manière le programme d'approvisionnement alimentaire des écoles primaires financé par l'Agence Américaine pour le Développement International (USAID) dans le cadre du project PL-480 Titre II pourrait favoriser l'augmentation des effectifs scolaires et assurer aux élèves inscrits une alimentation et une éducation de meilleure qualité. Cette étude est essentiellement basée sur les données fournies par l'USAID sur l'organisation, la mise en oeuvre et l'efficacité du programme d'alimentation scolaire.

#### B.1.1 Nutrition

Les taux de malnutrition en Haïti sont parmi les plus élevés du monde. L'haïtien moyen ne consomme que 86% des calories et 68% des protéines requises par jour pour se maintenir en bonne santé. Ces taux sont encore moins élevés en milieu rural. Le paysan haïtien ne consomme que 60% et 50% des quantités de calories et de protéines requises quotidiennement. L'une des conséquences de ces carences nutritionnelles est que le taux de mortalité infantile en Haïti est le plus élevé de l'hémisphère occidental et parmi les plus élevés dans le monde.

Bien que la malnutrition touche tous les groupes d'âge, ses effets sont particulièrement graves chez les enfants. Chez les enfants d'âge préscolaire, elle peut compromettre sérieusement le développement mental et physique ; chez les élèves de l'école primaire, elle constitue un obstacle majeur au développement intellectuel et à la performance scolaire. En 1978, 16% des enfants d'âge préscolaire (de 3 mois à 5 ans) avaient des symptômes de malnutrition aiguë et 27% d'entre eux des symptômes de malnutrition chronique. Une enquête entreprise en 1982 pour le compte de l'USAID a permis de constater que la malnutrition aiguë était encore plus répandue parmi les enfants des écoles primaires ; de 20 à 24% des enfants âgés de 9 à 11 ans des écoles où l'enquête a été menée avaient des symptômes de malnutrition aiguë. En 1984 une étude portant sur des enfants âgés de 9 à 14 ans dans trois écoles de La Gonave a indiqué que 34% d'entre eux souffraient de malnutrition.

Plusieurs tentatives ont été faites récemment pour améliorer le statut nutritionnel des enfants haïtiens, mais elles n'ont touché qu'une petite

proportion de la population et n'ont donné que des résultats très limités. La création du programme de centres intégrés de nutrition et d'éducation (CINEC) patronné par le Ministère de l'Education et l'organisme CARE (voir chapitre 4) a permis d'atteindre un plus grand nombre d'enfants d'âge préscolaire. Le CINEC est un programme préscolaire compréhensif qui touche à l'heure actuelle environ 24.000 enfants âgés de 6 mois à 6 ans. Les centres sont situés à proximité d'au moins 121 écoles primaires. Dans le cadre de ses objectifs en matière de santé et d'éducation le programme CINEC enseigne des notions d'hygiène et de nutrition aux enfants d'âge préscolaire. Une section d'éducation maternelle avait été prévue, mais elle n'a pas été mise en place. Cependant, les enseignants du CINEC donnent de courtes leçons aux mères qui fréquentent les centres dans le but de recevoir des provisions alimentaires fournies dans le cadre du programme "Titre II".

B.1.2 Cantine Scolaire

La cantine scolaire est de loin le programme d'intervention nutritionnelle qui touche le plus grand nombre d'enfants. Les provisions alimenaires fournies aux écoles par l'USAID sont distribuées par l'intermédiaire de quatre organismes bénévoles. Il est estimé qu'en 1981 le programme a touché près de 387.000 enfants dans 1.367 écoles primaires--soit environ 70% de la population des écoles primaires.

La cantine scolaire est l'un des programmes qui reçoit des produits alimentaires dans le cadre du programme d'alimentation pour la paix au titre de la loi PL-480 Titre II. L'aide accordée à Haïti en 1983 a été évaluée à $4,3 millions. Le but du Programme Titre II est de fournir des suppléments alimentaires très riche en valeur nutritive aux plus démunis et d'appuyer les activités de développement qui ont trait aux problèmes de nutrition et de santé. En plus de la cantine scolaire, les provisions alimentaires fournies dans le cadre de Titre II sont également distribuées à l'appui de plusieurs programmes de santé maternelle et infantile, des programmes de développement communautaire ("Food for Work") et à un moindre degré, au niveau des programmes préscolaires et d'autres programmes d'assistance sociale.

Trois partenaires--l'USAID, les ONG locales et le Ministère de L'Education--participent à la gestion de la cantine scolaire. L'USAID fournit aux écoles les provisions alimentaires prévues par le Titre II, coordonne les activités des ONG, passe les programmes en revue pour vérifier leur conformité à ses directives et évalue les besoins en matière d'approvisionnement.

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La répartition des écol entre les ONG est déterminée sur la base de critères géographiques. Les 1.367 écoles primaires participant au programme en 1981 représentaient 46% de l'ensemble des écoles primaires en Haïti. Dans ce groupe on comptait 652 écoles publiques (soit 70% de l'ensemble des écoles publiques du pays) et 715 écoles privées (soit 35% du nombre total d'écoles privées en Haïti). Le nombre d'écoles prises en charge par chaque ONG en 1981 se répartissait comme suit :

| ONG | Nbre d'Ecoles | Pourcentage du Total |
|---|---|---|
| CARE | 659 | 48 |
| SCS | 345 | 25 |
| SME | 240 | 18 |
| SAWS | 123 | 9 |
| Total | 1.367 | 100 |

Le rôle du gouvernement dans le programme est défini par les accords que le pays a signé avec les représentants des ONG. Haïti n'est pas en mesure de participer aux frais des programmes alimentaires de la même façon que la plupart des autres pays qui bénéficient de l'initiative "Titre II", mais elle prend en charge une partie des coûts de transport des denrées à l'intérieur du pays et fournit quelques bureaux et entrepôts.

Il appartient à chaque école, si elle le désire, de solliciter une cantine scolaire. Pour être eligible, l'école doit disposer d'un entrepôt convenable et d'un local pour préparer les repas soit à l'école soit aux environs. Si la demande de l'école est approuvée, l'ONG compétente lui fournit une allocation en provisions alimentaires déterminée en fonction du nombre d'élèves inscrits à la dite école. Les écoles doivent fournir un repas chaud aux enfants tous les jours. Beaucoup d'écoles vendent une partie de leurs provisions pour acheter du carburant, pour payer d'autres types d'aliments qu'ils ajoutent à ceux fournis par le Titre II, ou encore pour payer les cuisiniers.

Les écoles sont approvisionnées chaque mois. Les provisions alimentaires distribuées aux écoles comprennent des céréales fortifiées de soja, d'huile végétale, et de lait en poudre (14.000 tones en 1981).

## B.2 PROBLEMES

La cantine scolaire est le programme d'aide qui touche au bien-être et à l'éducation du plus grand nombre d'enfants haïtiens. Quatre des principaux problèmes inhérents à la réalisation de ce programme sont analysés ci-dessous.

Population cible. La loi régissant le Titre II spécifie que les nourritures doivent être distribuées en priorité aux enfants les plus

nécessiteux. L'application de cette directive peut être envisagée de deux façons--la sélection des écoles éligibles, et à l'intérieur de ces écoles, la sélection des enfants ayant le profil requis pour participer au programme. Les critères de sélection posent un problème très difficile et souvent laissé sans solution. Il n'est pas facile d'établir ce qui fait qu'une école est plus nécessiteuse qu'une autre, d'autant plus que les meilleures écoles ont davantage de chance d'avoir l'équipement nécessaire et de satisfaire aux autres exigences du programme. Il est probablement plus facile d'identifier des enfants nécessiteux que de repérer les écoles de cette catégorie mais pour qu'un programme d'alimentation scolaire soit acceptable, il semble nécessaire que tous les enfants d'une même école puissent y participer. Il convient de noter, en outre, que les enfants qui ne sont pas à même d'aller à l'école et ceux qui sont trop jeunes pour y aller peuvent constituer une population à risque plus grande que l'ensemble des participants au programme de cantine scolaire.

Le souci d'affecter les ressources du programme là où l'on en a le plus besoin est compréhensible et louable. Mais le choix d'une politique de sélection des participants doit se fonder sur une analyse détaillée des coûts, bénéfices et même des éventuels effets négatifs de la politique contemplée.

L'utilisation des denrées alimentaires par les écoles. L'usage judicieux des denrées reçues pose un autre problème. Une partie des denrées distribuées aux écoles est utilisée à des fins autres que celles officiellement prévues. Une partie est vendue pour couvrir les frais généraux du programme (ce qui est acceptable), mais l'on sait aussi que les denrées sont vendues pour d'autres raisons, certaines légitimes, d'autres douteuses. Dans le contexte du programme on parle de ces détournements des provisions alimentaires en termes de "fuite".

Ces fuites ne constituent pas uniquement un problème de gestion. Elles peuvent compromettre la quantité de nourriture que les enfants reçoivent et, par conséquent, la valeur nutritionnelle de l'intervention. Un autre facteur contribuant à la dilution de la ration alimentaire est une sous-estimation des besoins résultant du fait que les allocations aux écoles sont établies sur la base des effectifs de début d'année. Plus de la moitié des écoles visitées au cours de notre enquête servaient plus d'élèves que le nombre prévu au programme. En gros, on estime que la moyenne des enfants participant au programme reçoit une ration qui représente seulement le tiers de leurs besoins quotidiens en calories.

Il y aura certainement des différences d'opinion en ce qui concerne le niveau de fuite acceptable. De plus, lorsqu'on examine le cas des écoles qui

utilisent leur ravitaillement à d'autres fins, il ne semble pas qu'il y ait de solutions faciles. Interrompre l'approvisionnement de ces écoles en denrées alimentaires équivaudrait à mettre les organismes responsables dans la délicate situation de pénaliser des enfants innocents à cause de la conduite délictueuse d'un petit nombre d'adultes.

Evaluation de l'impact du programme. Pour évaluer le véritable impact du programme, il faut répondre à deux questions difficiles à cerner : d'abord, est-ce que le programme contribue à une sensible amélioration de l'état nutritionnel des élèves ? et ensuite, ces améliorations ont-elles pour résultat d'augmenter le taux de fréquentation scolaire des enfants en question, leurs performances scolaires ou leur développement intellectuel ? Même s'il n'est pas possible de répondre à ces questions de manière définitive dans l'immédiat, les organismes responsables doivent se résoudre à assurer la continuation des programmes ainsi que les rectifications éventuellement nécessaires en attendant d'avoir des données plus concluantes. Il est vrai que ce genre de situation est fréquent dans le domaine du développement, mais dans le cas précis qui nous concerne, les conséquences d'une décision intempestive qui mettrait en péril l'existence du programme sont particulièrement lourdes étant donné qu'il y va du bien-être d'un grand nombre d'enfants.

Amélioration du programme. La possibilité d'augmenter la valeur nutritive des aliments et l'impact pédagogique du programme est l'une des questions qu'il faudrait étudier de près si l'on veut en accroître l'efficacité. On ne peut pas décider d'augmenter l'efficacité du programme sans considérer les coûts éventuels d'une extension de ses bienfaits à un plus grand nombre d'enfants. Cette double considération devient particulièrement déterminante quand la question est de savoir si le programme doit être utilisé pour véhiculer des éléments de formation en matière d'hygiène et de nutrition.

Il y a beaucoup de notions élémentaires d'hygiène et de nutrition que les gens pourraient apprendre pour améliorer leur standard de vie. Cette démarche est d'autant plus urgente à cause de la déficience critique qui caractérise la santé et la nutrition de la plupart des haïtiens. L'haïtien moyen ne peut ni se permettre de commettre des erreurs quant à la valeur nutritive des produits alimentaires qu'il achète, ni se payer le luxe de les gaspiller. Etant donné le manque d'infrastructure médicale moderne en Haïti, à peu près le seul moyen de diminuer les taux extrêmement élevés de mortalité et de morbidité est d'inculquer à la population des notions simples et pratiques de santé préventive.

L'enseignement des notions de santé et de nutrition à l'école primaire est généralement perçu comme un facteur essentiel et constitue un des éléments de

la Réforme de l'Education. Jusqu'à l'institution du programme CINEC l'école primaire a rarement été utilisée comme mécanisme de vulgarisation de ces notions. Par contre, l'école primaire même dans les réglons les plus isolées constitue un véhicule idéal pour la formation sanitaire. On pourrait envisager de réunir trois groupes différents--enseignants, élèves et parents--pendant ou après les cours pour participer à des séances de formation sanitaire.

Au cours de cette analyse sectorielle, des entretiens ont eu lieu avec des représentants des ONG impliqués dans le programme, ainsi qu'avec un petit groupe d'éducateurs sur l'opportunité de l'utilisation du programme d'alimentation scolaire Titre II pour promouvoir la formation sanitaire et nutritionnelle offerte par l'école primaire aux élèves, à leurs parents ou à tous les deux. Toutes les personnes contactées ont reconnu l'utilité primordiale d'un tel programme au niveau de l'école primaire. Elles ont également approuvé l'idée d'introduire des éléments de formation sanitaire dans le programme d'études des enfants et de toucher par ce même biais les parents d'élèves.

## B.3 CONCLUSIONS

Les conclusions et recommandations qui suivent sont forcément présentées à titre d'essai, car elles sont fondées sur des données qui datent déjà de trois ans et peuvent donc être périmées. Cette étude devait incorporer les données des évaluations les plus récentes du programme, mais celles-ci ne sont pas encore disponibles. On dispose néanmoins de suffisamment de renseignements pour proposer les sept conclusions suivantes.

Conclusion 1 - Importance. La cantine scolaire est généralement perçue comme un facteur essentiel pour l'accroissement des effectifs des écoles primaires. A cause du grand nombre d'étudiants touchés, le programme d'alimentation scolaire constitue l'un des éléments les plus saillants du système éducatif. Mais en plus de l'aspect nutritionnel, il y a lieu de mettre l'accent davantage sur l'aspect éducatif des programmes.

Conclusion 2 - Besoin d'information. On a besoin d'une évaluation sérieuse de l'impact des programmes d'alimentation scolaire sur l'état nutritionnel, le taux de fréquentation, les performances scolaires et le développement intellectuel des enfants.

Conclusion 3 et 4 - Composante éducative. Si les ONG intéressés ont les capacités administratives requises, il serait souhaitable et même possible d'introduire des éléments de formation en matière de santé et de nutrition dans le programme d'enseignement des écoles participantes. Ces efforts devraient

constituer un prolongement des activités initiés par le CINEC et permettre d'atteindre aussi bien les parents d'élèves que leurs enfants.

Conclusion 5 - Elaboration. Le programme de formation à introduire dans les écoles primaires doit être élaboré avec soin afin d'éviter tout double emploi et de garantir qu'il s'intègre parfaitement à la Réforme de l'Education actuellement en cours de réalisation.

Conclusion 6 - Motivation. On pourrait également se servir des programmes de cantine scolaire pour inciter les mères et la population adulte en général à participer aux programmes de formation en matière de santé et de nutrition. Quant aux enseignants, ils devraient être récompensés uniquement pour les tâches qui ne font pas partie de leur charge habituelle. Les rations alimentaires fournies comme paiement dans le cadre du programme "Food for Work" ne constituent pas la meilleure forme de compensation, et d'autres modes de paiement en nature ou en espèces devraient être envisagés.

Conclusion 7 - Ressources. Si on veut améliorer la valeur nutritive de l'alimentation par l'intermédiaire de programmes de formation destinés aux élèves et à leurs parents, il serait nécessaire d'affecter des ressources supplémentaires à l'effort déjà en cours.

## B.4 RECOMMANDATIONS

Quatre recommandations découlent des conclusions précédentes.

Recommandation 1 - Accorder un soutien plus important aux programmes de cantine scolaire.

Le programme représente l'un des investissements les plus essentiels réalisés actuellement en Haïti dans le domaine de l'éducation. Le gouvernement devrait jouer un plus grand rôle dans la mise en oeuvre de ce programme et être encouragé à prendre en charge une plus grande part des frais de gestion.

Recommandation 2 - Extension. Etendre la cantine scolaire pour atteindre tous les enfants qui en ont besoin.

Si le manque de ressources fait obstacle à l'extension du programme, il serait urgent d'identifier d'autres sources de financement dans les délais les plus brefs.

Recommandation 3 - Améliorer l'alimentation. Fournir des ressources afin d'améliorer la valeur nutritive des repas servis par la cantine scolaire.

On pourrait aider les écoles à rénover leurs cuisines, ou bien leur

fournir des provisions supplémentaires à condition qu'elles créent un jardin scolaire et en utilisent effectivement les produits dans la préparation des repas destinés aux élèves.

Recommandations 4 - Composante éducative. Prévoir une composante de formation en santé et nutrition dans le programme d'alimentation scolaire afin d'en accroître l'impact.

On discute déjà depuis un certain temps d'un tel programme de formation. Il devrait être conçu de façon à établir un lien entre l'enseignement et la distribution des denrées alimentaires. Un tel programme de formation a été incorporé dans la Réforme de l'Education. Cependant, les mesures nécessaires à son application--telles que l'intégration du programme au curriculum, la formation des maîtres et la préparation du matériel didactique--n'ont pas encore été prises. Dans un premier temps, le programme aura à se centrer sur les élèves de l'école primaire mais plus tard, en fonction des ressources disponibles, il pourrait être envisagé également d'y inclure les mères et les autres adultes de la communauté.

## ANNEX PREFACE

Annex II B, "School Feeding Programs," was reviewed in Port-au-Prince on April 6, 1986 by Mrs. Adeline André, Director of the CINEC Preprimary Education Program and Chief of Service of Preprimary Education of the Ministry of Education and by Mrs. J. François, Nutritionist at the Ministry of Education, with the collaboration of Mr. Stephen Anzalone, IEES/Institute for International Research.

Corrections of factual detail and statistical presentation were made at the outset of the review session. The reviewers expressed general satisfaction with the contents of the document and endorsed its conlcusions. They wished to emphasize that efforts should be made to derive more educational benefits from the school feeding program.

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# B.0 SCHOOL FEEDING PROGRAM*

## B.1 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Perhaps the most important factor that increases the opportunity for Haitian children from lower income families to receive primary school education is the availability of a School Feeding Program (cantine scolaire). This program is of fundamental importance to primary education in Haiti and warrants special attention as part of this Sector Assessment. This chapter examines how the School Feeding Program might be made to have a greater educational impact.

The purpose of the study is to identify ways in which food supplied to primary schools through PL-480 Title II program of the U. S. Agency for International Development (USAID) can be used to promote greater enrollments, more nutritional benefits, and more educational benefits. This study draws on information that USAID has already collected on the overall organization, operation, and effectiveness of the School Feeding Program. Special attention is given to examining whether it is desirable and feasible to strengthen the program through improved nutritional, dietary, and health education offered by schools. This children now being offered in Haiti, and the provisions for school possibility has been suggested by many persons familiar with the School Feeding Program in Haiti and, in fact, is part of the Title II program mandate.

This study begins with a brief examination of the problem of nutrition facing primary school children, the nutrition programs for children now being offered in Haiti, and the provisions for school feeding under PL-480 Title II. The next section provides an overview of how the School Feeding Program operates, followed by an analysis of the issues and policy choices facing those who will make decisions about changing the program. The study then considers the desirability and feasibility of linking school instruction in nutrition, diet, and health to the School Feeding Program and how the nutritional benefits of existing food rations can be improved. A set of conclusions and recommendations follows.

The conclusions and recommendations are tentative, as they are linked to overall program information collected some time ago. The present study was initially planned to incorporate information from the most recent evaluation of the program, now almost completed. This information was, unfortunately, not available at the time this study was completed (December 1984). Some of the

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*The draft for this chapter was prepared by Stephen J. Anzalone, Institute for International Research, Inc; consultant services were provided by Shelagh O'Rourke.



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evaluative information, conclusions, and assumptions about the overall operation of the program, upon which the present study is based, are thus at least three years old and possibly out-of-date.

## B.2 BACKGROUND

This section offers some brief background information about the nutritional status of Haitian children, outlines the kinds of interventions being undertaken to improve this status, and reviews the provisions of the PL-480 Title II program through which USAID's food allocations are supplied to schools.

### B.2.1 Nutritional Status of Haitian Children

It is estimated that the average Haitian consumes only 86% of the calories and 68% of the protein required daily for maintenance of health and moderate energy levels (SEP/UPAN, 1980). These national rates are among the lowest in the world. The rates are even lower for the average rural Haitian, who consumes only 60% and 50% of the respective daily requirements for calories and protein. The diet of low-income Haitians is such that daily food expenditures are often as little as $0.18 per person. The consequences of these levels of nutrition are manifold and contribute to an infant mortality rate in Haiti that is the highest in the Western Hemisphere and one of the highest in the world.

While malnutrition affects all age groups, its effects can be particularly severe among children. Severe malnutrition among preschool children is recognized as having serious consequences for mental and physical development. Among children in primary schools, malnutrition is a serious impediment to mental development and school performance.

The National Nutrition Survey of 1978 found that almost 16% of preschool children (aged 3-59 months) showed signs of acute malnutrition (wasting) and that almost 27% showed signs of chronic malnutrition (stunting). The survey undertaken for USAID by Cotten (1982) found that acute malnutrition was even more widespread among primary school children; 20 to 24% of children aged 9-11 in the schools surveyed showed symptoms of acute malnutrition. A study of children aged 9-14 in three schools on the Haitian island of La Gonave, conducted by Welle (1984), reported that 34% suffered from malnutrition.

### B.2.2 Nutrition Interventions

A number of attempts have been made in recent years to improve the nutritional status of Haitian children. The study by Welle mentions that the early efforts included food fortification projects. In 1960, an experiment was conducted with fortifying wheat flour with lysine. Adding bread to children's diets, with or without lysine, was found to improve growth. An effort to



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produce a fortified weaning food for infants, undertaken by Government and the Quaker Oats Company, was unsuccessful because of the high cost of the product.

Later efforts at nutritional intervention included adding educational components for mothers to the food supplement provided to children. An example was the Mothercraft Centers, established to address the needs of severely malnourished preschool children. A Center would identify the 30 most malnourished children in a village and invite their mothers to enroll them at the center. The mothers took part in selecting and preparing the food. A study by King, et al. (1976) found that, during 1964-75, the children who had attended a Mothercraft Center for four months showed a 4.1% increase in standard weight for age at discharge and an additional 2.8% increase 21 months later. Younger siblings of the Center children showed improvements in standard weight for age of 16.3%, while no significant gains were reported for Non-Center children or their siblings. Although the results were a clear demonstration of the effects on nutritional status of an intervention that educated mothers, the overall impact of the program was limited by the fact that a center was able to handle only 100 children per year.

Observers have repeatedly noted the inadequate coverage of Maternal Child Health programs such as the one just described. A report by King (1979) found that only 2% of about 270,000 malnourished preschool children were being reached. A Food Sector Strategy report written for USAID in 1981 noted that the delivery infrastructure was not adequate to provide Maternal Child Health services to those most in need.

The capacity to reach preschool children with nutritional interventions has improved with the development of the Community Integrated Nutrition Education Centers (CINEC) program sponsored by the Ministry of Education and Concerned Americans for Relief Everywhere (CARE) (see Chapter 4). CINEC is a comprehensive preschool program serving about 24,000 children between the ages of 6 months and 6 years. CINEC centers are located close to at least 121 primary schools, often in the same building. Along with other health and educational objectives, CINEC teaches hygiene and nutrition concepts to preschool children by emphasizing and interweaving these topics throughout the curriculum. A maternal education component had also been planned. This has not been implemented because of the reorganization and reorientation of the National Organization for Literacy and Community Action (ONAAC), the government agency that was to have been responsible for implementation. CINEC teachers do, however, provide short lessons to mothers coming to the centers for Title II food commodities.

By far the most extensive program of nutritional intervention for children is the School Feeding Program. The provisions supplied to the schools by USAID are distributed by four voluntary agencies. According to the Cotten study, the School Feeding Program was programmed in 1981 to reach 359,000 children in 1,367 primary schools. It was estimated that this was about 70% of the primary school population. A more detailed overview of the School Feeding Program is contained in Section B.3 below.

B.2.3 PL-480 Title II Support

The School Feeding Program in Haiti is based on food commodities provided under the Food for Peace Program, which is authorized under PL- 480 Title II. The value of the assistance provided to Haiti was $4.3 million in 1983. The Cotten report estimates that more than one million Haitians receive some form of assistance under Title II.

The Title II program--one of the best-received interventions offered as part of U.S. assistance to other countries--has both humanitarian and development goals. Its purpose is to provide supplements of highly nutritious food to improve the nutritional status of those in need and to provide resources to stimulate development activities that address nutritional and health problems.

Besides the School Feeding Program, Title II provisions support maternal child health care, Food for Work, and, to a lesser extent, preschool feeding, other child feeding, and general relief. The Cotten study provides information on the size and value of Title II assistance for Haiti in 1982 (Table B.1).

The Title II food allotments represent almost all of the supplementary food assistance available for school children. Food supplied by other donors either is received only occasionally or, like the World Food Program commodities, is intended for activities unrelated to schools.

TABLE B.1

Title II Assistance for Haiti, 1982

| Category | Total Recipients | | Value |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Number | Percent | |
| School Feeding | 403,000 | 70 | $5,005,000 |
| Food for Work | 79,000 | 14 | 1,903,000 |
| Maternal Child Health | 52,000 | 9 | 1,014,000 |
| Preschool Feeding | 30,000 | 5 | 448,000 |
| Other Child Feeding | 7,000 | 1 | 184,000 |
| General Relief | 2,000 | 1 | 43,000 |
| Total | 573,000 | 100 | $8,597,000 |

## B.3 SCHOOL FEEDING PROGRAM: AN OVERVIEW

The School Feeding Program in Haiti has been in operation for about 25 years. As mentioned previously, the program is the nation's largest nutritional intervention of its kind. It is estimated that in 1981 the program reached about 387,700 children in 1,367 primary schools. This represented about 70% of the primary school population.

### B.3.1 Administration

Three partners--USAID, local private voluntary agencies, and the Ministry of Education--are involved in administering the School Feeding Program. Their respective roles are described below.

USAID supplies the Title II commodities furnished to schools. Through its Office of Private Voluntary Development, the USAID Mission coordinates and supports the work of the private voluntary organizations (PVOs) in the distribution of food, provides periodic checking of compliance with regulations and USAID guidelines, reviews programs, and prepares annual estimates of commodity requirements.

Four PVOs distribute the food commodities provided by USAID: CARE, Catholic Relief Services (CRS), Church World Service (CWS), and Seventh Day Adventist World Service (SAWS). The study by Cotten reports the following breakdown of schools served by each PVO in 1981:

| PVO | Number of Schools | Percentage of Total |
|---|---|---|
| CARE | 659 | 48 |
| CRS | 345 | 25 |
| CWS | 240 | 18 |
| SAWS | 123 | 9 |
| Total | 1,367 | 100 |

The division of schools among the PVOs is along geographic lines. CARE, which serves about 54% of participating students, operates in the North-Northwest region, CRS in the South-Southwest, and CWS in the central region and the island of La Gonave. All PVOs distribute food in the Port-au-Prince area. SAWS distributes food throughout the country.

The study by Cotten describes the role of the PVOs in the operation of the School Feeding Program as follows:

> The Voluntary Agencies are responsible for planning and programming School Feeding commodity requirements, food storage and distribution, and monitoring and evaluation of School Feeding activities. They are responsible for the establishment of criteria

for participation of primary schools, and for monitoring compliance with program goals and guidelines. Their monitoring systems focus on keeping track of the commodities they distribute at various stages in the logistical chain, from receiving and storage to end-use. This is done by means of shipping and warehouse records and site visits by their inspectors. The latter regularly tour their geographic zones to control inventory records, rate of commodity consumption and the operation of the program in schools. If operational irregularities are discovered, the responsible school officials are formally notified by letter, with immediate corrective measures requested. In the case where irregularities such as fraud and illegal sale of food are identified, appropriate action is taken.

The role of Government in the School Feeding Program is defined by country agreements with three of the PVOs. CRS's understanding with the Government is covered by a blanket agreement between the Haitian and United States governments. Haiti is not able to contribute to the range of program costs normally expected from a host country under Title II, but it does pay part of the costs for in-country transportation of food commodities and provides some office and warehouse space to CARE and CWS.

The role of the Ministry of Education in managing the program is also small. The Cotten report mentions that only two staff members were assigned to oversee operations of the School Feeding Program, a level of participation that does not permit meaningful involvement in planning or implementing the program.

B.3.2 Participating Schools

In 1981, some 1,367 primary schools--46% of all schools--participated in the School Feeding Program. These 1,367 schools represent 70% (652) of all public schools and 35% (715) of all private schools.

It is the school's responsibility to apply for a cantine scolaire. To have its application approved, a school must provide proper food storage facilities and a place to prepare food at or near the school. If a school is approved, the appropriate PVO will begin allocating food rations based upon the number of students enrolled. This number is established on the basis of the enrollment reported by a school director and remains constant throughout the year.

Schools are expected to provide a free hot lunch to students daily. To meet some of the operating costs of the program, such as salaries of those preparing the meals, the school is allowed to sell food containers. In practice, schools charge children a daily fee, $0.02 - 0.03 on the average, to have a meal. Many schools sell some of the food allotments to buy fuel, or food to add



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to the Title II commodities, or to pay the kitchen workers.

Schools usually serve the meals between 11:30 a.m. and 1 p.m. The Cotten study indicates that powdered milk is served as a midmorning snack and that in the Port-au-Prince area, older students are sometimes fed twice. The report also mentions that in practice many students eat only on alternate days in order to make food supplies cover the time between deliveries. Schools receive food deliveries every three months. Some remote schools are supplied for longer periods in order to reduce transportation costs.

### B.3.3 Food Provided

The Title II food commodities supplied to schools include soy-fortified grains and vegetable oil. The Cotten report lists the commodities, amounts, and value of the food supplied to schools for 1981:

| Commodity | Amount (Metric tons) | Value |
|---|---|---|
| Corn-soy milk | 5,010 | $1,868,500 |
| Soy-fortified bulgur | 5,817 | 1,605,000 |
| Soy-fortified corn meal | 945 | 246,600 |
| Vegetable oil | 838 | 831,100 |
| Non-fat dry milk | 837 | 350,600 |
| Soy-fortified flour | 437 | 114,000 |
| Wheat-soy blend | 216 | 79,700 |
| Total | 14,100 | $5,095,500 |

Schools often purchase vegetables, and occasionally fish or meat, to add to the meals made with the Title II commodities.

## B.4 POLICY ISSUES AND CHOICES

No other donor-assisted activity touches the well-being and education of as many young Haitians as the School Feeding Program. The program is undertaken in a context where its importance is widely recognized, where food distribution is affected by the scope and magnitude of poverty in the country and by lack of infrastructure, and where food constitutes an important element in the political relations between Haiti and the United States. Consequently, implementation of the program and any efforts to change it face countless dilemmas, trade-offs, and potential resistance.

Four of the most crucial issues inherent in implementation of the program are analyzed in the sections below. These issues are targeting, food use by schools, assessment of impact, and program improvement. Each issue presents policy choices for decisionmakers, which are considered in each section.

B.4.1 Targeting

The Title II legislation specifies that food is to be directed toward the neediest children. Implementation of this requirement might be approached in two ways: determination of eligible schools, and selection of participating children within schools.

The targeting requirement poses a difficult, and usually unresolved, challenge in countries like Haiti. Neither schools nor children display their socioeconomic status, and identification is uncertain. It is not easy to define what makes one school more needy than another. Even when there might be agreement, the "neediest" schools may be in remote places and the most difficult to reach. Better schools are more likely to be equipped to apply for a School Feeding Program and to have the facilities that comply with program requirements.

It is probably easier to identify needy children than schools. But this, too, presents problems. Teachers are put in an untenable position if they are required to decide which children qualify for school meals. For a School Feeding Program to be acceptable in a country like Haiti, it appears necessary that all children within a school have the same opportunity to participate.

Targeting must also take into account the fact that many of the neediest children are not enrolled in school. Children unable to attend school and those too young for school may constitute a larger at-risk population then those who can participate in a School Feeding Program.

Targeting can also be complicated by the fact that many of the neediest children attend the poorest schools. The poorer schools are more likely to be the ones that must sell food rations to pay the costs of operating the program and other expenses. They are also more likely to experience unplanned increases in enrollments during the year. As a result, the neediest children who are enrolled in the poorest schools are possibly those least likely to receive the food that has been allocated to them.

Targeting has not taken place in any deliberate way in Haiti. Cotten's study, however, found evidence of what was described as "inadvertent targeting"--the possibility that school feeding programs were more likely to benefit children from higher socioeconomic backgrounds. The issue of targeting will remain important in implementing the School Feeding Program.

Policy Choices. If targeting is to be pursued more deliberately than in the past, decisionmakers must make decisions about how this is to be done and at what price. The Cotten study recommended a phased pilot effort at targeting to begin during the 1982/83 school year. PVOs would be directed to weigh and measure children to determine eligibility; only children falling within a



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predetermined weight-for-height category would be permitted to participate in the program. It is not known whether this policy choice was considered, and/or whether any attempt made to implement it. Cotten did not assess the implications of such a policy: for example, the political effects of such a policy, or how it might affect goals for expanding participation in primary education. Nor was any analysis offered on whether it would be cost-effective, or even technically feasible, for the voluntary agencies to weigh and measure 300,000-400,000 children at the beginning of a school year if the policy would be implemented on a national scale.

The desire for an orderly allocation of resources directed to where they are most needed is understandable and commendable. But the choice of deliberate targeting must be made against a complete assessment of costs, benefits, and negative consequences resulting from such a policy.

B.4.2 Schools' Use of Food Commodities

The second major issue is how effectively schools use the food commodities that they receive through the program. The issue is not so much one of good management as it is one of resolving conflicting purposes and sometimes unforeseen circumstances.

Part of the food distributed to schools is used for purposes other than those intended. Some is sold to meet the costs of funding the program, such as buying fuel to cook the food, paying those who prepare the school meals, and buying vegetables, spices, and other ingredients to add to the meal. However, food is known to be sold for other purposes as well, some legitimate and some otherwise. The diversion of food supplies from their intended program use is referred to as "leakage."

How extensive is the leakage of Title II food commodities supplied to the School Feeding Program? The survey conducted by Cotten suggested that an average of 17% of distributed food rations was diverted from its intended beneficiaries. It was concluded, however, that the "largest part of this disappearance probably represents in-kind payment of program operating costs."

Many would argue that Cotten's estimates of leakage are too low. Persons responsible for the Food for Peace Program at the USAID Mission in Haiti were not able to provide a precise estimate of leakage. They suggest that no one really knows the extent of leakage and that one estimate is as plausible as the next.

Leakage is not just an issue of program management. It affects the amount of food children receive and, consequently, the nutritional value of the intervention. Such a reduction is referred to as "ration dilution." The other

major factor contributing to ration dilution is under-programming, which occurs because allocations to schools are determined on the basis of enrollments at the beginning of the year. Many students begin school late, and the fixed allocation must then be extended to cover more students. According to Cotten, 53% of the schools surveyed in his study fed more students than were programmed. However, it was concluded that the programmed ration size was large enough to compensate for the ration dilution. It was estimated that after the ration dilution from all sources was taken into account. the average child still received a ration representing one-third of the daily requirement for calories.

Policy Choices. This is not the place to consider the complexities of managing a food distribution program and dealing with issues like extra-program leakage and ration dilution. Two choices, however, are especially critical and have far-reaching implications for children. The first choice is how much leakage reflects an unacceptable level of program management, and the second is how to deal with schools that are found using food for non-program purposes.

There is bound to be disagreement on what level of leakage is acceptable. The Cotten study finds a 17 percent rate of loss unacceptable, even if most of the disappearing food is said to be sold to meet program operating costs. Others might find this rate of "overhead" acceptable, especially if the benefits of the program are large enough.

Again, on dealing with schools known to be diverting their food allocations for other purposes, no easy options ave available. Both a Food Sector Strategy Report prepared for USAID (1981) and the Cotten report endorse putting a ceiling on resource levels of the School Feeding Program in order to promote more efficiency use of resources. There is good reason to suspect that this would not work. Why should holding the allocation of resources at a particular level enforce future efficiency when it is not now occurring at that level? Another option is to halt distribution of food to schools that are found to be using their allocations improperly. Sometimes this step cannot be avoided, but it puts decisionmakers in the uncomfortable position of punishing many innocent children because of a few guilty adults.

B.4.3 Assessment of Impact

Whether the School Feeding Program is actually contributing to the improved nutritional status of school children, and whether this in turn leads to better school attendance, academic performance, or mental development is a complicated issue. It involves deciding what kind of evidence is needed to make such a determination and what to do if the evidence is ambiguous.

The study by Cotten is as comprehensive an attempt to find evidence of the impact of school feeding as has been done anywhere. The initial study found

that the impact of the program could not be conclusively determined by a cross-sectional comparison of children in schools having and not having a program. Longitudinal information was required to make such an assessment. It is hoped that the results of the second part of his study will soon be available.

Policy Choices. Decisionmakers must plan for continuation and possible changes in the School Feeding Program in the face of what may be inconclusive evidence of impact. Although decisionmakers often find themselves in this situation, the consequences of error here are particularly severe because they involve the welfare of children.

### B.4.4 Program Improvement

The issue of how to improve the School Feeding Program includes determining whether the nutritional value of the food and the educational value of the program can or should be increased. How might this be done and at what cost? This issue is explored in some detail in the section that follows.

Policy Choices. The choice of program improvement must be considered against the costs of providing benefits to more children. Is it preferable to have fewer children following a better program or to have more children following a marginally less effective one? This is a difficult choice and one that is particularly relevant when considering the possibilities set forth in the following section.

## B.5 A NUTRITION/HEALTH EDUCATION COMPONENT

Can and should the School Feeding Program be used to promote health and nutrition education, as suggested by a number of observers and by Title II objectives? Is this feasible within the present operating capacity of the program? For whom would such an intervention be offered? How would it be delivered? Would it be likely to make any significant difference in the nutritional status of participants?

During this Sector Assessment, these questions were asked of representatives of the private voluntary agencies distributing food to schools and of a sample of educators. The purpose of these interviews was to determine the desirability and feasibility of using the School Feeding Program and Title II food commodities to encourage and support a program of health and nutrition education offered by primary schools to students, their parents, or both. Before the interview results are discussed, a brief rationale is presented for using education to promote improved health and nutritional status.

### B.5.1 Rationale For Educational Intervention

In Haiti, as elsewhere, people could learn many simple, practical things about health and nutrition that would have a positive effect on the quality of



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their lives. Because of the critically deficient health and nutritional levels of most Haitians, the need to learn this information is more urgent than in most other places. The severe deficiencies in the average Haitian's diet and the critical levels of infant mortality and other health indicators were mentioned earlier. These deficiencies and the levels of mortality and morbidity associated with them are largely the result of the impoverished economic conditions facing a large part of the Haitian population.

Anthropologists who have analyzed the health and nutrition beliefs and practices in Haiti reject the view that malnutrition is primarily caused by ignorance (Alvarez & Murray, 1982; Alvarez & Heurtelou, 1982; O'Rourke, Heurtelou & Alvarez, 1984). These researchers conclude that the major determinants of malnutrition in Haiti relate to scarcity of resources, rather than lack of knowledge. The average Haitian parent often has adequate knowledge to produce well-nourished children, but they are often malnourished despite their parents' knowledge of food and nutrition. They are malnourished or under-nourished because the family cannot purchase or produce an adequate food supply.

The economic determinism just described should not be regarded as fatalism. Indeed, because of scarcity and other economic factors, the need to teach practical health and nutrition lessons becomes even more imperative in a country like Haiti. Unlike most people in highly developed countries, the average Haitian cannot afford to make nutritional errors when purchasing food or to have nutritional wastage when preparing it. Because of gross nutritional deficiencies caused by scarce resources, Haitians need to extract the greatest nutritional value out of all food, purchased or produced. If rural families are to improve their nutritional status, they must learn how to increase and diversify the food they produce for home consumption. Also, if the extremely high levels of mortality and morbidity are to be lowered, given the shortage of modern medical facilities, Haitians must learn simple and practical preventive health measures.

Organization and Delivery. The importance of teaching health and nutrition in primary schools is recognized in Haiti and is an element of the Education Reform. In the past, and until the inauguration of the CINEC program, primary schools had been neglected as an organizational setting and delivery mechanism for health and nutrition education. Primary schools, which exist even in remote areas, are a good vehicle for health and nutrition education for three reasons. First, in most communities, primary schools are the institutions that are best prepared and staffed to assume educational responsibilities and meet them on a continuing basis. Second, because of the promise schooling offers for the future, schools are among the most respected institutions in the Haitian community. Third, primary schools provide a setting that can bring together the

groups most in need of health and nutrition education--families with young children and women of childbearing age.

Participants. Three groups might be brought together during or after the primary school day for health and nutrition education: teachers, students, and the mothers or other adult caretakers of these students.

Teachers are highly respected in Haiti. In many rural areas, primary school teachers may be the only literate adults in the community. Teachers command the respect and authority necessary to become successful agents for social change. Both in and out of school, teachers could be influential in effecting changes in health and nutrition practices. To play such a role, teachers themselves will have to improve their knowledge of health and nutrition, be motivated to learn and act in a new and possibly unfamiliar context, and receive the necessary support.

Because today's primary school students are tomorrow's parents, health and nutrition lessons taught to today's students will have an impact on the families of the future. Moreover, students who learn the fundamentals of health and nutrition could become active agents in changing their own health and nutrition status and might be able to indirectly reinforce the lessons taught to their elders.

The participation of mothers or other adult caretakers would be of fundamental importance to the success of any health and nutrition education program. Training that they receive would have potentially high impact, immediately and in the future, on families' well-being.

B.5.2 The Interview

This rationale led to the formulation of a set of questions to be asked of persons familiar with school feeding and education in Haiti. The first part of the interview dealt with the desirability and feasibility of linking a program of health and nutrition education to the School Feeding Program. The second part dealt with ways to improve the nutritional value of existing food allotments. The interview was conducted in an open-ended and informal manner and lasted an hour or longer. The questions asked are listed on the following pages.

SCHOOL FEEDING PROGRAM INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Part One

Health and Nutrition Education

Children

1. The reform of primary school education in Haiti calls for teaching health and nutrition in primary schools. Do you think that this is a good idea?
2. How do you think such instruction should be organized?
3. If new courses were to be developed or existing ones improved upon, what health and nutrition topics do you think would be appropriate for primary school pupils?
4. What topics do you think would be inappropriate in such courses? First three years? Second three years?
5. Here is a list of 10 possible topics. Do you think that they should be included in a health and nutrition course for school children?
   - The basic food types
   - How our bodies utilize these types of food
   - The health needs of children
   - Personal hygiene
   - Why we visit the medical clinic
   - Basics of first aid
   - Proper use of latrines
   - How our bodies grow
   - Planting a school garden
   - Improving our garden's soil
6. Do you think that primary school teachers could be counted upon to teach health and nutrition courses?
7. What would be required to ensure their participation in offering such courses?
8. Do you think that PL-480 food commodities could be used as incentives for teachers to participate?
9. If yes, what would be an appropriate allotment?

Mothers and Other Adult Caretakers

10. Do you think that a health and nutrition course could be developed for mothers of primary school children and conducted after school?
11. What topics should be included in such a course?
12. What topics would be inappropriate in such a course?
13. Here is a list of 10 possible topics. Do you think that they would be appropriate in a course for mothers?
    - Intensifying and diversifying crops planted for family consumption
    - Care and treatment of diarrhea
    - Importance of breastfeeding

- Obtaining the most nutritional value when buying food
- Distributing food to the family--what family members have the most need for which foodstuffs
- Methods for more hygenic and nutritionally conservative food preparation
- Importance of pre-natal care
- Basics of family planning
- Importance of immunization
- Importance of height/weight surveillance of children

14. Do you think that PL-480 food commodities would be an incentive for mothers to participate in health and nutrition courses?
15. If only one course could be offered, either for school children or mothers, which would be more valuable?

## Part Two
## Improving Nutritional Value of Food Allotments

For Officers of Private Voluntary Organizations

16. What could be done to improve the nutritional value of the present food rations of the school feeding program in Haiti?

For Educators

17. Is the quantity of food being supplied as part of the school feeding program adequate?
18. How good is the quality of food being distributed?
19. How effective is the system of delivery?
20. Do you think that you would benefit from instruction in such things as fuel and food value conservation?

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### B.5.3 Persons Interviewed

The interview was conducted with the directors or other representatives of the four voluntary agencies involved in distributing Title II foods to Haitian schools. It was then conducted with four directors of primary schools having a School Feeding Program--directors of two rural Catholic schools in La Vallee, the director of an urban school operated by the Methodist Church, and the director of 10 rural schools supported by the American Baptist Convention. The list of persons interviewed follows.

Private Voluntary Organizations:

CARE

Mr. Tim Ashton, Director

Ms. Betty Astorgi, Field Representative, School Feeding Program

Mrs. Adeline Andre, Director, CINEC Program

Seventh Day Adventist World Service

Mr. Jim Pulier, Director

Mrs. Olive Pulier, Assistant Director

Catholic Relief Services

Mrs. Raymonde Pun, Assistant, Cantine Scolaire Program

Christian World Service

Mr. Samuel Michel, Manager, Cantine Scolaire Program

Ms. Wilfried Osias, Nutritionist

Educators:

Mrs. Marilese Desroches, Director Ecole Methodiste des Freres, Port-au-Prince

Sister Marie Felicie (Soeurs de Marie), Director, Ecole St. Paul de La Vallee

Brother Joseph Kouapel (Freres de l'Instruction Chretienne), Director, Ecole Leonce Mecle de la Vallee

Mrs. Elinor Turnbull, Director of Education, Conservative Baptist Mission of Haiti, Fermathe

B.5.4 Views Expressed

As this study is based on structured interviews, the results are best presented in condensed narrative form. The opinions expressed by the sample of persons interviewed are summarized below:

Part One - Health and Nutrition Education

Questions 1 and 2. All persons interviewed agreed on the need for teaching health and nutrition at the primary school level. All indicated that these subjects should be a matter of priority for schools.

According to the interviews with the school directors, their schools are already teaching some form of health and nutrition education. The Catholic schools use materials developed for the Education Reform. In the Methodist school, health and nutrition are taught during the fifth and sixth grades by a specially trained teacher. The Baptist schools use two approaches. During annual training sessions, teachers are introduced to health and nutrition topics



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to be taught in the classroom, and the Baptist Convention also uses its local health agents to lecture to schools in their areas on topics such as sanitation and immunization.

The interviews revealed that the PVOs are also already involved in some form of health and nutrition education. CARE has built health and nutrition education into the CINEC curriculum and tries to reach the CINEC students' mothers who come each month for food distribution. CRS has 17 nutrition clinics on the island of La Gonave; mothers receive instruction on many of the topics suggested in the interview. CRS has Maternal Child Health Centers which provide some instruction in health and nutrition to mothers. CRS also teaches hygiene and table manners during the lunches and recently began a small school garden program. SAWS teaches health and nutrition topics at its Maternal Child Health Centers.

Several PVO representatives said they believe that education is the only way to make a permanent change in the health and nutrition status of the general population. As one person put it, "if we don't do educational work, we will have to wait another 50 years for anything we are doing to have an impact."

There was general agreement about the appropriateness of the primary school curriculum for reaching children and succeeding generations as well.

Questions 3, 4, and 5. The 10 topics that were suggested in question five were mentioned in one form or another in response to question three. Six people emphasized the importance of teaching about waste disposal, especially about the construction of pit latrines.

None of the topics was characterized as "inappropriate." However, one person mentioned that some impolite Creole terms in some of the health materials currently used were offensive to rural people. Several persons suggested sex education and family planning as topics. When this possibility was brought to the attention of the directors of Catholic schools, they expressed no objection provided Catholics were consulted during the development of such materials. The consensus was that almost any important topic could be taught to primary school children provided that the correct, polite terminology was used and that the presentations were sensitive to the beliefs of different groups.

Questions 6, 7, and 8. There was wide agreement that teachers would be appropriate agents for a program of health and nutrition education, but would need additional training to do this work effectively. Ideally, the training should begin at the teacher training schools and then be supplemented with inservice activities.

One PVO representative expressed the view that a program would be self-defeating if teachers were not involved. The use of visiting specialists poses



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logistics problems; moreover, program effectiveness is reduced if there is no one to repeat and reinforce the health and nutrition messages that have been delivered. Another PVO confirmed this view. It had undertaken an activity where nutritionists traveled with its food inspectors, and this proved to be unsuccessful for the reasons just cited. Emphasizing the role of teachers would not, however, preclude the participation of local agents.

Respondents did not agree about whether teachers would need special motivation to teach health and nutrition at the primary level. Two PVO representatives indicated that adding to a teacher's workload would not be effective unless accompanied by additional compensation. Even those who believed that special incentives were not needed indicated that teachers would appreciate some recognition for their efforts.

The PVOs expressed concern about the possibility of compensating teachers with Food for Work payments. It was pointed out that Food for Work allotments would further complicate the problems of accounting for distributed food. For example, one PVO routinely interviews persons in the community to verify whether their children are receiving the intended food allotments and whether teachers are seen making personal use of food commodities. This check on possible pilferage of food rations would not be possible if teachers began to receive food rations.

The director of one PVO, who was in favor of using food as a resource to support health and nutrition education, recommended that food for teachers be sold as soon as it enters the country. Since many Food for Work recipients sell their allotments to raise cash anyway, selling of the commodities on entry and paying teachers in cash would both be more economical and eliminate confusion with regular school feeding allotments.

The educators also supported using teachers as the primary agents of instruction. For their work to be effective, however, a wide range of support materials, both for teachers and for students, would be needed. Besides conventional textbooks, the educators favored development of such supporting materials as posters, flip charts, film strips, and songs with health and nutrition themes.

None of the educators thought that teachers would need additional incentives to offer health and nutrition instruction. It would be a mistake, they felt, to provide additional compensation for something that is part of the teacher's job. One person mentioned that if Food for Work were made available, the activity would be regarded as another development project instituted from the outside. For an effective health and nutrition program to become permanent



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within schools, teachers must regard it as their project and a contribution to development that they alone can make.

Question 9. One person suggested that compensating teachers with food would be a way to "legalize" their meals in the cantine. If monetary compensation were to be considered, the sum of $15-20 per month was estimated to be a tremendous incentive. Some of the PVO representatives suggested calculating hours contributed on a monthly basis and providing a standard Food for Work payment for that expenditure of time.

Question 10. All those interviewed believed it would be useful for schools to provide instruction to mothers of primary school children after regular school hours. One person from a PVO pointed out that, although this is being done at Maternal Child Health Centers, schools would provide an even better structure. Two others from PVOs suggested that directing efforts toward mothers would have more immediate benefits than directing them to students. Another person expressed the opinion that mothers of preschool children were a better target, since these children have higher rates of mortality and morbidity.

The educators were similarly positive. One person suggested including fathers, since mothers, especially in urban areas, are often employed outside the home. One rural educator mentioned that a program of maternal health and nutrition had been successfully undertaken in his locality but was interrupted when planners in Port-au-Prince changed their minds about the usefulness of the project. He suggested that, since schools have greater stability than development plans, locating health and nutrition education in schools would increase the likelihood of its permanence.

Although one educator reported that her students' mothers would come to school any time she sent out a signal (small colored squares of paper carried home by the student), the other educators and three PVO representatives expected problems in attracting mothers to participate.

Questions 11, 12, and 13. Almost all of those interviewed suggested that the topics mentioned for the students should also be taught to the mothers. One person from a PVO underscored the importance of keeping the instruction "hideously simple," whatever the topic. It was suggested that short studies of the mothers' lives be made in order to identify topics that would be most useful to them. Suggested topics included family planning, some of the topics covered in the Ministry of Public Health and Population (DSPP) manual, income generation, and how to construct simple cooking stoves off the ground (foyer).

No inappropriate topics were suggested by those interviewed. The topics mentioned in connection with question 13 were judged to be useful. Of these suggested topics, the care and treatment of diarrhea was considered most



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important. The Catholic educators considered family planning to be appropriate if natural family planning methods were taught.

Question 14. Title II food commodities were seen as appropriate and potentially effective incentives for mothers to participate in health and nutrition education. It was pointed out that food commodities are being used successfully by other programs to accomplish similar purposes. For the PVOs, the prospect of providing food to mothers was preferable to supplying it to teachers.

The educators also endorsed using food as an incentive for mothers. Two of the educators mentioned that additional compensation would be necessary for teachers if they were to be asked to work after school. The use of Food for Work was not seen as a good way to do this; some teachers might regard such an allocation as compromising their status, since allotments would also be going to parents. Selling the food allotment and paying teachers in cash would, according to one of the educators, be a better solution. Offering supplemental compensation to teachers who are members of religious groups also must be approached with care. Here, the educators interviewed said that suitable compensation might take the form of help in building appropriate kitchens, assistance in buying things like fuel or condiments, or supplying a wider variety of foods to the school.

Question 15. Most of those interviewed were uncomfortable with being asked to decide which group should receive instruction if it proved possible to offer a health and nutrition course to only one. When pressed to decide, all but one expressed the opinion that it would be better to try to reach students. The reasons given for this choice were belief that instruction for students would be easier to organize and have greater long-term benefits.

Part Two - Improving Nutritional Value of Food Allotments

Question 16 (Voluntary Organizations). To improve the nutritional value of the food rations now being provided, three persons expressed the view that school gardens would be the best method. One person mentioned that little improvement could be expected without additional funds. This person said that supplemental foods were needed to increase the overall nutritional value of meals and that children were not receiving enough food to make any real difference. Two meals a day might be necessary in order to have an impact on nutritional status. Money was also needed to make kitchens function better and to ensure proper food preparation.

Questions 17 - 20 (Educators). All of the educators expressed satisfaction with the quality of the food received. One said that she could offer nothing but praise for the U.S. Government for sending food of such high quality.



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However, all mentioned that greater variety in the food supplied would be appreciated. One considered the need for powdered milk to be especially important. All reported buying food to supplement the Title II contributions. Three of the educators would like to be able to offer the children a morning meal, such as porridge and milk.

All of the educators reported that food deliveries were satisfactory and had no suggestions to offer to improve the system. Two persons echoed the sentiments expressed above about improving school kitchen facilities. All said they would benefit from information about fuel and food conservation. Fuel conservation was seen as especially important for cooking beans, which take a long time to cook and usually are done over charcoal.

## 3.6 CONCLUSIONS

The preceding analysis suggests the following seven conclusions:

Conclusion 1 - Importance. The School Feeding Program is widely perceived as a major factor in the growth of primary school enrollments in Haiti. The large number of students served by the program makes it one of the most important features of the national educational system. More attention needs to be given to the program as an educational and not just a nutritional intervention.

Conclusion 2 - Need for Information. Information gathered was not sufficient to support firm conclusions about the effectiveness of the program for improving the nutritional status, school attendance, academic performance, or mental development of those participating.

Conclusion 3 - Educational Component. Assuming that the carrying capacity and overall program implementation capabilities of the PVOs permit, the inclusion of a health and nutrition education component in the School Feeding Program is desirable and feasible.

Conclusion 4 - Primary Program. A health and nutrition component could be organized at the primary school level and designed to provide continuity, reinforcement, and development of the messages begun by CINEC instruction. If resources permit, the program could use primary schools as a means to reach mothers and other adult caretakers with health and nutrition instruction.

Conclusion 5 - Design. The design of the educational component must be studied carefully to avoid duplication of effort and to ensure that it complements the curriculum reform now underway.

Conclusion 6 - Incentives. The use of Title II food commodities could be considered as incentive for mothers and adult caretakers to take part in health and nutrition instruction. Incentives for teachers should be considered only for work that is not part of regular instructional duties. Food rations

provided as Food for Work payments might not be the best form for such incentives, and other in-kind or cash payments ought to be considered.

Conclusion 7 - Resources. Additional resources are necessary to encourage and support improvement in the nutritional value of food rations through better practices in schools.

## B.7 RECOMMENDATIONS

Four recommendations follow from these conclusions:

Recommendation 1 - Emphasis. More support should be given to the School Feeding Program.

From an educational point of view, the program represents one of the most important investments being made in Haiti today. Government should play a larger role in implementing the program and be encouraged to contribute more to the costs of managing the program.

Recommendation 2 - Expansion. The School Feeding Program should be expanded to reach all school children in need.

If extending the program to more schools is judged to be impossible in the immediate future because of limited resources, additional resources should be sought as soon as possible.

Recommendation 3 - Nutritional Improvement. Resources should be provided to improve the nutritional value of the meals served in the School Feeding Program.

For example, assistance might be provided to schools to improve kitchens, or supplementary commodities might be provided on the condition that the school operate a school garden and demonstrate that what is grown is used in school meals.

Recommendation 4 - Educational Component. Greater program impact could be achieved by adding a health and nutrition education component.

This idea has been discussed for some time and it should now move forward. Such an instructional program should be carefully designed to address the relation of the instruction to ongoing food distribution activity, the respective roles of Government and the PVOs, and how the program would relate to other efforts of curriculum reform. It would require well-targeted teacher training and effective instructional materials. The program should initially focus on primary school children and later, if resources permit, include mothers and other adult caretakers.

# HAITI

Education and Human Resources Sector Assessment

Evaluation du Secteur de l'Education et des Ressources Humaines

March 1987

mars 1987

| I E E S | AMESED |
|---|---|
| Improving the Efficiency of Educational Systems | Amélioration de l'Efficacité des Systèmes Educatifs |

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Study conducted by the Improving the Efficiency of Educational Systems (IEES) consortium in collaboration with the Ministry of National Education of the Republic of Haiti and with the United States Agency for International Development (USAID)

Etude réalisée par le consortium pour l'Amélioration de l'Efficacité des Systèmes Educatifs (AMESED) en collaboration avec le Ministère de l'Education Nationale de la République d'Haïti et l'Agence Américaine pour le Développement International (USAID)

Improving the Efficiency of Educational Systems (IEES) is an initiative funded in 1984 by the United States Agency for International Development (AID). The principal goals of the IEES Project are to help developing countries improve the performance of their educational systems and strengthen their capabilities for educational planning, management, and research.

To achieve these goals, a consortium of U.S. institutions has been formed to work collaboratively with selected host governments and USAID Missions over the next ten years in devising programs of activity for each collaborating country aimed at improving the efficiency of their educational systems. The consortium consists of the Florida State University (prime contractor), Howard University in Washington, DC, the Institute for International Research (IIR), and the State University of New York at Albany (SUNY/Albany).

There are currently seven countries collaborating with the IEES initiative to improve educational efficiency. Three are in Africa: Botswana, Liberia, and Somalia. The other four countries are Haiti, Indonesia, Nepal, and the Yemen Arab Republic.

IEES produces documents with the goal of promoting research and planning in educational policy issues within IEES-collaborating countries. The IEES Document Clearinghouse at the Florida State University is the center for distributing documents published by the project. Inquiries should be addressed to them at the address below.

Sur l'initiative de l'Agence pour le Développement International (USAID), a été crée en 1984 un projet pour l'"Amélioration de l'Efficacité des Systèmes Educatifs" (AMESED). Ce projet a pour but d'aider les pays en voie de développement à améliorer le fonctionnement de leurs systèmes éducatifs et à renforcer leurs capacités en matière de planification, de gestion, et de recherche dans le domaine éducatif.

Pour réaliser ce but, un consortium d'universités et d'instituts de recherche américains a été constitué. Les membres du consortium sont appelés à collaborer au cours des 10 prochaines années, avec les gouvernements d'un certain nombre de pays en voie de développement et avec les représentations locales de l'USAID afin de réaliser dans chaque pays participant, un programme d'activités visant à améliorer l'efficacité du système éducatif. Le consortium comprend l'Université d'Etat de Floride (FSU), l'Université Howard à Washington DC, l'Institut de Recherche Internationale (IIR), et l'Université d'Etat de New York à Albany (SUNY/Albany).

Actuellement sept pays participent à cet effort. Parmi eux trois sont situés en Afrique. Ce sont: le Liberia, le Botswana, et la Somalie. Les autres pays sont Haïti, l'Indonesie, le Népal, et la République Yéménite Arabe.

L'AMESED édite une série de documents dans le but de promouvoir la recherche et la planification en matière d'éducation dans les pays participant au projet. Le Centre de Documentation de l'AMESED à l'Université d'Etat de Floride est chargé de la distribution de l'ensemble des documents publiés sous l'égide du projet. Les éventuelles commandes de documents doivent être addressées à:

**IEES/AMESED**
Learning Systems Institute
204 Dodd Hall
The Florida State University
Tallahassee, Florida 32306
USA
(904) 644 5442

Agency for International Development
Project No. 936-5823

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# HAITI

Education and Human Resources **Sector Assessment**

March 1987

**Evaluation du Secteur** de l'Education et des Ressources Humaines

mars 1987

I E E S

Improving the Efficiency of Educational Systems

AMESED

Amélioration de l'Efficacité des Systèmes Educatifs

## Volume III

## Tome III

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REPUBLIQUE D'HAITI

# MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE

LE MINISTRE
DE
L'EDUCATION NATIONALE

No.....

Port-au-Prince, le 17 Août 19.....

Le Ministère de l'Education Nationale accueille avec intérêt le Projet d'Amélioration de l'Efficacité des Systèmes Educatifs qui dans le cadre de la Coopération Bilatérale a permis la réalisation de l'évaluation du secteur de l'Education et de ses ressources humaines. Il est important de signaler que ce travail représente la première évaluation de cette importance du secteur éducation. Une implantation réussie du Projet Educatif Haïtien passe nécessairement par une évaluation et une meilleure utilisation de nos ressources matérielles et humaines.

En ce qui concerne cette première version de l'étude, il convient de faire état des contraintes du terrain dans la collecte des données et des limites de l'approche méthodologique initialement adoptée. Ces considérations ont porté le Ministère de l'Education Nationale à planifier avec les membres de la Florida State University une série de séances de travail au cours desquelles des recommandations importantes ont été faites en vue d'une plus grande participation des instances nationales à toutes les étapes de l'étude, laquelle sera reprise dans un avenir pas très lointain.

Les recommandations ont porté particulièrement sur l'implication directe et nécessaire de l'Université dans l'élaboration et la conduite de l'enquête dans la double perspective de promouvoir la recherche et de contribuer à la formation de nos cadres.

Le Ministère de l'Education Naitonale accorde une place de choix à la recherche pédagogique et à l'échange d'expériences professionnelles. Cette coopération permet une meilleure utilisation de l'assitance technique et contribue au renforcement des capacités d'intervention de nos services.

Le Ministère de l'Education Nationale saisit l'occasion pour signifier sa haute appréciation du travail accompli par les membres et représentants du Consortium d'Universités Américaines. Il leur renouvelle ainsi qu'à l'Agence Américaine pour l'Aide Internationale l'assurance de sa considération distinguée.

Rosny DESROCHES
Ministre
de l'Education Nationale de
la Jeunesse et des Sports

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## English Translation
## of letter from the Minister of National Education

Port-au-Prince, 17 December 1986

The Ministry of Education welcomes with great interest the Improving the Efficiency of Educational Systems (IEES) Project which, in the framework of bilateral aid, provided the assistance necessary to conduct this assessment of the education and human resource system in Haiti. It is significant to note that this work represents the first educational evaluation of such magnitude ever undertaken in Haiti. To succeed in bringing to fruition a truly Haitian design for our educational system, careful evaluation and more efficienct use of our human and material resources are both essential.

As concerns the studies that served as a basis for this first system-wide evaluation, one must take account of the constraints under which data collection had to take place and the limitations of the initial methodology. Such considerations motivated the Ministry of Education to organize with representatives of the IEES Consortium a series of joint working sessions during which key recommendations concerning greater participation of Haitian counterparts in all stages of future assessments were made. The evaluation will in fact be updated and revised in this manner in the near future.

The recommendations highlighted in particular the necessity of directly involving the University of Haiti in the conception and execution of the new assessment in order both to promote policy research and to contribute to the training of our own staff.

The Ministry of Education accords great importance to instructional research and to the exchange of professional experience. This sort of international cooperation ensures better utilization of technical assistance and helps to reinforce national institutional capacity.

The Ministry of Education wishes to take the opportunity to express its great appreciation for the work carried out by members and representatives of the IEES Consortium. The Ministry reaffirms its cordial regards for them and for the United States Agency for International Development.

Rosny DESROCHES
Minister
of National Education,
Youth, and Sports



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| Economic and Fiscal Analysis | 2 | Analyse economique et financière |
| Donor Activities and Coordination | 3 | Coordination et activités des donateurs |


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| Primary Education | 5 | Enseignement primaire |
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**Milton Adams,**
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**Stephen Anzalone,** IIR
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# Préface
(français)

Entre octobre et décembre 1984, une équipe de consultants mise à la disposition du Ministère de l'Education Nationale par l'Agence Américaine pour le Développement Internationale (USAID) a séjourné en Haïti pour mener une enquête sur la situation d'ensemble du système éducatif haïtien et en établir le bilan et le diagnostic. Ce travail a été entrepris dans le cadre du programme AMESED (Amélioration de l'Efficacité des Systèmes Educatifs), une initiative d'une durée de dix ans financée par l'USAID et sous l'égide de laquelle des études semblables ont été réalisées dans plusieurs autres pays en voie du développement.

Le document qui fut le fruit de ce travail a été soumis au Ministère de l'Education Nationale en août 1985 mais, en raison des évènements, n'a pu être revu et corrigé par le personnel du MEN qu'en avril 1986. Il paraît ici pour la première fois sous sa forme définitive. L'original du document a été rédigé en anglais. Une version abrégée en a ensuite été tirée et traduite en français aux Etats-Unis. Le document provisoire diffusé en août 1985 comportait donc un premier tome en anglais et un deuxième de moindre volume en français.

L'équipe AMESED a dû faire face à certaines difficultés qui ont quelque peu circonscrit la portée de son travail. Pour une série de raisons conjonctuelles, il n'a pas été possible de lui adjoindre un groupe d'homologues haïtiens pour partager le travail d'évaluation et d'analyse, quoique de nombreux responsables tant du secteur privé que du secteur public aient été consultés au cours de la mission. L'équipe AMESED s'est également heurtée à un manque général de renseignements sur la situation de l'enseignement privé qui, comme chacun le sait, constitue en Haïti un élément très important du système éducatif. Les auteurs des différents chapitres de ce volume ont tenté de pallier à cette carence en menant des enquêtes sur le terrain, mais le programme d'une mission de courte durée ne se prêtant guère à la collecte exhaustive des données, ils se sont vus obligés de laisser vide des pans entiers du tableau qu'ils dressaient.

Ceci nonobstant, la vue d'ensemble du système éducatif haïtien présentée dans les pages qui suivent peut constituer un apport à la planification de l'éducation en Haïti, et cela autant par sa méthodologie que par son contenu. D'une part, on y trouve rassemblé et synthétisé un ensemble de données quantitatives et qualitatives sur la situation de toutes les branches du système éducatif en fin 1984, présenté de manière à favoriser l'analyse des rapports entre l'éducation et le développement en Haïti. D'autre part, la méthodologie même de l'évaluation place les données ainsi rassemblées dans un contexte des plus pertinents pour le développement du système éducatif haïtien: celui de l'efficacité--à la fois *efficacité interne*, c'est à dire le rapport entre les ressources consacrées aux programmes éducatifs et les résultats pédagogiques obtenus, et *efficacité externe*, c'est à dire l'impact de l'éducation sur le devenir de l'enfant et sur le développement de la société toute entière.



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Une première version de ce document a fait l'objet d'une analyse attentive par des représentants du Ministère de l'Education Nationale et des autres institutions haïtiennes concernées entre le 10 et le 24 avril 1986. Au cours de cette période, une équipe composée de quatre consultants de l'AMESED qui avaient participé à l'étude initiale, s'est réunie à plusieurs reprises avec les responsables des différentes branches du système éducatif haïtien pour revoir et corriger le texte du document initial. Une première rencontre sous la présidence du Ministre de l'Education a eu lieu le 10 avril. Elle a été suivie par une série de séances de travail. Chaque séance portait sur un chapitre donné du document et regroupait un représentant de l'AMESED et un ou plusieurs responsables de la branche du système éducatif en question. Un bref résumé de chacune de ces séances figure en préface aux différents chapitres du texte qui suit. Une dernière séance plénière, tenue le 24 avril 1986, a permis de tirer les conclusions d'ensemble de cet exercice d'évaluation.

Hormis la correction d'un certain nombre d'erreurs dans la présentation statistique ou le développement historique des différents chapitres, les participants ont tenu à faire ressortir plusieurs points de portée plus générale:

- Etant donné le laps de temps qui s'était écoulé entre la réalisation de l'étude et l'examen du document au niveau du Ministère, bon nombre des données statistiques de base étaient devenues périmées. Plutôt que d'essayer de tout actualiser, les participants ont jugé mieux d'éditer le document tel qu'établi, avec les corrections de détail qui seraient nécessaires, et de prévoir la réalisation d'une nouvelle évaluation dans deux ans.

- Le format paraîssait inadéquat, le résumé en français ne représentant pas très fidèlement le texte anglais et comportant en plus un certain nombre d'erreurs de traduction. Pour l'édition définitive du document, il a été préconisé de reprendre le résumé en français et de faire alterner les textes dans les deux langues. Quant à l'approche à adopter à l'avenir, les participants estimaient que de futures évaluations devraient être rédigés directement en français, puis traduites en anglais au besoin.

- Enfin, de l'avis de tous, à l'avenir il serait hautement souhaitable de confier le travail en grande partie à une équipe de chercheurs haïtiens, tout en leur assurant la formation et l'assistance technique nécessaires pour mener le travail à bon terme.

Le travail de correction et de reprise du résumé français du document a été assuré conformément aux recommandations du Ministère, par les traducteurs du Centre de Développement des Ressources Humaines, sis Delmas 55 à Port-au-Prince. Le document a ensuite été divisé en quatre volumes, chacun regroupant plusieurs chapitres et chaque chapitre comportant le texte intégral en anglais précédé du résumé en français.



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# Preface
(English)

From October to December 1984, a team of consultants engaged by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and supervised by the Ministry of Education of the Republic of Haiti devoted eight weeks to an assessment of the current state of the Haitian educational system and an evaluation of its priority needs. This work was carried out under the aegis of the Improving the Efficiency of Educational Systems (IEES) Project, a ten-year initiative financed by the Washington offices of USAID that has contributed to similar sector assessments in several other developing countries.

The study that resulted from this effort was submitted to the Ministry of Education in August 1985, but was not fully reviewed and corrected by Ministry personnel until April 1986 because of intervening events. It appears here for the first time in final form.

The original document was written in English. A summary version was then composed and translated into French in the United States. The draft document disseminated in August 1985 included therefore one volume in English and a second and considerably shorter one in French.

The IEES team had to deal with certain difficulties that limited somewhat the scope of its study. For a series of reasons, it was not possible to arrange for a full team of Haitian counterparts to share the work of evaluation and data analysis, though numerous educators from both the public sector and the private sector were consulted during the course of the assessment. The team also discovered a general lack of information about the current status of private education, which constitutes a major element of the Haitian educational system. The authors of the different chapters of this volume made an effort to compensate for this lack of information by carrying out some first-hand data collection in the field. The schedule of a two-month mission did not afford enough time to perform an extensive inventory of the situation, however, and they were consequently unable to fill in certain parts of the picture.

Despite these shortcomings, the overall view of the Haitian educational system presented in the pages to follow may constitute a very worthwhile contribution to the concerns of educational planning in Haiti, by virtue both of its content and of the methodology employed. The study assembles a mass of qualitativ and quantitative information on the status of the different branches of the educational system in late 1984 and presents these data in a manner conducive to analysis of the relations between education and development in Haiti. Furthermore, the methodology used places this information in a context that seems particularly pertinent for the development of the Haitian educational system: namely, that of improving efficiency -- both internal efficiency, or the ratio of resources invested in educational programs to the instructional results obtained, and external efficiency, or the impact of the educational experience on the personal and job futures of the students and on the development of society as a whole.



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The draft version of this document was reviewed by representatives of the Ministry of Education and of other concerned Haitian institutions from April 10 to April 24, 1986. During this period, a team composed of four IEES consultants (themselves among the authors of the original assessment) met on several occasions with leaders of the different branches of the Haitian educational system in order to examine and critique the draft text. An inaugural meeting was held on April 10th under the presidency of the Minister of Education. It was followed by a series of work sessions, each one focusing on a single chapter of the assessment and grouping together one of the IEES consultants and one or more representatives of the subsector in question. A brief resume of the conduct and results of each meeting appears as a preface to each related chapter of the final four volume assessment. A final plenary session was held on April 24th to draw overall conslusions from the sector assessment review process.

Over and beyond necessary correction of a certain number of factual errors in the statistical or descriptive data presented in each chapter, participants in this final meeting felt it important to make the following general points about the assessment:

- Given the time that had elapsed between the conduct of the initial assessment and review of the resulting document by the Ministry, a good number of the statistical data used were no longer current. Rather than attempting to update all this information, participants in the meeting felt it preferable to publish the existing document with the necessary corrections of factual error and to devote principal energy to planning for conduct of an entirely new assessment within two years.

- The overall format of the current assessment was judged inadequate, since the French resume was not a very faithful condensation of the English original and included a certain number of translation errors. It was suggested that the French text be corrected and improved before final edition of the current assessment, and that the two versions be presented side by side in a single volume. As for future assessments, all felt that they should be drawn up directly in French, then translated into English as needed.

- Finally, it was generally agreed that every effort should be made in the future to entrust prime responsibility for conduct of such assessments to a team of Haitian educational researchers, while providing them with whatever additional training and technical assistance they might require.

The work of correcting the French resume was carried out, at the suggestion of the Ministry, by staff of the Human Resource Development Center, Delmas 55 in Port-au-Prince. The document was then divided into four volumes, each one containing several related chapters and each chapter including the full English text preceeded by the French summary.



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# Résumé

## But

*L'évaluation du secteur de l'éducation et des ressources humaines en Haïti* présentée dans les pages qui suivent décrit l'état du système éducatif haïtien et analyse ses principaux besoins. A partir de cet examen, le document cherche à identifier des voies et moyens qui permettraient de mieux atteindre les objectifs primordiaux du gouvernement dans le domaine de l'éducation, ceci grâce à un usage plus efficace des ressources disponibles ou potentielles et à une coordination plus étroite entre le programme du Gouvernement et les activités des organismes donateurs d'aide. Le texte intégral de l'évaluation est réparti en 4 volumes.

## Principales recommandations

Les recommandations qui découlent de cette évaluation portent sur les cinq points suivants, énumérés par ordre d'importance :

- renforcer l'éducation de base,
- promouvoir le développement de nouvelles compétences techniques, génératrices de revenus,
- renforcer les capacités institutionnelles des organismes d'enseignement publics et privés déjà en place,
- effectuer des études pouvant servir de base à la planification de l'éducation, et
- promouvoir une coordination plus étroite parmi les donateurs.

## Contexte

Haïti est l'un des pays les plus défavorisés du monde : les trois-quarts de sa population de six millions d'habitants subsistent au-dessous du niveau de pauvreté absolue définie par la Banque Mondiale. A l'heure actuelle, les ressources humaines du pays représentent la meilleure base de croissance économique. Toutefois, ces ressources ne peuvent être pleinement mises en valeur que si d'importants ajustements sont effectués dans le système éducatif.

En effet, l'accès à l'éducation est sérieusement limité à tous les niveaux. En 1980 le taux d'alphabétisation n'était que de 23%. L'efficacité et la qualité de l'enseignement sont généralement faibles. En outre, le système éducatif haïtien est caractérisé par une très forte dépendance envers le secteur privé lequel compte 60% environ des élèves inscrits à l'école primaire et 80% de ceux inscrits à l'école secondaire. Une réforme de l'éducation a récemment été lancée pour tenter de remédier aux problèmes d'accès à l'école, de l'inefficacité du système éducatif et de la qualité médiocre de l'enseignement. Pour que cette réforme réussisse il faudrait, cependant que la participation des donateurs et du secteur privé s'intensifie. Dans l'ensemble, la participation des donateurs au financement de l'éducation est particulièrement faible en Haïti. Seulement 5,2% du montant de l'aide externe (environ 8,7 millions de dollars) a été consacrés à l'éducation en 1983.



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## Sources de renseignements

La présente évaluation a été préparée par une équipe de huit personnes qui a travaillé en Haïti pendant une période de huit semaines, entre octobre et décembre 1984. Au cours de cette période, les membres de l'équipe ont eu plus de 250 entretiens avec plusieurs catégories de personnes concernées par le développement du système éducatif haïtien : des fonctionnaires des ministères de l'Education Nationale, de la Santé Publique, du Plan, de l'Agriculture, et des Affaires Sociales ; des directeurs d'écoles primaires et secondaires publiques et privées en milieux urbain et rural ; des doyens de facultés et d'écoles normales ; et des responsables d'institutions d'enseignement technique et professionnel ainsi que des représentants de tous les principaux organismes donateurs. L'équipe a également consulté plus de 265 rapports et documents connexes.

## Présentation du rapport

L'évaluation se compose de quatorze chapitres et deux documents annexes qui portent sur les différentes branches du système éducatif haïtien. Les chapitres et annexes sont regroupés en quatre volumes comme suit :

- Le premier volume traite des problèmes de planification de l'ensemble du système et comprend trois chapitres. Le chapitre 1 comporte la synthèse du rapport tout entier, le chapitre 2 est consacré à l'analyse économique et fiscale de l'éducation en Haïti (examen des coûts, calcul des taux de rendement et analyse de l'offre et la demande de la main-d'oeuvre), tandis que le chapitre 3 est centré sur la question de la coordination des donateurs.

- Le second volume porte sur l'enseignement fondamental et comprend deux chapitres et deux annexes. Le chapitre 4 est consacré à la situation de l'éducation préscolaire en Haïti, le chapitre 5 à l'enseignement primaire, et les annexes A et B traitent respectivement des systèmes d'élaboration et de distribution des manuels scolaires et de l'organisation des programmes de nutrition scolaire.

- Le troisième volume regroupe trois chapitres qui touchent à l'enseignement secondaire et supérieur : le chapitre 6 est consacré à l'enseignement secondaire classique, le chapitre 7 à la formation des enseignants et le chapitre 8 à l'enseignement supérieur.

- Le quatrième volume traite de trois autres types de formation dispensés en Haïti : le chapitre 9 présente une analyse des programmes de formation en matière de gestion, alors que le chapitre 10 est consacré à la formation technique et professionnelle. Le chapitre 11 analyse le secteur de l'éducation non formelle.

Tous les chapitres traitant d'une branche particulière du système éducatif tel l'enseignement primaire ou l'enseignement secondaire, suivent le même cheminement analytique. La première partie du chapitre est consacré à un examen de l'évolution historique de la branche du système éducatif en question ainsi qu'à la présentation des objectifs qui lui ont été fixés dans le cadre du développement national. Ensuite la situation actuelle du sous-système est analysée à travers un certain nombre d'indicateurs de performance. Une fois ce protrait établi, l'ensemble des données ainsi rassemblées est évalué à partir de cinq critères de performance pour apprécier le niveau de fonctionnement du système à l'heure actuelle. Ces



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critères sont : l'efficacité interne, l'efficacité externe, le degré d'équité et d'accès à la formation, l'administration et la gestion des programmes, et leurs coûts et financement. L'évaluation des progrès réalisés dans chacun de ces domaines tient compte en même temps des contraintes qui pèsent sur le fonctionnement du système et de ses besoins les plus pressants. Enfin, des conclusions et des recommandations sont formulées dans le but d'identifier les moyens à mettre en oeuvre pour améliorer la qualité et la quantité des résultats pédagogiques, pour renforcer l'efficacité du système et pour orienter les investissements futurs vers des directions particulièrement productives.

## Politique générale

L'analyse de l'ensemble des résultats de l'évaluation a permis d'identifier cinq problèmes d'orientation générale auxquels le gouvernement haïtien doit faire face en matière d'éducation:

1. Il est essentiel d'améliorer l'efficacité et la qualité des divers programmes d'éducation et de formation et—dans la mesure du possible— de les étendre aux couches de la population qui n'en ont pas encore bénéficié. Cependant, étant donné la capacité financière et institutionnelle actuelle du gouvernement, un remaniement structurel profond, ainsi qu'une aide supplémentaire des donateurs d'une part et du secteur privé de l'autre, s'avèrent nécessaires.

2. Les programmes d'éducation et de développement des ressources humaines sont particulièrement difficiles à coordonner à cause du rôle prépondérant qu'y joue le secteur privé. Il est néanmoins important de réaliser une telle coordination pour pouvoir étendre la réforme de l'éducation aux nombreuses écoles primaires et secondaires privées qui n'y participent pas encore.

3. Il ne peut y avoir de véritable développement économique sans un programme efficace de développement de nouvelles compétences productrices de revenus, surtout dans les régions rurales défavorisées.

4. Le manque de données fiables sur la situation des écoles et des programmes rend le contrôle, l'évaluation et la planification des interventions éducatives particulièrement difficiles.

5. Le gouvernement ne dispose, pour le moment, d'aucun système de coordination des multiples interventions des donateurs et du secteur privé dans le domaine de l'éducation.

## Qualité des programmes

Huit questions d'importance relative à la qualité et à la pertinence des programmes d'éducation sont examinées dans le chapitre de synthèse. Ces questions concernent la définition de la politique générale de l'éducation, le développement de nouvelles capacités institutionnelles, le développement de compétences en matière de planification et de gestion, le rôle du secteur privé, l'utilisation des ressources matérielles et financières, la coordination des activités des donateurs, la collecte des données nécessaires à la planification et la langue d'enseignement.



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## Recommandations générales

Le chapitre de synthèse présente cinq recommandations et une série de quatorze activités qui devraient permettre de mettre celles-ci en pratique. Ces recommandations concernent essentiellement les trois points suivants :

1. **Contribuer au développement socio-économique à l'échelle nationale.**

   - Renforcer l'éducation de base.
   - Développer de nouvelles compétences productrices de revenus au moyen d'activités d'éducation non formelle et de programmes d'enseignement technique et professionnel à orientation bien spécifique.
   - Améliorer la coordination des activités des donateurs.

2. **Développer les capacités humaines et institutionnelles des structures responsables de l'organisation du système éducatif.**

   - Renforcer la capacité des institutions publiques et privées déjà existantes.
   - Elaborer des programmes de formation et de perfectionnement de cadres administratifs et de gestionnaires du système éducatif.

3. **Faire meilleur usage des ressources existantes.**

   - Augmenter la disponibilité du matériel didactique.
   - Améliorer et étendre les programmes de nutrition pré-scolaire et primaire.
   - Reprendre et améliorer les programmes de recyclage des instituteurs des écoles primaires publiques et privées.
   - Effectuer des enquêtes et des études pour servir de base à une planification plus rationnelle du système éducatif. Ces études devront porter en priorité sur :

     - l'offre et la demande de main-d'oeuvre,
     - la mise en place de systèmes de collecte des informations pour permettre une meilleure gestion du système éducatif,
     - la méthodologie des programmes d'éducation non formelle qui ont connu le plus de succès en Haïti,
     - la recherche de méthodes d'utilisation de la radio comme appui à l'enseignement dans une variété de contextes, et
     - l'examen de systèmes alternatifs d'enseignement au niveau de l'école primaire.

Un répertoire des sigles et acronymes utilisés dans le texte des différentes chapitres est présenté dans les pages qui suivent. La liste des personnes contactées par l'équipe d'évaluation et la bibliographie des ouvrages consultés figurent en annexe du Volume I (appendices A et B).

# Executive Summary

## Purpose

The *Haiti Education and Human Resources Sector Assessment* describes the current status and needs of the Haitian education and human resources system. On the basis of this analysis, it seeks to identify ways to more effectively focus available and anticipated resources on achieving the Government's underlying objectives, and to encourage closer coordination between Government and the international donor community. The full sector assessment is presented in four volumes.

## Overview of Recommendations

Recommendations based on this assessment address the following five broad objectives, listed by order of importance:

- Strengthening basic education.
- Improving income-producing skills.
- Reinforcing existing public and private educational institutions.
- Conducting planning studies and surveys.
- Improving donor coordination.

## Background

Haiti is one of the poorest countries in the world. Three-fourths of its population of six million live below the level of absolute poverty defined by the World Bank. Human resources constitute the most promising foundation for economic growth in the country. These resources cannot be developed, however, unless major adjustments are made within the present education system.

Educational opportunities are seriously limited at all levels. The literacy rate was only 23 percent in 1980. Access, efficiency, and quality are low at all levels of education. There is a heavy dependence on the private sector, with about 60 percent of primary students and 80 percent of secondary students in private schools. An Education Reform has recently been initiated to address problems of restricted access, low efficiency, and poor quality. The Reform needs increased donor and private sector support, however, if it is to succeed. Donor assistance is particularly low in the education sector. Only 5.2 percent (about $8.7 million) of total external assistance to Haiti was devoted to education in 1983.

## Sources

The assessment was prepared by an eight-person team which worked in Haiti for eight weeks ending in December of 1984. More than 250 interviews were conducted with officials from: the Ministries of Education, Health, Planning, Agriculture, and Social Affairs; public and private primary and secondary schools in urban and rural areas; universities and teacher training institutions; vocational and technical training schools; and all major donors. Over 265 reports and related documents were reviewed.



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## Report Organization

The assessment is composed of fourteen chapters and two substantive annexes that deal with different branches of the Haitian educational system. It is divided into four volumes as follows:

- Volume I deals with overall educational planning issues and contains three chapters: Chapter One is a synthesis of the conclusions of the entire report. Chapter Two presents an economic and fiscal analysis of the Haitian educational system, including data on costs, rates of return, and manpower supply and demand. Chapter Three concerns donor coordination.

- Volume II focuses on the basic levels of the formal educational system and contains two chapters and two annexes. Chapter Four analyzes the current situation of preprimary education in Haiti, and Chapter Five examines the status of primary education. Annex A to Volume II is devoted to the issue of school textbooks, whereas Annex B deals with school feeding programs.

- Volume III concerns secondary and higher education and contains three chapters. Chapter Six deals with classical secondary education. Chapter Seven deals with teacher training. Chapter Eight presents the situation of higher education and university training.

- Volume IV examines three other branches of the Haitian educational system. Chapter Nine focuses on management training, Chapter Ten on vocational-technical education, and Chapter Eleven on nonformal education.

All chapters that deal with particular branches of the Haitian educational system follow a similar pattern of analysis. First, the present status of the branch of education in question is examined, including consideration of historical background, current plans and objectives, and various indicators of system performance. Next, this data is analyzed from the point of view of five criteria of system operation: internal efficiency, external efficiency, degree of equity and access, management and supervision, and costs and financing. Progress made in each of these categories is evaluated within the framework of the major constraints under which the system operates and its most pressing needs. Finally, conclusions are drawn and a series of recommendations are made concerning ways to improve the quality and quantity of educational outcomes, to achieve greater system efficiency and to orient future investment in the most productive directions.



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## Policy Issues

An analysis of the results of all chapters of the assessment leads to identification of five global policy issues that presently confront Government:

- Education and human resources programs must be improved, expanded, and sustained, but the present institutional and economic capacity of Government cannot support the required activities without significant restructuring and additional assistance from donors and the private sector.

- Coordination of education and human resources activities is especially difficult because of the dominant role of the private sector. This coordination is critically important, particularly for extending the current Education Reform to the many private sector primary and secondary schools.

- Economic growth will not take place without an effective program for developing income-producing skills, especially in the poor rural areas.

- Program planning and monitoring for all subsectors of education is severely restricted by a lack of reliable and current information on status, supply, and demand.

- No plan exists for Government to coordinate the numerous donor and private sector activities in the realm of education in order to focus them on the attainment of national development goals.

## Quality and Relevance Issues

Eight issues of educational development are extensively discussed in the assessment: policy reform, institutional capacity, planning and management capacity, the role of the private sector, resource utilization, donor coordination, information for planning, and the language of instruction.



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## Overall Recommendations

Five recommendations and a supporting group of 14 activities are set forth in the synthesis chapter. These recommendations can be grouped under three primary areas of focus.

1. **Contributing to national social and economic development.**

   - Strengthening basic education.
   - Improving income-producing skills through public and private nonformal education programs and targeted programs of vocational and technical education.
   - Improving coordination of donor activities.

2. **Building capacity within the education and human resources sector.**

   - Strengthening existing public and private sector educational institutions.
   - Developing a targeted training program for institutional development.

3. **Making more efficient use of existing resources.**

   - Increasing the availability of instructional materials.
   - Improving and extending the preprimary and primary school feeding programs.
   - Improving inservice training for public and private primary school teachers.
   - Conducting basic planning surveys (manpower supply and demand survey, educational management information system plan, study of successful nonformal education programs, exploration of possible uses of educational radio, examination of alternative primary-level instructional systems).

A glossary of acronyms used in this assessment follows this executive summary. The list of persons contacted and the bibliography of documents consulted in the course of the assessment are included as Appendices A and B to Volume I.



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# Acronyms

## English

| | |
|---|---|
| **ACDI** | Canadian International Development Agency (See CIDA) |
| **ADIH** | Association of Haiti Industries |
| **AMG** | Global Missionary Action |
| **AUPELF** | Association of French-Speaking Universities |
| **BID** | Inter-American Development Bank (IDB) |
| **BIRD** | International Bank for Reconstruction and Development/The World Bank (IBRD) |
| **CAC** | Community Action Council |
| **CAF** | Resources Training Center |
| **CAP** | - |
| **CAPES** | - |
| **CARE** | Concerned Americans for Relief Everywhere |
| **CENA** | National Episcopal Literacy Council |
| **CEP** | Primary Education Certificate |
| **CES** | Center for Special Education |
| **CFA** | Rural Training Center |
| **CFPH** | Haitian Professional Training Center |
| **CFT** | Technical Training Center |
| **CHF** | Cooperative Housing Foundation |
| **CHISS** | Haitian Center for Studies in Human |
| **CIDA** | Canadian International Development Agency (See ACDI) |
| **CINEC** | Community Integrated Nutrition and Education Center |

# Sigles

## Français

| | |
|---|---|
| **ACDI** | Agence Canadienne de Développement International |
| **ADIH** | Association des Industries d'Haïti |
| **AMG** | Action Missionnaire Globale |
| **AUPELF** | Association des Universites Partiellement ou Entièrement de Langue Francaise |
| **BID** | Banque Interaméricaine de Développement |
| **BIRD** | Banque Internationale pour la Reconstruction et le Développement/ La Banque Mondiale |
| **CAC** | Conseil d'Action Communautaire |
| **CAF** | Centre d'Appui aux Formations |
| **CAP** | Certificat d'Aptitude Pédagogique |
| **CAPES** | Certificat d'Aptitude Pédagogique d'Enseignement Secondaire |
| **CARE** | - |
| **CENA** | Conseil Episcopal National d'Alphabétisation |
| **CEP** | Certificat d'Etudes Primaires |
| **CES** | Centre d'Education Spéciale |
| **CFA** | Centres de Formation Agricole et Artisanale |
| **CFPH** | Centre de Formation Professionelle d'Haïti |
| **CFT** | Centre de Formation Technique |
| **CHF** | - |
| **CHISS** | Centre Haïtien d'Investigations en Sciences Humaines |
| **CIDA** | Agence Canadienne de Développement International |
| **CINEC** | Centre Intégré de Nutrition et d'Education Communautaire |



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| | | |
|---|---|---|
| **CLAP** | Center of Applied Linguistics | Centre de Linguistique Appliquée |
| **CMA** | Auto Mechanics Center | Centre Mécanique Auto |
| **CMPP** | Model Center for Professional Improvement | Centre Modèle de Perfectionnement Professionnel |
| **CNC** | National Council of Cooperatives | Conseil National de Coopératives |
| **CODEPLA** | Development Planning Committee (Council of Evangelical Churches of Haiti) | Comité de Développement de Planification (Conseil des Eglises Evangéliques d'Haïti) |
| **CODEVA** | Commission for the Development of Artibonite Valley | Commission pour le Développement de la Vallée de l'Artibonite |
| **COHAN** | Haitian-Netherlands Cooperation | Coopération Haïtiano-Néerlandaise |
| **CPF** | Polyvalent Training Center | Centre Polyvalent de Formation |
| **CPFP** | Pilot Center for Professional Training | Centre Pilote de Formation Professionnelle |
| **CPR** | Regional Pedagogical Center | Centre Pédagogique Régional |
| **CRS** | Catholic Relief Services | - |
| **CS** | Satellite Training Center | Centre satellite |
| **CWS** | Church World Services | - |
| **DARNDR** | Ministry of Agriculture, Natural Resources, and Rural Development | Département de l'Agriculture, des Ressources Naturelles et du Développement Rural |
| **DDR** | Division of Rural Development | Division du Développement Rural |
| **DEN** | Ministry of Education | Département de l'Education Nationale |
| **DESE** | Division of Health Education and Training | Division d'Education Sanitaire et d'Entraînement |
| **DETP** | Directorate of Technical and Professional Education | Direction de l'Enseignement Technique et Professionnel |
| **DFC** | Development Finance Corporation | - |
| **DHF** | Division of Family Hygiene | Division d'Hygiene Familiale |
| **DSPP** | Ministry of Public Health and Population | Département de la Santé Publique et de la Population |
| **EASPNH** | Expansion and Improvement of Primary and Teacher Education in Haiti | Expansion et Amélioration du Système d'Enseignement Primaire et Normal en Haïti |
| **EDH** | Electricity of Haiti | Electricité d'Haïti |
| **EF** | Basic Education | Education Fondamentale |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| **EMAV** | Middle School of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine | Ecole Moyenne d'Agriculture et de Médecine Vétérinaire |
| **EMTG** | Middle School of Geology | Ecole Moyenne de Techniciens de Géologie |
| **EN** | Normal School (Primary Teacher Training College) | Ecole Normale |
| **ENI** | Normal Training Schools | Ecoles Normales d'Institutrices |
| **ENS** | Superior Normal School (Secondary Teacher Training School) | Ecole Normale Supérieure |
| **FAC** | French Assistance and Cooperation | Fonds d'Aide et de Coopération |
| **FAMV** | College of Agronomy and Veterinary Medicine | Faculté d'Agronomie et de Médecine Vétérinaire |
| **FAO** | Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations | Organisation des Nations Unies pour l'Alimentation et l'Agriculture |
| **FDI** | Industrial Development Fund | Fonds de Développement Industriel |
| **FHD** | Haitian Development Fund | Fondation Haïtienne du Développement |
| **FIC** | Christian Brothers | Frères d'Instruction Chrétienne |
| **FIU** | Florida International University | - |
| **FMI** | International Monetary Fund (IMF) | Fonds Monétaire International |
| **FNS** | National Federation of Labor Unions | Fédération Nationale des Syndicats |
| **FONDEV** | Haitian-German Development Fund | Fonds Haïtiano-Allemand pour le Développement |
| **FPP** | Foster Parent Program | - |
| **FRG** | Federal Republic of Germany | - |
| **GAC** | Community Action Groups | Groupements d'Action Communautaires |
| **GDP** | Gross Domestic Product | - |
| **GNP** | Gross National Product | - |
| **GPA** | Grade Point Average | - |
| **GPP** | Pilot Project Group | Groupement Projet Pilote |
| **GREAL** | Literacy Research and Experimentation Group | Groupe de Recherche et d'Expérimentation en Alphabétisation |
| **HAMCHAM** | Haitian-American Chamber of Commerce | - |
| **HAVA** | Haitian Association of Voluntary Agencies | - |



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| | | |
|---|---|---|
| **HDF** | Haitian Development Foundation | - |
| **HIET** | Haitian Institute of Electronic Technology | - |
| **IBRD** | International Bank for Reconstruction and Development/The World Bank (See BIRD) | Banque Internationale pour la Reconstruction et le Développement/ La Banque Mondiale |
| **ICC** | International Child Care | - |
| **ICTA** | Christian Institution for Technology | Institution Chrétienne de Technologie et d'Agriculture |
| **IDA** | International Development Association | Association Internationale de Développement |
| **IDB** | Inter-American Development Bank (See BID) | Banque Interaméricaine de Développement |
| **IDEA** | Diocesan Institute of Adult Education | Institut Diocésan d'Education des Adultes |
| **IEES** | Improving the Efficiency of Educational Systems | - |
| **IHS** | Haitian Institute of Statistics | Institut Haïtien de Statistiques et d'Informatique |
| **IICA** | Inter-American Institute for the Commercialization of Agriculture | Institut Interaméricain pour le Commercialisation Agricole |
| **ILO** | International Labor Organization (See OIT) | Organisation Internationale du Travail |
| **IMF** | International Monetary Fund (See FMI) | Fonds Monétaire international |
| **INAGHEI** | National Institute for Administration, Management, and Higher International Studies | Institut National d'Administration, de Gestion et des Hautes Etudes Internationales |
| **INHCA** | Haitian National Institute of Arts and Culture | Institut National Haïtien de la Culture et des Arts |
| **INFP** | National Institute of Professional Training | Institut National de Formation Professionnelle |
| **IPN** | National Pedagogical Institute | Institut Pédagogique National |
| **IUH** | International University of Haiti | Centre Universitaire d'Haïti |
| **LASPAU** | Latin Amorican Scholarship Program | - |
| **MBCH** | Baptist Mission of Haiti | Mission Baptiste Conservatrice d'Haïti |
| **MCC** | Mennonite Central Committee | - |
| **MPC** | Management and Productivity Center | - |
| **MPF** | French Pedagogical Mission | Mission Pédagogique Française |



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| | | |
|---|---|---|
| NACRAO | National Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admission Officers | - |
| NAFSA | National Association for Foreign Student Affairs | - |
| NFE | Nonformal Education | Education Non-Formelle |
| NGO | Nongovernmental Organiza tion (See ONG) | Organisme non-gouvernemental |
| OAS | Organization of American States (See OEA) | Organisation des Etats Américains |
| ODN | Development Organization of the North | Organisme de Développement du Nord |
| ODNO | Development Organization of the North-West | Organisme de Développement du Nord-Ouest |
| ODVA | Development Organization of Artibonite Valley | Organisme de Développement de la Vallee de l'Artibonite |
| OEA | Organization of American States (OAS) | Organisation des Etats Américains |
| OIT | International Labor Organization (ILO) | Organisation Internationale du Travail |
| OMS | World Health Organization (WHO) | Organisation Mondiale de la Santé |
| ONAAC | National Organization for Literacy and Community Action | Office National d'Alphabétisation et d'Action Communautaire |
| ONART | National Office of Artisanry | Office National de l'Artisanat |
| ONEC | National Office of Community Education | Office National de l'Education Communautaire |
| ONG | Nongovernmental Organization (NGO) | Organisme non-gouvernemental |
| ONTRP | National Office of Tourism and Public Relations | Office National du Tourisme et des Relations Publiques |
| ORT | Oral Rehydration Therapy | - |
| PADF | Pan American Development Foundation | - |
| PAHO | Pan-American Health Organization | - |
| PAM | World Food Program (WFP) | Programme d'Alimentation Mondiale |
| PNUD | United Nations Development Program (UNDP) | Programme des Nations Unies pour le Développement |
| PVO | Private Voluntary Organization | - |
| RHDS | Rural Health Delivery System | - |
| SAWS | Seventh Day Adventist World Service | - |
| SCCT | Cooperation and Technical Service | Service de la Coopération Technique |



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| | | |
|---|---|---|
| **SDR** | Special Drawing Rights | - |
| **SNEM** | National Service of Major Diseases | Service National des Endémies Majeures |
| **SNFP** | National System of Professional Training | Système National de Formation Professionnelle |
| **SYG** | Student years per graduate | - |
| **TBA** | Traditional Birth Attendant | - |
| **TELECO** | Telecommunications of Haiti | Télécommunications d'Haïti |
| **UNDP** | United Nations Development Program (See PNUD) | Programme des Nations Unies pour le Développement |
| **Unesco** | United Nations Education, Science, and Culture Organization | Organisation des Nations Unies pour le Science, l'Education et la Culture |
| **UNFPA** | United Nations Fund for Population Activities | Fond des Nations Unies pour les Activités en Matière de Population |
| **UNICA** | Association of Caribbean Universities and Research Institutes | - |
| **UNICEF** | United Nations Children's Fund | Fonds des Nations Unies pour l'Enfance |
| **UPMDI** | Materials Production and Printing Unit | Unité de Production de Matériel Didactique et d'Impression |
| **URHC** | Roi Henri Christophe University | Université Roi Henry Christophe |
| **USAID** | U.S. Agency for International Development | - |
| **WFP** | World Food Program (See PAM) | Programme d'Alimentation Mondiale |
| **WHO** | World Health Organization (see OMS) | Organisation Mondiale de la Sante |
| **WVI** | World Vision International | Vision Sur le Monde |



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*Chapitre*

# 6

Chapter

*Enseignement Secondaire*

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Secondary Education

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## AVANT PROPOS

Le chapitre 6, "Enseignement secondaire," a été revu et corrigé à Port-au-Prince le 10 avril 1986 par Mr. Jean St. Fort, Directeur adjoint de l'enseignement secondaire au Ministère de l'Education Nationale, avec la collaboration de Mr. Stephen Anzalone, AMESED/Institute for International Research.

La première partie de la séance a été consacrée à un certain nombre de corrections de détail et de présentation statistique. Dans l'ensemble, Mr. St. Fort estimait que le chapitre fournissait une vue synthétique de la situation de l'enseignment secondaire qui était utile pour la planification. Il souhaitait cependant que de futures évaluations de ce genre soient effectuées avec une plus forte participation de la partie haïtienne.

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# 6.0 ENSEIGNEMENT SECONDAIRE

L'enseignement secondaire est l'un des sous-secteurs du système éducatif où la croissance est la plus rapide. Ce sous secteur doit, en effet, faire face aux énormes pressions qu'exercent à la fois l'importante demande sociale, le caractère peu coordonné de son expansion, les coûts qui n'en finissent pas d'augmenter, les problèmes du contrôle de la qualité et des perspectives de réforme. Ce chapitre traite seulement du programme général de l'enseignement secondaire, tel qu'il est offert par les lycées publics et les collèges privés.

## 6.1 SITUATION ACTUELLE

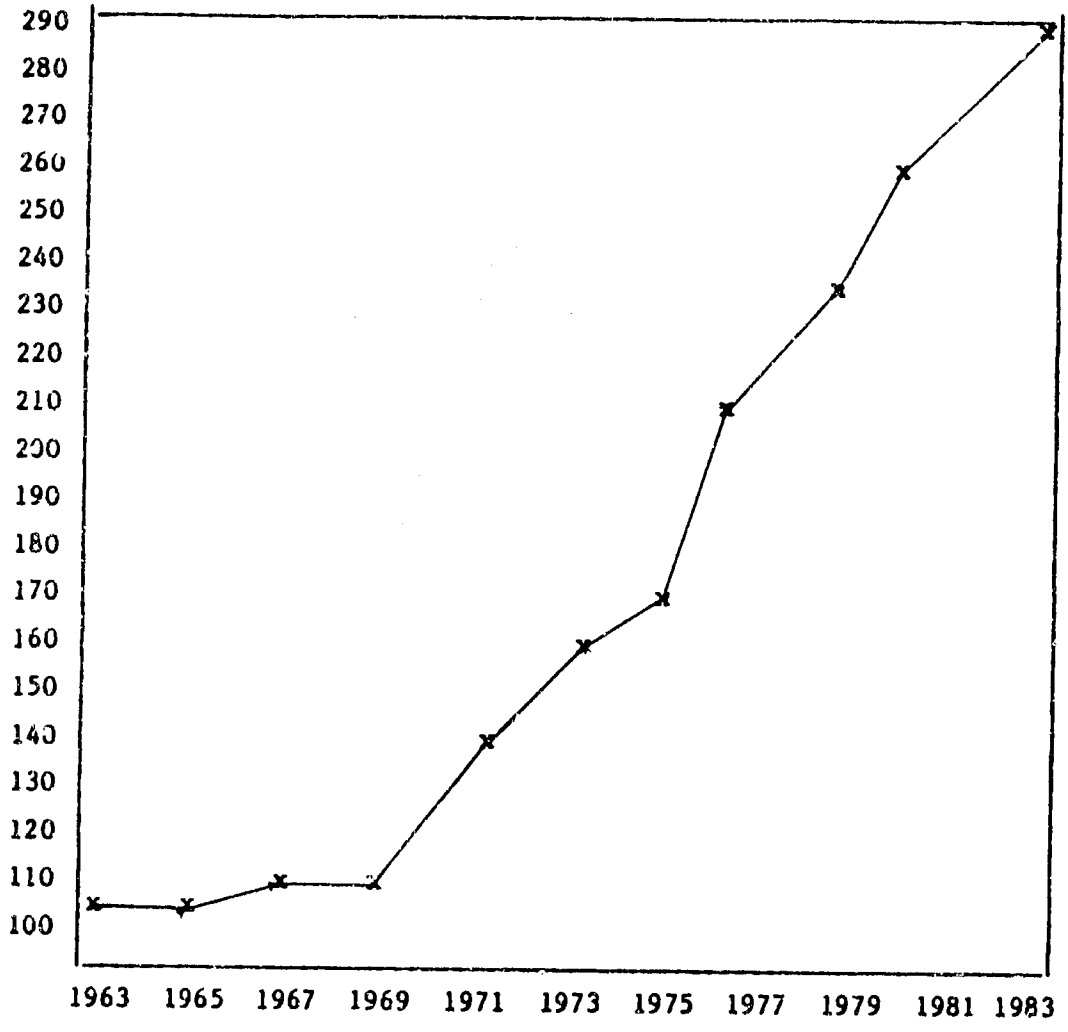
L'enseignement secondaire dispense généralement une formation académique qui s'inspire du modèle français. Son cycle de sept années fait suite au cycle traditionnel de six années de l'enseignement primaire. Quand la Réforme atteindra l'enseignement secondaire à la prochaine décennie, le cycle de ce dernier durera trois ans et fera suite aux dix années de l'enseignement de base de l'Ecole Fondamentale (voir chapitre 5). A la fin de la sixième année du cycle secondaire, les élèves subissent les épreuves du baccalauréat 1ère partie (rhétorique). Ceux qui réussissent obtiennent un diplôme de fin d'études secondaires classiques, et sont admis à la septième et dernière année du secondaire ou classe de philosophie (baccalauréat 2ème partie). A la fin de cette année, les élèves se présentent aux examens du Baccalauréat II. S'ils réussissent, ils reçoivent le diplôme de fin d'études secondaires, 2ème partie et peuvent être admis à l'enseignement supérieur.

### 6.1.1 Contexte

Le premier lycée d'Haïti a été établi au début du 19ème siècle. Au même moment l'ouverture des écoles secondaires était encouragée. En 1940-43, il y avait 20 écoles d'enseignement secondaire. Un développement plus rapide s'est fait alors dans le contexte d'un grand mouvement en faveur du progrès social. En 1960, il y avait environ 108 écoles secondaires comptant environ 22.000 inscrits. En 1970, seulement deux de plus avaient été créées, bien que le nombre d'inscriptions ait doublé pendant cette période. De 1970 à 1983, cependant, le nombre d'écoles secondaires et d'inscriptions avait presque triplé pour atteindre 290 avec 117.000 inscrits. La courbe de croissance de ces 20 dernières années est représentée par le schéma 6.1.

Le fait notoire du développement de l'enseignement secondaire est la croissance des écoles privées. Ce phénomène reflète la perception que l'enseignement secondaire est nécessaire à la mobilité sociale. Durant l'année scolaire 1972/73, 31.000 élèves du secondaire (66% de l'effectif total) étaient

Schéma 6.1
Croissance en nombre des écoles secondaires, 1963-1983




inscrits dans les écoles privées. En 1982/83, les inscriptions y ont augmenté à près de 98.000 (84% de l'effectif total). Les écoles privées secondaires comprenaient alors 36 écoles de congrégations religieuses, et plus de 200 écoles laïques (établissements commerciaux assujettis à l'impôt).

L'enseignement secondaire n'est pas lié de manière significative à des objectifs formulés par le secteur public. Le rôle dominant des écoles privées limite le degré auquel le gouvernement peut assigner des objectifs nationaux à l'enseignement secondaire.

### 6.1.2 Structure et Programmes

L'enseignement secondaire a deux niveaux de décision et d'administration. Le premier est constitué par la structure gouvernementale pour l'administration

des écoles secondaires ; le deuxième, par le groupe des écoles non organisées et, à bien des égards, autonomes.

La gestion est confiée au Ministère de l'Education Nationale, par l'intermédiaire de la Direction de l'Enseignement Secondaire.* Le Service chargé de l'aménagement des programmes et de la formation en cours d'emploi des enseignants est, aux fins de décentralisation, transféré à l'Institut Pédagogique National (IPN). Celui-ci est chargé de la mise en place de la Réforme éducative et de la formation initiale du personnel enseignant et d'encadrement du secondaire. En vertu de la récente réorganisation du Ministère, des responsabilités de gestion seront décentralisées et assumées au niveau régional. Quatre bureaux régionaux ont été créés pour superviser l'enseignement public et privé dans des régions spécifiques et pour coordonner le travail des inspecteurs départementaux. Etant donné le grand nombre d'écoles privées, la gestion de l'enseignement secondaire n'est plus assurée au niveau national. Le seul contrôle direct du gouvernement sur l'ensemble du système s'exerce par l'organisation nationale des examens de fin d'études. Il n'y a pas de procédures prévues pour le contrôle de la qualité de l'enseignement dispensé dans les écoles secondaires.

En 1982/83, les 290 écoles secondaires fonctionnant en Haïti étaient réparties comme suit : 26 écoles publiques, 228 écoles laïques privées et 36 écoles congréganistes privées. Les écoles sont censées être "reconnues d'utilité publique" par le gouvernement pour pouvoir fonctionner, mais beaucoup d'écoles ignorent cette règle, sans que le gouvernement essaie de restreindre cette pratique.

Chaque directeur d'école est responsable de l'administration de son école. Il est chargé du recrutement et de la supervision des enseignants, de l'admission des élèves, du programme scolaire, de la gestion financière, et généralement il enseigne dans quelques classes. Les antécédents professionnelles des directeurs ne sont généralement pas connus. Mais des éducateurs bien informés s'accordent à dire que la plupart des directeurs d'écoles n'ont pas de formation spécifique en matière de gestion d'écoles ou de contrôle des enseignants.

On peut voir dans le Tableau 6.1 la courbe de l'augmentation des inscriptions dans l'enseignement secondaire de 1973 à 1983. Les inscriptions dans les écoles publiques augmentaient d'environ 22% (de 15.760 à 19.253) alors que celles des écoles privées augmentaient de 175% (de 35.414 à 97.828).

Pour l'année scolaire 1982/1983, environ 67% des élèves ayant terminé la sixième année d'école primaire sont entrés dans le secondaire. L'admission au

* Division de la Direction général de l'Education Nationale.

secondaire se fait sur la base d'un examen. Dans l'ensemble, il y a autant de filles que de garçons inscrits au secondaire. Sur un total de 117.081 pour l'année scolaire 1982/83 il y avait 59.272 garçons (51%) et 57.809 (49%) filles. Cependant, la proportion des filles diminue de façon significative dans les classes supérieures, comme le montre le schéma 6.2. Des différences liées à l'âge surgissent également entre filles et garçons. Il est plus fréquent que les garçons poursuivent leurs études au-delà de 18 ans.

Tableau 6.1

**Elèves Inscrits dans l'Enseignement Secondaire public et privé, de 1973 à 1983**

| Année Scolaire | Ecoles Publiques | | Ecoles Privées | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Nombre | Pourcentage | Nombre | Pourcentage | Total |
| 1973/74 | 15.760 | 30,8 | 35.414 | 62,2 | 51.174 |
| 1974/75 | 14.405 | 27,5 | 37.997 | 72,5 | 52.402 |
| 1975/76 | 13.391 | 24,3 | 41.822 | 75,7 | 55.213 |
| 1976/77 | 13.776 | 24,7 | 42.040 | 75,3 | 55.816 |
| 1977/78 | 14.458 | 19,9 | 58.193 | 80,1 | 72.651 |
| 1978/79 | 15.474 | 19,1 | 65.386 | 80,9 | 80.860 |
| 1979/80 | 18.341 | 20,9 | 69.339 | 79,1 | 87.680 |
| 1980/81 | 17.293 | 17,9 | 79.303 | 82,1 | 96.596 |
| 1981/82 | 15.868 | 16,1 | 82.702 | 83,9 | 98.570 |
| 1982/83 | 19.253 | 16,4 | 97.828 | 83,6 | 117.081 |

Source : Ministère de l'enseignement

Les épreuves du Baccalauréat I et II sont préparées par le Ministère de l'Education Nationale et ont lieu à la fin des classes de rhétorique et de philosophie. L'historique des réussites ou des échecs ne révèle aucune tendance nettement perceptible.

Les pourcentages de réussite de 1980 à 1984 étaient respectivement de 21, 23, 37, 45 et 19 pour la rhétorique ou baccalauréat première partie et de 57, 56, 89, 92 et 43 pour la philosophie ou baccalauréat deuxième partie.

Sur 100 élèves qui entrent dans le cycle secondaire, 33% réussissent en rhéto. Environ 21% réussissent en philo ou au baccalauréat 2ème partie. La rhéto constitue le "goulot d'étranglement" où de nombreux élèves sont écartés de l'enseignement secondaire. Soixante-sept pourcent de la cohorte initiale achèvent au moins les cinqs premières années de l'enseignement secondaire, avec des redoublements d'environ 10% et des abandons de 5% à 9% seulement après



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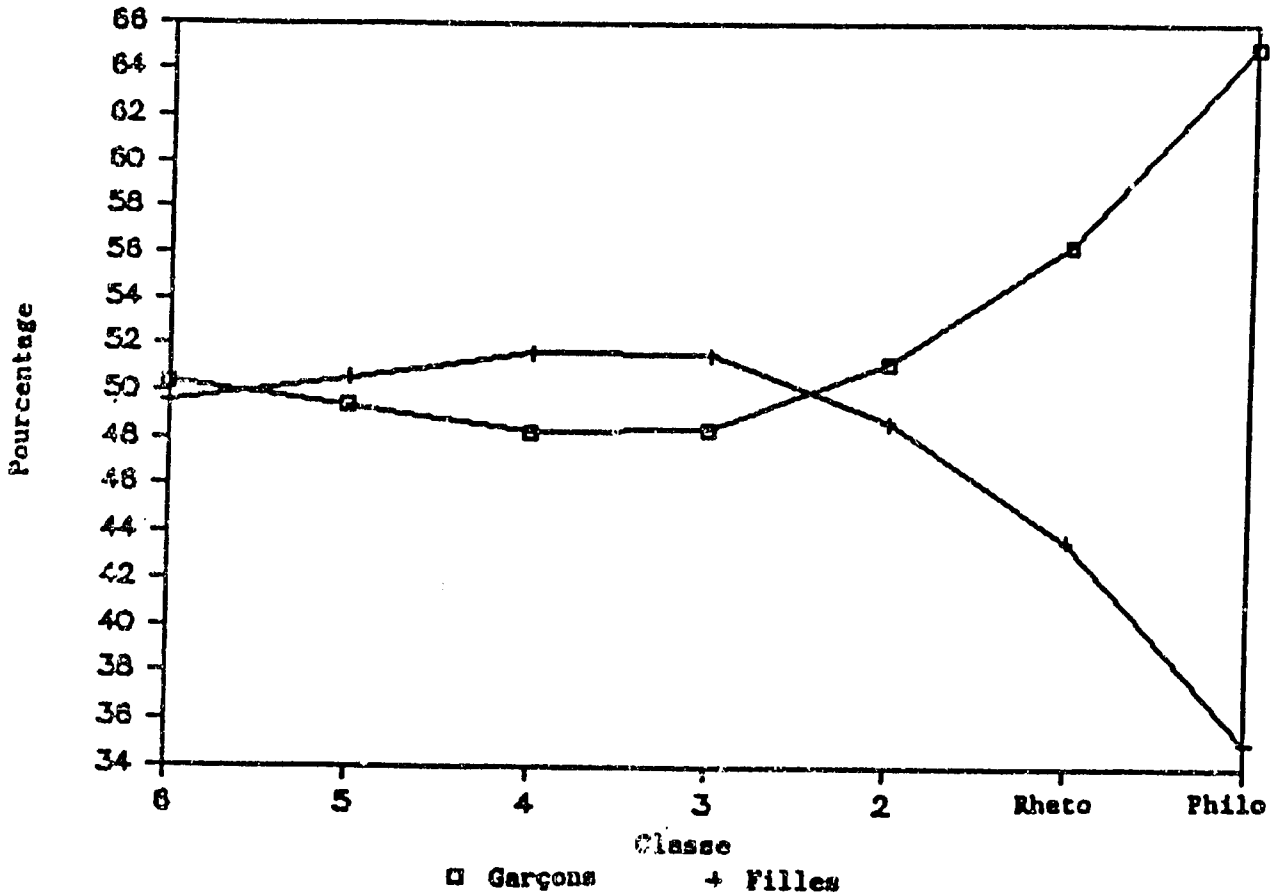


Schéma 6.2

**Pourcentage des élèves du Secondaire par classe et par sexe.**

chaque classe. Bien que seulement un cinquième des élèves inscrits au départ arrivent à compléter leur enseignement secondaire et à recevoir le diplôme de philosophie, les deux-tiers arrivent jusqu'à la classe de rhéto.

Une expansion de l'enseignement primaire aura pour conséquence une augmentation de la demande d'éducation au niveau secondaire. Le plan biennal 1984-1986 de l'enseignement prévoit une moyenne de croissance annuelle d'environ 10% des inscriptions au secondaire entre les années scolaires 1984/85 et 1990/91. En d'autres termes les inscriptions doubleraient en sept ans (tableau 6.2). Cette croissance au secondaire correspondrait à une diminution de la proportion d'élèves fréquentant les écoles publiques, alors que celle des écoles privées atteindrait 90% en 1991.

Une estimation du nombre d'enseignants peut être faite à partir du nombre de chaires existantes (approximativement huit heures de cours par semaine). Les faibles salaires obligent les enseignants à tenir deux ou plusieurs chaires dans la même école ou dans des écoles différentes. Le nombre de chaires pour l'année scolaire 1982/83 était de 5.367. Le taux moyen de croissance annuelle

Tableau 6.2

Prévisions sur le nombre d'inscriptions dans les écoles secondaires, 1984-91 (Milliers d'étudiants)

| | 1984/85 | 1985/86 | 1986/87 | 1987/88 | 1988/89 | 1989/90 | 1990/91 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Prévisions sur le nombre d'inscriptions | 141,9 | 156,2 | 171,8 | 189,0 | 207,9 | 228,7 | 251,6 |
| en classe de Rhétorique (%) | 12,8 | 14,0 | 15,4 | 7,0 | 8,7 | 20,6 | 22,6 |
| en classe de Philosophie (%) | 4,0 | 4,4 | 4,7 | 5,2 | 5,6 | 6,1 | 6,6 |
| Pourcentage dans les Ecoles Publiques (%) | 15,1 | 14.,5 | 13,7 | 13,0 | 12,2 | 11,6 | 10,9 |

Source: Plan d'Enseignement Biennal, 1984-86

des chaires a été d'environ 6% durant cette dernière décennie, alors que celui des inscriptions d'élèves était de 10%. Pendant cette même année scolaire (1982/83), seulement 12% environ des chaires étaient détenues par des femmes, dont seulement 9% dans les lycées.

Environ 43% des chaires des écoles privées et 18% des chaires des écoles publiques sont détenues par des enseignants "qualifiés", si le terme inclut universitaires et normaliens. Mais la majorité des enseignants d'écoles privées ou publiques n'ont tout au plus qu'un simple diplôme d'enseignement secondaire. Une estimation du nombre annuel de nouvelles chaires, devant résulter des phénomènes naturels de renouvellement du personnel (retraite, démissions) ou d'une augmentation des inscriptions, varie entre 1.038 pour l'année scolaire 1984/85 et 1.838 pour 1990/91. L'Ecole normale supérieure n'est pas en mesure de former un nombre suffisant de nouveaux enseignants.

Bien que l'accessibilité se soit accrue, la structure et le contenu des programmes demeurent élitistes en orientation et mettent l'accent sur des connaissances qui ne serviront qu'au nombre limités d'élèves qui terminent le cycle secondaire et entrent à l'université.

La qualité de l'enseignement varie beaucoup d'une école à l'autre. Les effets combinés du nombre accru d'élèves insuffisamment préparés à

l'enseignement secondaire, de programmes surchargés et dépassés, de directeurs parfois indifférents ou non qualifiés, des faibles salaires du personnel enseignant, d'installations scolaires inadaptées et surpeuplées autorisent à penser que le fonctionnement du système éducatif laisse à désirer. Rien ne permet d'espérer l'adoption de méthodes d'enseignement différentes de celle qui consiste à mémoriser les cours du professeur ou les textes fournis.

Environ 9,4% du budget de l'enseignement, soit environ 1,8 million de dollars, est dépensé pour l'enseignement secondaire en 1984/85. Ce qui donne, pour l'estimation de 21.300 élèves, 85 dollars environ par élève par an. Les élèves achètent eux-mêmes leurs livres et uniformes et payent annuellement de 3 dollars comme contribution aux frais de fonctionnement de l'école.

Dans les écoles privées, les coûts varient largement. La plupart d'entre elles font payer mensuellement une scolarité pouvant aller de 8 à 30 dollars ou plus. Les élèves paient leurs livres et uniformes, et une contribution aux frais de fonctionnement allant de 2 à 5 dollars l'an. Avec une scolarité moyenne d'environ 125 dollars l'an par école privée secondaire, le coût global de l'enseignement privé tourne autour de 12,1 millions de dollars, sans compter livres scolaires, uniformes, transports et autres dépenses. Ces dernières représentent une somme supplémentaire de 40 à 200 dollars par an. La plupart de ces fonds sont payés par les parents. Quelques écoles privées offrent, quoique rarement, des bourses. L'assistance des donateurs à l'enseignement secondaire a été assez faible ces dernières années.

## 6.2 LES CONTRAINTES

Le bas niveau et la distribution non équitable des revenus constituent les principaux obstacles à l'évolution de l'enseignement secondaire. Les coûts de l'enseignement étant, principalement, à la charge des familles, leurs faibles revenus personnels et le peu d'espoir de les améliorer, éteindront pour de nombreux jeunes les chances d'y accéder et mettront un plafond aux frais d'inscription et de scolarité des écoles privées. Ce qui limite les possibilités de réformer l'enseignement secondaire en augmentant et en améliorant ses installations scolaires, et en le rendant capable d'attirer et de retenir des enseignants compétents par des salaires plus élevés.

## 6.3 PROBLEMES POSES

Les données présentées ci-dessus constituent la base à partir de laquelle seront examinés les problèmes de l'enseignement secondaire.

Efficacité externe. L'efficacité externe a deux dimensions : (a) mettre l'élève en mesure d'accéder à des études supérieures ou à un emploi,

et (b) établir un rapport direct entre le contenu des cours et les connaissances et compétences requises en vue d'une bonne performance au travail.

Les élèves devraient être suffisamment bien préparés pour réussir le passage à l'enseignement supérieur. En fait beaucoup de ceux qui réussissent à leur examen de baccalauréat ne sont pas admis à l'Université, et les rares élus sont souvent obligés de suivre des cours de rattrapage.

La majorité des élèves des écoles secondaires ne vont pas plus loin. Par conséquent, la préparation de ces élèves à un emploi futur devrait constituer le but principal de l'enseignement secondaire. Les prévisions (voir chapitre 2) indiquent une demande annuelle en main-d'oeuvre pour 1.300 emplois requérant une formation secondaire. Selon les inscriptions au secondaire et les données disponibles, il faut estimer qu'environ 2.900 de ses diplômés arriveront chaque année sur le marché de l'emploi. A ceux-ci il faut ajouter ceux, plus nombreux encore, qui n'ont pas réussi leurs examens de fin d'études. Le développement rapide et non-planifié de l'enseignement secondaire n'aura pas beaucoup contribué à la résolution des problèmes économiques du pays ni à ceux de l'emploi. Le programme classique du secondaire fournit des connaisances et des compétences qui ne correspondent pas aux qualifications requises sur le marché de l'emploi. Il semble simplement étendre ou consolider les connaissances de base de l'école primaire. L'étude du français, de l'espagnol et de l'anglais--quand encore elle développe une certaine maîtrise--constitue certainement un avantage pour la recherche d'un emploi, mais surtout en milieu urbain.

L'enseignement secondaire en Haïti bénéficie d'investissements publics et privés. Il procure d'importants avantages individuels et sociaux à ceux qui y participent ; il peut même offrir des avantages économiques, pour les jeunes gens capables d'étudier et de travailler à l'étranger. Mais du point de vue de l'économie nationale, l'inefficacité externe de l'enseignement secondaire est manifeste, et il faut se demander si cette croissance des dépenses représente la meilleure utilisation des ressources.

Efficacité interne. La délivrance de diplôme de fin d'études du secondaire n'est pas basée sur la fréquentation de la classe pendant un nombre précis d'année comme c'est le cas aux Etats Unis. Le critère déterminant est bien plutôt les seules notes obtenues lors des examens du baccalauréat. On ne s'attend pas à ce que tous les élèves maîtrisent les matières enseignées. En conséquence la déperdition scolaire à différents stades de l'enseignement secondaire n'est pas considérée comme une preuve de l'inefficacité interne du système, mais comme un processus normal. C'est pourquoi en Haïti, l'efficacité interne signifie donner un minimum d'éducation à un nombre relativement grand

d'élèves.

Une année d'enseignement dans un lycée public coûte au gouvernement environ 85 dollars par élève. Dans les écoles privées, les parents paient une scolarité annuelle variant entre 72 et 270 dollars, et même beaucoup plus à certaines écoles. C'est relativement peu pour une année d'enseignement secondaire. Même si la qualité de l'enseignement dans beaucoup d'écoles laisse à désirer, le rapport coût-efficacité reste positif. Surtout s'il est pris en considération quelques bonnes écoles du pays où l'élève peut recevoir un enseignement de qualité supérieure à la moyenne nationale. En 1984, environ 65% des élèves du Nouveau Collège Bird ont réussi au baccalauréat I, alors que la moyenne nationale était de moins de 20%.

La plus importante cause d'inefficacité est un programme trop chargé comprenant beaucoup trop de matières différentes. L'efficacité interne pourrait être fortement accrue par l'amélioration des méthodes pédagogiques, par la diminution du nombre de matières au profit d'une meilleure concentration sur les sujets jugés essentiels. Ceci devrait entraîner une réduction du nombre de manuels scolaires.

Accès et équité. Le développement rapide de l'enseignement secondaire en Haïti a permis à certaines catégories sociales de la population d'en bénéficier alors que cela n'était pas le cas auparavant. La proportion de jeunes âgés de 13 à 20 ans qui fréquentent l'école secondaire est actuellement d'environ 12%, alors qu'elle était d'environ 4% en 1960. On estime, sur la base du coût des écoles et des revenus personnels des familles que les possibilités d'accès à l'enseignement secondaire ont été étendues à une classe moyenne plutôt mal définie qui comprend les petits propriétaires terriens, les propriétaires de petits commerces et les travailleurs salariés du secteur moderne. L'accès à l'enseignement secondaire des enfants des petits propriétaires terriens, des métayers et des ouvriers agricoles ne constitue malheureusement pas une règle générale. Pour les classes les plus basses, le problème de l'inégalité d'accès existe dès l'enseignement primaire et n'a toujours pas été résolu.

Le développement de l'enseignement secondaire a favorisé les régions situées autour de la capitale. Les jeunes ruraux doivent faire une demande pour être admis dans une école à Port-au-Prince ou dans l'un des grands centres urbains du pays, ce qui entraîne pour les familles rurales d'injustes conséquences sociales et financières. En fait les inégalités provenant de la localisation géographique des établissement scolaires sont évidentes.

Haïti a fait des progrès en ce qui concerne l'égalité des sexes dans les écoles d'enseignement secondaire. Il a déjà été mentionné que la proportion des garçons et des filles sur le total des inscriptions était respectivement en

1982/83 de 51% et 49%, mais qu'il y avait moins de chances que les filles poursuivent leurs études au fur et à mesure qu'avancent leurs âges. La conséquence est que dans les classes supérieures elles sont sous-représentées.

Administration et planification. L'influence du secteur privé sur les stratégies officielles est déterminante étant donné le rôle dominant qu'il joue. Le manque d'organisation qui caractérise l'ensemble des écoles privées s'ajoute aux complexités qui naissent de la division de l'enseignement en secteur public et secteur privé. Le gouvernement ne peut pas veiller à l'application de normes ou de règlements généraux à l'intérieur de toutes les écoles privées. Quand la Réforme atteindra le secondaire, il sera difficile pour le gouvernement de définir des buts ou objectifs communs ou même d'initier la planification d'un programme préliminaire.

Coûts et financement. Le faible rôle joué par le secteur public dans l'enseignement secondaire est étroitement lié à la faible participation du gouvernement aux frais y afférant et cette situation semble ne pas devoir changer dans un avenir prochain.

Le maintien des coûts généraux, réalisé particulièrement grâce aux bas salaires alloués aux enseignants, a permis un rapide développement de l'enseignement secondaire. Ceci a accéléré la création des écoles privées d'enseignement secondaire, dont les frais de fonctionnement, le capital d'investissement, et les profits viennent de la différence entre les rentrées dues aux droits d'inscription et le montant des salaires des enseignants. Cependant, toute amélioration de la qualité de l'enseignement paraît inconcevable sans une augmentation du nombre d'enseignants ainsi que d'une amélioration du niveau des salaires par l'addition de certaines primes à ces salaires.

Le gouvernement n'a pas les moyens de financer le développement de l'enseignement secondaire. Le budget courant ne lui alloue pas de fonds qui lui permettraient d'accorder plus d'assistance aux écoles privées. Il ne faudrait pas s'attendre à une aide externe importante car les donateurs extérieurs ne classent habituellement pas l'enseignement secondaire parmi les hautes priorités entrant dans leur stratégie d'aide au développement. Cependant, la campagne menée actuellement pour freiner l'accroissement des dépenses au niveau secondaire sera perdue d'avance sans quelque apport financier extérieur pour inciter à l'établissement de mécanismes de développement de l'enseignement, de stabilisation des coûts, et de contrôle de la qualité. Sans cet apport extérieur il y aurait une baisse de la qualité de l'enseignement et même un fléchissement des taux de rendement des investissements faits dans le domaine de l'enseignement secondaire.



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## 6.4 CONCLUSIONS

Conclusion 1 - Les Concepts. Il semble urgent de poursuivre et d'accélérer les efforts entrepris pour modifier le concept général du cycle de l'enseignement secondaire. Deux fins doivent être poursuivies : premièrement, adapter l'enseignement secondaire aux changements entraînés par la Réforme de l'enseignement primaire, et deuxièmement, prendre des mesures susceptibles d'améliorer l'efficacité externe de l'enseignement secondaire.

Conclusion 2 - Le Secteur privé. Il serait nécessaire de mettre en place un mécanisme de coopération entre les différentes écoles du secteur privé en vue d'assurer une meilleure utilisation des ressources existantes et d'en générer de nouvelles, d'améliorer la qualité de l'instruction, et d'obtenir la participation de tous au travail de redéfinition de l'enseignement secondaire qui s'impose.

Conclusion 3 - Les Ressources. L'amélioration de la qualité et de l'adéquation de l'enseignement secondaire ne peut être envisagée qu'avec une allocation supplémentaire de ressources. Les ressources nécessaires à cette amélioration ne peuvent être fournies par le gouvernement.

## 6.5 RECOMMANDATIONS

Deux recommandations générales, basées sur les précédentes conclusions, seront faites à propos de l'enseignement secondaire. Pour permettre une approche équilibrée de la question de développement de l'ensemble du système éducatif, il faudrait identifier les relations qui existent entre ses différentes parties. Négliger les besoins de l'enseignement secondaire, c'est renoncer aux bénéfices à tirer des investissements faits dans l'enseignement primaire et mettre en péril les programmes d'enseignement et de formation post-secondaire.

Recommandation 1 - Réforme. Intensifier les démarches pour reformuler l'enseignement secondaire.

L'aide des donateurs sera nécessaire pour compléter les ressources limitées du gouvernement. Les possibilités d'action de l'Institut Pédagogique National (IPN) et du Ministère de l'Education Nationale (MEN) doivent être renforcées pour entreprendre les planifications de base, nécessaires préalables à l'application de la réforme à l'enseignement secondaire. Ceci implique l'étude approfondie de ce qui se fait actuellement dans les écoles secondaires par rapport aux possibilités d'emploi.

L'assistance des donateurs peut servir, par exemple, à fournir des fonds pour :

- des études de planification de base, en particulier des travaux de recherche sur le genre d'emploi qu'obtiennent les élèves ayant quitté et achevé le cycle de l'école secondaire ;
- la formation du personnel national en matière de direction, de planification, et d'établissement de programmes des écoles secondaires ;
- la réalisation de colloques nationaux sur l'enseignement secondaire réunissant les éducateurs, les employeurs et les citoyens concernés ; et
- l'envoi de consultants et/ou l'affectation d'une assistance technique de plus longue durée, lorsque cela est jugé nécessaire.

A moins d'une définition plus claire des objectifs de l'enseignement secondaire, il sera impossible de déterminer avec quelle efficacité les ressources sont actuellement allouées, de se rendre compte des progrès réalisés, ou de planifier des activités spécifiques pour résoudre les problèmes constatés.

Recommandation 2 - Le Secteur Privé. Créer un organisme national de l'enseignement privé pour promouvoir une meilleure organisation de l'enseignement secondaire privé et pour tirer le meilleur parti de l'initiative privée.

Une telle entité pourrait prendre la forme d'une association nationale des écoles privées secondaires. Son objet pourrait être l'amélioration de l'enseignement secondaire par :

- l'établissement, pour les écoles, de règles de base concernant les coûts, la gestion, le travail et les salaires de l'enseignant ;
- l'application de techniques de contrôle de la qualité par l'utilisation d'un système d'incitation ;
- la diminution des coûts par la coopération dans l'utilisation commune des ressources et par l'application de systèmes communs d'approvisionnements en livres, matériel et équipement ;
- l'assistance aux écoles ayant le plus besoin d'aide ;
- l'organisation des programmes de recyclage à l'intention des directeurs d'écoles et des enseignants ;
- l'identification des plans d'assurance peu coûteux pour les enseignants afin de leur garantir certaines prestations en complément de leurs salaires, tels les assurances de groupe ; et

- la fourniture de crédits, à long terme et à bas taux d'intérêts pour permettre aux écoles existantes de réaliser des expansions et améliorations et pour permettre à de nouvelles écoles de se créer dans les zones les moins desservies du pays.

Cette association serait plus efficace si elle opérait comme une corporation à but non lucratif. Ses dépenses de fonctionnement pourraient être financées par des droits d'affiliation des écoles membres. Elle pourrait bénéficer de réductions d'impôts et tirer des revenus de la production et de la vente de livres et de matériel, et d'autres services et produits éducationnels.

Des donateurs pourraient être sollicités au début afin de faciliter la constitution du capital requis et d'aider à l'organisation de l'association. Des fonds doivent être recueillis et utilisés pour accroître la participation des écoles privées à cette association. L'aide des donateurs pourrait aussi servir à financer la mise en place d'infrastructures, telles des laboratoires, des centres de formation, et des centres pour les médias. Ces installations pourraient être le point de départ de nouveaux efforts visant à rendre un enseignement de qualité accessible à un plus grand nombre d'élèves au moyen d'une bonne utilisation de la technologie.

Ces recommandations s'appuient principalement sur l'initiative du secteur privé. Il devrait cependant être entièrement possible de faire en sorte que les lycées publiques bénéficient également de ces expériences, ceci afin d'éviter tout tendance à introduire de nouvelles disparités dans l'enseignement secondaire.

## CHAPTER PREFACE

Chapter 6, "Secondary Education," was reviewed in Haiti on April 10, 1986 by Mr. Jean St. Fort, Deputy Director of Secondary Education in the Ministry of Education, with the collaboration of Mr. Stephen Anzalone, IEES/Institute of International Research.

Corrections of factual detail and statistical presentation were made at the outset of the session. The reviewer found the chapter to provide a useful overview of the status of the secondary education system, but suggested fuller Haitian participation in future evaluations of this type.

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# 6.0 SECONDARY EDUCATION*

Secondary Education is one of the most rapidly growing sectors of the educational system. This critical element of formal education is under pressure due to high social demand, rapid and loosely coordinated expansion, rising costs, uneven quality, and uncertainty about future directions.

This chapter examines general secondary education; the program offered by the public lycées and private colleges. Other branches of secondary education, such as training of primary school teachers and second-level technical and vocational education, are addressed in other chapters.

General secondary education is academically oriented, deriving from the French model. At present, it follows the traditional 6-year cycle of primary education. A complete secondary cycle lasts for 7 years. (When the Education Reform reaches secondary education in the next decade, the secondary cycle will last 3 years and will follow the 10 years of basic education, the Ecole Fondamentale.) The details of the Reform are discussed in Chapter 5. After completing the sixth year of the secondary cycle, referred to as Rhétorique or Rhéto, students may sit for the Baccalauréat, First Part examination. Success on this examination leads to the award of the first secondary school completion certificate (Certificat d'Etudes Secondaire, Première Partie), and admission to a seventh terminal year called Philosophie or Philo. Students completing this year sit for the Baccalauréat, Second Part examination. Success on this examination qualifies the students to receive the second school completion certificate (Certificat d'Etudes Secondaires, Deuxième Partie), and to apply for admission to higher education.

This chapter first describes the present status of secondary education. This educational cycle is then analyzed with respect to external efficiency (relevance), internal efficiency, access and equity, administration and supervision, and costs and financing. Several important needs and constraints in the area of secondary education are then identified. These needs include rethinking, in a fundamental way, the purpose, structure, and content of secondary education; raising educational quality, while equalizing opportunities through the system; and finding ways to contain costs. The analysis suggests two recommendations geared toward secondary education to improve the overall efficiency of the education sector.

## 6.1 STATUS

This section describes the development of secondary education. It also examines national goals and strategies for secondary education with respect to

*The draft for this chapter was prepared by Stephen J. Anzalone, Institute for International Research, Inc.

administration, enrollment, teachers, curriculum, examinations, instruction, facilities, equipment, costs and financing.

### 6.1.1 Context

In the early 19th century, not long after independence, Alexander Pétion established the first public lycée in Haiti. He also encouraged the opening of private schools for secondary education. By 1946, secondary education was offered in 20 schools. A more rapid expansion of secondary education then began, within the context of a wide movement for social progress and educational opportunity. By 1960, there were some 108 secondary schools with enrollment of about 22,000 students.

This growth was not sustained throughout the difficult times Haiti experienced during the 1960s. By 1970, for example, only two additional schools had been established, although total enrollment had doubled. From 1970 to 1983, however, the number of secondary schools and enrollment almost tripled. In 1982/83, Haiti's 290 secondary schools enrolled 117,000 students. The historical growth in the number of secondary schools since 1960 is summarized in Table 6.1 and Figure 6.1.

What is unique about the development of secondary education in Haiti is the growth of private schools in response to social demand for secondary education. In the 1972/73 school year, 31,078, or 66% of secondary students, were enrolled in private schools. In 1982/83, this enrollment had increased to 97,828, or 84% of all students.

During 1982/83, private secondary schools include 36 schools operated by different religious denominations and more than 200 secular schools. These latter schools are commercial establishments and are subject to taxes.

The present status of secondary education has been strongly influenced by the marketplace forces of supply and demand. The high social demand for education reflects the value Haitians place on "the educated person," and the perception that secondary education is a prerequisite for social mobility at home and abroad. This high social demand is accompanied by a willingness to bear the costs of secondary education whenever possible, sometimes at great sacrifice to the entire family.

Anyone who visits Haiti will recognize the high demand for secondary education, and the response of the private sector to meet this demand. In Port-au-Prince, especially, advertisements for secondary schools painted on public walls are pervasive.

In the past 2 1/2 decades, Haiti has achieved a dramatic fivefold increase in secondary school enrollment without significant investment by Government. In 1982/83, with 117,081 students enrolled in secondary schools, Government spent only about $1.8 million on secondary education. If Government was paying

TABLE 6.1

Number of Haitian Secondary Schools and Student Enrollments

1959 - 1983

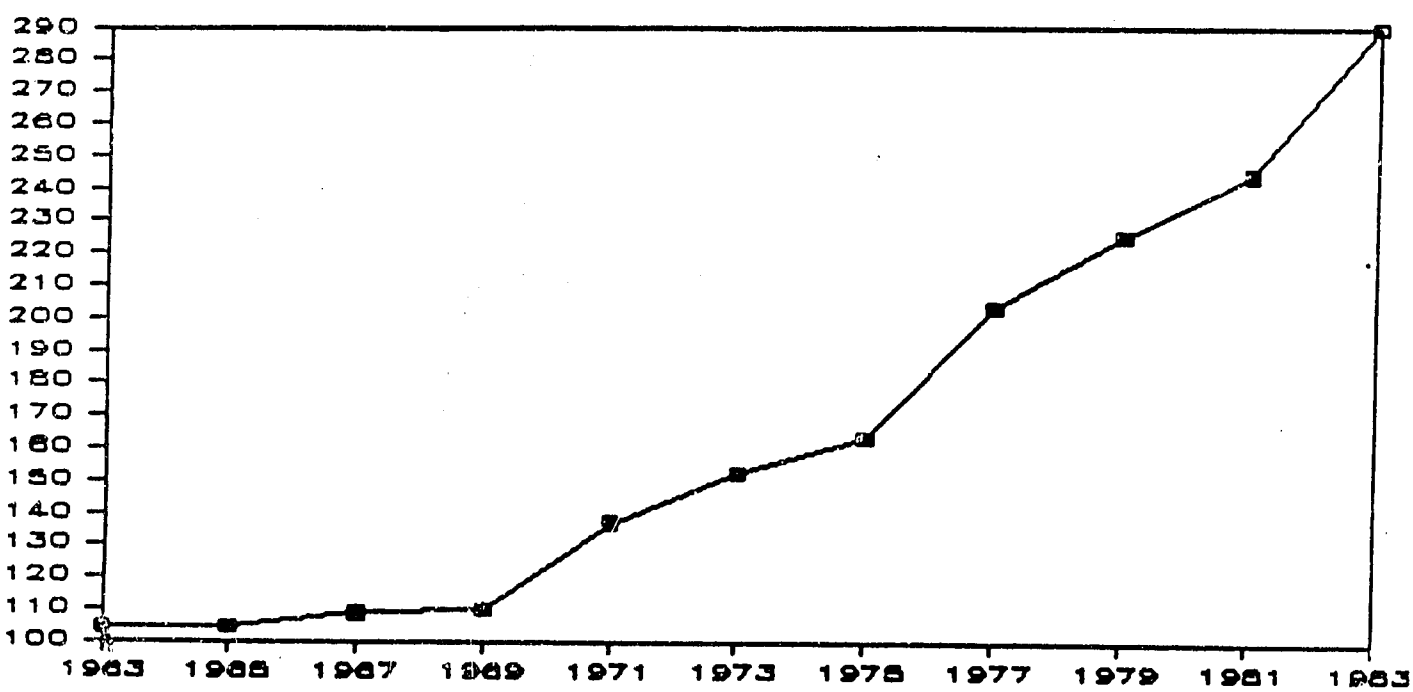
| Years | Schools | Enrollment |
|---|---|---|
| 1959/60 | 108 | 21,895 |
| 1961/62 | 108 | 22,907 |
| 1963/64 | 105 | 25,114 |
| 1965/66 | 105 | 27,173 |
| 1967/68 | 109 | 31,885 |
| 1969/70 | 110 | 42,051 |
| 1971/72 | 137 | 46,838 |
| 1973/74 | 152 | 52,042 |
| 1975/76 | 163 | 55,816 |
| 1977/78 | 203 | 80,680 |
| 1979/80 | 225 | 96,596 |
| 1981/82 | 244 | 98,570 |
| 1982/83 | 290 | 117,081 |

Source: Ministry of Education

FIGURE 6.1

Growth of Secondary Schools, 1963-83

(000s)




Source: Ministry of Education



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for all the students enrolled, it would cost another $9.1 million--which would require half the total Government budget for education.

Although market forces have been able to satisfy the growth of demand for secondary education, questions remain about the long-term implications of allocating resources through an unplanned market. Related concerns include: how the unorganized private sector will respond to concerns about the quality of education students are receiving, how long personal investments can keep up with rising costs, and the extent to which the system can be encouraged to modify a program of instruction that is not suited to national and individual educational needs.

### 6.1.2 National Goals and Strategies

The development of secondary education is not significantly influenced by publicly formulated goals, objectives, and strategies. The dominant role played by private secondary schools restricts the degree to which Government can plan and focus secondary education on national development objectives.

Haiti's third Five-Year Plan for Economic and Social Development, 1981-86, reflects the limits on Government's role in secondary education. The goals for secondary education are cautious, and the immediate objectives are modest. In part, this reflects the priorities being placed on the development of primary education, and the relatively low level of public revenues allocated to education in general.

The Plan's expressed goal for the development of secondary school education is qualitative and long-term: revision of secondary school education to make it more responsive to national realities. The strategies to accomplish this goal emphasize the development of technical education at the secondary school level and are discussed further in Chapter 10.

For the development of general secondary education during the Plan period, the Government's expressed objectives include:

- Extend secondary education in order to offer 10,000 new places each year, especially at the entry level and the second-to-final year.
- Decentralize secondary education, which is overly concentrated in two of the four regions of the country.

This expansion of secondary education would be partially facilitated by the following activities specified in the Plan:

- Construct five new lycées.
- Reconstruct and improve the four existing lycées.

To achieve the goal for the qualitative improvement of secondary education, the Plan cites intentions to:

- Encourage the revision of the content of secondary education to allow achievement of the Reform at the secondary level.
- Equip 10 lycées with science laboratories.
- Train 4,600 secondary school teachers (880 of whom will work in public schools).

Government's long-term vision for secondary education is discussed in the document La Réforme Educative: Eléments d'Information. The document states the following with respect to general secondary education:

> If, for the present, the principal effort is being directed to renovating primary education, we are not forgetting secondary education. It is necessary that students who receive reformed primary education have the opportunity for secondary education that will welcome and develop the aptitudes previously cultivated. This requires a systematic revision of our secondary education.
>
> Initially, we shall reinforce efforts underway to revise instruction in French and mathematics. This revision will be progressively extended to other disciplines.

The strategy to be followed in the reform of secondary education calls for a restructuring of the general secondary cycle. This is discussed in Section 6.2.2.

Government's Biennial Education Plan, 1984-86, indicates goals and possible strategies aimed at private schools. The Plan recognizes the need for a new legal and administrative arrangement for private schools, in order to achieve a unified national policy for education. It recommends the creation of an autonomous fund for educational development that would be administered jointly by the public and private sectors. Expenditures from this fund would be used to improve school facilities, and to provide assistance to those private schools having the most difficulty in employing and paying teachers.

The proposed strategy would attempt to guarantee a minimum salary for teachers in private schools. This strategy would also examine possible ways for the private sector to contribute to the development of public education. It proposes a better system for inspection of private schools, a mechanism to coordinate the private sector, and the revision of the 1974 statute on private education (see Chapter 5) to include the directions of the Reform.

Implementation of this strategy for a closer partnership between the public and private sectors, especially as it concerns secondary education, will be politically sensitive. With the dominance of the private sector at the secondary level, the successful and effective implementation of such a strategy will pose substantial problems.

### 6.1.3 Structure

Secondary education consists of two levels of authority and management responsibility. The first is the Government structure for administration of secondary schools. The second consists of the unorganized, and in many ways autonomous, group of secondary schools.

Management. The management of secondary education is officially the responsibility of the Ministry of Education. The basis of the Ministry's authority, together with new structural arrangements for managing secondary education, is included in the Presidential Decree of November 22, 1984. The decree reaffirms the power of the Ministry to authorize, regulate, and evaluate public and private secondary schools in the country.

The decree announced the following arrangements that relate to the management of secondary education:

1. The politically appointed position of Secretary of State for Secondary Education has been established. The Secretary's responsibilities include overall policymaking and managerial functions within the Ministry, with specific policy responsibility for secondary education.
2. General management of secondary education is located within the Office of the Director-General. Under the Director-General is an office specifically responsible for secondary education (La Direction de l'Enseignement Secondaire). The organization of this office, which is headed by a Director of Secondary Education, has yet to be defined, but will reportedly include five technical officers working on different aspects of secondary education.
3. Responsibility for preparing and administering the secondary school leaving examinations lies within a Section for School Administration (Service d'Administration Scolaire) that reports to the Director-General.

The recent reorganization of the Ministry continues the previous arrangement for decentralizing authority for curriculum development and inservice teacher education at the secondary level to the National Pedagogical Institute (Institut Pédagogique National - IPN). IPN will eventually formulate plans for restructuring secondary education to coordinate it with the Reform. These plans are discussed in Section 6.2.2.

The reorganization also calls for decentralizing management responsibilities, which are to be delegated to the regional level. Four Regional Offices will supervise public and private education in specific geographical regions. Their responsibilities will include directing the activities of the departmental school inspectors. The Regional Offices have yet to become fully operational. The Ministry intends to appoint 14-15 inspectors for secondary

education. Only one of the previous departmental inspectors has been reappointed. The Ministry is hoping to fill the inspectorate ranks with graduates of the secondary teachers training school (Ecole Normale Supérieure).

The management of secondary education has been hampered by frequent personnel changes within the Ministry, a shortage of qualified personnel at all levels, and inadequate financial resources. These conditions would make it difficult for the Ministry to ensure quality control, even if the majority of schools were part of the public sector. However, with the large numbers of private schools, the management of secondary education does not take place at the national level. Government's only direct control of the full system is through its authority based on the national school leaving examinations. There are no private sector procedures for quality control over secondary schools.

Schools. The basic unit of analysis of the structure of secondary education is the school. In 1982/83, 290 secondary schools were operating in Haiti. This included 26 public schools, 228 private secular schools, and 36 private schools managed by religious denominations.

Schools are supposed to be recognized by the Government in order to operate. Regulations concerning the operation of private schools were set forth in 1974. Many schools do not adhere to these regulations, and Government does not generally attempt to restrict the operation of non-recognized schools.

### 6.1.4 Program

The program of secondary education in both public and private schools lasts for 7 years. The grade sequence is sixth, fifth, fourth, third, second, rhétorique, and philosophie. Classes begin in October and end in June. The 3 trimesters comprise 162 days of instruction.

This subsection surveys the following aspects of the secondary school program in public and private schools: school administration, enrollment, teachers, curriculum, examinations, instruction, facilities, equipment, costs, and financing.

#### 6.1.4.1 School Administration

The administration of secondary schools, both public and private, is the responsibility of the school director. This person's duties include hiring and supervising teachers, directing student admissions, overseeing curriculum, regulating financial management, and participating in limited classroom teaching.

The Ministry requires that the director of a school be a Haitian citizen and a graduate of the Ecole Normale Supérieure with 5 years of teaching experience, or a university graduate with 10 years experience. Departures from these requirements are common.

No data are available on the backgrounds of school directors in Haiti. Informed educators generally agree, however, that most school directors have not had specific training in school management or teacher supervision.

In private secular schools, the school director is often the proprietor of the school. In the lower quality private schools, the caliber of school administration is said to be especially poor. Teachers receive little direction and financial considerations often take precedence over academics.

6.1.4.2 Enrollment

Enrollment in Haiti's secondary schools have been growing rapidly throughout the past decade. The growth of enrollment in public and private schools since 1973 is shown in Table 6.2. Between 1973 and 1983, enrollment in public schools increased by about 22% (from 15,760 to 19,253) and those in private schools by almost 176% (from 35,414 to 97,828).

TABLE 6.2

Student Enrollments in Secondary Education,

Public and Private

1973-83

| School Year | Public Schools | | Private Schools | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number | Percent | Number | Percent | |
| 1973/74 | 15,760 | 30.8 | 35,414 | 69.2 | 51,174 |
| 1974/75 | 14,405 | 27.5 | 37,997 | 72.5 | 52,402 |
| 1975/76 | 13,391 | 24.3 | 41,822 | 75.7 | 55,213 |
| 1976/77 | 13,776 | 24.7 | 42,040 | 75.3 | 55,816 |
| 1977/78 | 14,458 | 19.9 | 58,193 | 80.1 | 72,651 |
| 1978/79 | 15,474 | 19.1 | 65,386 | 80.9 | 80,860 |
| 1979/80 | 18,341 | 20.9 | 69,339 | 79.1 | 87,680 |
| 1980/81 | 17,293 | 17.9 | 79,303 | 82.1 | 96,596 |
| 1981/82 | 15,868 | 16.1 | 82,702 | 83.9 | 98,570 |
| 1982/83 | 19,253 | 16.4 | 97,828 | 83.6 | 117,081 |

Source: Ministry of Education



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Students enroll in secondary school after completing the sixth year of primary school. In 1982/83, about 67% of students who completed primary school during the previous school year entered secondary education. With the elimination of the primary school leaving certificate (discussed in Chapter 5), admission to secondary schools is determined on the basis of entrance examinations offered by the schools. Competition is intense for places in prestigious private schools. Some schools have places for as few as 10% of the applicants. Inevitably, many students and parents are forced to lower their expectations by choosing schools with lesser reputations. By most accounts, family connections are a significant factor in secondary school admission.

Since most secondary schools are located in and around the capital and larger cities, students in rural areas must leave home to attend these schools. Boarding facilities at schools are extremely rare. Generally, students live near the school with relatives or other adult caretakers. In many cases, students live alone, without adult supervision, sometimes in the company of other students.

Characteristics. Students begin secondary school at about age 13. Table 6.3 shows estimates of the average age of students in each grade, and Table 6.4 indicates the distribution of age groups in public and private schools during the 1982/83 school year. The information in the table suggests that in order to complete school, a student must exercise a considerable amount of self-determination.

TABLE 6.3

Estimated Ages of Secondary School Students by Class

| | 6th | 5th | 4th | 3rd | 2nd | Rhéto | Philo |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Average Student Age | 13-14 | 14-15 | 15-16 | 16-17 | 17-18 | 18-19 | 19-20 |

Source: Interviews with school directors

Aggregate secondary school enrollment reflects a balance between male and female students. The total of 117,081 secondary school enrollment for 1982/83 included 59,272 (51%) male students and 57,809 (49%) female students. Female students, however, tend to become underrepresented in the higher grade levels, as is illustrated in Table 6.5. At the terminal grade, female students accounted for only 35% of the total 1982/83 enrollment. Age differences between male and female students also exist at the secondary level. The distribution of male and female students by age in secular and religious schools is shown in Table 6.6, which indicates that male students are more

TABLE 6.4

Distribution of Secondary School Students by Age, Public and Private Schools, 1982/83

| Age | Public | Private | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| Less than 12 | 15 | 838 | 853 |
| 12 | 157 | 3,506 | 3,663 |
| 13 | 593 | 5,890 | 6,483 |
| 14 | 1,249 | 8,945 | 10,194 |
| 15 | 1,830 | 10,848 | 12,678 |
| 16 | 2,835 | 13,316 | 16,151 |
| 17 | 2,972 | 14,226 | 17,198 |
| 18 | 2,921 | 12,789 | 15,710 |
| 19 | 2,574 | 9,780 | 12,354 |
| 20 | 1,701 | 7,159 | 8,860 |
| 21 | 1,138 | 4,389 | 5,527 |
| 22 | 628 | 2,507 | 3,135 |
| 23 | 360 | 1,681 | 2,041 |
| 24+ | 280 | 1,954 | 2,234 |

Source: Ministry of Education

TABLE 6.5

Number and Percentage of Total Enrollment of Male and Female Secondary School Students by Grade 1982/83

| | Male | | Female | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Grade | Number | Percent | Number | Percent |
| 6th | 15,658 | 50.4 | 15,401 | 49.6 |
| 5th | 11,546 | 49.4 | 11,829 | 50.6 |
| 4th | 9,834 | 48.3 | 10,531 | 51.7 |
| 3rd | 7,798 | 48.4 | 8,304 | 51.6 |
| 2nd | 6,305 | 51.3 | 5,977 | 48.7 |
| Rhéto | 5,931 | 56.4 | 4,584 | 43.6 |
| Philo | 2,200 | 65.0 | 1,183 | 35.0 |
| Total | 59,272 | 50.6 | 57,809 | 49.4 |

Source: Ministry of Education



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Table 6.6
Age Distribution of Male and Female Students
in Secular and Religious Secondary Schools
1982-83

| Age | Secular | | | Religious | | | Total | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Male | Female | Total | Male | Female | Total | Male | Female | Total |
| -12 years | 342 | 251 | 593 | 91 | 169 | 260 | 433 | 420 | 853 |
| 12 | 1,285 | 1,153 | 2,438 | 293 | 952 | 1,225 | 1,558 | 2,105 | 3,663 |
| 13 | 2,375 | 2,195 | 4,570 | 525 | 1,388 | 1,913 | 2,900 | 3,583 | 6,483 |
| 14 | 3,905 | 4,118 | 8,023 | 751 | 1,420 | 2,171 | 4,656 | 5,538 | 10,194 |
| 15 | 5,016 | 5,649 | 10,665 | 710 | 1,303 | 2,013 | 5,726 | 6,952 | 12,678 |
| 16 | 7,034 | 7,230 | 14,264 | 800 | 1,087 | 1,887 | 7,834 | 8,317 | 16,151 |
| 17 | 7,586 | 7,904 | 15,490 | 747 | 961 | 1,708 | 8,333 | 8,865 | 17,198 |
| 18 | 7,288 | 7,015 | 14,303 | 696 | 711 | 1,407 | 7,984 | 7,726 | 15,710 |
| 19 | 6,250 | 4,989 | 11,239 | 563 | 552 | 1,115 | 6,813 | 5,541 | 12,354 |
| 20 | 4,508 | 3,493 | 8,001 | 523 | 336 | 859 | 5,031 | 3,829 | 8,860 |
| 21 | 3,032 | 2,106 | 5,138 | 216 | 173 | 389 | 3,248 | 2,279 | 5,527 |
| 22 | 1,763 | 1,116 | 2,879 | 144 | 112 | 256 | 1,907 | 1,228 | 3,135 |
| 23 | 1,236 | 620 | 1,856 | 85 | 100 | 185 | 1,321 | 720 | 2,041 |
| 24+ | 1,337 | 581 | 1,918 | 191 | 125 | 316 | 1,528 | 706 | 2,234 |
| Total | 52,957 | 48,420 | 101,377 | 6,315 | 9,389 | 15,704 | 59,272 | 57,809 | 117,081 |

Source: Ministry of Education

likely to continue studies after reaching age 18. The table also shows a larger number of female students than male students in religious schools and the opposite in secular schools.

Student Flow. One of the critical aspects in analyzing student enrollment is determining how students flow through the system. The pattern of repeating grades, dropping out of school, and being promoted to higher grades is some indication of the efficiency of the educational system at a particular level.

Student flow through secondary education was analyzed in Chapter 2 (Section 2.8.3.1), where it was indicated that out of every 1,000 students entering secondary school, about 330 (33%) complete rhéto and successfully pass the Baccalauréat I examination. About 230, or 21% of the entering students will continue through to philo and pass the Baccalauréat II examination. The Baccalauréat I is the principal point where students are removed from the secondary education sequence. About 675 students (67% of the entering cohorts) successfully complete the 5 years prior to rhéto and the Baccalauréat I. In the grades prior to rhéto, about 10% of students repeat each year and only 5 to 9% drop out after each grade. The rate of promotion is generally high in secondary education. Many students who do not perform well in a particular grade enroll at the next grade in less demanding schools rather than repeat the grade. Moreover, it appears evident that few students are made to repeat a grade twice.

Although secondary education operates in a way that enables only a fifth of all entering students to successfully complete the cycle, it does make it possible for nearly 70% to receive 11 grades of schooling. Even if students do not leave school after having succeeded on their examinations, completing the rhéto year apparently has a good deal of utility.

The Future. The expansion of primary education now under way will produce an associated increase in the demand for secondary education. The Biennial Education Plan, 1984-85, projects an average rate of growth of about 10% per year in secondary school enrollment between 1984/85 and 1990/91. This estimate reflects the average yearly growth of enrollments during the decade from 1973 to 1983. A 10% growth rate would mean that enrollment in secondary education would double in 7 years. Governmental projections for secondary school enrollments are contained in Table 6.7.

The projected growth in student enrollment also would result in a decline in the proportion of students attending public schools according to Table 6.7. The proportion of students enrolled in private schools is expected to reach 90% by 1991. These anticipated increases in enrollment for the next 6 or 7 years, together with the new schools and facilities required from the private sector



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TABLE 6.7

Projected Student Enrollment in Secondary Schools
1984-91
(Thousands of students)

| | 1984/85 | 1985/86 | 1986/87 | 1987/88 | 1988/89 | 1989/90 | 1990/91 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Projected Student Enrollment | 141.9 | 156.2 | 171.8 | 189.0 | 207.9 | 228.7 | 251.6 |
| Rhéto | 12.8 | 14.0 | 15.4 | 17.0 | 18.7 | 20.6 | 22.6 |
| Philo | 4.0 | 4.4 | 4.7 | 5.2 | 5.6 | 6.1 | 6.6 |
| Percentage in Public Schools | 15.1 | 14.5 | 13.7 | 13.0 | 12.2 | 11.6 | 10.9 |

Source: Plan Biennal d'Education, 1984-86

to accommodate this growth, certainly mark secondary education as a major growth industry in the Haitian economy.

6.1.4.3 Teachers

The exact number of secondary school teachers in Haiti is unknown. Teacher numbers may be estimated on the basis of "assignments," or chaires that they hold. A chaire corresponds to about 8 hours of teaching per week. The low salaries paid to secondary school teachers require teachers to hold two, three, or sometimes more chaires in one or more schools. Many also have non-teaching jobs. Some teachers reportedly contract for as many as 40 teaching hours per week. By most accounts, teaching loads of this size considerably reduce the quality of instruction.

The number of teaching chaires was 5,367 during the 1982/83 school year. The growth in the number of chaires throughout the past decade is shown in Table 6.8. The average annual rate of growth of chaires was about 6%. Student enrollment, however, grew at an average annual rate of 10% during the same period. In 1982/83, only about 12% of the teaching chaires were held by women--only 9% in the public lycées.

TABLE 6.8

Number and Percentage of Total Teaching Assignments in Public and Private Schools, 1973-83

| School Year | Public Schools | | Private Schools | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number | Percent | Number | Percent | |
| 1973/74 | 563 | 17.4 | 2,673 | 82.6 | 3,236 |
| 1974/75 | 602 | 18.6 | 2,634 | 81.4 | 3,236 |
| 1975/76 | 642 | 18.9 | 2,746 | 81.1 | 3,388 |
| 1976/77 | 621 | 18.7 | 2,703 | 81.9 | 3,324 |
| 1977/78 | 645 | 16.8 | 3,188 | 83.2 | 3,833 |
| 1978/79 | 621 | 16.1 | 3,228 | 83.9 | 3,849 |
| 1979/80 | 679 | 18.7 | 2,958 | 81.3 | 3,637 |
| 1980/81 | 730 | 18.1 | 3,301 | 81.9 | 4,034 |
| 1981/82 | 807 | 19.0 | 3,432 | 81.0 | 4,239 |
| 1982/83 | 803 | 14.9 | 4,564 | 85.0 | 5,367 |

Source: Ministry of Education

No official figures are available on the number of non-Haitians teaching in secondary schools. The number is believed to be small, and consists mostly of members of religious orders who teach in the denominational schools.

Qualifications. It is not possible to arrive at a satisfactory distinction between, and an accurate count of, qualified and unqualified teachers. In theory, a qualified teacher is someone who has completed studies at the Ecole Normale Supérieure. However, the pedagogical content of the course at this school is relatively weak, and the annual number of graduates from the institution is small. Normaliens constitute about 12% of the teaching force. A larger percentage are university graduates or university students teaching part-time. Many teachers do not work full-time. Agronomists often teach science, engineers regularly teach mathematics, and pharmacists sometimes teach biology. These instructors have not had any pedagogical training as part of their university studies. It is said that both this group and the normaliens learn to teach on the job.

A breakdown of the teaching force by educational background is presented in Table 6.9. About 43% of private school and 18% of public school chaires are held by those who are qualified, if this term is taken to include both university graduates and normaliens. In both public and private schools, a large percentage of teachers have only secondary school certificates, or less. The large number of chaires held by those whose qualifications are indicated as "unknown" makes an analysis of teaching qualifications difficult.

TABLE 6.9

Distribution of Teachers, (Chaires), by Level of Educational Preparation for Public and Private Secondary Schools, 1982/83

| | Rhéto | Philo | Normalien | University | Other (Technical) | Unknown | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Public | 1 | 224 | 30 | 116 | -- | 432 | 803 |
| Private | 226 | 1,620 | 640 | 1,158 | 31 | 889 | 4,564 |
| Total | 227 | 1,844 | 670 | 1,274 | 31 | 1,321 | 5,367 |

Source: Ministry of Education

No information is available on the subjects or grade levels taught by teachers with different levels of qualifications. The best schools use university graduates and normaliens at all levels. The low-income private secular schools are more likely to employ those without secondary school certificates.

Student/Teacher Ratio. The supply of teachers in schools takes on more meaning when compared to the number of students being taught. In Haiti, this comparison is not feasible because statistics refer to teaching chaires, not teachers. A more poignant index of the relationship between numbers of students and teachers is the ratio of students per classroom. This approach is accurate because it is known that, since space is at a premium in Haitian schools, there are few idle classrooms. In 1982/83, the average number of students per class-room was 52.6. In the public lycées, the ratio was 60.5 to 1. Unfortunately, in many classrooms the number of students sometimes exceeds 100.

Salaries. The low salaries paid to Haitian secondary school teachers have helped expand education, and simultaneously have made it difficult to attract and retain qualified and dedicated teachers.

There are no data on what salaries are earned by secondary school teachers. Except for one school with a large enrollment of expatriate children, a teacher working in one of the best schools reportedly earns up to $6,000 for 9 months, and works only in that school. In the public lycées, the average salary is said to be about $100 per chaire per month. Three chaires (or about 5 hours of teaching per day) would yield a monthly salary of about $300. Salaries in most private schools are said to range between $1.50 and $8.00 per hour, depending on the qualifications of the teacher and the quality of the school. Those at the lower end of this scale, understandably, rely heavily on additional teaching or other employment to supplement their salaries.

Attrition. There is no firm information about the number of teachers who leave teaching each year due to retirement or new employment. School directors and other educators estimate yearly attrition to be from 5 to 10%.

Projected Teacher Needs. The Biennial Education Plan foresees the need to create 1,264 additional teaching chaires by the end of 1986. This increase would maintain the present ratio of 21.8 students per chaire. In Table 6.10, projected student enrollment is compared with an extrapolation of the rate of growth of chaires for the period from 1984-91. An estimate of the total number of new teaching chaires to be filled each year (because of new chaires and attrition from the previous year) has been calculated. Attrition is assumed to be 7.5% per year. The figures for each year represent the number of teacher training graduates that will be required to meet demands created by the projected growth of secondary education.

It is almost certain that the Ecole Normale Supérieure will not be able to increase its enrollment to match the projected number of teachers needed to support the expansion of secondary education. The following should be



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Table 6.10

A Comparison of Projected Student Enrollments, Teaching Chaires, and Chaires to be Filled Each Year 1984-91

| | 1984-85 | 1985-86 | 1986-87 | 1987-88 | 1988-89 | 1989-90 | 1990-91 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Projected Student Enrollments | 141,900 | 156,200 | 171,600 | 189,000 | 207,900 | 226,700 | 251,600 |
| Projected Supply of Teacher Chaires | 6,523 | 7,175 | 7,892 | 8,682 | 9,550 | 10,505 | 11,555 |
| Chaires to be Filled Because of: | | | | | | | |
| Attrition from previous year | 445 | 489 | 538 | 592 | 651 | 716 | 788 |
| Increase in student enrollments | 593 | 652 | 717 | 790 | 868 | 955 | 1,050 |
| Total Chaires to be Filled | 1,038 | 1,141 | 1,255 | 1,382 | 1,519 | 1,671 | 1,838 |

Source: Ministry of Education and Author Calculations

anticipated: an increase in the teaching force of teachers who are likely to be university students working part-time, university graduates teaching for a short time before finding other employment, or those with nothing more than secondary education.

6.1.4.4 Curriculum

The prescribed curriculum for secondary schools was based on French educational traditions. Curriculum specialists would describe the curriculum as being guided by the philosophy of perennialism: Education is seen as the development of mental discipline through subjects like Greek and Latin, and through exposure to the ideas of great thinkers of the past. Despite the increase in access to secondary education, the structure and content of the curriculum remain elite in orientation, and are mainly concerned with knowledge and skills that will be useful to the relatively few students who complete the secondary school cycle and enter the university.

The 7-year curriculum is heavily loaded with respect to the number of subjects (9-10) taught each year. Students receive varying amounts of instruction during the secondary school cycle. During the first few years, students average 20 to 24 hours of instruction per week. This increases to 30-35 hours during the last 2 years.

General uniformity exists among schools and between the public and private sectors with respect to curriculum. This is dictated by the Baccalauréat examinations. Nevertheless, subjects and the times at which they are taught vary from school to school. Often, this is determined by the availability of teachers in particular disciplines.

Academic Sections. There are four sections or streams a student may elect to follow: A, B, C, or D. The four streams are as follows: Section A, Latin-Greek; Section B, Latin-Science; Section C, Science-Modern Languages; Section D, Experimental Natural Sciences. Student concentration usually begins during the fourth year (3rd). This is soon to be changed to rhéto (see below).

Schools do not usually offer all sections. The section chosen by a student leads to a different weighting of the various parts of the Baccalauréat examinations. There is no Baccalauréat II examination for Section B; Section B students continuing into philo pass into either Section A or C depending on their interests.

Section A, with its concentration on Latin, Greek, and literature, is disappearing from the schools. In 1984, only 33 students sat for the Section A Baccalauréat I examination, and only 10 passed. Section D, with its concentration in natural sciences, is offered only by two or three schools.

Subjects. The subjects students follow during the first 5 years of secondary school are indicated in Table 6.11. This constitutes a kind of core

curriculum prior to selection of concentration in an academic section. This table is subject to variation among schools. For the last 3 years of secondary school, students continue to follow many of the same subjects, but concentration varies according to the section they have elected. Section A students concentrate on literature (Haitian and French), Latin, and Greek during rhéto. Latin and Greek disappear at philo level, and philosophy and physiology are added. Section B emphasizes literature, Latin, and physics during rhéto. There is no Section B philo. Section C, which is chosen by the largest number of students, consists of a balanced selection of science, mathematics, and modern language courses. Philosophy and an increased concentration on mathematics are added to this section during philo. Section D students concentrate on the natural sciences during rhéto and philo.

TABLE 6.11

Secondary School Subjects

| Subject | 6th | 5th | 4th | 3rd | 2nd |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| French | x | x | x | x | x |
| Mathematics | x | x | x | x | x |
| History/Geography | x | x | x | x | x |
| English | x | x | x | x | x |
| Latin | | x | x | x | x (a) |
| Spanish | | x | x | x | x |
| Geology | | x | | | |
| Chemistry | | | x | x | |
| Physics | | | x | x | |
| Biology | x | x | x | x | x |

(a) Optional

Source: Interviews with School Directors



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Instruction is given in French. However, school directors indicate that Creole must be used, especially during the first years of school, because many students do not acquire sufficient mastery of French during primary school.

Curriculum Development. The curriculum in secondary schools was modified in 1982. Changes will be introduced progressively until 1986. The revision affects the availability of some subjects during the cycle, changes students' initial concentration from 3rd to rhéto, and introduces a course called savoir vivre during the first year. Responsibility for secondary school curriculum development is given to IPN. Much of IPNs time and energy is now being devoted to the reform of primary school education. Planning that has taken place for "reformed" secondary education is discussed in Section 6.2.2.

6.1.4.5 Examinations

Haiti's program of secondary education takes much of its character from the school leaving examinations, the Baccalauréat I and II. These examinations are given after the rhéto and philo years. The examinations are prepared by the Ministry of Education, and are given in several places throughout the country. These examinations are intensive exercises conducted over 4 days with morning and afternoon sessions. They cover the various school subjects. The examination score is determined by weighting the subjects according to the student's academic section.

The items on the examination are of a variety. The literature and philosophy examinations require analytical reasoning through extended essay questions. The Latin and Greek examinations stress translation of phrases into French. The modern language examinations emphasize translation, and also include items that test comprehension of idiomatic expressions. The mathematics examinations require solving a variety of problems including geometry and trigonometry. The science examinations test the application of formulas to solving problems.

The examinations are given in June. Students failing the exams are given an opportunity to retake them in September.

The results of the Baccalauréat I examinations since 1972 are shown in Table 6.12. There is no discernible historical trend in the percentage of students passing and failing. In 1984, only about 20% of the candidates were successful on the Baccalauréat I exam. These results provoked considerable alarm and public discussion, and numerous explanations were offered. Some people believe that the declining quality of education is beginning to express itself forcefully on examination scores. Others suggest that Government engineered the low results to provoke a crisis in order to pave the way for extending the Reform to secondary education. Still others argue that the examinations are not valid and reliable measures of what students actually learn.

TABLE 6.12

Number and Percentage of Candidates Passing and Failing Baccalauréat I Exam, 1971-84

| Year | Number of Candidates | Number Passes | Percent | Number Failures | Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1971/72 | 4,449 | 1,274 | 29 | 3,175 | 71 |
| 1972/73 | 4,529 | 1,250 | 28 | 3,279 | 72 |
| 1973/74 | 4,817 | 1,384 | 29 | 3,433 | 71 |
| 1974/75 | 4,575 | 1,165 | 25 | 3,410 | 75 |
| 1975/76 | 5,085 | 1,728 | 34 | 3,375 | 66 |
| 1976/77 | 5,509 | 1,308 | 24 | 4,201 | 76 |
| 1977/78 | 6,171 | 2,648 | 43 | 3,523 | 57 |
| 1978/79 | 7,109 | 3,364 | 47 | 3,745 | 53 |
| 1979/80 | 7,650 | 1,639 | 21 | 6,011 | 79 |
| 1980/81 | 9,335 | 2,133 | 23 | 7,202 | 77 |
| 1981/82 | 8,553 | 3,196 | 37 | 5,357 | 63 |
| 1982/83 | 9,866 | 4,414 | 45 | 5,452 | 55 |
| 1983/84 | 11,723 | 2,208 | 19 | 9,515 | 81 |

Source: Ministry of Education

It is difficult to say which explanation is correct. The inconsistency of results from year to year suggests a lack of reliability in these examinations. But many people insist that the variation in the examination results reflects more than technical problems, and they attribute great irregularities to political contamination of the process. If these charges are factually based, the analysis of the examinations process needed to understand what is actually taking place is not likely to be forthcoming.

Until 1984, student performance was better on the Baccalauréat II examination. Table 6.13 indicates the results on this examination since 1972. Again, no visible trend in student performance is apparent.

Students take examinations at the end of each trimester. These examinations determine whether students continue to a higher grade or repeat the present grade. Often students who are not successful on these examinations transfer to schools that are less demanding and, in some cases, are willing to move students to higher grades despite their test scores.

TABLE 6.13

Number and Percentage of Candidates Passing and Failing Baccalauréat II Exam, 1971-84

| Year | Number of Candidates | Number | | Number | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Passes | Percent | Failures | Percent |
| 1971/72 | 1,316 | 1,188 | 90 | 128 | 10 |
| 1972/73 | 1,295 | 1,928 | 79 | 267 | 21 |
| 1973/74 | 1,364 | 1,953 | 77 | 311 | 23 |
| 1974/75 | 1,471 | 1,120 | 76 | 351 | 24 |
| 1975/76 | 1,336 | 1,175 | 88 | 161 | 12 |
| 1976/77 | 1,740 | 1,320 | 76 | 420 | 24 |
| 1977/78 | 1,891 | 1,682 | 89 | 209 | 11 |
| 1978/79 | 2,691 | 2,347 | 87 | 344 | 13 |
| 1979/80 | 3,474 | 2,000 | 57 | 1,474 | 43 |
| 1980/81 | 2,381 | 1,324 | 56 | 1,057 | 44 |
| 1981/82 | 2,510 | 2,243 | 89 | 267 | 11 |
| 1982/83 | 3,332 | 3,052 | 92 | 280 | 8 |
| 1983/84 | 4,554 | 1,954 | 43 | 2,600 | 57 |

Source: Ministry of Education

6.1.4.6 Quality of Instruction

The public debate that followed the announcement of the results on the 1984 Baccalauréat examinations focused attention on the quality of secondary school instruction. Although the data do not reflect a steady decline in student achievement as measured by the examinations, few would agree that the quality of instruction received by the majority of secondary school students is satisfactory.

The combined effect of increasing numbers of students poorly prepared for secondary education, a heavily loaded and outdated curriculum, the sometimes indifferent and inadequately trained school directors, a poorly paid teaching staff, and crowded and inadequate school facilities suggests an instructional process that is anything but effective. There is little reason to expect different instructional styles from those that emphasize memorizing facts from teachers' lectures and textbooks.

The quality of instruction varies greatly among schools. Quality in the public lycées has suffered considerably in recent years. This has been the result of the increased enrollment and, by many reports, of the replacement of

good instructors with less-qualified political appointments. This has affected some of the country's best lycées, where, at one time, the quality of instruction was reputedly very good.

Instruction in many of the private schools is said to be poor. Many teachers have little training. Classes are large and crowded. Students who do not make satisfactory progress are often passed to the next grade despite their performance.

The nation can take pride in the fact that its educational system has generated a domestic model of excellence. The quality in the best private schools is known to be good. School directors and teachers in these schools appear to be dedicated to excellence and to a high caliber of instruction.

6.1.4.7 Facilities and Equipment

With only a few exceptions, the facilities available for secondary school students are far from adequate. Funds have been insufficient to equip and maintain existing schools, and to build new schools to accommodate expanding enrollment.

School Buildings. In 1982/83 there were 290 secondary schools, 26 of which were public and the rest private. Secondary schools are housed in a diverse assortment of buildings, few of which were built to be schools. Aggregate information describing the construction or physical condition of buildings used by private schools is not available. Many of the buildings are converted dwellings either owned or rented by the operator of the school. Many secondary schools begin as additions to primary schools, and classrooms in these buildings tend to be small and crowded. The rising cost of property in Port-au-Prince will constrain the expansion of education through building conversion for new schools.

In 1981/82, the 25 public lycées included 17 that were originally built as schools. Five of the lycée buildings are rented, and the rest owned by Government. Only one of the new lycées to be constructed during the period of the present Five-Year Plan has been built. The construction of the lycées outside of Port-au-Prince that was mentioned in the Plan has not taken place because of lack of funds. The Government has been successful so far in obtaining donor assistance for physical improvements needed in the lycées.

Laboratories and Libraries. There is no count of the number of schools with science laboratories and adequate school libraries. Few schools are known to have such facilities.

Textbooks. A textbook list is prescribed for the secondary school curriculum. Schools select the textbooks used in their classes, which are ordered through local bookstores, usually from France. Books are paid for by the students. Books cost about $18 per year for students in lycées and



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anywhere from $40 to $150 in private schools. The price and the number of textbooks needed mean that many students do without them.

Teachers report that the books selected often bear little relation to the programs they are teaching. Teacher guides are often inappropriate and not followed. School directors complain that often bookstores will not place orders without prepayment in dollars. Some secondary schools print or mimeograph textbooks which are then sold to students. Although students can often buy secondhand books, in most cases the cost of textbooks is as much a burden on the family budget as school fees.

6.1.4.8 Costs and Financing

About 9.4% of the total 1984/85 education budget in Haiti (about $1.8 million) is being spent on secondary education. For the estimated 21,300 students enrolled in public schools during that year, this is a per-pupil cost of about $85. Students buy their own textbooks and uniforms and pay a yearly $3 contribution to school operating expenses.

Costs vary widely in private schools. Most private schools charge a monthly rate ranging from $8 to $30, although a few schools are known to charge more. The rhéto and philo years often cost more than the others. Students in private schools also pay for their own textbooks and uniforms, and they pay a contribution to operating costs ranging from about $2 to $50 per year. Assuming the average cost of one year of education in a private secondary school is about $125, it can be estimated that aggregate private spending on education is about $12.1 million, not counting textbooks, uniforms, transportation, and miscellaneous fees. These costs range from $40 to $200 per year.

Most of the funds for private school costs are paid by parents. Some private schools provide scholarships, but such assistance is rare.

Little donor assistance has been provided in recent years to support secondary education. Donor support has been limited to small inputs in the areas of inservice teacher training and curriculum development received from the French Government.

## 6.2 ANALYSIS

In this section, secondary education is analyzed with respect to needs, plans, and constraints. The analysis will consider the issues of external efficiency, internal efficiency, access and equity, administration and supervision, and costs and financing. Conclusions are given in the final part of this section.

### 6.2.1 Needs

The preceding discussion of secondary education in Haiti suggests that the needs are many. However, the most important ones can be summarized as follows:

- In the face of rapid and unplanned expansion of enrollment, and the changing social composition of schools, there is a need for a fundamental rethinking of the purpose, structure, and content of secondary education. Although the Reform anticipates many of these changes, awareness must be translated into action.
- There is a need to raise the general level of quality in educational instruction, while equalizing opportunities throughout the system.
- There is a need to find ways to contain costs in order to keep the doors of secondary schools open to lower income families, and to reduce the burden caused by school fees and textbook costs.

### 6.2.2 Plans

Government plans for secondary education envision a restructuring of the cycle in line with the Reform. The extension of the Reform at the primary level will involve completion of a 10-year Ecole Fondamentale. This will be followed by a 3-year cycle of secondary education. At present, it is assumed that there will be two tracks, classical and vocational, with the latter leading to a series of specialized certificates (baccalauréats spécialisés).

The plans for general secondary education apparently foresee that instruction will continue to be offered in French, and Creole might possibly be added as a school subject. Some thought has been given to the physical arrangements of the Ecole Fondamentale with respect to primary schools. Government is apparently considering not building any new lycées, and instead adding classrooms to existing primary schools for the last years of the Ecole Fondamentale. This presumably would free space in secondary schools.

Thus far, there are no written plans that define the future of general secondary education--when the Reform reaches this level in the 1990s. Government has neither the funds nor the personnel to engage in systematic planning at this time.

### 6.2.3 Constraints

The principal constraints to the development of secondary education are the low level and inequitable distribution of personal income. Since the costs of secondary education are largely paid out of disposable family income, low absolute value and poor prospects for personal income growth will thwart opportunities for many young people to attend secondary school. The external constraints posed by low-level and stagnating personal incomes have internal implications. Insufficient growth in family incomes puts a ceiling on what



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private schools can collect in fees. Efforts to improve secondary education through expanding and improving facilities and raising salaries to attract and retain competent teachers will be restricted by this measure.

The lack of growth in personal income will also constrain the growth of public revenues available to support the development of secondary education. This will severely hamper any efforts to reform the curriculum.

### 6.2.4 Issues

The preceding summary statements on needs, plans, and constraints provide a framework for considering, in this section, the issues which confront the secondary education sector.

#### 6.2.4.1 External Efficiency

The notion of external efficiency is concerned with the personal and social utility of education. External efficiency has two dimensions:

1. how well education prepares the student for either further academic study or employment, and
2. how well the content of instruction relates to the knowledge and skills required for job performance.

The issue of the external efficiency of secondary education is not as easily addressed in Haiti as in other developing countries. Secondary education has grown dramatically in response to social demand, not in relation to anticipated manpower requirements for persons having secondary-level education. Schools have responded to the social demand for education with programs almost exclusively concerned with further academic study. Moreover, the issue of external efficiency is complicated by the fact that secondary education in Haiti prepares an unknown (but large) number of young people for employment outside the country.

Given the academic orientation of the curriculum and the relatively long 7-year cycle of secondary education, it should be expected that students would be well-prepared for higher education. However, many students passing the Baccalauréat II examination are not successful in obtaining admission to one of the branches of higher education. In addition, many of those who are successful must follow a "preparatory" year at the university. Many students who have successfully completed secondary school are denied admission to higher education in Haiti simply because of a lack of space at this level. Presumably those students who do continue in higher education should be well-prepared, but, as indicated in Chapter 8, this is not the case. Many students must undergo remedial preparation in some disciplines, especially science, and others are required to repeat courses during their first year. This is a result of inadequate preparation for university-level studies.

The other part of this dimension of external efficiency, preparing students to take the next step, has to do with how those students who have secondary education, but who do not continue to higher education, are related to Haiti's manpower needs for persons with this level of education. This is what happens to the majority of students who begin secondary education. Preparing these students for future employment should constitute the principal mission of secondary schools.

Projections of manpower requirements for the Haitian economy for the years 1985-90 were presented in Table 2.41 in Chapter 2. During this period, the economy will require manpower to fill approximately 6,550 new jobs for people having general secondary education. This works out to an annual manpower requirement of about 1,300 jobs. From the projected secondary school enrollment for this period (Table 6.7), one can estimate that there will be an average of about 5,500 students enrolled in philo during each year. If it is assumed that 70% (3,850) will succeed on the Baccalauréat II, perhaps 60% (2,300) of that group will continue to higher education in Haiti. (See Chapter 2 for discussion of promotion rates.) If about 5% (275) of students enrolled in philo repeat the following year, this would leave about 2,900 secondary school completers in the supply of manpower each year during the period. An undetermined number will leave Haiti for study or work in other countries.

For the same period, an average of 17,000 students will be enrolled in rhéto. About one third (5,600) are likely to pass on to philo. If it is assumed that 20% repeat rhéto, this would result in another 7,900 additions to the manpower supply at this level each year. This would result in an excess of supply over demand of about 9,500 over the 1985-90 period. The excess supply, in fact, is likely to be greater since it can be expected that university students working during the day will be likely to take some of the jobs.

Whatever the benefits that have come from the rapid and unplanned expansion of secondary education, it has clearly occurred with a great amount of external inefficiency with respect to national economic needs and possibilities for employment. Although it is true that many of the educated unemployed find opportunities for study and employment in other countries, it is by no means clear that prospects for migration will continue to be as good as they have been in the past.

There is still the question of what happens to all those students who leave secondary school before completion. Unfortunately, no tracer studies have been conducted to determine what kind of employment is found by school completers and leavers, and whether there is any appreciable gain from having a secondary school certificate. The fate of school leavers, according to many Haitians, is not an easy one. Some find jobs in factories or small enterprises

willing to train them. Some young women enter secretarial school. Often those leaving secondary school will work for several years at odd jobs and save to start a small business. Others migrate, especially those having families living outside Haiti; some of them eventually return with savings and open a small business.

How well does the content of secondary school education relate to the knowledge and skills needed for employment such as just described? Clearly, a classical curriculum like that followed in Haiti is not much help, although it is by no means clear what would help in the face of such bleak employment opportunities. Whatever the apparent irrelevance of subjects like Latin, Greek, and medieval literature, it is difficult to measure the extent to which general education, whatever the specific content, furthers one's ability to benefit from further training. The secondary school curriculum extends and consolidates literacy skills that may have been shaky at the end of primary school. Learning French, Spanish, and English, to the extent that skills are actually developed in school, is certainly an advantage in many jobs in urban areas in Haiti and elsewhere.

Many people stress that the content of secondary education is irrelevant to success in the present Haitian economy. What counts more are determination, energy, ingenuity, and family connections.

Secondary education in Haiti is primarily the sum total of both public and private investments. These investments in education produce important personal and social benefits. Moreover, secondary education offers economic and social benefits to young people who are able to study and work outside of Haiti. But from the standpoint of the national economy, the external inefficiency of general secondary education is obvious, and it must be questioned whether an expansion of spending represents a wise allocation of resources.

6.2.4.2 Internal Efficiency

Internal efficiency measures how effectively individual parts of the educational system use available resources to achieve certain educational outcomes. Internal efficiency has two dimensions: (a) the relationship between what enters and what exits various parts of the system, and (b) the relationship of quality to costs during the entry and exit phases.

Different educational systems operate with different assumptions about these relationships. In the United States, it is expected that entries into secondary education will exit the system in four years. Internal efficiency can be assessed by looking at indicators such as rates of repeating and dropping out. It is also meaningful to relate different inputs to outcomes in student achieve-ment in a reasonably systematic fashion. Internal efficiency

in the U.S. system attempts to maximize graduates and minimize time and, within these measures, to maximize learning while minimizing costs. This set of assumptions does not necessarily produce desirable outcomes. Current assumptions about the internal efficiency of U.S. secondary education have been questioned, because students who pass through the system graduate with serious deficiencies in basic skills.

The assumptions in Haiti are quite different. Exit from the system is not assumed to be certification based on attendance for a set number of years. The desired outcome is criterion-referenced, demonstrated proficiency on the set of competencies examined by the Baccalauréat exams. It is not expected that every student can or will achieve these competencies. Failure to do so has several possible causes: lack of ability or poor academic preparation to learn or to pass the required tests, personal or financial difficulties that preclude continuation in school, or inability of the instructional system to assist those who are able to learn but do not learn as the result of inadequate instruction. Only the last of these is a measure of secondary education's internal inefficiency. Inadequate preparation for secondary education relates to the external efficiency of primary education. The extent of efficiency/inefficiency at the secondary level cannot be determined without data that differentiate causes of student discontinuation and scholastic aptitude.

Entry into secondary education in Haiti follows high social demand. The necessity of accommodating high enrollment within the constraints of available resources, and keeping costs within the reach of family income, generates a de facto assumption that many students will receive only "some" education. The system must find ways to "de-select" students at some point. Consequently, loss of students at points throughout secondary education is not an indication of internal inefficiency, since this is the way the system is supposed to function.

Thus, Haiti's assumptions about secondary education are widened access to more people, de-selection of less capable students, and desired results from criterion-referenced performance on the Baccalauréat exams, attainable by only a few. Within this framework, such traditional indicators as rates of repetition and dropping out are very poor indications of internal efficiency. When the desired outcome is criterion-referenced, rather than referenced to years in school, repetition is not necessarily a measure of inefficiency--especially in a situation where the costs of repeating are being borne privately. With examinations that are highly selective and with entry to secondary education having been widened, dropping out is similarly not a measure of inefficiency in the system.

The crux of the issue of internal efficiency as it applies to Haiti is how efficiently the system provides "some" education to the masses. Or, put another way, the questions are: What learning outcomes has the system produced, and how do they relate to costs? There are both efficiencies and inefficiencies to be noted here.

A year of education in a public lycée costs the government about $85 per student. In private schools, parents pay annual school fees in the range of $72-$270, although a few schools charge considerably more. This is comparatively cheap for a year of secondary education. In Botswana, for example, the costs of a year of secondary education for Government and student are about $810. A year of secondary education in Thailand costs about $690, in Rwanda about $490, in Zambia $420, in Swaziland about $370, and in Mali about $150.

Even if the quality of education received in many Haitian secondary schools is very low, the low unit costs still suggest considerable efficiency. Similarly, in some of the best schools in the country, such as the Nouveau College Bird and the Centre d'Etudes Secondaire, school fees amount to about $270 per year. It would be far-fetched to assume that instruction in Botswana is 3 times better than that which is offered at these two institutions in Haiti.

The Nouveau College Bird example is particularly illustrative of the internal efficiency being achieved by parts of the secondary education subsector in Haiti. For $270, plus other assorted costs, a student is able to get an education of a quality above the national average. On the 1984 Baccalauréat I exam, about 65% of Bird students passed, while the national average was less than 20%. Out of its revenues, Bird offers scholarships to about one tenth of its students, and is able to put $5,000 into operation of the Methodist primary schools. Obviously, this is not a typical case, but it should serve as an example of what is possible with an efficient use of resources.

Many of the more expensive schools are also the most efficient ones, if Baccalauréat exam results are taken as the measure of learning. A student may pay twice as much to attend a high-quality private school. The odds of passing the Baccalauréat exams are several times better for students in these schools.

Even in the poorest schools, what may be poor-quality instruction must be judged against the low unit costs. Whether the absolute quality is really worthwhile for the students is something they and their parents must decide. Clearly, however, Haiti is achieving a certain amount of internal efficiency at a low level of cost and quality that is making it possible for many students to get "some" secondary education.

There are, of course, inefficiencies to be found throughout the system. The most important source is a curriculum overloaded with many subjects. This certainly is detrimental to effective learning in a situation where the subject matter is foreign to many students, classes are large and textbooks are expensive and often unaffordable, and few linguistic or cultural support mechanisms are available at home to support learning. The internal efficiency of secondary education would be greatly enhanced by improving the efficiency of learning. This could be achieved by aiming at greater mastery of content through concentration on fewer subjects--and a consequent reduction in the number of required textbooks.

6.2.4.3 Access and Equity

The rapid expansion of secondary education in Haiti has widened access to education at this level to social groups in the population that previously were not served. The overall proportion of the age population between 13 and 20 who are attending secondary school is indicative of access to secondary school. This can be estimated from the age-specific enrollment in Table 6.4 for 1982/83. These enrollment figures may be compared to the overall age-specific population 13 to 20, which are calculated from the 1982 census data in Table 2.2 in Chapter 2. For purposes of this calculation, it is assumed that the population for each age is equally distributed within each 5-year age group.

This calculation shows that about 19% of the population was enrolled in Haitian secondary schools in 1982/83. This is similar to the World Bank's estimated 12% participation rate for 1980 (World Development Report 1983). This figure was 4% in 1960, indicating considerable improvement in widening access to secondary school. Access in Haiti is almost equal to that of the group of 23 low-income countries in Africa, where the participation rates averaged about 13% (World Bank, Toward Sustained Development in Sub-Saharan Africa. A Joint Program of Action).

Despite the increased access to secondary-level education, opportunities are marked by a number of inequities. The distribution of educational opportunities according to socioeconomic class, geographical location, gender, and educational quality are discussed below.

Socioeconomic Class. Although no available information relates school participation to socioeconomic class, it can be presumed on the basis of school costs and personal income, that educational opportunities at the secondary level have been extended from a small elite class to a rather ill-defined middle class. This middle class includes medium landholders, owners of small commercial establishments, and salaried workers in the modern sector. Secondary education for the children of small landholders, sharecroppers, and landless farm laborers is the exception rather than the rule. For the lower



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classes, inequities in opportunities for primary education have yet to be solved. Even if opportunities are increased at the primary level, the costs of secondary school fees, uniforms, and textbooks are beyond the reach of the majority of Haitians.

The paradox of the expansion of secondary education through private schools is that although it has allowed for more equitable participation by some of the middle class, without free public education the lowest socioeconomic groups in Haitian society will not have an equitable share of the opportunities for secondary education.

Geographical Location. The development of secondary education has favored the regions around the capital. This makes it difficult for young people in other parts of the country to attend secondary school. Rural youths have to apply for admission to a school in Port-au-Prince or one of the larger settlements near home. This has unfair social and financial consequences for rural families. Table 6.14 shows the distribution of secondary school enrollment by geographical department, compared as a ratio of the total population for each department. The assumption is made that the secondary school age population in each region is in the same proportion to the total population.

Table 6.14 does indicate inequities related to geographical location. However, this is mitigated in part by Haiti's small size. Regional disparities

TABLE 6.14

**Distribution of Student Enrollment (Public and Private) By Department and as a Percentage of the Population, 1982/83**

| Department | Population | Enrollments: Public Schools | Enrollments: Private Schools | Enrollments: Total | Enrollment as % of Population |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| West | 1,716,803 | 9,714 | 62,553 | 72,267 | 4.2 |
| North | 178,812 | 1,603 | 9,790 | 11,393 | 2.5 |
| Northeast | 456,692 | 536 | 469 | 1,005 | 0.2 |
| Northwest | 235,965 | 426 | 4,936 | 5,394 | 2.3 |
| Artibonite | 664,807 | 2,283 | 7,810 | 10,093 | 1.5 |
| Center | 360,734 | 1,062 | 1,162 | 2,224 | 0.6 |
| Southeast | 640,590 | 1,108 | 1,185 | 2,293 | 0.3 |
| South | 509,996 | 1,020 | 7,714 | 8,734 | 1.7 |
| Grand-Anse | 228,790 | 1,501 | 2,177 | 3,678 | 1.6 |
| Total | 4,993,189 | 19,253 | 97,796 | 117,081 | 2.3 |

Source: Ministry of Education and Author Calculations

are considerably worse in many other developing countries. Geographical location does pose a problem to the extent that many of the schools outside Port-au-Prince do not offer the philo year. Of the 3,940 students enrolled in philo in 1982/83, only 233 were in departments other than the West.

The data on secondary school enrollment have not been reported in a way that permits detailed analysis of urban-rural differences.

Gender. Haiti has made progress toward ensuring equity in the distribution of secondary school educational opportunities by gender. As was mentioned earlier, the proportion of male and female students of total enrollment in 1982/83 was 51% to 49% respectively. It was noted that female students are less likely to have the opportunity to continue studies as they get older, and they are underrepresented in the higher grades.

There is a serious absence of equity in the distribution of teachers by gender. In 1982/83, 5,367 teaching chaires were held by men and only 579 by women. However, of these teaching chaires, the proportion held by men and women with qualifications at the level of normalien or university studies was equal (36%).

Educational Quality. As discussed previously, educational quality is unevenly distributed throughout Haitian secondary schools. Individual school Baccalaurêat examination scores are not published. Reportedly, this was attempted one year but was discontinued after objections by schools that demonstrated poor performance. Significant differences among schools are known to exist. Clearly students who have had the opportunity for better primary school instruction, and who can pass the entry exams and pay the higher fees of the best private schools, have access to higher quality educational programs than those who are unfortunate in these respects.

#### 6.2.4.4 Administration and Supervision

The issues of the organization and supervision of secondary education and the relationship of private education to public policy, are paramount in any consideration of how secondary education might be improved. By the early 1990s, almost 90% of secondary school students will be enrolled in private schools. Most of these schools are established and operated as commercial enterprises. There are few linkages within the private sector to pursue systematic improvements in the system. The general lack of organization of secondary private education adds to the difficulties posed by the division between the public and private sectors.

The Government does not have the funds to offer incentives, or the machinery to enforce sanctions to ensure acceptable standards and operating practices within private schools. What happens when the Reform reaches secondary education? It will be difficult enough for Government to define



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goals and objectives for secondary education, and to initiate even preliminary curriculum planning. It will be almost impossible for Government to manage and supervise these measures throughout the dispersed private sector.

Private school operators are suspicious of governmental attempts to "coordinate" their affairs. This resistance will surely be strengthened by the public's resistance to reformed secondary school education, particularly if it is seen that the better schools find ways to maintain their classic traditions. However more relevant reformed secondary education might be to national realities, suspicions that it represents a moving away from the best opportunities for further education and employment in Haiti and elsewhere will contribute to maintaining and even increasing the lack of organization at the secondary level.

6.2.4.5 Costs and Financing

Closely related to the issue of organization and administration is the issue of costs and financing of planned improvements in secondary education. The weak role played by the public sector in secondary education is tied closely to the comparatively low level of Government expenditures for education. The prospects for this situation are unlikely to change in the future.

The expansion of secondary education has taken place because costs have been contained. This was made possible by keeping the teacher salaries at low levels. This cost factor has been important for the development of private secondary schools, whose operating expenses, investment capital, and profits come out of the difference between what is collected in fees and what is paid to teachers.

Many private school operators feel themselves caught in a crunch: if fees are raised, many students will be excluded from school and enrollment will drop; if fees are not raised, it will be difficult to meet pressures for teacher salary increases. Unless the school is willing to operate at a lower profit margin, rising costs are likely to result in attempts to squeeze more students into available facilities. Any improvements in school instruction seem inconceivable without improvements in teacher salaries and numbers, or the addition of benefits to salaries. The latter possibility is not even being considered at present.

The means for financing the development of secondary education are, practically speaking, unavailable at this time. Government does not have the funds, within current budgetary allocations, to offer much assistance to private schools. Little assistance from outside donors can be expected,

because of the low priorities usually accorded to secondary education in development assistance strategies.

However, without some kind of outside financial incentives to stimulate investments in development, self-sustaining cost containment, and quality control mechanisms, the current battle to contain costs will be lost. This would result in a substantial deterioration of quality over the next several years, and an even poorer rate of return on the numerous private investments Haitians are making for secondary education for their children.

### 6.2.5 Conclusions

The needs, plans, and constraints facing the development of secondary education in Haiti have been examined in the light of several important issues. This analysis leads to three conclusions:

Conclusion 1 - Concepts

Efforts to reconceptualize the cycle of general secondary education must be intensified and hastened. A complete rethinking of secondary education can be postponed no longer. Two directions must be examined: first, how to accommodate the changes reaching secondary education with the reform of primary education; and second, how to achieve greater external efficiency with respect to the goals of secondary education. Progress has so far been insufficient. In the absence of far-reaching changes, piecemeal additions or improvements in the system are likely to be of little lasting value.

Conclusion 2 - Private Sector

A mechanism must be found for organizing private schools to work together to make better use of existing resources, to generate new ones, to improve the quality of instruction, and to participate collectively in the redefinition of secondary education.

Conclusion 3 - Resources

Improvements in the quality and relevance of secondary education can take place only with the allocation of additional resources. The resources required are beyond the reach of Government.

## 6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

This section offers two comprehensive recommendations for secondary education, based on the conclusions presented above. These recommendations take into account that other areas in the education sector will--and should--receive priority attention from Government and donor agencies. Nevertheless, a balanced sector-wide approach to educational development requires activity that recognizes the interrelationship of various parts of the educational system. Neglect of one part of the system is very likely to hamper efforts in other areas. Inattention to the needs of secondary education in Haiti is likely to



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diminish the returns on investments in primary education, and to impede programs of postsecondary education and training. This relationship at the primary level, for example, will have important implications for the quality of teachers going into primary education. Many of the future teachers in primary schools are likely to be those who have come from secondary schools.

Recommendation 1 - Reformation. Intensify activities to reformulate secondary education.

Donor assistance will be necessary to supplement the limited Government resources for these activities. The capacity of IPN and the Ministry should be strengthened to undertake the basic planning needed to anticipate the reform of secondary education. This capacity must be directed toward a more specific understanding of the national needs and possibilities in secondary education, and how these may be accommodated under conditions of high social demand for education. This will require thorough study of what is actually taking place in secondary schools, and how this relates to employment possibilities in Haiti and other countries.

Donor assistance can help with these activities in a variety of ways:

- support for basic planning studies, especially for a tracer study of employment patterns of secondary school leavers and completers;
- training of national personnel for secondary school management, planning, and curriculum development;
- support of national seminars or colloquia on secondary education that bring together educators, employers, and private citizens; and
- consultant and long-term technical advisers, as needed.

Unless the goals of secondary education are more clearly defined, it will be impossible to determine how efficiently resources are being allocated, to evaluate any progress that is being achieved, or to plan effectively specific activities at the secondary level.

Recommendation 2 - Private Sector. Establish a national entity to encourage a better organization of private secondary education through reliance on initiatives from the private sector.

Such an entity might take the form of a national association of private secondary schools. This association could have as its purpose the improvement of secondary education through:

- setting guidelines for schools with regard to costs, management, teacher performance, and salaries;
- applying quality control procedures through the use of incentives;
- lowering costs through sharing of resources and through savings realized from systems for common procurement of books, materials, and equipment;

- providing assistance to schools most in need of help;
- organizing programs for upgrading skills of school directors and teachers;
- identifying affordable plans for supplementing teacher salaries with benefits like group insurance; and
- providing long-term, low-interest loans to schools for expansion and improvement, and for encouraging the opening of new schools in underserved areas of the country.

This association might be most effective if it were operated as a nonprofit corporation. Its operating expenses could come from such possible sources as membership fees of cooperating schools, Government tax rebates, revenues generated from production or procurement and sale of textbooks and materials, and revenues from other educationally related services and products offered to the public.

Donor assistance could be provided in initial years to help capitalize and organize such an association. Funds must be available to provide incentives for private schools to participate. The association could be effective to the extent that it would be able to make education cheaper to deliver, and to make better education more profitable. Donor assistance could focus on making the association self-sustaining through careful design of activities and sound management.

Donor assistance could also be directed toward funding some centralized facilities such as laboratories, learning resource centers, and media facilities. This could be attractive to schools, since they would be able to share access to facilities permitting them to offer specialized instruction in new or existing areas. Central facilities for the use of media such as videotape could allow for equalizing educational opportunities through wider use of the best teaching available in the country.

This recommendation relies heavily on initiative from the private sector. Encouragement could be given to sharing benefits of this approach to educational development with public schools, so that disparities between the two sectors would not be emphasized.

*Chapitre*

# 7

Chapter

# *Formation des Enseignants*

# Teacher Training

## AVANT PROPOS

Le chapitre 7, "Formation des enseignants," a été revu et corrigé en séance de travail à Port-au-Prince le 10 avril 1986. Ont participé à cette session Mr. Guy-Serge Pompilus, Directeur d'études de l'Institut Pédagogique National (IPN), Mme. Circe Douyon, ancienne Directrice du Bureau de la Formation des Enseignants au Ministère de l'Education Nationale, et Mr. Milton Adams, Directeur adjoint de l'AMESED.

La première partie de la séance fut consacrée à un certain nombre de corrections de détail et de présentation statistique. Les participants se sont déclarés satisfaits dans l'ensemble du contenu du chapitre mais estimaient qu'il aurait fallu donner davantage d'importance à deux facteurs critiques qui expliquent bon nombre des problèmes auxquels la formation des enseignants se trouvent confrontée en Haiti :

(i) la faible capacité institutionnelle des écoles, services et instituts chargés de la formation des enseignants; et

(ii) l'inadéquation des mécanismes qui existent à l'heure actuelle pour coordonner les efforts de ces instituts et services avec ceux des autres instances du Ministère de l'Education Nationale, notamment la Direction de la Planification et la Direction de l'Enseignement Fondamental.

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# 7.0 FORMATION DES ENSEIGNANTS

La formation des enseignants est un point essentiel de la Réforme de l'Enseignement. Ce chapitre se propose d'analyser les programmes de formation destinés aux enseignants des écoles primaires et secondaires.

## 7.1 SITUATION ACTUELLE

La formation des enseignants est handicapée par des contraintes financières, des problèmes de planification et de gestion, des difficultés liées au recrutement et par un manque de personnel. L'un des principaux objectifs de la Réforme dans ce domaine est de centraliser la gestion de toutes les activités de formation des enseignants.

### 7.1.1 Contexte et Structure

L'actuelle réorganisation de la formation des enseignants place toutes les activités de formation des enseignants--initiale ou continue--sous l'autorité de l'Institut Pédagogique National (IPN) également chargé de contrôler l'application de la Réforme de l'Education (voir chapitre 5). Les enseignants constituent un élément clé de cette Réforme, puisqu'ils ont la responsabilité d'introduire dans les écoles un programme plus adéquat et d'appliquer des méthodes d'enseignement plus appropriées. Néanmoins, avant la mise en place du Statut des Enseignants en 1984, l'enseignement n'était pas une profession reconnue en Haïti. Il n'existait, au niveau national, aucune réglementation définissant les droits et les devoirs de l'enseignant, aucune spécification quant au niveau minimum de qualification, à l'échelle des salaires et au système de promotion. A l'exception de quelques écoles du secteur privé, partout ailleurs le niveau des salaires et des qualifications était très bas. En 1979 le gouvernement a institué un salaire unique de 100 dollars par mois pour tous les enseignants du secteur publique. Mais en dépit de cette augmentation les salaires, quoique améliorés, restaient encore très bas. Le nouveau Statut des Enseignants prévoit des barèmes qui serviront de base à l'établissement des salaires, prenant en considération des facteurs tels que l'expérience et le niveau de qualification. Le salaire de début pour un diplômé des écoles normales sera désormais de 128 dollars par mois. Le Statut définit aussi les niveaux de qualification, et détermine les modalités de recrutement, de sélection, d'affectation et de promotion des enseignants. Quand la Réforme fut initialement introduite en 1982, seulement 19% environ des 14.400 enseignants avaient suivi le cycle complet de formation d'une école normale ou un programme équivalent et pouvaient être considérés comme qualifiés. Environ 30% des enseignants avaient poursuivi leurs études au moins

trois ans au-delà du cycle primaire. En fait, le pourcentage d'enseignants qualifiés avait diminué par rapport à celui de 1977 qui était de 50%. Cette tendance à la baisse est liée à un taux de déperdition annuel de 8% à 10% chez les enseignants qualifiés.

La formation des enseignants est assurée à la fois par des institutions publiques et privées. Les programmes de formation du secteur privé varient énormément dans leur structure, leur contenu et leur durée, et n'ont pas encore été évalués de façon systématique. Quatre d'entre eux, reconnus par le Département de l'Education, sont financés par les Eglises Méthodiste, Adventiste, Catholique et Wesleyenne. Le fait que ces institutions soient reconnues par le Département de l'Education signifie qu'elles suivent le même curriculum que les écoles normales d'état, bien que dans la pratique les programmes varient, même d'une école normale à l'autre.

Le secteur public dispose de six écoles normales pour la formation des enseignants du primaire. L'Ecole Normale Supérieure de Port-au-Prince est la seule institution qui forme les enseignants du secondaire. L'IPN s'occupe de la formation continue des enseignants et autres personnels des écoles primaires ainsi que de la supervision de la formation initiale.

Trois agences de développement internationales prennent une part particulièrement active dans la formation des enseignants : la Banque Mondiale, le FISE, et l'Organisation des Etats Américains (OEA). La Banque Mondiale est le principal bailleur de fonds pour la Réforme. En collaboration avec le gouvernement haïtien, elle prépare le Quatrième Projet d'Education qui coûtera environ 22,3 millions de dollars dont 1,9 million pour la formation des enseignants et des autres personnels scolaires. L'OEA a financé un programme d'amélioration de la formation des enseignants des écoles normales, s'étalant sur cinq ans et le FISE a fourni des fonds de soutien aux étudiants des écoles normales.

La Réforme prévoit plusieurs plans d'action pour le recyclage de la plupart des enseignants actuellement en poste. Des étudiants seront recrutés et seront formés dans les écoles normales. Le plan quinquennal pour la période 1981-86 (Tableau 7.1) prévoit le recyclage d'environ 90% des enseignants de l'enseignement primaire, la formation d'environ 2.750 nouveaux enseignants pour le primaire et 4.600 pour le secondaire. A mi-parcours, l'application de ce plan donne des résultats mitigés. Des ressources financières considérables ont été allouées à la formation continue des enseignants alors que très peu de fonds ont été affectés à la formation initiale. On peut constater dans le Tableau 7.1 que les objectifs de recyclages de l'IPN sont en bonne voie de réalisation (5[illegible]%). Il semble que la plupart des enseignants du primaire du

secteur public aient suivi un programme de recyclage sous une forme ou sous une autre, seuls restent à former ceux de l'enseignement primaire privé. Les données présentées ici ne reflètent pas la participation à des cycles complets de recyclage, mais une participation même limitée à un programme donné.

Tableau 7.1

Objectifs et résultats de la formation des enseignants, 1981-86

| | Formation des Enseignants de l'Ecole Primaire Déjà en Poste | Formation Initiale | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | Instituteurs de l'Ecole Primaire | Diplômés de l'ENS |
| Objectifs | 13,000 | 2,750 | 4,600 |
| Terminé en Nov. 1984 | 8,138 | 740 | 140 |
| Pourcentage de diplômés | 63% | 27% | 3% |

Sources : IPN, ENS, plan quinquennal

7.1.2 Formation Continue

L'IPN est responsable de la planification, de la coordination et de l'application de la Réforme. Les problèmes qui se posent au niveau du programme de recyclage semblent indiquer que l'IPN a surestimé ses capacités de planification et de gestion et que celles-ci devraient être renforcées si l'on veut que les programmes de recyclage et la Réforme réussissent.

Le programme (1984-85) en cours prévoit deux étapes de recyclage. La première étape mène à l'acquisition d'un certificat qui permet d'enseigner au premier cycle de l'enseignement primaire (de la première à la quatrième année) dans les écoles de la Réforme. La seconde étape prépare pour le deuxième cycle de l'enseignement primaire (de la cinquième à la septième année) dans le nouveau système. Les enseignants précédemment non qualifiés ayant au moins 10 ans d'expérience professionnelle auront, après avoir terminé le programme, le même statut que les diplômés des écoles normales. Le nombre estimé d'enseignants visés pour ce recyclage est calculé sur la base de projections du nombre d'enseignants dont on aura besoin pour l'encadrement des nouvelles classes prévues par la Réforme de 1984 à 1990. On estime que les 1600 classes de CP1 existant en 1984-85 passeront à 4000 en 1990. Pour maintenir ce rythme de croissance, le nombre de classes de CM2 devra passer de 40 à 1.600.

Le programme de formation continue développé par l'IPN est suffisamment large. Il comprend dix matières de base représentant 224 heures d'instruction : la philosophie et les orientations fondamentales de la Réforme, le français oral, la psychologie de l'enfant, le créole, les mathématiques,

l'initiation aux activités d'éveil, l'étude du milieu, l'éducation physique, les activités culturelles et la radio éducative. Les conseillers pédagogiques et le Service de l'évaluation de l'IPN sont chargés de mener des études d'évaluation sur l'efficacité du programme de formation des enseignants. Mais ce travail n'a pas encore été fait. Il n'existe donc aucune mesure objective de l'efficacité ou de l'impact du programme.

La formation a lieu dans 13 Centres régionaux pédagogiques à travers le pays. La capacité de ces Centres et leur répartition géographique sont suffisamment adéquates pour assurer l'accès aux programmes de formation aux enseignants de toutes les régions.

### 7.1.3 Formation Initiale

Dix écoles normales officiellement reconnues appliquent le programme de formation de base du gouvernement. Tous les départements du pays y sont représentés à l'exception de ceux du Nord-Ouest et du Sud-Ouest. Le nombre total d'inscriptions pour 1983-84 était de 857. Seulement 27% des nouveaux enseignants pour l'école primaire et 2% pour l'école secondaire requis dans le plan quinquennal sont sortis des programmes de formation initiale. Une comparaison entre le nombre de diplômés prévus et celui effectivement obtenu montre qu'à cette date les écoles normales n'ont atteint que 50% de leurs objectifs. La sous-exploitation de la capacité des écoles du gouvernement se traduit dans la faible proportion du rapport étudiant/enseignant, rapport qui est de 6/1. De nombreux enseignants de l'école normale sont eux-mêmes des normaliens, certains d'entre eux sont des universitaires et la plupart travaillent à temps partiel.

L'École Normale de Lavaud est une institution privée de formation d'enseignants qui, bien qu'elle ne soit pas reconnue par le gouvernement, bénéficie d'une certaine popularité et d'un certain respect en raison de son programme innovateur de formation d'instituteurs pour les écoles rurales. C'était initialement un établissement de formation d'enseignants pour les écoles paroissiales du Nord-Ouest. L'Ecole Normale de Lavaud offre un programme de cinq ans avec au bout un certificat pour l'enseignement primaire. Le niveau académique requis pour y entrer est plus bas que celui demandé par les écoles normales du gouvernement, mais la durée des études y est plus longue. L'objectif principal est de former des enseignants capables d'adapter leurs méthodes aux conditions de la vie rurale. L'approche utilisée peut être une source d'inspiration pour d'autres programmes.

Les faibles perspectives d'emploi rendent difficile le recrutement de candidats qualifiés pour les écoles normales. Au cours des deux dernières années, seulement 50 des quelques 506 diplômés des écoles normales ont été

affectés à des postes dans le public. Il est généralement admis que la plupart des diplômés ont trouvé un poste dans les secteur privé où les salaires sont plus bas. Ceci a provoqué une diminution générale des demandes d'admission à l'école normale qui est passée de 1.900 en 1983 à 662 en 1984. A cela s'ajoute la baisse du niveau académique des postulants. Sur 1.900 candidats qui se sont présentés aux examens d'entrée en 1983, 14 seulement ont été admis ; et en 1984-85, 26 sur 662. La conséquence d'une telle situation est la baisse des critères d'admission.

Les objectifs de formation d'enseignants pour le secondaire sont ambitieux pour une seule institution. Le Département de l'Education étudie actuellement une nouvelle politique de formation pour revaloriser le diplôme de l'école normale, par l'institution d'un programme appelé baccalauréat pédagogique. Ceci permettrait aux diplômés d'enseigner dans les premières classes du secondaire. Même si ce programme était mis en oeuvre, l'impact serait marginal au cours de la période que couvre le plan quinquennal à cause des bas niveaux d'inscriptions et de rendement enregistré dans les écoles normales.

### 7.1.4 L'Ecole Normale Supérieure

L'Ecole Normale Supérieure (ENS) est une institution qui forme les enseignants du secondaire. Elle pourvoit aussi l'Université en professeurs, en sélectionnant ses meilleurs étudiants pour des études universitaires à l'étranger. C'est une institution autonome membre de l'Université d'Etat d'Haïti.

Les diplômés de l'ENS représentaient seulement 11% des enseignants du secteur public de l'enseignement secondaire en 1982. Environ 25% de ceux de ses diplômés qui ont poursuivi des études à l'étranger sont maintenant à l'Université d'Etat d'Haïti, représentant à peu près 4% du personnel enseignant. Le faible rendement de l'Ecole Normale Supérieure s'ajoute à la pauvre qualité de ses programmes résultant de contraintes liées à une insuffisance en matière de budget, d'installations et de personnel.

L'ENS offre un programme de 3 ans pour un certificat d'aptitude pédagogique à l'enseignement secondaire (CAPES). Elle offre également une licence pour les étudiants qui présentent une thèse au cours de la quatrième année. Elle n'a pas de spécialisation en pédagogie, ce qui est étrange pour une école de ce type. Bien que le programme des études soit relativement bien élaboré et adéquat, son application est cependant très limitée.

Les candidats à l'ENS doivent être titulaires du Baccalauréat II et passer un examen d'entrée dans leurs options respectives. Environ 40% de ces

candidats sont admis. A peu près 10% d'entre eux sont éliminés du programme après la première année. Le nombre total des inscriptions pour l'année académique 1984/85 était de 219 étudiants, dont 30 femmes. Au total, trente diplômés ont été décernés. Le Tableau 7.2 donne le nombre d'inscriptions et de diplômés obtenus entre 1971 et 1984. Bien que le nombre d'inscriptions ait augmenté de 43% depuis 1979-80, le nombre de diplômés a décliné.

Contrairement aux autres facultés de l'Université, l'ENS ne prévoit pas de droits d'inscription. Cette politique a été adoptée afin d'attirer un plus grand nombre d'étudiants dans le programme et, par voie de conséquence, dans la profession d'enseignant. Malheureusement, peu de diplômés de l'ENS poursuivent une carrière d'enseignant. L'administration estime que sur 100 diplômés, seulement 33 enseignent dans les écoles secondaires d'Haïti, 14 sont employés dans d'autres secteurs et 53 travaillent à l'étranger.

## 7.2 CONTRAINTES

Les principales contraintes de l'ENS sont d'ordre financier ou relatives à la planification et à la gestion de ses programmes. Les conditions économiques défavorables limitent sérieusement les maigres ressources financières allouées à la formation initiale. La modicité des budgets ne permet pas de remédier aux problèmes qui affectent la qualité des programmes de formation, tels que le manque d'enseignants dans certaines écoles normales, la supervision inadéquate des stagiaires, le sous-équipement des locaux, la pénurie du matériel pédagogique, les déficiences au niveau des programmes et des installations de l'ENS.

Le programme de l'IPN concernant la formation en cours d'emploi des enseignants est confronté à de nombreux problèmes. Le manque de centralisation du système administratif ne permet pas la collecte de données de base sur la participation des enseignants. Le manque de coordination entre le personnel de l'IPN, les inspecteurs et les conseillers pédagogiques a bien souvent faussé l'évaluation des stagiaires. Une planification déficiente s'est bien souvent traduite par des retards dans l'émission des programmes de radio éducative.

## 7.3 PROBLEMES

Les problèmes qui caractérisent le sous-secteur de la formation des enseignants sont résumés dans la section ci-après.

Efficacité externe. Les problèmes de dotation en personnel ou en locaux, et de ressources budgétaires auxquels sont confrontées les institutions de formation initiale montrent clairement qu'aucune stratégie de mise en oeuvre qui permettrait d'atteindre les objectifs des programmes n'a été arrêtée. Les

Tableau 7.2

Nombre d'inscriptions et de diplômés obtenus entre 1971 et 1984

| Année | Inscriptions | Diplômés |
|---|---|---|
| 1971-71 | 75 | 12 |
| 1972-73 | 66 | 15 |
| 1973-74 | 66 | 20 |
| 1974-75 | 104 | 18 |
| 1975-76 | 87 | 34 |
| 1976-77 | 103 | 20 |
| 1977-78 | 110 | 35 |
| 1978-79 | 164 | 43 |
| 1979-80 | 153 | 52 |
| 1980-81 | 162 | 38 |
| 1981-82 | 159 | 37 |
| 1982-83 | 155 | ND |
| 1983-84 | 219 | 30 |

Source : IPN
ND=Non Disponibles

objectifs sont souvent trop ambitieux et peu réalistes.

Une projection de l'offre et de la demande d'enseignants du primaire d'ici à la fin de cette décennie indique un manque d'enseignants certifiés par rapport aux objectifs de la Réforme. On estime qu'il manquera entre 1.968 et 2.218 enseignants par an entre 1984 et 1990. La pénurie d'enseignants certifiés dans les écoles secondaires sera encore plus importante en nombre réel, bien que peut-être moins significative quant à son impact. D'ici à 1990-91, il sera nécessaire de recruter un total de 9.800 nouveaux enseignants pour desservir une population d'étudiants dont le nombre passera de 142.000 à 252.000. Au taux de production actuel de 30 diplômés par an, l'ENS aura formé 210 nouveaux enseignants, représentant seulement 2% de la demande projetée et un manque de 9.634 enseignants certifiés.

Recruter et retenir les enseignants constituent le problème primordial. La récente décision d'augmenter les salaires des enseignants du secteur public montre que le gouvernement s'attaque aux deux facettes du problème, mais s'engage dans des frais courants plus élevés qu'il peut se permettre à long terme. Une solution possible serait d'explorer des possibilités de motivations non monétaires qui amélioreraient le niveau de vie des enseignants et leur procureraient une certaine sécurité sur le plan personnel.

Le succès de la Réforme dépend beaucoup de la réussite des programmes de formation continue, à cause de leurs répercussions plus immédiates, et de la base solide de financement dont ils jouissent. La plupart des enseignants du secteur public ont reçu un certain degré de formation qui sera encore amélioré au cours des cinq années à venir, en accord avec le Quatrième Projet d'Education. La pénurie anticipée pourrait être tempérée si suffisamment

d'enseignants sont recyclés au niveau des deux premiers cycles du primaire, où l'expansion se fera le plus rapidement sentir. Cette mesure devrait être combinée avec le système de classes alternées dans les écoles où cela est possible. La pierre d'achoppement du programme de formation continue est que celui-ci n'aborde pas les problèmes de l'enseignement dans les régions rurales où résident cependant 80% de la population.

Efficacité interne. Les déficiences des systèmes d'administration et d'évaluation à l'IPN rendent difficile l'analyse de l'efficacité interne de la formation initiale. Il existe peu d'information quant aux progrès réalisés par les stagiaires tout au long du programme, ou aux résultats tangibles de ce programme. D'une manière générale, les questions essentielles à considérer en vue d'une éventuelle amélioration du programme sont : le champ d'application, l'évaluation, le groupement des stagiaires, l'utilisation de la radio, la supervision des enseignants, la planification et l'administration.

L'établissement d'un programme pour la formation de nouveaux enseignants est limité par la faible proportion étudiant/enseignant, la pénurie en personnel qualifié, et par les restrictions budgétaires. Etant donné les répercussions financières du faible taux actuel des inscriptions, les institutions de formation initiale ne peuvent garantir un niveau minimum de qualité. Il est nécessaire de trouver de nouvelles stratégies pour améliorer la qualité des programmes offerts par ces institutions sans pour autant augmenter leurs frais de fonctionnement. Cet objectif pourrait être atteint par l'utilisation de moyens indirects d'enseignement tels la radio et la télévision. Le personnel actuel pourrait être utilisé de façon plus efficace en regroupant certains éléments du programme de l'école normale--comme la formation pédagogique--en un lieu unique. Une autre possibilité de regroupement serait de réduire le nombre d'écoles normales financées par le gouvernement, et d'améliorer la capacité d'accueil et la qualité des programmes des écoles restaurés.

La qualité du programme de formation d'enseignants pour le secondaire, en vigueur à l'ENS, est affaiblie par le manque de manuels et de laboratoires dans les matières de spécialisation, et par la dotation inadéquate en personnel pour la formation pédagogique. Le nombre d'enseignants formés et la qualité de la formation pourraient être accrus de façon significative par l'utilisation des ressources et des installations de l'Université d'Etat d'Haïti. L'ENS pourrait également concentrer ses efforts sur la transformation de sa section de Pédagogie en un centre de formation capable d'organiser, à l'intention des diplômés des facultés de Sciences, de Lettres et des Sciences Sociales, un programme intensif de formation d'une durée d'un an débouchant sur un

certificat d'aptitude pédagogique.

Accès et équité. Aucun problème majeur dans ce domaine n'entrave l'éfficacité du programme de formation des enseignants. La répartition des écoles normales et des centres pédagogiques régionaux dans les principales zones du pays assure les mêmes chances d'accès à tous les candidats qualifiés et à tous les enseignants.

Administration et la supervision. Ce sont les problèmes les plus cruciaux de ces programmes. La formation continue n'est pas bien gérée. L'IPN manque de personnel et embrasse trop d'activités. Son personnel est mal qualifié dans les branches clés de la planification et de la gestion. Sa performance devrait s'améliorer sensiblement au cours du Quatrième Projet d'Education, grâce à l'apport du personnel supplémentaire et à l'aide logistique dont il bénéficiera. La supervision des stagiaires y est entravée à tous les niveaux par des problèmes de transport diminuant ainsi la mobilité du personnel d'inspection à l'ENS, et par le fait que les enseignants sont employés à temps partiel.

Coûts et financement. Il est légèrement plus coûteux de former un enseignant du primaire qu'un enseignant du secondaire (889 dollars contre 813 dollars). Dans chaque cas, le gouvernement paie la plus grande partie des frais (79% pour le primaire et 77% pour le secondaire), les donateurs payant le reste. Les participants aux programmes de formation initiale n'encourent aucun frais à l'exception de ceux qui proviendraient d'éventuels manques à gagner.

Des rendements satisfaisants pour le secteur de l'éducation ne peuvent être escomptés à partir d'investissements faits dans le domaine de la formation initiale (voir chapitre 2). A ceci, deux raisons peuvent être avancées : en premier lieu, il ne semble pas très judicieux d'investir considérablement dans la formation de nouveaux enseignants, ni même de l'encourager, si les sérieux problèmes de recrutement et d'abandons ne sont résolus en même temps. En effet, il n'est pas profitable de fournir une formation pédagogique et tout un programme d'études à des personnes qui vraisemblablement ne travailleront pas comme enseignants. En deuxième lieu, il sera nécessaire de rehausser le niveau de compétences des enseignants déjà en poste afin d'améliorer la qualité de l'instruction. Une période de formation plus courte associée à la formation en cours d'emploi se traduirait par un rendement plus rapide des investissements.

## 7.4 CONCLUSIONS

**Les conclusions suivantes sont tirées des analyses précédentes.**

Conclusion 1 - Perspectives. Les objectifs du plan quinquennal concernant la formation de nouveaux enseignants du primaire ne seront vraisemblablement pas atteints par les écoles normales, à cause formation de nouveaux enseignants du primaire ne seront vraisemblablement pas atteints par les écoles normales, à cause des conditions économiques généralement défavorables et des contraintes budgétaires qui limitent à la fois les efforts de recrutement du Ministère et les perspectives d'emploi.

Conclusion 2 - Financement. La pénurie des ressources financières actuelles risque de compromettre sérieusement l'efficacité des programmes de formation initiale des écoles normales.

Conclusion 3 - Gestion. Le programme de formation continue des enseignants est mal géré par l'Institut Pédagogique National, qui a entrepris trop d'activités à la fois et a grand besoin de personnel qualifié en planification et en gestion.

Conclusion 4 - Enseignement en milieu rural. Il n'est pas évident que le programme de formation continue inculque aux enseignants les compétences nécessaires pour enseigner en milieu rural.

Conclusion 5 - Les écoles secondaires. Jusqu'à présent il n'y a eu aucun plan d'action pour atteindre les objectifs définis en matière de formation des enseignants du secondaire. Le projet de création d'un Baccalauréat Pédagogique n'aura probablement pas d'impact significatif sur le nombre d'enseignants qualifiés qui seront formés pour le secondaire.

Conclusion 6 - L'ENS. La qualité du programme de formation d'enseignants du secondaire à l'Ecole Normale Supérieure est sérieusement diminuée par l'insuffisance des locaux, par le manque de matériel et d'équipement pédagogiques, ainsi que par la pénurie en personnel qualifié de la section pédagogique.

Conclusion 7 - Le Niveau des diplômes. Les possiblités d'une réforme adéquate et réelle de l'éducation en Haïti sont actuellement très aléatoires, vu qu'il n'existe aucune institution dans le pays qui offre en éducation une formation de type universitaire.

## 7.5 RECOMMANDATIONS

Huit recommandations peuvent être faites sur la base des conclusions ci-dessus.

Recommandation 1 - Gestion. Encourager les donateurs à coordonner leurs activités avec celles du Quatrième Projet d'Education afin d'améliorer la capacité en planification et en gestion de la section de formation de l'Institut Pédagogique National.

Il y a plusieurs actions possibles. Une aide à la formation technique peut être pourvue grâce à l'envoi de consultants, à l'organisation sur place de séminaires sur la planification et la gestion. Il peut être aussi envisagé la mise en place de systèmes informatisés de gestion de l'information.

Recommandation 2 - Radio éducative. Développer une stratégie globale pour l'utilisation de la radio dans la formation des enseignants.

Une approche possible est de fournir à court terme une assistance technique qui aiderait la section radio de l'IPN dans l'élaboration de projets et la mise en oeuvre de stratégies d'utilisation de la radio éducative dans la formation des enseignants, ainsi que dans des programmes d'éducation formelle et non formelle.

Recommandation 3 - Systèmes d'instruction. Rechercher de nouveaux systèmes d'instruction qui ne nécesiteraient pas l'organisation du recylage des enseignants sur une grande échelle.

Un projet pilote d'enseignement programmé en pédagogie de l'enseignement primaire qui incorporerait également la radio éducative pourrait, par exemple, être développé.

Recommandation 4 - Motivations. Rechercher avec le secteur privé des moyens pour améliorer le système d'encouragement des enseignants.

Il pourrait être envisagé de mettre en place un programme de motivations non salariales qui attireraient de nouveaux candidats dans l'enseignement en leur offrant des avantages divers comme, par exemple, une assurance couvrant les soins médicaux et dentaires, des crédits immobiliers à faibles interêts, des réductions et des exonérations d'impôts, des remises de prix sur les voyages et les biens de consommation.

Recommandation 5 - L'Enseignement en milieu rural. Encourager la recherche de méthodes innovatrices de formation des enseignants qui répondent aux besoins des communautés rurales.

Une possiblité serait d'aider financièrement l'Ecole Normale de Lavaud à mener une étude détaillée de son programme en vue d'une application plus large.

Recommandation 6 - Centralisation de la formation. Dispenser les cours de pédagogie dans un seul et même institut afin d'assurer une plus grande homogénéité de l'institution.

L'une des possibilités consisterait à entreprendre une étude détaillée sur la construction d'une institution centrale où une formation pédagogique pourrait être dispensées à tous les étudiants des écoles normales par un personnel enseignant hautement qualifié.

Recommandation 7 - Coordination. Coordonner le programme de formation de l'Ecole Normale Supérieure avec ceux de l'Université d'Etat d'Haïti en vue d'augmenter le nombre d'enseignants certifiés dans les écoles secondaires.

On pourrait étudier la possibilité de créer un nouveau programme qui décernerait un certificat d'aptitude pédagogique aux diplômés des Facultés des Lettres, des Sciences, ou des Sciences Sociales de l'Université qui auraient suivi les cours intensifs de formation pédagogique animés par l'ENS.

Recommandation 8 - Niveau des diplômes. Rehausser le niveau de qualification du personnel de la section pédagogique de l'ENS et améliorer le contenu du programme afin d'offrir des Licences et des Maîtrises des domaines tels que la docimologie, l'évaluation, la planification et la gestion de l'éducation.

Ceci pourrait être accompli par la constitution d'une équipe de conseillers techniques qui aiderait à l'élaboration de programmes, assumeraient une charge d'enseignement et organiseraient dans un pays-tiers approprié des programmes de Maîtrise et de Doctorat à l'intention d'étudiants haïtiens.

## CHAPTER PREFACE

Chapter 7, "Teacher Training," was reviewed in Port-au-Prince on April 10, 1986 by Mr. Guy-Serge Pompilus, Director of Studies at the National Pedagogical Institute (IPN) and Mrs. Circe Douyon, former Director of the Office of Teacher Training of the Ministry of Education, with the collaboration of Mr. Milton Adams, Deputy Director of IEES, Florida State University.

Corrections of factual detail and statistical presentation were made at the outset of the session. The reviewers expressed general satisfaction with the contents of the chapter but felt that more emphasis should have been given to two critical factors that underlie many of the problems facing teacher education in Haiti:

(i) lack of institutional capacity among those institutions responsible for teacher training, and

(ii) the inadequacy of existing mechanisms for the coordination of their efforts with those of other Ministry divisions responsible for plannning and for basic education.

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# 7.0 TEACHER TRAINING*

Teacher training in Haiti is the centerpiece of a major Education Reform to provide an improved primary school program to the majority of the country's school-age children. This chapter presents an overview of the teacher training subsector within the framework of Government's goals. Recommendations are made for the more efficient and effective use of resources through improved planning and administration, new policies, and technical assistance.

Training programs for primary and secondary school teachers are examined. The chapter does not include training for educational administrative and supervisory personnel or programs for vocational school teachers. A discussion of the latter is presented in Chapter 10.

The overview of the current status of teacher training activities includes brief institutional profiles of three training programs, followed by an analysis of the subsector within the framework of the five thematic issues common to all of the subsector chapters. This analysis leads to a set of conclusions and recommendations at the end of the chapter.

## 7.1 STATUS

This section begins with brief discussions of the historical setting, the Education Reform, the subsector structure, and donor activities. This is followed by descriptions of the National Pedagogical Institute and three teacher training institutions.

### 7.1.1 Context

Teacher training in Haiti is beset by financial constraints, problems of planning and management, recruitment difficulties, and inadequate numbers of qualified personnel in key areas. Training programs are undergoing major organizational and structural adjustments intended to improve their coordination with the Education Reform. A major objective of these changes is to centralize all training activities under one administrative authority. The brief review of the history of teacher training in Haiti which begins this chapter will be useful in assessing its present status and in appreciating the reforms that are reshaping it.

Historical Setting. Haiti had no formal rural schools until 1848. A formal education characterized an exclusive urban elite for whom that distinction served as the basis for social and political leadership. The first teacher training institution, the Normal School for Teachers (l'Ecole Normale

*The draft for this chapter was prepared by Milton N. Adams, Florida State University.



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d'Institutrices) was established in Port-au-Prince in 1914. This institution was oriented toward the urban environment and influenced by French pedagogical principles. During the American occupation (1915-1934), American educational planners directed their attention toward the problems of rural education. Their efforts led to the creation of 74 rural schools and the establishment of the first rural teacher training institution at Damien in 1924.

In 1943, under the Dartigue reform, urban and rural teacher training was consolidated into one system. However, the action was short-lived, for 3 years later, under the reform of President Estimé, training institutions returned to their exclusive urban orientation. Rural teacher training was abandoned during this period and was not addressed again until 1954, when the rural teacher training schools reopened.

In 1976, when the World Bank initiated preliminary studies with a view toward financing educational reform, teacher training was characterized by striking dissimilarities. Five institutions existed in the country, each following its own program. Urban schools and teacher training institutions were separate and placed under the Ministry of Agriculture.

Efforts to resolve divisions by creating a uniform teacher training system were initially rejected on the grounds that such a merger would lower the level of the teaching profession, "ruralize" urban education, and disrupt employment within the profession. A counter proposal offered by a group of educators attending a symposium at Damien called for the creation of a 4-year teacher training institution for the elite in Port-au-Prince with an elevated status and a high level of general culture. They also proposed the creation of several middle-level schools. In 1976, the Ministry of Education decided to merge the two separate educational tracks and to standardize the programs at the eight teacher training schools.

At this writing, teacher training is undergoing further reorganization which has brought preservice and inservice training under the central authority of the National Pedagogical Institute (Institut Pédagogique National - IPN) which is charged with overseeing the implementation of the new Education Reform.

The Education Reform, whose activities are in part financed by the World Bank, is a bold attempt to redress the historical disparities and to present inefficiencies that characterize the Haitian educational system. Its objectives call for increasing the number of elementary school places and improving the system of promotion, school curriculum, teaching methods, and administration.

The Reform has stirred some controversy over the decision to use Creole as the language of instruction in the first 4 years of elementary school. This issue has tended to obscure the more significant fact that the Reform program is



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a positive response to the rising public demand for education and for the social and economic benefits believed to be associated with it. It is an enterprising frontal challenge to the country's troubling legacy of widespread illiteracy, which has come to be viewed as part of the national identity.

Teachers and the Education Reform. Teachers are a key element of the Reform, perhaps the most important. There can be no transformation of Haitian education without competent, motivated instructors. They are being asked to play a pivotal role as change agents in the system, introducing a more relevant curriculum through improved teaching methods. The Reform decisions that are currently reshaping teacher training are grouped around three interrelated factors: the professional status of teachers, their qualifications, and their numbers.

1. Professional Status. Until the creation of the 1984 Teacher Charter, teaching was not a recognized profession in Haiti. There was no national policy establishing the rights and responsibilities of teachers, nor were there provisions for determining minimum qualifications, salaries, or promotion criteria. Such decisions were made by school directors on the basis of market forces. Except for a few exemplary private schools, salaries and qualifications were set at very low levels. Most public school teachers earned a monthly salary of less than $80, while some private sector teachers worked for as little as $40. Some rural teachers reputedly paid up to half their salaries to unqualified substitutes to replace them at their posts while they sought second jobs in Port-au-Prince.

   In 1979, Government established a uniform monthly salary of $100 applicable to all public school teachers. Though this was an improvement over prevailing salary levels, it is still less than the wages received by many secretaries and private chauffeurs in the capital.

   The new Teacher Charter introduces a standard formula for determining salaries, taking into consideration such factors as experience and qualifications. The starting monthly salary for a graduate of a teacher training school under the new scale will be $120. The salary rises to $152 after 8 years of experience, and to $168 after 20 years. The Charter also provides formal definition of levels of qualifications and determines procedures for recruitment, selection, posting, and promotion.

   The new salary scale is generally considered to be a positive Government initiative for recruiting new teachers and retaining

experienced ones. However, it commits Government to increased recurring costs that it can ill afford. This dilemma illustrates the relationship between teacher salaries, the quality of instruction, and society's capacity to absorb schooling costs, which is discussed further under supply and demand in Section 7.2.1.1.

2. Qualifications. When Reform was first being implemented in 1982, it was found that out of a teaching force of 14,400 teachers, only about 19% were qualified, having completed a teacher training school program or its equivalent. Some 30% of the teaching corps had only 3 years of post-primary schooling. In fact, the percentage of qualified teachers had declined from the 1977 level, which was 50%. This downward trend was attributed to an 8-10% annual attrition rate of qualified teachers, who were leaving the school system to seek better jobs in the capital and abroad. With the support of World Bank funding, Government has initiated an important inservice teacher training program designed to upgrade the skills and qualifications of practicing teachers. These results are discussed under National Goals and Objectives in Section 7.1.2.

3. Numbers. Between 1984-90, an average of 2,373 new instructors will need to enter the teaching force each year to meet Government objectives of expanding primary schooling under the Reform. Their preparation is conducted at the 10 accredited normal schools responsible for preservice teacher training. Recruitment incentives include the improved salary scales introduced under the Teacher Charter and new career paths discussed in Section 7.2.3.

   Efforts to recruit and to train new teachers while upgrading the qualifications of those active in the profession have encountered serious setbacks. The simultaneous expansion and transformation of primary education has overloaded the teacher training system, aggravating its deficiencies in planning, administration, staffing, and evaluation. It has not responded well to the historic challenge it faces. At this juncture, the system is being reorganized, reinforced, and refinanced by its principal donor with a view toward promoting greater effectiveness under the Fourth Education Project which is to start in July 1985.

Subsector Structure. The teacher training subsector includes both public and private training institutions, reflecting the growing duality of an educational system in which the private sector serves 60% of the elementary school students and 80% of the secondary school students.

The private sector programs vary widely in their structure, content, and duration and have not yet been systematically studied. Mission Possible, an evangelical organization, provides 2 weeks of inservice training to the 67 teachers in its schools three times a year, during the Christmas, Easter, and summer holiday periods. Other religious groups focus on preservice training, such as the 4-year program operated by the Catholic Church at Lavaud, described more fully in Section 7.1.6 of this chapter.

Four of the private teacher training institutions are accredited by the Ministry of Education: the preservice programs at Frères in Port-au-Prince, Diquini at Carrfour, and institutions at Cayes and Hinche. The four are operated by the Methodist, Adventist, and Catholic churches. Accreditation implies that these schools follow the same instructional program as Government normal schools, though, in practice, programs vary even among Government institutions.

The Ecoles Normales d'Institutrices (ENIs) are the public sector normal schools for preservice training of elementary school instructors. Six of these Government-operated normal schools are located throughout the country, in Port-au-Prince, Damiens, Gonaives, Cap-Haitien, Milot, and the Marfranc school at Jérémie. The Ecole Normale Supérieure (ENS) of Port-au-Prince is the sole institution responsible for the formal training of secondary school teachers.

The National Pedagogical Institute is responsible for the inservice training of primary school teachers and other school personnel. Its role was expanded in November 1984 to include the direction and coordination of preservice training.

Activities of International Development Agencies. Three international development agencies are active in supporting teacher training activities: The World Bank, UNICEF, and the Organization of American States (OAS). The World Bank is the principal financer of Education Reform. With Government, it is preparing the Fourth Education Project, which is expected to total about $22.3 million. Some $1.9 million of this total is planned for the support of training programs for teachers and other school personnel. Funding for training in three previous World Bank projects has totaled $2.1 million, with an estimated $1.5 million having been spent on the inservice training of teachers.

The OAS has financed a 5-year program to upgrade the training of normal school teachers, and UNICEF has provided funds for stipends to normal school students. Other sources of funding or technical assistance have been the French and Canadian governments, Unesco, and the Inter-American Development Bank (IDB).



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### 7.1.2 National Goals and Objectives

To attain the Reform objectives of making education more accessible to the vast majority of the population, as well as making it more relevant to the prevailing social, cultural, and economic realities of the country, planners decided that the majority of the present teachers would have to be retrained and that others would have to be recruited and provided preservice training through the normal schools.

The training targets in the 1981-86 Five-Year Plan are presented in Table 7.1. It calls for retraining approximately 90% of the primary school teaching force and initial training for 2,750 new primary school teachers and 4,600 secondary school teachers.

The results midway through the planning period are mixed. Considerable resources have been allocated to inservice training, while the preservice component has received little additional support. The official figures presented in Table 7.1 indicate that IPN is within reach of attaining its 5-year targets, having reached some 63% of the primary school teachers, mostly in the public section. These figures, estimates provided by IPN, do not represent full cycles of retraining, but only the number of teachers who have had some level of participation in the program. As discussed in Section 7.1.3.1, because of administrative problems at IPN, the actual number of teachers retrained or the quality of their training could not be determined accurately.

TABLE 7.1

**Teacher Training Targets and Results, 1981-86**

| | Inservice Training of Primary School Teachers | Preservice Training | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | Primary School Teachers | Secondary School Teachers |
| Training Targets | 13,000 | 2,750 | 4,600 |
| Completed by Nov. 1984 | 8,138 | 740 | 140 |
| Percentage Trained | 63% | 27% | 3% |

Sources: IPN, ENS, 1981-86 Five-Year Plan.

### 7.1.3 Inservice Training

The inservice training of teachers is one of the responsibilities of the National Pedagogical Institute, which is Government's central educational agency responsible for planning, coordinating, and implementing the reform policies. It manages all school personnel training programs, including those for inspectors, pedagogical advisors, school directors, and normal school teachers and directors. In 1984, the preservice teacher training system was integrated into the IPN training section. Its other responsibilities include development of the Reform curriculum, textbook production and distribution, and formative evaluation of the Reform.

The Institute was established in 1975, at its present location in Port-au-Prince. Its antecedent is the French Pedagogical Mission (Mission Pédagogique Francçaise - MPF) established in 1972 to provide technical assistance in curriculum development and pedagogy at the primary school level. The MPF staff was 90% French. Under the World Bank projects, Haitian participation in the Institute has increased to its present level of 85% of a staff of 108 professionals.

Problems associated with the inservice teacher training program suggest that the magnitude of its tasks has overextended the Institute's planning and management capacities, which will need to be strengthened if the retraining program and the Reform are to achieve their goals. Some of the problems are:

- The program has never become fully operational because of IPN's problems in organizing its educational radio component.
- Reliable information is not available on the inschool performance of retrained teachers because IPN's evaluation section did not function as desired.
- Reliable information is not available on the number of teachers actually trained through the program, because a central system of records has not been established.

#### 7.1.3.1 Administration and Supervision

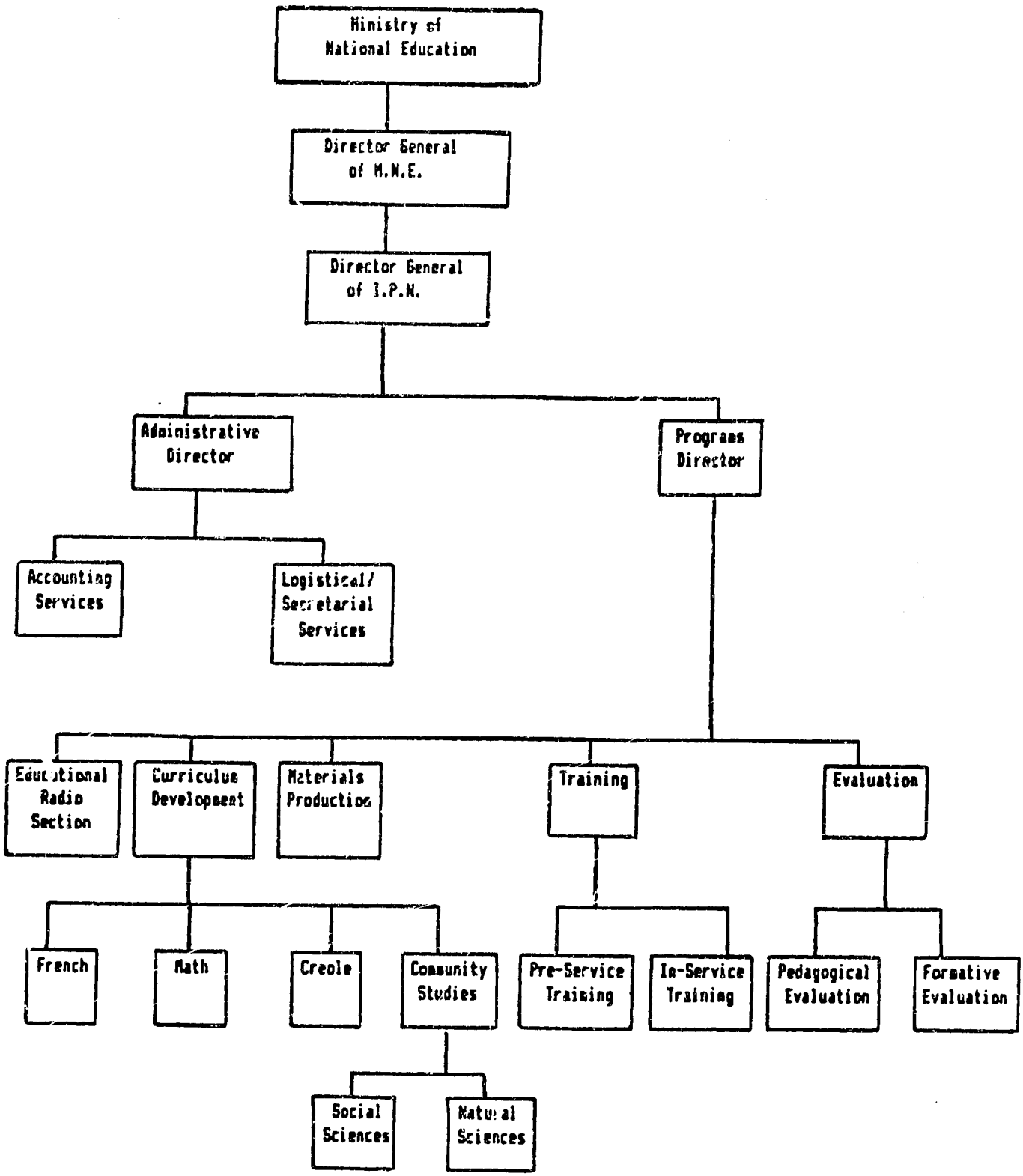
The IPN is a quasi-autonomous educational agency, under the Ministry's general Director of National Education. The Institute is headed by a general director, assisted by an administrative director and a projects director (directeur d'études). Responsibility for the overall operation of the Institute and for the coordination of activities between its sections is assumed respectively by the general director and the projects director.

The organizational structure of IPN is presented in Figure 7.1. The Institute is comprised of five major sections concerned with educational radio,

FIGURE 7.1

Organization Chart of the

National Pedagogical Institute (IPN)



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curriculum development, instructional materials development, training, and evaluation. The training section is organized into preservice and inservice units, headed by a unit chief (responsable). Prior to November 1984, the preservice unit was an independent entity (Direction d'Enseignement Normal).

With the progressive centralization of Reform activities under the administration of IPN, problems in planning began to appear at the Institute in 1982, and these became critical during September 1983 - March 1984 when the World Bank found it necessary to suspend funding because the Institute had been unable to produce an annual workplan.

Undoubtedly, many of the Institute's problems are related to constraints created by understaffing and a particular absence of qualified personnel trained in the areas of planning and management. Most of the staff at IPN hold B.A. degrees in their respective specialty areas, some have M.A. degrees, and a few have doctorates, but none hold degrees in the field of management.

One Government proposal to strengthen the Institute's administrative capacities is to provide management support by assigning graduates of the National Institute for Administration, Management, and Higher International Studies (INAGHEI), the management institute of the State University of Haiti. In addition, under the Fourth Education Project, IPN will be reinforced with four new staff positions, providing a specialist in planning and operations, a specialist in training management, a statistician, and a management specialist who will develop a central records system. Equal attention needs to be given to examining the IPN planning process which, in 1982, changed from a procedure by which annual workplans were developed by each unit and submitted to the World Bank for fund disbursement, to a process by which planning became highly centralized.

The supervision of teachers after training is another key area affecting program quality which has been deficient in the IPN program. Newly acquired teaching competencies need to be reinforced, or at least practiced, if they are to be maintained and perfected. Shortages of qualified staff and transportation difficulties have severely limited the mobility of the IPN staff and the corps of regional inspectors and pedagogical counselors responsible for follow-up supervision.

The inspectors were to have assumed a major administrative function in the inservice training program. They were responsible for collection of enrollment forms from teachers in their regions, attendance control, distribution of instructional materials, organization of practice teaching activities, payment of stipends to teachers and trainers, and the organization of formative and final evaluation activities. Planning problems have been such that, after

assignment to their regional offices, many inspectors were unable to exercise administrative functions because they lacked basic equipment and supplies, including: desks, chairs, typewriters, filing cabinets, folders, and writing materials. These problems of transportation and logistics support are to be addressed in the Fourth Education Project scheduled to begin in July.

7.1.3.2 Program

The current 1984-85 program calls for retraining teachers in two stages, the first leading to a teaching certificate (Certificat d'Aptitude Pédagogique - CAP-1). This enables them to teach in the first cycle in Reform primary schools, comprised of grades 1-4. The second stage of training, leading to the CAP-2, is intended to prepare teachers for the second-cycle, grades 5-7. Successful completion of the program will give previously unqualified teachers with 10 years of schooling the same rights under the new Teacher Charter as graduates of normal schools, though they will enter at a lower pay scale step.

This two-stage training approach began in an experimental form in October 1984 and will be perfected under the Fourth Education Project. It has replaced the former, less efficient system by which teachers were trained in three-stage increments comprising grades 1 and 2, grades 3 and 4, and grades 5, 6, and 7. Because of the different competencies required to teach at the various grade levels, many of the teachers retrained under the old system will need to receive "complementary" training.

The current program is organized around three phased components, similar in structure for CAP-1 and CAP-2. For CAP-1, the first phase is to be conducted from January to April. For the CAP-2, this phase begins earlier in November. The program is presented in Table 7.2.

TABLE 7.2

Structure of Inservice Training Programs

| Phase | Program |
|---|---|
| 1 | CAP-1 (January-April), CAP-2 (November-April)<br>Course work transmitted by educational radio, use of self-instructional texts, inschool pedagogical support from school directors and pedagogical counselors. |
| 2 | Easter Vacation<br>Formal training seminars |
| 3 | Summer Vacation<br>10-week formal training seminar<br>Final examinations<br>CAP awarded |

Source: National Pedagogical Institute (IPN).

Field studies are being conducted by the IPN Educational Radio Section to determine the most appropriate means of organizing the radio classes. Radio instruction is a crucial component of the program, as it assures a minimum uniform level of quality instruction for all trainees. The radio component never became operational during past training efforts, because planning failed to identify adequate structures and support personnel. It is not expected to begin under the new program until October 1985.

7.1.3.3 Participants

The number of teachers to be reached by the inservice training effort is based upon projections of new Reform classes to be created between 1984-90. These projections, shown in Table 7.3, plan for an increase in the number of first-grade classes from the 1984/85 level of 1,600 to 4,000 by the end of this planning period. To keep pace with this expansion, the number of sixth-grade classes is expected to increase from 40 to 1,600.

TABLE 7.3

Number of New Reform Classes by Grade,

1984/85 to 1989/90

| | Year | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Grade | 1984/85 | 1985/86 | 1986/87 | 1987/88 | 1988/89 | 1989/90 |
| 1 | 1,600 | 2,100 | 2,600 | 3,100 | 3,600 | 4,000 |
| 2 | 1,100 | 1,600 | 2,100 | 2,600 | 3,100 | 3,600 |
| 3 | 1,000 | 1,100 | 1,600 | 2,100 | 2,600 | 3,100 |
| 4 | 420 | 1,000 | 1,100 | 1,600 | 2,100 | 2,600 |
| 5 | 200 | 420 | 1,000 | 1,100 | 1,600 | 2,100 |
| 6 | 40 | 200 | 420 | 1,000 | 1,100 | 1,600 |
| 7 | | 40 | 200 | 420 | 1,100 | 1,000 |
| 8 | | | 40 | 200 | 420 | 1,000 |
| 9 | | | | 40 | 200 | 420 |
| 10 | | | | | 40 | 200 |
| Totals | 4,360 | 6,460 | 9,060 | 12,160 | 15,860 | 19,620 |

Source: National Pedagogical Institute (IPN).



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The projected need for new "Reform teachers" up to 1987/88, totaling 11,360, is shown in Table 7.4. The remaining 800 teachers are to come from the normal schools. For the 1985/86 academic year, some 3,860 teachers will need to be prepared for new Reform classes; 1,760 of these teachers will be receiving complementary training to upgrade them for the complete first cycle of grades.

TABLE 7.4

Number of Reform Teachers Required,

1985-86 to 1987-88

| | 1985/86 | | 1986/87 | | 1987/88 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Grade | FT | CT | FT | CT | FT | CT |
| First cycle | | | | | | |
| 1 | 1,680 | 420 | 1,600 | -- | 2,000 | -- |
| 2 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| 3 | -- | 1,100 | -- | 1,600 | -- | -- |
| 4 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Subtotal | 1,680 | 1,520 | 1,600 | 1,600 | 2,000 | -- |
| Second cycle | | | | | | |
| 5 | 420 | -- | 960 | -- | 900 | -- |
| 6 | -- | 200 | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| 7 | -- | 40 | -- | 200 | -- | -- |
| Subtotal | 420 | 240 | 960 | 200 | 900 | -- |
| Third cycle | | | | | | |
| 8 | -- | -- | 40 | -- | 200 | -- |
| 9 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| 10 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| Subtotal | -- | -- | 40 | -- | 200 | -- |
| TOTAL | 2,100 | 1,760 | 2,600 | 1,800 | 3,100 | -- |
| Annual Totals | 3,860 | | 4,400 | | 3,100 | |
| Grand Total | | | | | 11,360 | |

FT = Full Training; CT = Complementary Training

Source: National Pedagogical Institute (IPN).

7.1.3.4 Staff

The professional staff of IPN as a whole is comprised of 85 specialists and technicians. Most are Haitian, with the exception of 14 French technical assistants and 2 specialists from the World Bank and Unesco. The number of personnel in the major sections are: educational radio, 17; curriculum development, 28; materials development, 10; training, 19; and evaluation, 14.

The IPN training section is responsible for planning and coordinating teacher training activities. The teacher training seminars are conducted by the corps of about 122 pedagogical counselors, previously trained at IPN in 10-month courses. The counselors are graduates of normal schools with a minimum of 3 years' teaching experience, selected for training by a competitive examination. They are between 26 and 45 years of age, and they earn a monthly salary of $200.

Recent appraisals of their performance as trainers do not exist, but a 1982 study conducted by the IPN evaluation unit concluded that many were "not sufficiently trained for some aspects of their work and/or lack motivation." It remains to be seen whether there have been significant improvements in their training and performance since this evaluation.

School directors are expected to provide inschool support to the inservice teacher training effort. Under the current program, they are to receive 4 weeks of training to enable them to assume more active leadership in organizing inschool training activities and in providing better pedagogical guidance to teachers. Past efforts to use directors in this role have not been successful.

7.1.3.5 Curriculum

The inservice training curriculum was developed by IPN in collaboration with the Director of Primary Education and the former Director of Teacher Education. As a set of guidelines for preparing teachers to participate in the Reform, the curriculum represents a positive planning achievement. It is well designed, making good use of instructional objectives for both trainers and trainees. It is sufficiently broad in scope, presenting an orientation to the reform innovations, an introduction to basic principles of educational psychology, and training in teaching methods for the various Reform subjects.

However, the absence of the three teaching innovations, originally intended for inclusion, diminishes the internal and external efficiency of the effort. The first two innovations would have provided teachers with methods for coping with the problems of over-age pupils and multiple-grade classrooms, common to rural schools. Teachers were to have received training in (a) grouping and working with children according to their levels of ability, and (b) evaluating students by intermediate objectives, allowing them to advance through their

coursework at a more individualized pace. These methods were removed from the teacher training curriculum because it was concluded that they were not practical for Haiti due to lack of space in overcrowded classrooms. Instead, a policy has been implemented to exclude simple over-age children from first-grade classes. This group of children, over the age of 6, represents 48% of first-year enrollments.

The third innovation would have been the use of educational radio to supplement the formal training sessions. As mentioned previously, the radio component is not yet fully operational. Its absence certainly deprives the program of a significant qualitative input.

The official curriculum consists of 10 basic components of 224 hours of instruction, dispensed through 112 2-hour sessions. The components are: philosophy and fundamental orientations of the Reform, oral French, child psychology, Creole, mathematics, readiness training, community studies, physical education, cultural activities, and educational radio. Following is a summary of the curriculum:

1. Philosophy and Fundamental Orientations of the Reform (18 sessions). Presentation and discussion of the general reform objectives, the Teacher Charter, and the instructional orientation of the various Reform grades.
2. Oral French (18 sessions). Instruction is provided in audio-visual and direct methods of teaching French as a second language. Content includes: Reform objectives for the teaching of French, pedagogical foundations of audio-visual and direct teaching methods, utilization of sequential images and dialogues for instruction, techniques of memorization and dramatization, utilization of transition and revision lessons, evaluation of oral competencies, and utilization of radio in instruction.
3. Child Psychology (12 sessions). These sessions provide a foundation for reflection on the intellectual development of the child and the importance of creating favorable classroom conditions for learning. Instruction focuses on: creating a stimulating environment, the negative effects of "forcing," reflection on the Piagetian model of cognitive development, student participation vs. passivity, motivation, the influence of teacher perception of students on their performance, flexible vs. structured teaching, favorable and unfavorable material conditions, the pedagogical uses of games, small group instruction, the use of lesson plans, formative evaluation, and the proper use of the blackboard drill in teaching penmanship.

4. Creole (16 sessions). These sessions provide an opportunity for reflection on methods for teaching the reading and writing of Creole. Reading subjects include: expressive reading of texts, silent reading, phonetic comparisons of French and Creole, problems of orthography, and contractions in Creole. Written Creole includes practice exercises in the composition of formal letters (e.g., request for sick leave) and formal invitations and exercises in the use of Creole in questionnaires, official forms and applications, publicity posters, telegrams, news items, and consumer instructions for appliances and products. Teachers are required to employ written Creole for analytical and technical writing by critiquing a technical lecture delivered during the session, by analyzing a document written in Creole, and by writing an essay on a technical subject such as Haitian industry or commercial fishing.

5. Mathematics (16 sessions). In the Reform schools, mathematics is to be integrated into other subjects, such as community studies (étude de milieu), and it is to have a concrete focus, progressing gradually to the abstract. Sessions begin with a discussion of subject matter objectives and proceed to instruction in methods for demonstrating fundamental mathematical operations (addition, subtraction, etc.).

6. Readiness Training (8 sessions). Readiness training (pré-apprentissage) is normally conducted in kindergarten, but since the majority of Haitian children do not attend these classes, first-cycle primary school teachers must include these activities in their program. The training sessions focus upon the prerequisites children must acquire in order to learn reading, writing, and numeracy. Discussion begins with the objectives of readiness training and proceeds to lessons on developing the child's visual and aural perception through exercises requiring the child to identify, to recognize, and to compare stimuli. Instruction is provided on methods for teaching the concepts of time and space, knowledge of the body, and colors. Other subjects include: artistic expression, illustrations, communications, hygiene, socialization, and physical activities.

7. Community Studies (16 sessions). These studies enter the primary school program during the second year. The intent is to use children's knowledge about life in their community as the foundation for meaningful generalizations and as the context for developing problem-solving skills and a capacity for independent research. The training sessions review the objectives and methodology for teaching subjects

related to the physical and social environment, health and hygiene, history, work and production, and creative activities.

8. Physical Education (8 sessions). These sessions require the trainee to develop an educational strategy for a physical education class, to elaborate a list of activities to achieve the program objectives, and to lead a class in activities.

9. Cultural Activities (6 sessions). These sessions focus on the development of illustrative skills. Trainees are required to illustrate a lesson with simple graphics, construct puppets with local materials, and sketch simple scenes to illustrate local proverbs, riddles, and fables.

10. Educational Radio (4 sessions). These sessions familiarize the trainees with the role of educational radio in their teaching and in their training.

7.1.3.6 Evaluation

The corps of pedagogical counselors and the Evaluation Section of IPN are responsible for conducting evaluation studies on the effectiveness of the teacher training program and the inschool performance of teachers. Neither of these two activities has been successfully put into operation because of supply shortages and organizational problems. Thus, no objective measures exist on the efficiency or the impact of the training effort.

The Evaluation Section of IPN is composed of 14 specialists responsible for formative evaluation of the Reform curriculum and instructional materials and/or the evaluation of such policy initiatives upon the quality of teacher training and pupil performance. Information on teacher competencies and behavioral change was to be collected by pedagogical counselors during school visits and through questionnaires to school directors and inspectors.

The evaluation of trainees attending the inservice programs was to have been conducted during the last week of the seminars, taking into consideration regularity of attendance, comprehension of content, and mastery of techniques. IPN was responsible for developing final examinations which were to be administered and corrected by the pedagogical counselors and transmitted to IPN. The plans called also for the trainee evaluations of the seminars.

Neither of these two sets of evaluation activities has functioned effectively, apparently because of planning problems and logistics constraints. The problems of administration have been such that there are no accurate data on the actual number of teachers who have received training. The estimate of 8,138, offered by IPN and presented in Table 7.1, is derived from the number of transportation vouchers issued to teachers and is generally considered to be an overestimation.

Though formal evaluation studies are not available for analysis here, certain insights into program weaknesses have been identified in a government policy paper which sets forth new orientations for the training of educational personnel under the planned Fourth Education Project. These weaknesses are:

1. The program is overfragmented into short training cycles (1st-2nd grades, 3rd-4th, and 5th-6th-7th).
2. Teachers trained under the program are overly dependent upon IPN materials in their classrooms.
3. The system of central administration and recordkeeping is inadequate.
4. A system for grouping trainees by background and levels of experience is needed.
5. The practice of using nonqualified substitutes to replace trainees in schools perturbed the classrooms.
6. School directors were not adequately used to reinforce teaching innovations in the schools.
7. Some of the instructional materials were not well adapted for use by the trainees.

7.1.3.7 Facilities and Equipment

The training of teachers takes place in 13 Regional Pedagogical Centers (Centre Pédagogique Regional - CPRs) located throughout the country, indicated in Figure 7.2. Most were constructed as extension centers of the former French Pedagogical Mission (Mission Pédagogique Francçaise - MPF), but three have been constructed since 1982.

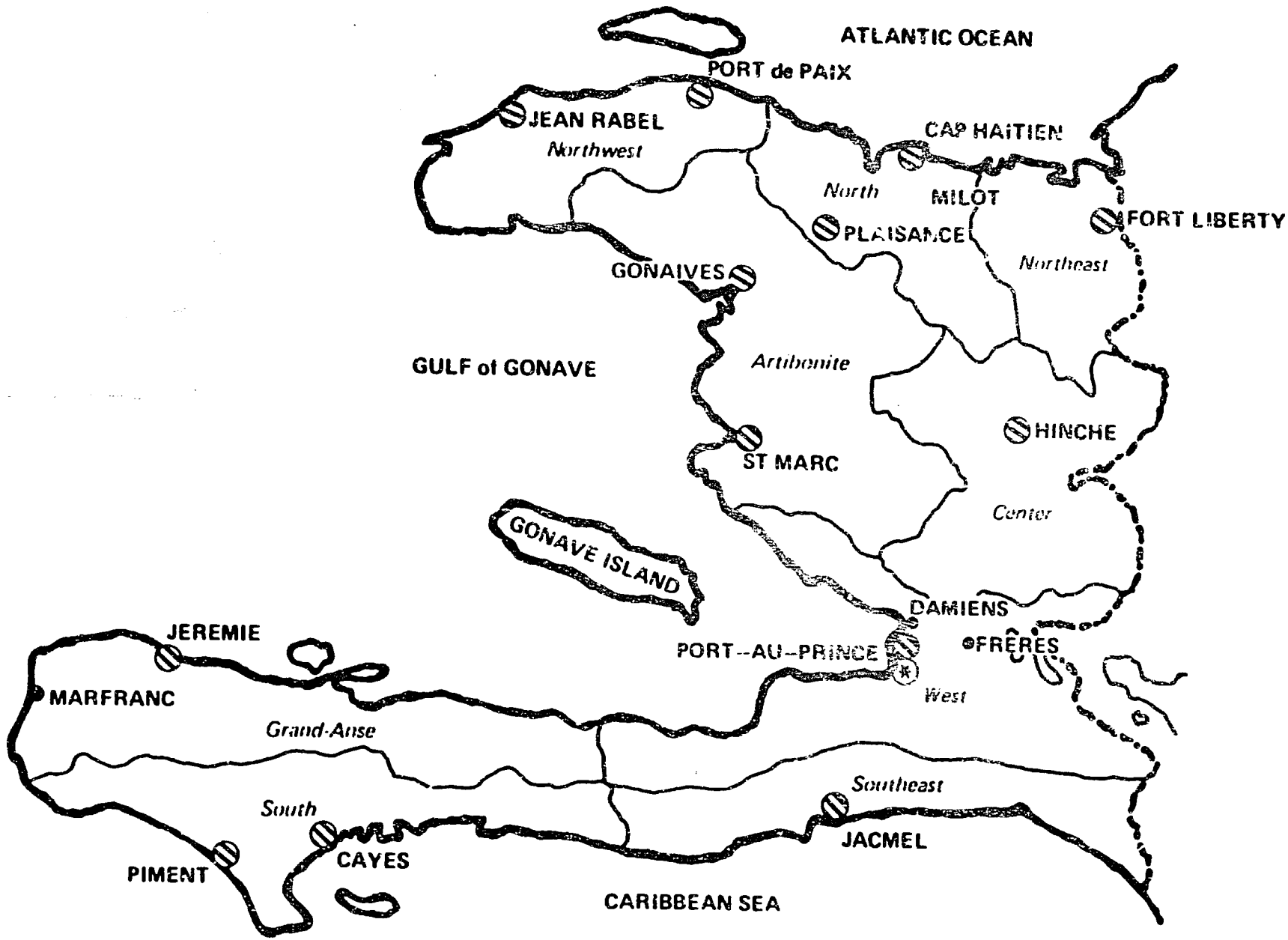
The capacity and location of the centers appear to be adequate to assure that teachers from all regions have access to the training program. The older centers need basic office equipment, which is to be provided under the Fourth Education Project.

7.1.3.8 Costs and Financing

Inservice training for teachers and other key educational personnel has been partially financed by The World Bank through three 5-year education projects funded on a continuing basis from 1973-1985. The levels of funding allocated for training have increased progressively from $90,000 to $150,000 to $1.9 million. The Fourth Project, scheduled to begin in July 1985, has budgeted an additional $1.9 million for continued training activities.

FIGURE 7

Regional Pedagogical Centers



To date, $2.1 million has been directed toward the training of 8,138 inservice teachers, 1,134 school directors, 122 pedagogical counselors, and 200 inspectors. Those costs specific to teacher training are as follows:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Stipend for trainees | $30 x 2 mos. = | $ 60 |
| Replacement costs | $50 x 2 mos. = | $100 |
| Instructional materials per trainee | $ 5 x 2 mos. = | $ 10 |
| Transportation stipend per trainee | | $ 15 |
| | | $185 unit cost |

These items produce a unit cost of $185 and a total program cost of ($185 x 8,138) $1.5 million. However, these figures are not firm and should be regarded as providing only a rough estimate of real costs. In actuality, some 11,000 transportation stipends were issued to teachers; it is from this figure that IPN derives its estimate that perhaps as many as 8,138 teachers actually participated in the workshops. In addition, these figures are idealistic in that they indicate the average costs of direct program inputs, but they provide little information on the actual costs of the retraining effort. Unit costs would be higher if the total resources allocated to the program had in fact been used to retrain fewer teachers.

These figures are further confounded by the fact that teachers of urban, private schools were paid only the costs of materials ($10). However, because of the nature of the records, the number of teachers in this category cannot be determined.

7.1.4 Preservice Training Overview

This section presents an overview of the preservice component of teacher training, dealing with the primary teachers' normal schools (Ecoles Normales d'Institutrices).

Institutions. The 10 accredited normal schools responsible for implementing Government's preservice training program are listed in Table 7.5. The oldest establishment is the ENI of Damiens, founded during the American occupation. Frères, Diquini, and Hinche were most recently accredited, in 1983. Figure 7.3 indicates that most of the regions of the country are represented, with the exception of the Northwest and Southwest Departments.

Total enrollment for the 10 normal schools during the 1983/84 academic year is presented in Table 7.6. Together, they trained 857 students, with the largest number enrolled at Cap-Haitien and Milot in the North, and at Port-au-Prince and Damiens in the capital. These four schools represent about 68% of total enrollments.

TABLE 7.5

Ten Accredited Normal Schools
1984/85

| Institution | Date of Accreditation | Status | Regional Department |
|---|---|---|---|
| Damiens | 1928 | Public | West |
| Cap-Haitien | 1952 | Public | North |
| Gonaives | 1957 | Public | Artibonite |
| Marfranc | 1963 | Public | Grand-Anse |
| Cayes | 1968 | Private | South |
| Milot | 1970 | Public | North |
| Port-au-Prince | 1980 | Public | West |
| Frères | 1983 | Private | West |
| Diquini | 1983 | Private | West |
| Hinche | 1983 | Private | Center |

Source: Office of Teacher Education, Ministry of Education.

FIGURE 7.3

Accredited Normal Schools

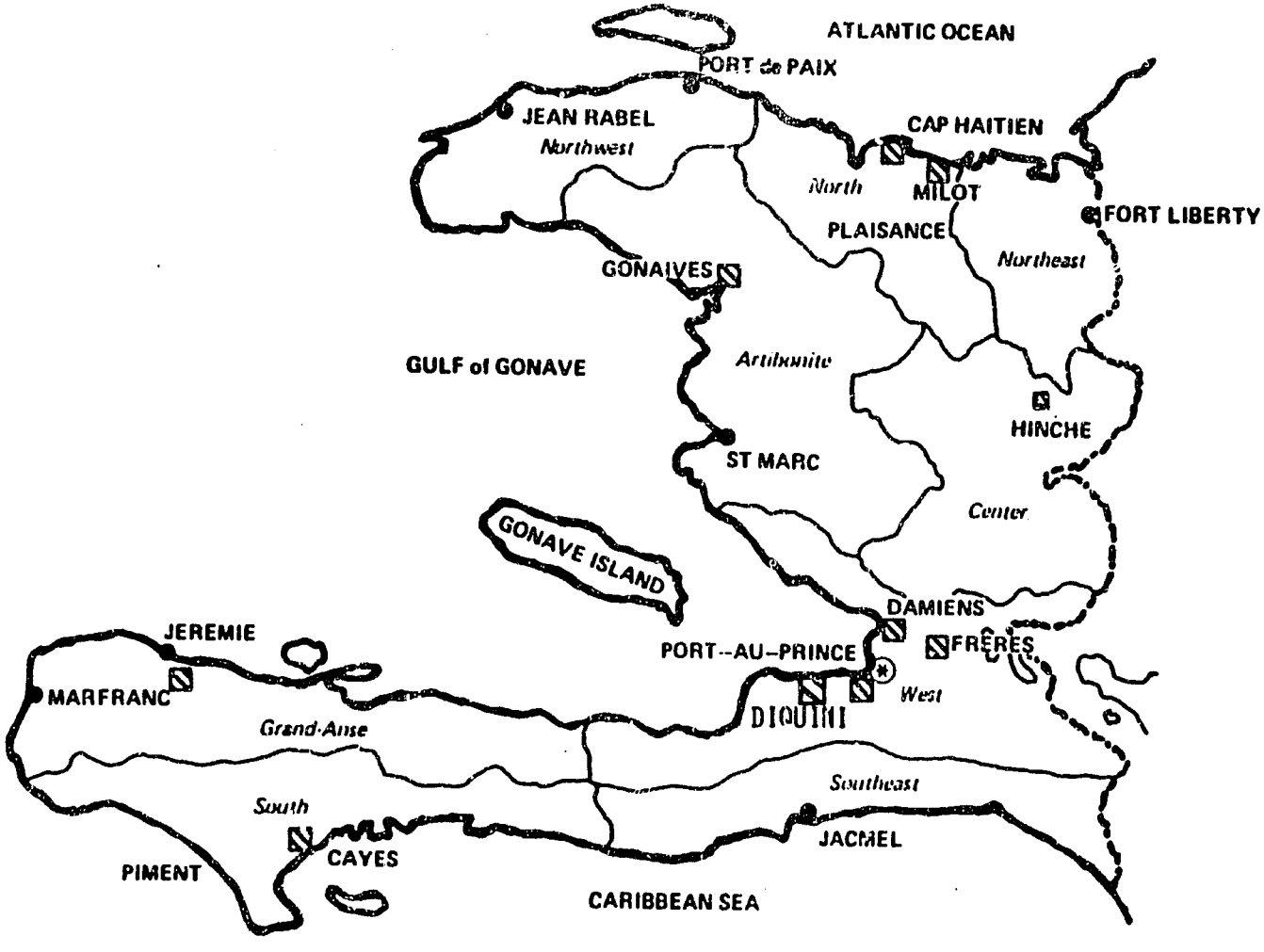





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TABLE 7.6

Enrollments at the Ten Accredited Normal Schools
1983/84

| Institution | First Year | Second Year | Third Year | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Cap-Haitien | 64 | 57 | 62 | 183 |
| Damiens | 36 | 52 | 57 | 145 |
| Port-au-Prince | 59 | 38 | 40 | 137 |
| Milot | 36 | 40 | 43 | 119 |
| Marfranc | 30 | 29 | 40 | 99 |
| Cayes | 27 | 22 | 22 | 71 |
| Gonaives | 17 | 20 | 15 | 52 |
| Frères | 10 | 9 | 6 | 25 |
| Diquini | 16 | -- | -- | 16 |
| Hinche | 10 | -- | -- | 10 |
| Total | 305 | 267 | 285 | 857 |

Source: Office of Teacher Education, Ministry of Education.

Output. The preservice component of the training effort has produced only 27% and 2% respectively of the new primary and secondary school teachers required in the Five-Year Plan. Comparisons of annual projected and actual numbers of graduates (Table 7.7) show that to date the normal schools are attaining only about 50% of their annual targets.

TABLE 7.7

Comparison of Planned and Actual Number
of Normal School Graduates
1981-84

| | 1981/82 | 1982/83 | 1983/84 | 1984/85 | 1985/86 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Enrollment | 829 | 861 | 857 | | |
| Target Number of Graduates | 450 | 500 | 550 | 600 | 600 |
| Actual Number of Graduates | 234 | 226 | 280 | | |
| Percent of Target Number | 52% | 45% | 51% | | |

Source: Ministry of Education.



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Government concluded in the 1984-1986 Biennial Plan that the 145 teachers at the normal schools constitute a sufficient corps to meet the country's training needs and that production of graduates could reach 400 solely through administrative, logistic, and pedagogical improvements. It concluded that the low production levels reflected a problem of under-utilization and that capacity at the schools could be doubled through improvements in the mode of recruitment and the length of training.

The problem of capacity utilization is reflected in the low student/teacher ratio of 6:1 at the seven government schools, where 121 professors teach 745 students. Many of the normal school professors are normal school graduates, some are university trained, and most are employed part-time.

Recruitment. Recruiting qualified candidates to the normal schools has become most difficult in recent years because of the poor employment prospects of its graduates. Government austerity measures dictated by generally unfavorable economic conditions have severely restricted growth in the civil service. It is estimated that in the last two years only 50 of some 506 normal school graduates have actually been appointed to posts in public sector schools. It is assumed that most of the graduates have found positions in the private sector, where salaries tend to be lower. The consequence has been a general decrease in the number of normal school applicants from 1,900 in 1983 to only 662 in 1984.

The targets set for the training of secondary school teachers are by far the most ambitious in view of the fact that only one institution is involved. A new training policy is being studied by the Ministry of Education to upgrade normal school graduates through a program to be called the Baccalauréat Pédagogique, enabling them to teach lower level secondary school classes. But even if implemented, this program will have only a marginal impact during the planning period in view of the low enrollment and production levels of the normal schools.

Students. The reduction in the number of normal school applicants is compounded by a general decline in the academic level of those who do apply for admission. The official entry point for students is after completion of the tenth year of school. In recent years, the schools have been required to accept less qualified students, many of whom have completed only 9 years of schooling. This problem is illustrated by the fact that of the 1,900 candidates who took normal school entrance examinations in 1983, only 14 obtained the minimal acceptable score. For the 1984/85 academic year, 26 of 662 candidates passed the entrance examination. As a consequence, each year the standard has had to be lowered in order to recruit new students. Results

of the 1984 entrance examinations at the ten accredited normal schools are presented in Table 7.8.

TABLE 7.8

1984 Entrance Examination Results at the Ten Accredited Normal Schools

| Institution | Candidates | Number Passed | Number Accepted |
|---|---|---|---|
| Port-au-Prince | 137 | 4 | 57 |
| Damiens | 125 | 4 | 43 |
| Gonaives | 30 | 1 | 12 |
| Cap-Haitien | 83 | 3 | 33 |
| Milot | 133 | 12 | 38 |
| Marfranc | 60 | 1 | 28 |
| Cayes | 69 | 1 | 33 |
| Diquini | 12 | 0 | 10 |
| Hinche | 13 | 0 | 11 |
| Frères | NA | NA | NA |

NA = Not available

Source: Office of Teacher Education, Ministry of Education.

The targets set for the training of secondary school teachers are by far the most ambitious in view of the fact that only one institution is involved. A new training policy is being studied by the Ministry of Education to upgrade normal school graduates through a program to be called the Baccalauréat Pédagogique, enabling them to teach lower level secondary school classes. But even if implemented, this program will have only a marginal impact during the planning period in view of the low enrollment and production levels of the normal schools.

### 7.1.5 Institutional Profiles

In this section, three brief institutional profiles are presented which describe the programs of the Gonaives Normal School, an accredited public normal school; the Lavaud Normal School, a private, non-accredited institution; and the Superior Normal School, responsible for the training of secondary school teachers.

7.1.5.1 Gonaives Normal School

The Normal School of Gonaives (Ecole Normale de Gonaives) is a government-accredited teacher training institution affiliated with the Catholic Church. It is located in the town of Gonaives, the administrative center of the Department of Artibonite.

The normal school has its antecedents in the Gonaives School for Young Girls, founded in 1955 by Bishop Paul Robert and by Mother Eugenie du Christ of the Catholic order, Sisters of St. Joseph de Cluny. The girls school offered practical courses in sewing, embroidery, and typing, complemented by a program of general academic studies.

The normal school was established 2 years later with the dual objectives of training teachers to serve in the region's Catholic parochial schools and providing greater professional opportunities to those students who showed potential for more advanced study. The school began with an initial enrollment of eight girls and has expanded to a 1984 co-educational enrollment of 41 students. The original girls school has grown to now include the normal school, a 459-place primary school, and a secondary school of 200 students. The teachers are, for the most part, graduates of the normal school.

Though its origin is as a private institution, the Gonaives Normal School chose, shortly after its establishment, to adopt Government's national teacher training program to obtain accreditation. Government supports the school by paying for its teachers' salaries and providing a subsidy for student meals.

For many years, the Normal School of Gonaives has enjoyed a strong reputation for the academic and professional standards of its program. These standards have, in recent years, begun to decline due to the effects of limited funds.

Administration. Gonaives is 1 of 10 accredited schools which form the national preservice teacher training system. Until November 1984, the system was administered by the Office of Teacher Training of the Ministry of Education. That unit is now integrated into the Training Section of the National Pedagogical Institute.

Policies concerning the general orientation of the school's program are formulated by the IPN central administration in consultation with the normal school directors. Several times a year, the directors convene in the capital for central planning, program coordination, and review. They serve as liaisons between the school and the ministry and are responsible for program implementation.

In the day-to-day administration of Gonaives, the director is responsible for overall planning and supervision of staff and is assisted in the

coordination and scheduling activities by a team of five professors (Equipe Pédagogique et Culturelle).

Programs. In theory, each of the ten accredited normal schools conforms to the same 3-year program of formal training and supervised teacher training, leading to a common normal school diploma (Diplôme Fin d'Etudes Normales). But, in practice, school programs show considerable variation related to the availability of staff, facilities, and equipment.

The formal criteria for admission into the program at Gonaives, and at the other accredited normal schools, require students to have completed 10 years of formal schooling and to have been formally accepted into the 11th grade (classe de seconde), the final cycle of secondary studies. Candidates must pass a national examination in French and mathematics, prepared and graded by the central administration in Port-au-Prince. However, in order to recruit students into the program in recent years, the normal schools have been obliged to lower these standards and accept students with the Brevet Elémentaire, awarded after completion of 9 years of study.

Students. There is a consensus among educators that both the number of normal school candidates and their level of academic preparation have declined in the past 5 years. This pattern is reflected at Gonaives where the number of candidates applying for admission declined from 87 in 1983 to 31 for the 1984/85 academic year. Most of the candidates have been holders of the Brevet Elémentaire.

Currently 41 students are enrolled at Gonaives; 4 of them are males, the school having adopted a co-educational policy only 3 years ago. First-year students range from 18 to 24 years of age. Most are drawn from the towns of Gonaives, St. Mark, and Pilate of the Department of Artibonite, though a few are from Plaisance, located in the southern corner of the neighboring Department of the North.

For the 1984/85 academic year, there are 12 new first-year students, 15 students enrolled in their second year, and 14 third-year students. The respective attrition rates are 21% and 15% between the first and second, and second and third years of the program. In 1984, the school produced 14 graduates.

Until 1984, first and second-year students received a monthly living allowance of $45 from UNICEF, and third-year students received $60. In 1984, these subsidies were to be paid by the Ministry of Education.

Staff. Understaffing is a major problem at Gonaives where courses at the normal school are taught by nine instructors, some of whom also hold teaching positions at the School for Young Girls. The reasons for the understaffing

would seem to be related to the increased workload required to implement the current curriculum, introduced in 1983 to improve the coordination between the content of the teacher training programs and the objectives of the Reform. Another significant program revision is expected to be introduced in 1985.

The workload at Gonaives is such that some teachers must teach as many as five different subjects. There is a particular shortage of qualified personnel to teach its courses in physics, social sciences, modern mathematics, and industrial arts. But because of low ministerial budgets, the total number of normal school positions in the system has been held to its 1980/81 level.

Most of the Gonaives staff are graduates of its normal school and range in age from 30 to 37. All have participated in the IPN intensive summer retraining program on the Reform. They receive a monthly salary of $100 from Government.

Curriculum. In speaking about the Reform, educators commonly say that there are two curricula: one which is planned, and another which is implemented according to the availability of resources. The most recent curriculum, introduced in 1983, is presented in Table 7.9. It is comprised of four major components: academic training, professional training, social education, and practical training.

The first year focuses upon the academic component of the program and the acquisition of general knowledge in the major subject areas, while the second and third year coursework of this component is linked to the syllabus of the Reform primary schools. Education courses in the professional training component are introduced during the first year, but the majority are taken during the third year. Classroom observation activities in local schools are introduced progressively with one and two-week sessions for first and second-year students. Third-year students spend 2 weeks student teaching in area schools each trimester.

The social education component focuses upon the lifestyle and problems of the local community and is designed to instill a positive attitude toward independent research. The practical component includes activities in agricultural production, arts and crafts, physical education, music, dance, and art.

Examinations. Admission to Gonaives requires that applicants pass a national examination and an interview with the school director and a panel of instructors. The purpose of the interview is to determine the candidate's level of fluency in French and degree of motivation.

Coursework is graded on a 10-point scale and progression to a higher grade requires an overall average of 6. At the end of the third year, students must pass a 3-day nationally administered examination prepared by the central administration in Port-au-Prince. Successful candidates are awarded a diploma

TABLE 7.9

Program of Studies and Weekly Course Requirements

at Gonaives Normal School

1984-85

| Subject | Course Hours Per Week | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Year 1 | Year 2 | Year 3 |
| Academic Training | | | |
| French | 7 | 6 | 6 |
| Creole | 3 | 3 | 1 |
| Mathematics | 4 | 4 | 2 |
| Social Sciences (Environmental Studies, History, Geography, Civics, Sociology, Law) | 4 | 3 | 2 |
| Science (Biology, Physics, Chemistry. Ecology) | 2 | 3 | 3 |
| Component Total | 20 | 19 | 14 |
| Professional Training | | | |
| Philosophy of Education (Reform) | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Professional Ethics | - | - | - |
| General Pedagogy | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| History of Education | 1 | - | - |
| Theories of Education | - | 1 | - |
| Psychology | 2 | 3 | 2 |
| General Didactics | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| School Administration | - | - | 3 |
| Special Pedagogy | - | 1 | 1 |
| Component Total | 6 | 7 | 9 |
| Social Education | | | |
| Population | - | 1 | - |
| Sanitation | - | 1 | 1 |
| Family Life | 2 | 1 | 1 |
| Community Life | - | 1 | 2 |
| Component Total | 2 | 4 | 4 |
| Practical Training | | | |
| Music, Dance, and Art | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| Physical Education | 2 | 1 | 1 |
| Agricultural Training | 2 | 1 | - |
| Arts and Crafts | 1 | - | - |
| Component Total | 7 | 4 | 3 |
| TOTAL HOURS PER WEEK | 35 | 34 | 33 |

Source: Gonaives Normal School.

for completion of teacher training (Diplôme de Fin d'Etudes Normales). Unsuccessful candidates can repeat, the following year, the sections of the examination in which they were deficient. Students who fail to earn the diploma receive a certificate of pedagogical aptitude (Certificat d'Aptitude Pédagogique 3).

Under the Teacher Charter, the only distinction between these two credentials is the starting monthly salary for their holders--$128 for the diploma, $96 for the CAP. Both the diploma and the CAP enable their holders to teach in pre-schools and within the first two elementary school cycles, encompassing grades one through seven. The Baccalauréat Pédagogique, proposed for implementation in 1985, would add 3 years to the normal school program, enabling its holders to teach at the first three secondary school grades or enter the University.

Facilities and Equipment. The Gonaives Normal School is situated in a two-story building accommodating three classrooms and a large multi-purpose room used as a meeting place and library. The building needs repairs but is in generally good condition. The facility is adequate for present enrollment levels, but it would need to be expanded should its capacity be doubled as recommended in the Five-Year Plan.

Costs and Financing. Students at Gonaives and other accredited normal schools receive a monthly stipend from UNICEF of $45-$60, depending upon their year of studies. From this sum, they pay an annual school fee of $2.50, $1 of which goes to Government in the form of a tax. They also contribute $1 a month to the operation of the school in the form of an operating fee (frais de fonctionnement). Students purchase their own books and supplies at an annual cost of about $60.

The school's annual operating budget is derived from student fees which, in 1984, totaled about $465. Government monthly allocations include nine teachers' salaries at $100 each, and a $400 food subsidy, totaling $1,300.

The school's operating budget is supplemented by the modest revenues obtained through such community fund-raising activities as lotteries and the sale of arts and crafts products at fairs.

7.1.5.2 Lavaud Normal School

The Lavaud Normal School is a private teacher training institution established primarily to train teachers for Catholic parochial schools in the Northwest region. It is included in this assessment because of its reputation for innovation in its program of preparing teachers for careers in rural schools.

Lavaud was founded by Swiss Catholic missionaries in 1960 on Ile de Tortue, an island off the northwest coast of Haiti. It was originally established as an all girls institution with 15 students. In 1968, the school was moved to its

present location, about 6 miles from the city of Port-de-Paix. In 1977, it modified its enrollment policy to accept boys.

Administration. Lavaud was directed by the founding Swiss missionaries until 1983, when it was transferred to Les Filles de la Sagesse, a local order of nuns. The school is administered by a Directrice, responsible for overall supervision of staff and students. Program objectives and curricula are reviewed and, if necessary, revised at the start of each academic year in consultations between instructors, parish priests of the region, and the bishop.

Program. Lavaud offers a 5-year program leading to its own officially unrecognized version of the elementary school teaching certificate, the Certificat d'Aptitude Pédagogique. The program's unique features are that the academic entry level of its students is lower than that of Government normal schools, the duration of formal studies is longer, and emphasis is placed on teaching students to adapt their methods to the conditions of rural life. The program is organized around trimesters in which students attend school 7 hours a day.

Students. Students are admitted to Lavaud after completing 7 years of formal schooling, in contrast to the 10-year requirement of Government-accredited normal schools. This policy was established by the Swiss founders to provide career opportunities to rural youths otherwise unable to pursue secondary studies. The recruitment policy has practical implications also, since students who have completed 3 years of secondary school are more inclined to prefer urban, professional careers and have little interest in teaching in rural areas.

Because of its recruitment policy, the Lavaud teaching certificate is not recognized by Government. Its graduates, however, are assured employment within the system of about 50 mission schools in the region.

For the 1984/85 school year, Lavaud has a total enrollment of 42 students, 9 of whom are males. There are 12 students enrolled in their fourth year of studies, and 30 first-year students. Because of serious personnel constraints, the school was unable to accept new students during the two previous years, so there are no second or third-year students.

Most Lavaud students are from the Northwest Department. They are presented as candidates upon the recommendation of their parish priest or other community leaders, and they must pass an entrance examination in French, mathematics, and reading. Students are accepted at 16 years of age, though some are as old as 20 upon entering the program.

Since its establishment, Lavaud has trained about 100 teachers. It produced nine graduates in 1984. The administration estimates that about 60 of its

graduates are still teaching in the region; the others have moved on to careers in the capital and a few have gone abroad. Its graduates are required to teach for 2 years in rural parochial schools.

Staff. The Lavaud school faces a serious understaffing problem which threatens to compromise the quality of its program. It now has only six instructors, three of whom are sisters of the Filles de la Sagesse Order, a Swiss missionary, and two contractual teachers. Because of lack of funds, it has not been able to recruit new teachers, suitably qualified and committed to the program's goals to replace the original Swiss missionary teachers. The last of the Swiss founders is scheduled to return to Switzerland at the end of this academic year. Four of the Lavaud instructors are graduates of normal schools.

With only 42 first and fourth-year students, the school has a low student/teacher ratio of 7:1. But at Lavaud's present staffing level, its six instructors are responsible for implementing a curriculum of 31 different courses. If additional staff are not recruited this year, it is likely that modifications will have to be made in the curriculum to reduce the teacher workload, which will certainly affect the nature and quality of the program.

Curriculum and Methods. Lavaud offers a 4-year program of formal study with a final fifth year spent student teaching in a nearby school. The official curriculum, presented in Table 7.10, is structured around five basic components: academics, pedagogy, vocational training, community life, and religious training. The actual content of the courses is, however, subject to change from one trimester to the next due to staffing constraints and to the school's philosophy of allowing some degree of freedom to its instructors to experiment and to improve their courses by continually striving to adapt them to student needs and the life of the community.

The pedagogical approach of the school is based upon the discovery method. The emphasis is on individual research, "learning to observe, learning to learn." In all subject areas, teachers are encouraged to draw examples and illustrations from the local environment and to model appropriate teaching behaviors to their students.

During the first 2 years of the program, a significant portion of the curriculum is devoted to academic subjects, including French, mathematics, geography, botany, biology, physics, and history. Though the immediate objective of these courses is to improve the students' academic level, equal emphasis is placed on deepening their knowledge of the environment. Biology and botany courses, for example, focus upon the animals and plants of the region.

The pedagogical component of the program enters during the third and fourth years. Teaching methods are predicated on the assumption that a rural teacher

TABLE 7.10

Program of Studies and Weekly Course Requirements

at Lavaud Normal School

1984/85

| Subject | Course Hours Per Week | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Year 1 | Year 2 | Year 3 | Year 4 |
| **Classical Studies** | | | | |
| French | 5 | 5 | 4 | 4 |
| Mathematics | 5 | 5 | 2 | 2 |
| Geography | 2 | 2 | - | - |
| History | 2 | 2 | - | - |
| Botany/Zoology | 2 | 2 | - | - |
| Physics | 2 | 2 | - | - |
| Biology | 1 | 1 | - | - |
| Writing | 1 | 1 | - | - |
| Gymnastics | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Singing | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| **Education** | | | | |
| Teaching Methods | - | - | 3 | 3 |
| Pedagogy | - | - | 5 | 5 |
| **Vocational Training** | | | | |
| Manual Training | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| Home Economics | - | - | 2 | 2 |
| Arts and Crafts | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| Agriculture, Theory | 2 | 2 | (Optional) | |
| Agriculture, Practice | 2 | 2 | (Optional) | |
| **Community Life** | | | | |
| Social Science and Economics | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| Dance | 1 | 1 | - | - |
| Drumming | 1 | 1 | - | - |
| **Religious Training** | | | | |
| Bible | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 |
| Catechism | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 |
| Total Hours Per Week | 37 | 37 | 27 | 27 |

Source: Lavaud Normal School.



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must often work under difficult conditions where books and other instructional materials and supports are in short supply, if they exist at all. Students are taught to be resourceful, "to live with what one has."

In a methods course in mathematics, Lavaud students learn to illustrate lessons with sticks, stones, and the dried seeds of local fruit. A bull, slaughtered to provide food for the school, was integrated into a learning experience by using its lungs, heart, and skeleton in a biology lesson. A woman from the community was asked to bring her 6-month old child to school to serve as a live model in a home economics lesson on baby care. A central pedagogical principle at Lavaud is to base instruction upon experience. Books are used to reinforce and to elaborate upon knowledge previously acquired through discovery methods.

An interesting pedagogical policy of the school is its deemphasis of homework. Students are taught that all assignments should be designed for completion in class. It is assumed that most rural parents are not literate and can provide only limited assistance to their children, who, for the most part, are engaged in household tasks and income-generating activities when out of school. There is also the problem of a lack of electricity for lighting homes in the evening. The preoccupation with homework after school hours also serves to isolate the child from the normal rhythms of family and community life, creating an unnecessary cultural conflict between the school and rural life.

Examinations. Coursework at Lavaud is graded on a 10-point scale. Throughout their studies, students must maintain an overall average of 7. During the first two years, the minimum acceptable grade for French and mathematics is 6. Third and fourth-year students can pass their methods and pedagogy courses with a minimum grade of 6.5. During the first year, students are reported to have some difficulty adapting to the discovery method employed in their classes, having learned almost exclusively by the rote method in their primary schools.

Facilities and Equipment. Facilities at Lavaud include student dormitories and a main building accommodating five classrooms and a small library. The capacity is adequate in view of the school's low level of enrollment. A one-half hectare area of adjoining land is used for farming and poultry raising. In addition to the normal school, the complex includes a primary school with four Reform classes used for practice teaching.

All of the buildings need repairs and improvements. There is a need to expand the library and to enlarge the primary school to include a fifth grade classroom.

Costs and Financing. Lavaud's present financial difficulties attest to the inadequacy of its funding base. The school receives a modest operating budget from the Catholic Church to pay teachers' salaries. Contractual teachers are paid about $100 a month, including room and board. The sisters receive only an expense allowance of $10 a month. The school receives some financial assistance from Swiss Catholic missions, but none from Government.

Student costs at Lavaud are $100 a year, which includes all school fees and room and board. Books are loaned to the students at no cost. Because all of the students are from low-income families, the administration has not increased the tuition to raise additional funds. The school will have difficulty maintaining the quality of its program without additional sources of external assistance.

7.1.5.3 Superior Normal School

The Superior Normal School (Ecole Normale Supérieure - ENS) is the institution responsible for the preservice training of secondary school teachers. In addition to this principal mission, it also contributes to the supply of university professors by selecting its best students for graduate studies abroad.

Table 7.11 shows that ENS graduates represented only 11% of the public sector secondary school teaching force in 1982. About 25% of its graduates who pursued further studies abroad are currently on the State University of Haiti faculty, representing about 4% of the teaching staff. The school's low level of productivity is accompanied by a qualitative weakness in its program due to constraints related to its budget, facilities, and staff which have placed it in a marginal position as a training institution. The institution will require major restructuring of its program and considerable additional resources if it is to contribute to national training objectives.

TABLE 7.11

ENS Graduates Teaching in
Public Sector Secondary Schools
1977-82

| Year | Number of Teachers | ENS Graduates | | Non-ENS Graduates | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Number | Percent | Number | Percent |
| 1977/78 | 645 | 132 | 20.4 | 513 | 79.6 |
| 1978/79 | 621 | 68 | 11.0 | 553 | 89.0 |
| 1979/80 | 679 | 58 | 8.6 | 621 | 91.4 |
| 1980/81 | 730 | 80 | 11.0 | 650 | 89.0 |
| 1981/82 | 807 | 92 | 11.4 | 715 | 88.6 |

Source: National Pedagogical Institute (IPN).



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ENS was created by presidential decree in 1939 and established in Port-au-Prince to train secondary teachers in science and letters. Between 1947-60, the school enjoyed a solid reputation as an elite training institution. It produced competent, highly regarded professors. Its diploma represented a high level of intellectual attainment, though its program was weak in pedagogical training.

During the 1960s, the school was consolidated with the State University of Haiti and became a department of the College of Letters. This association is said to have weakened its program and it has never recovered.

In 1970, ENS was returned to its former status and has since functioned as an autonomous member institution of the State University. Its present relations with the University are more statutory than practical, being limited to administrative and budgetary matters. It has more constructive linkages with the National Pedagogical Institute and area secondary schools, with which it shares key personnel and facilities.

Administration. Administration at ENS is highly centralized under a director and an administrative assistant. These are the only full-time positions in the school, all other faculty members being employed on a part-time basis. The director represents ENS before Government and university authorities, and is responsible for determining major school policies in consultation with a Council of Professors.

The school is composed of three departments: Letters, Science, and Pedagogy. Each is headed by a department chief responsible for course scheduling and the organization of student teaching and classroom observation activities.

Programs. ENS offers a 3-year program leading to a secondary school teaching certificate (CAPES). In addition, a B.A. degree (licence) is awarded to students who present a thesis in their fourth year, or thereafter. The value of the CAPES is dubious in view of the fact that this credential is not required for employment and does not influence salary scales.

Within the Department of Letters, students can choose a major in letters and philosophy, social science, or modern languages. The Department of Science offers majors in mathematics, physics, chemistry, geology, and natural sciences. There is no major in pedagogy, which is unusual in a school of this type. Students are required only to complete a minimum number of courses from this department.

The number of courses in pedagogy, as well as their quality, is limited by personnel constraints. The Department of Pedagogy can implement only part of its official curriculum, offering courses in the foundations of education, sociology of education, philosophy of education, curriculum development, and evaluation. Courses included in the program listing which cannot be offered due

to insufficient personnel are educational administration, planning and supervision, and educational technology.

The first year of studies at ENS is called the preparatory year (anñee préparatoire) and serves as a transition between secondary school and higher studies. These courses provide a foundation in intellectual methodology and communication skills which are considered prerequisite for advanced courses. They include an introduction to the general history of ideas and science, English, French, and Spanish. A limited number of courses are taken in the area of specialization.

The second and third year of the program combine coursework in the student's major area, pedagogical courses, and activities of classroom observation and student teaching. At the end of the 3-year program, the student is expected to have completed 2,700 hours of coursework distributed across the following areas: field of specialization (50%), pedagogy (35%), electives (10%), and modern languages (5%).

As conceived, the program of studies appears well designed and relevant. Its implementation, however, is restricted by inadequate facilities and insufficient materials. Coursework in areas of specialization could be more effectively conducted at other colleges of the university. The lack of sufficient qualified personnel in the Department of Pedagogy seriously compromises the contribution of that component. Coordination and supervision of classroom observations and student teaching are severely limited by the fact that ENS professors are available at the school only on a part-time basis.

Students. Candidates who wish to enroll at ENS must have a high school diploma (Baccalauréat II) and are required to pass an entrance examination in the area in which they intend to specialize. About 40% of those who apply for admission are accepted. Some 10% are eliminated from the program after the first year. Total enrollment for the 1984/85 academic year was 219 students, 30% of whom were women. There were 30 diplomas awarded. The distribution of students by program is shown in Table 7.12.

The age of first-year students at ENS ranges from 20 to 24. The majority are from the Port-au-Prince area or have family members living there. Only about 5% are considered to be from the provinces, in the sense that they have no extended family base in the capital.

Some 80% of the student body are said to be from low-income families having an average monthly income of less than $100. They receive a monthly support stipend of about $20 from one of the following four sources of assistance: The Office of the President of the Republic, the Ministry of Finance, the Office of the Rector of the University, or the Director of ENS.

TABLE 7.12

Distribution of Students Across Programs at ENS
1984/85

| Year | Program | | | | | Gender | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Letters, Philosophy | Modern Languages | Social Sciences | Natural Sciences | Mathematics, Physics | F | M | Total |
| 1 | 27 | 13 | 17 | 21 | 19 | 25 | 72 | 97 |
| 2 | 14 | 12 | 19 | 12 | 18 | 23 | 52 | 75 |
| 3 | 10 | 5 | 10 | 10 | 12 | 16 | 31 | 47 |
| Total | 51 | 30 | 46 | 43 | 49 | 64 | 155 | 219 |
| Diplomas | 5 | 3 | 8 | 2 | 12 | 8 | 22 | 30 |

Source: Superior Normal School (ENS).

It does not appear that the students who enroll at ENS are of the highest caliber; many apparently settle for its program only after having first failed the entrance examinations of other more prestigious university programs. Only a minority of ENS graduates pursue teaching careers. The administration estimates that out of 100 graduates, only 33 teach in Haitian secondary schools, 14 are employed in other sectors, and 53 are working abroad.

The evolution of student enrollments and the number of diplomas awarded at ENS during 1971-84, are shown in Table 7.13. It can be observed that while enrollments have increased since 1979/80 by 43%, the number of graduates has been on the decline. This would indicate that attrition rates have been increasing.

The staffing pattern at ENS is characterized by uneven qualification levels across its departments. The school has a staff of 52 Haitian professors, four of whom are women and all of whom are part-time. Ten of its professors have doctorates, 30 possess master's degrees, and the remaining 12 have Bachelor's degrees with some complementary advanced studies. This is a relatively high level of qualifications in comparison with most colleges of the State University.



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TABLE 7.13

Evolution of Student Enrollment and Diplomas Awarded at ENS

| Year | Enrollment | Diplomas |
|---|---|---|
| 1971/72 | 75 | 12 |
| 1972/73 | 66 | 15 |
| 1973/74 | 66 | 20 |
| 1974/75 | 104 | 18 |
| 1975/76 | 87 | 34 |
| 1976/77 | 103 | 20 |
| 1977/78 | 110 | 35 |
| 1978/79 | 164 | 43 |
| 1979/80 | 153 | 52 |
| 1980/81 | 162 | 38 |
| 1981/82 | 159 | 37 |
| 1982/83 | 155 | NA |
| 1983/84 | 219 | 30 |

Source: National Pedagogical Institute (IPN).

The most highly qualified professors--nine of the ten with doctorates--are found in the Department of Letters; one Ph.D. teaches in the Science Department, and there are none in the Department of Pedagogy. Of the entire staff, only two professors have degrees in education at the master's level. Four French technical assistants attached to the IPN are required to carry some of the teaching load of the Department. The staffing problem will become more serious during the 1984/85 academic year when the French technicians complete their contracts.

Another problem is the part-time nature of teaching at ENS and throughout the university. Teaching is widely viewed as a supplementary income-generating activity. The average work week for ENS professors is 3 hours, for which they earn about $200 a month. Department heads and section coordinators do not work even half-time. In addition to teaching a course, a professor usually has a second or third job. They have very little opportunity for coordinating student teaching activities or for supervising thesis work.

Curriculum. The ENS program is structured around two 15-week semesters which extend from October to February, and from March to June. Students take an average of 25 class hours a week.

The official curriculum is based upon 2,700 total program course hours in the field of specialization, modern languages, pedagogy, and electives. How frequently these courses meet or how adequately subjects are covered cannot be determined, but a 1983 OAS evaluation of the program concluded that "one finds a large number of courses, some of which are treated for very few actual class hours, suggesting a lack of quality and depth (in the program)."

The program weakness in the Department of Pedagogy would not be as much of a problem if ENS students did receive a solid preparation in their fields of specialization. This, however, does not appear to be the case, due to the inadequate facilities and insufficient supply of instructional materials. Some students at ENS are known to double enroll in other colleges in order to obtain a more complete preparation in their specialty area. The ENS administration estimates that fewer than 5% of its students follow this practice, and that most of these are science majors.

Examinations. The policy of examinations at ENS is related to the French system of promotion by year, used within most of the colleges of the State University of Haiti. Because the policy requires that an unsuccessful student repeat an entire year's work--including successfully completed courses--it contributes to the inefficiency of the training program by reducing productivity and increasing costs.

Examinations at ENS are administered at the end of each semester, in mid-February and at the end of June. The subjects to be treated are determined by the School Director with the collaboration of the Secretary General and the department heads.

The system of grading is based upon a numerical scale of 1 to 100. Students must obtain a cumulative grade point average (GPA) of 50 to advance to the next year. The GPA is calculated by a weighted formula in which grades in the student's area of specialization have a value three times that of optional courses. Students who achieve the required overall GPA of 50 but have earned a grade of 20 or less in one or several courses are required only to retake the examinations in those deficient subjects at a special session. Those who fail are accorded another chance during the year-end final examinations in June.

For the final examinations, students are required to obtain a minimum grade of 50 in their major area coursework; if they do not, they must repeat these examination subjects at a special session. First-year students who do not obtain the required average after the special session are eliminated from the program, while advanced students are required to repeat the entire year's coursework.

Promotion standards are comparatively lower at ENS than in most of the other colleges of the State University of Haiti, where the required GPA is 65 and the lowest passing grade is 60. The first-year attrition rate at ENS is estimated by the administration to be only about 10%, significantly lower than the University average of 30%. Reliable statistics on repetition rates for advanced students are not available.

Facilities and Equipment. ENS is located in a two-story residential building in Pacot, a commercial neighborhood of Port-au-Prince. In January 1985, the school is expected to relocate from these rented quarters to a newly constructed building which will permit phased, though limited, expansion of its facilities.

The limited space and inadequate facilities of its present location have been most frequently cited as factors restricting the program's quality and level of production. The facility is clearly inferior to those of other colleges of the University and to that of the IPN.

The present building accommodates six classrooms, a small library, and offices for the director and secretary. Students majoring in science must use the chemistry laboratory at the Lycée Pétion, a government secondary school. The school has no equipment for its physics classes; some equipment is rented from private secondary schools, and some ENS professors provide their own, being reimbursed for transportation costs. Students majoring in modern languages use the language laboratories of the Haitian American Institute. The school library contains about 2,000 volumes donated by the Haitian-American Institute and the development agencies of France and Canada.

Relocation to the new facility in Delmar will result in only a marginal improvement in capacity. The first phase of the project will provide for eight classrooms. Later construction will provide a science laboratory, a larger library, and a cafeteria. In the new facility, the administration expects that, by 1990, first-year enrollments at ENS will increase from 97 to 150. Even with such improvements, production will remain far below projected needs.

Costs and Financing. The low level of funding allocated to ENS does not give the impression that its mission is perceived as a priority area or that its production targets are realistic, considering the limited resources of Government.

Teacher salaries are paid through the University Rectorate which provides ENS with an annual operating budget of $2,400 for its rent, utilities, supplies, and instructional materials. The school receives irregular financial support from the Ministry of Planning in the form of an annual subsidy ranging from $1,000 to $2,000. International development agencies have provided some support by contributing books to the school library and a limited number of

student scholarships for advanced studies abroad. Two ENS students are currently studying in France, and one is studying in the United States.

Student costs are modest at the school. Government pays all costs and provides support subsidies to students as well. Students can be expected to spend about $40 a month on transportation and meals and about $20 a year for school supplies. About 1/3 of the students buy one or two textbooks a year for about $25 each.

## 7.2 ANALYSIS

In this section, teacher training programs are discussed within the framework of the five thematic areas of this assessment: external efficiency, internal efficiency, access and equity, administration and supervision, and costs and financing. This analysis is followed by a discussion of major constraints, plans, and needs leading to a set of general conclusions and recommendations.

### 7.2.1 Issues

This section summarizes the variety of issues, discussed in detail in the preceding analysis sections, that characterize the current situation in the teacher training subsector.

#### 7.2.1.1 External Efficiency

The issue of external efficiency in this chapter addresses the question of whether sufficient numbers of teachers are being trained with relevant skills. This analysis considers the fit between supply and demand and the matching of programs with priority needs and objectives.

Because Government appears to be reaching the limit of its capacity to absorb recurrent costs, any consideration of new teacher requirements to support its school expansion program must be reviewed within the context of its financial limitations. The problems of inadequate staffing, facilities, and budgets faced by preservice institutions indicate that an implementation strategy for achieving training targets has not been developed. The targets appear to be overambitious and unrealistic.

Supply and Demand. An analysis of supply and demand of primary school teachers to the end of this decade indicates that a significant shortfall of certified Reform teachers can be expected. This analysis, based upon the current teacher/pupil ratio of 1:42, takes into consideration Government's goal of introducing 500 new Reform classes each year, actual teacher attrition rates, and the present level of production at normal schools. The projections presented in Table 7.14 are based on the assumption that even if all of those teachers presently employed are successfully retrained, 500 new Reform teachers



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Table 7.14

**Projected Supply-and-Demand Fit and Teacher Shortfall for Reform Primary Schools, 1984-90**

| | Academic Year | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1983/84 | 1984/85 | 1985/86 | 1986/87 | 1987/88 | 1988/89 | 1989/90 |
| Projected student enrollment | 723,041[a] | 744,000 | 765,000 | 786,000 | 807,000 | 828,000 | 849,000 |
| Required teaching corps | 16,986[a] | 17,486 | 17,986 | 18,486 | 18,986 | 19,486 | 19,986 |
| Need for new teachers | | | | | | | |
| Due to attrition | | 1,748 | 1,798 | 1,848 | 1,898 | 1,948 | 1,998 |
| Due to expanded enrollments | | 500 | 500 | 500 | 500 | 500 | 500 |
| Total need | | 2,248 | 2,298 | 2,348 | 2,398 | 2,448 | 2,498 |
| Normal school output | | 280 | 280 | 280 | 280 | 280 | 280 |
| Shortfall | | 1,968 | 2,018 | 2,068 | 2,118 | 2,160 | 2,218 |

[a]Official statistics

will be needed each year. The table indicates that if production and attrition rates are not improved, a shortage ranging from 1,968 to 2,218 Reform teachers will occur annually between 1984 and 1990.

The shortfall of certified secondary school teachers is expected to be even more dramatic in actual numbers, though perhaps less significant in its impact. Projections in Table 6.10 of the Secondary Education chapter show the need for new teachers during the 7-year period from 1984 to 1990 to increase each year from 1,038 to 1,141, 1,255, 1,382, 1,519, 1,671, and 1,838. Thus, by 1990/1991, a total of 1,838 new teachers will need to be recruited to serve a student population which will have expanded from 141,900 to 251,600. At its present annual production level of 30 graduates, ENS can be expected to train 210 new teachers, representing 11% of the projected demand, leaving a shortfall of 1,628 teachers. The majority of new teachers will probably continue to be university graduates, part-time professionals, and high school graduates.

These projected shortages underscore the central problems of recruitment and retention which characterize the teaching profession. Government's decision to improve salaries in the public sector as an incentive is intended to address both problems; yet, this new initiative commits Government to a higher level of long-term recurring costs that it can ill afford.

At issue in this dilemma is the relationship between teacher salaries, quality of instruction, and society's capacity to absorb schooling costs. Because external assistance is temporary, some might argue that the quality of instruction delivered to a society should not exceed that which it can afford. Similarly it could be argued that the low salary level of teachers is commensurate with their relatively low skill levels and that the overall quality of Haitian education is appropriate for a country at its level of economic development. According to this perspective, the ideal balance is reflected in the private sector where salaries are determined by supply and demand forces.

The research literature on teachers in developing countries does not indicate that the level of teacher salaries is a consistently significant factor in improving student achievement, but it is highly correlated with such other variables as age, level of education, experience, and level of training, which are more directly related to teacher performance. These findings notwithstanding, it is clear that low salaries can, and do, have a negative consequence in Haiti, inasmuch as they require teachers at all levels to supplement their incomes through other forms of part-time employment which limits the time they devote to preparation of lesson plans, correction of homework, and self-improvement.

The solution to the problems of recruitment and retention that threaten to undermine the school expansion effort appears to lie in exploring nonmonetary

incentives which will improve the quality of life of teachers and provide them with a greater sense of personal security. Some suggestions are presented in Section 7.2.4.

In view of the unreliability of information on the number of teachers retrained in IPN's inservice program, any discussion of the fit between supply and demand must be tentative. Most teachers in the public sector, it appears, have received some degree of training which will be further upgraded during the next 5 years under the Fourth Education Project. In this area, the level of funding appears adequate to meet training targets.

The success of Government's education expansion policy is highly dependent upon the performance of the inservice teacher training component because of its more immediate impact and the adequacy of its funding base. For these reasons the efficient management of the inservice training system is crucial to the success of the Reform.

The scope of coverage of the inservice program is an important structural variable that can have important implications for teacher supply and demand. The anticipated shortages will be less critical if sufficient numbers of teachers are retrained for the full range of classes of the first two primary school cycles, where the expansion will be felt most immediately. This, in fact, is the new policy that is presently being experimented with on a limited scale to replace the previous program which prepared teachers in three incremental phases (grades 1 and 2, grades 3 and 4, and grades 5, 6, and 7). This new policy, which will offer certification for each full cycle through the CAP-1 and CAP-2, needs to be combined with a policy of conducting double shifts in schools where this is feasible.

The obvious advantage of this dual approach is that with double shifting, fewer teachers--though possessing a broader range of grade-level skills--will be required to cover the new Reform classes. Since some teachers are already accustomed to dual employment, the added advantage of double shifting would be to allow teachers to augment their salaries while consolidating their income-generating activities in the same profession, conceivably in the same school. Full-time employment in one school could help foster a more professional attitude toward teaching and develop a sense of esprit de corps.

Program Relevance. The central problem limiting the relevance of the inservice training program is that it does not address the problems of teaching in rural areas, where 80% of the population reside. Plans for the construction of new school buildings, and the use of Creole in schools, both contribute to the expansion of educational opportunities. The teacher training effort, however, has tended to view its mission in respect to matching school construction



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schedules and training teachers to transmit the Reform curriculum. Too much confidence is being placed in the quality of the curriculum to impact positively on rural children, and too little attention has been given to developing teaching methods better adapted to rural life conditions. The approach of the Lavaud Normal School is an exception to this general tendency. That program needs to be studied to explore the possibility of incorporating certain of its methods and principles into Government training programs.

7.2.1.2 Internal Efficiency

The issue of internal efficiency addresses the question of how well available resources are utilized to maximize program objectives. It is evident that the inadequacies of the administration and evaluation systems at IPN make this analysis difficult for the inservice component, where no specific data are available on the progression of trainees through the program or on its tangible outcomes. These problems notwithstanding, in a general manner, six issues appear to be important for improving the performance of this program. These are: its coverage, evaluation, grouping of trainees, utilization of radio, supervision of teachers, and planning and administration.

Some of the problems associated with the incremental grade-level coverage of the inservice program have been discussed in the preceding section on external efficiency. The fact that a considerable number of teachers will be required to undergo further "complementary training" would seem to attest to the inadequacy of the initial planning; as a consequence, an added demand will be placed on limited available resources. The new policy currently being tried out is an improvement that will need to be systematically monitored to assure the transfer of Reform content and methods from the training program into the classroom.

For this to occur, it is critical that the IPN Evaluation Section become fully operational. Two of its most important functions should be to develop end-of-session competency-based examinations to measure the level of knowledge and skill attained by trainees and to develop a system of formative evaluation to be used for monitoring and improving program performance. To achieve these goals, information should be sought that documents differences in professional behavior and motivation between teachers who have participated in the IPN program and comparison groups. These should include: measures of pupil achievement, direct classroom observations, detailed analyses of lesson content, frequency of teacher absence from the classroom, attitude surveys on teaching as a career, and self-assessments of teaching competencies.

Another area in which evaluation should contribute to improving efficiency is in the grouping of trainees during the inservice workshops. Under the Fourth

Education Project, emphasis is to be placed on improving the previous practice of assigning teachers to heterogeneous groups with little regard to their different levels of knowledge and experience. These differences will need to be assessed with sufficient precision so that remedial content can be included and sequenced appropriately with more advanced materials.

The supervision of teachers in the field and the utilization of educational radio in their training are two program components which are intended to contribute qualitatively to the program by serving, respectively, as vehicles of supplementary knowledge and pedagogical guidance to practicing teachers. It is apparent that the program has thus far been less effective in their absence and that current efforts to put these aspects into operation are important.

Finally, the planning and administrative capacity of IPN cuts across all of these issues, and it is critically important to the overall success of the inservice training effort. This issue is addressed more fully in Section 7.2.1.4 under Administration and Supervision.

Preservice Training. The preservice teacher training component is restricted qualitatively and quantitatively by both internal and external factors which limit its effectiveness. These factors include low student/teacher ratios, too few qualified staff, and severe budget limitations. The budgets of preservice training institutions are clearly insufficient to enable them to assume a greater role in the country's training effort, and they are not even enough to guarantee a minimum standard of quality at the present low enrollment levels. Staffing shortages imposed by the cessation of hiring pose a major problem. Strategies need to be developed for improving the quality of these institutions without increasing recurrent costs. It is possible that quality can be improved by introducing indirect forms of instruction such as educational radio and television. It would not appear to be necessary to make revisions in those radio programs to be prepared for inservice training use.

Existing personnel might also be used more efficiently by consolidating certain elements of the normal school program, such as pedagogical training, at a central site. This might involve a policy whereby students pursue the first third of their training in their regional institutions, take second-year pedagogical courses in a central site, and return to their schools for the final year of coursework and student teaching.

A second consolidation option would involve reducing the number of Government-financed normal schools. With its 10 accredited normal schools, Haiti has a relatively large number of preservice training institutions in comparison with other countries of its size and at its level of development. In view of their low level of productivity, and faced with its pressing budgetary

choices, Government needs to consider the option of closing several of these schools and concentrating its efforts on expanding the capacity and improving the quality of a few selected institutions. This decision would need to be based upon a careful study of the costs and efficiency gains of operating a more streamlined subsector. The impact of this policy on regional access patterns would need to be considered in selecting those schools that would continue to operate with Government support.

The quality of the secondary school teacher training program at ENS is lowered in the areas of subject specialization by lack of textbooks and laboratory facilities. In the core areas of pedagogical training the quality is lowered by staffing weakness. The number of teachers trained and the quality of the preparation they receive in their content specializations could be improved significantly by making better use of existing resources and facilities at the State University of Haiti.

One strategy worth considering, in view of the serious projected shortage of teachers, might be for ENS to concentrate its resources toward transforming its Department of Pedagogy into a viable training program that could organize a one-year intensive certification program for graduates from other programs. Its present policy of attempting to provide content training has led to costly duplication of other university courses.

7.2.1.3 Access and Equity

There are no major issues of access and equity limiting the effectiveness of the teacher training subsector. The location of normal schools and regional pedagogical centers throughout the major regions of the country assures training opportunities to all qualified candidates and all teachers.

Because of the general problems of recordkeeping and management discussed earlier, specific data are not available on the percentage of female teachers retrained under the IPN inservice program. It can only be assumed that the participation of females has been proportionate to their numbers in the general teaching force, which is about 50%. Data for 1982/83 show that within the accredited normal schools, there are significantly more females (70%) than males. This pattern is reversed at ENS where males comprised 70% of the enrollments in 1984. Because admission to each of these teacher training tracks is based upon competitive examinations, these differences more probably reflect culturally determined career preferences than institutional policies.

The present teacher training program does have unintended consequences which limit the access of some Haitian children to a primary education. The decision to drop from the inservice training curriculum those teaching methods intended to better prepare teachers for classroom conditions in rural schools

means that over-age children in rural schools will be excluded from the Reform program.

7.2.1.4 Administration and Supervision

The most crucial problems limiting the effectiveness of teacher training are those related to administration and supervision. The inservice teacher training program has not been well managed by the National Pedagogical Institute, which is understaffed, overextended, and lacks qualified personnel in the key areas of educational planning and management.

The performance of IPN is expected to improve under the upcoming Fourth Education Project through additional personnel and logistics support. These improvements might be enhanced by providing additional training opportunities in planning and management to its central staff, in view of the general lack of trained personnel in these areas.

The supervision of trainees has been impaired at all levels of the subsector by transportation problems, which limit the mobility of supervisory personnel, and at ENS by the part-time status of instructors, who are not readily available for supervision and coordination activities. The supervisory functions of the IPN staff, school directors, inspectors, and pedagogical counselors will be addressed in the next Education Project, under which World Bank funds have already been targeted for transportation and communication improvements. At present, there does not appear to be a strategy for improving the supervisory capacity of the normal schools.

7.2.1.5 Costs and Financing

This part of the analysis focuses on the public teacher training institutions because cost and finance data were not available on the private schools. The unit costs per trainee for preservice training in the public sector vary according to the level of teacher that is prepared (see Chapter 2). It is slightly more expensive to train a primary than a secondary school teacher ($889 as compared to $813). In each case, Government pays the largest proportion of the costs (79% for primary and 77% for secondary teachers) with donors paying the rest of the costs. Thus, individuals in preservice teacher training in public institutions have no out-of-pocket costs, only opportunity costs.

Rates of return were calculated in Chapter 2 using two different assumptions. If it is assumed that the graduate of a primary or secondary teacher training institution joins the teaching profession, the calculations show a negative rate of private return--principally because of the extremely low salaries paid to teachers. Assuming that graduates do not take teaching

positions, the calculations indicate that private rates of return are approximately 43% and total rates of return are much lower, with a median of 8%.

The above discussion suggests that at present there is not much likelihood of high returns to the education sector on investments in preservice teacher training. Unfortunately, information is not available to allow comparison with unit costs and rates of return for inservice training. However, two arguments can be put forward on the basis of available information.

The first relates to preservice training. It would seem unwise to invest heavily in, or even encourage, specialized preservice training without concurrently addressing the serious problems of attracting teachers and attrition in the teacher force. There is little to be gained in providing training in pedagogy and curriculum to individuals who are unlikely to put that training to use in the service of the education sector.

The second follows from the first. Given available information, the skills of those already serving as teachers should be improved so as to upgrade the quality of instruction, and the potential of these individuals should be exploited. Moreover, the shorter training period associated with inservice training means a quicker pay-off on investments.

### 7.2.2 Constraints

The major problems which impair the performance of the teacher training institutions in Haiti are related to financial constraints and to problems of planning and management.

The prevailing unfavorable set of economic conditions has severely limited the allocations to preservice training institutions. Their modest operational budgets are inadequate to redress problems that limit the quality of their programs, such as the shortage of instructors at certain normal schools, inadequate supervision of trainees, poor facilities, and insufficient instructional materials. The quality of preservice programs for secondary school teachers at ENS is limited by lack of qualified personnel in its Department of Pedagogy, in dequate facilities, and shortages of textbooks and instructional materials.

The inservice teacher training program administered by IPN has been beset by problems. There is no functional central administrative system for maintaining basic records on the teachers participating in the program. Coordination between the IPN staff and the corps of inspectors and pedagogical counselors has encountered problems that have impaired the evaluation of trainees. Inadequate planning has repeatedly delayed the functioning of the educational radio component.

### 7.2.3 Plans

Plans for the future training of teachers include two major programs which have been under discussion since 1982. These are the creation of a Baccalauréat Pédagogique and of a College of Education at the State University of Haiti. Creation of the Baccalauréat Pédagogique has the dual, long-range objectives of increasing the supply of secondary school teachers and improving the career prospects of normal school graduates. Under the present program, normal school graduates do not have access to any professional track other than primary school teaching. The training leads nowhere professionally. The new normal school track would consist of about 3 years of study--a year of formal training and 2 or 3 years of professional experience--leading to a diploma equivalent to the standard 13-year secondary school diploma (Baccalauréat II). The normal school students who follow this track would then be able to undertake further studies at the University. An experimental pilot project is currently underway involving 30 students.

Plans for the creation of a College of Education at the State University are directly related to the new, normal school program. Graduates who obtain the Baccalauréat Pédagogique would be able to continue their studies at the College of Education and receive training to become secondary school teachers, normal school teachers, pedagogical counselors, inspectors, and specialists in educational planning, administration, and evaluation. Two years of university training would be required for teaching grades 8-10, and 4 years of studies leading to the B.A. (licence) would be needed to teach the higher secondary grades.

The proposed College of Education would be organized around the present Ecole Normale Supérieure and administered jointly by the director of that institution and the National Pedagogical Institute. The project represents another phase of consolidating all teacher activities in Haiti under the central administration of IPN.

Implementation of the project has not yet begun and is expected to require about ten years. Considering the length of the additional training cycles entailed at the normal schools and at the university, if implemented immediately, the project would require seven years to produce upper level secondary teachers. It would, therefore, have no impact on supply and demand problems in the near future.

### 7.2.4 Needs

The major needs identified in this assessment are of two types: those that reflect immediate problems requiring additional resource allocation, and those that require policy reformulations. There is an immediate need for better

facilities and equipment at the normal schools, increased availability of textbooks and instructional materials, increases in the number of qualified staff at certain institutions (such as Gonaives and Lavaud), and more qualified professors at ENS. Solving these problems will most likely require external assistance.

Beyond these immediate needs, it will be necessary to develop policies and strategies for improving teacher training through better use of existing resources and improved coordination among training institutions.

There is also a need to address the problem of recruitement of normal school candidates by improving the incentive system for teaching. Greater attention must be given to policies to attract new normal school candidates and to lessen the 8% to 10% attrition rate of experienced teachers. The new Teacher Charter and its accompanying salary improvements are a major step in this direction, but whether this will be sufficient remains to be seen. Consideration needs to be given to possible non-salary benefits by exploring a joint incentive system with the private sector, which might offer such inducements as medical and dental insurance, low-interest housing loans, tax reductions and exemptions, and travel and consumer discounts.

Such improvements notwithstanding, there is a need to consider policies for consolidating certain components of the preservice program of the normal schools at a central site to make better use of the limited number of personnel qualified in the area of pedagogy. Policies should also be considered for improving the training of secondary school teachers by making greater use of the existing resources at the State University of Haiti for training in areas of specialization.

The weaknesses in the pedagogical training of instructors at all levels draws attention to the fact that no institution in the country provides degree-level training in education. There is a need for such an institution to provide B.A. and M.A. level specializations in such key areas as testing and measurement, evaluation, and educational planning and management.

### 7.2.5 Conclusions

Consideration of the factors involved in the needs and issues, as well as their accompanying constraints, provides the foundation for the following conclusions.

Conclusion 1 - Prospects.

The Five-Year Plan targets for new primary school teachers are not likely to be attained by the normal schools, because of generally unfavorable economic conditions and ministerial budget limitations that restrict recruitment efforts and employment prospects.



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Conclusion 2 - Funds.

The fund shortages faced by the normal schools threaten to severely compromise the effectiveness of their preservice training programs.

Conclusion 3 - Management.

The inservice teacher training program has not been well managed by the National Pedagogical Institute which is understaffed, overextended, and needs qualified personnel in the areas of planning and management.

Conclusion 4 - Rural Teaching.

There is no evidence that the inservice training program is providing teachers with competencies necessary for teaching in rural areas.

Conclusion 5 - Secondary Schools.

To date, there is no implementation strategy for attaining secondary school teacher training targets. Plans for the creation of a Baccalauréat Pédagogique are not likely to have significant impact on the supply of qualified secondary school teachers.

Conclusion 6 - ENS.

The quality of the training program for secondary school teachers at the Ecole Normale Supérieure is severely restricted by its inadequate facilities, lack of instructional materials and equipment, and an insufficient number of qualified staff in its Education Section.

Conclusion 7 - Degree Level.

The possibilities for relevant, ongoing reform of Haitian education are presently limited by the fact that no institution in the country provides degree-level training in the field of education.

## 7.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

On the basis of the foregoing discussion and analysis of the situation and prospects of teacher training, the following recommendations are made.

Recommendation 1 - Management. Donors should coordinate their activities with those of the Fourth Education Project to improve the planning and management capacity of the Training Section of the National Pedagogical Institute (IPN).

Provide technical training assistance through consultancies and organize in-country workshops on planning and management. Explore the use of a computer-based management information system.



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Recommendation 2 - Radio Teaching. A comprehensive strategy should be developed for the use of radio in teaching training.

Provide a short-term technical assistance team to the IPN Educational Radio Section to assist in developing plans and implementation strategies, for use in teacher training and in formal and nonformal educational programs.

Recommendation 3 - Instructional Systems. Alternative instructional systems which require a less extensive teacher re-training effort should be explored.

Develop a pilot project for a programmed instruction approach to primary school education, combined with educational radio.

Recommendation 4 - Incentives. Government should work with the private sector to explore ways to improve the incentive system for teachers.

Develop a program for non-salary incentives to attract new candidates to the teaching profession by offering such benefits as medical and dental insurance, low-interest housing loans, tax reductions and exemptions, and travel and consumer discounts.

Recommendation 5 - Rural Teaching. Innovative teacher training approaches that are relevant to the needs of rural communities should be encouraged.

Provide financial assistance to the Lavaud Normal School and conduct a comprehensive study of the program to examine implications for its wider application.

Recommendation 6 - Central Training. The pedagogical components of normal school training should be organized at a central location to assure a uniform standard of instruction.

Undertake a study on the feasibility of constructing a central facility where all normal school students could receive their pedagogical training from a core staff of highly qualified instructors.

Recommendation 7 - Coordination. The training program of the Superior Normal School (ENS) should be coordinated with other programs of the State University of Haiti to increase the supply of certified secondary school teachers.

Explore the possibility of creating a new teacher certification program whereby ENS would organize intensive pedagogical courses for university graduates.

Recommendation 8 - Degree Level. The qualifications of the staff of the ENS Education Section should be improved and the program upgraded to provide B.A. and M.A. level specialization in such areas as testing and measurement, evaluation, and educational planning and management.

Provide a team of long-term technical advisors to assist in designing programs, assume key teaching responsibilities, and organize Third-Country master's and doctoral programs for nationals.

## AVANT PROPOS

Le chapitre 8, "Enseignement supérieur," a été revu et corrigé en séance de travail à Port-au-Prince le 10 avril 1986. Ont participé à cette session les personnes suivantes :

| | |
|---|---|
| Mr. Yves Joseph | Directeur du Cabinet du Ministère de l'Education Nationale (MEN) |
| Mme. Marie Thérèse Duperval | Directeur adjoint du Cabinet du MEN |
| Mr. Joseph Herns Henry | Directeur de la Planification, MEN |
| Mr. Max Paul | Chargé du Développement des Ressources Humaines, Ministère du Plan |
| Mr. Gary Perrodin | Chef du Service de l'Evaluation, Direction de la Planification, MEN |
| Mr. Jerôme Jean-Noel | Chef du Service de la Coopération Externe, Direction de la Planification, MEN |
| Mr. Jean-José Raymond | Technicien, Direction de la Planification, MEN |

D'autres suggestions et commentaires ont été faits séparément par Mr. Jacques Edouard Alexis, Doyen de la Faculté d'Agronomie et de Médécine Vétérinaire, Université d'Etat d'Haïti. Mr. Milton Adams, Directeur adjoint de l'AMESED et chercheur à l'Université d'Etat de la Floride (FSU) a participé à toutes les sessions en tant que facilitateur.

La première partie de chacune des séances fut consacrée à des corrections de détail et de présentation statistique. Les participants se sont déclarés satisfaits dans l'ensemble du contenu et des conclusions du document mais ont tenu à faire valoir les commentaires et suggestions suivants :

(i) Il est essentiel de lever les obstacles au développement du système d'enseignement supérieur identifiés dans le document si l'on veut que l'Université d'Etat d'Haiti joue un rôle plus important et actif dans l'accomplissement des objectifs de développement national.

(ii) Les participants estimaient qu'il fallait tenir compte de deux perspectives complémentaires en interprétant les données présentées dans le document :

- Il est peu probable que l'on arrive à un accord unanime sur les différents aspects du développement historique de l'Université présentés à la section 8.1.1.2 du document, étant donné que chacune des équipes qui se succèdent à l'administration de l'Université peut avoir sa propre interprétation des faits historiques.

- La déscription des programmes d'enseignement dans les instituts privés d'enseignement supérieur est basée sur des renseignements obtenus auprès des administrateurs de ces instituts à un moment où il était impossible de vérifier avec précision le degré de mise en oeuvre effective de ces programmes.

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# 8.0 L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR

Ce chapitre décrit l'Université d'Etat d'Haïti et trois instituts privés : L'Université du Roi Henri Christophe, le Centre Universitaire International d'Haïti et l'Institut Haïtien de Technologie Electronique.

## 8.1 SITUATION ACTUELLE

La dernière décennie a été caractérisée par une croissance rapide de l'enseignement supérieur. De nouvelles institutions privées à but lucratif ou non ont fait leur apparition en réponse à une demande sociale croissante. Le gouvernement a assoupli sa politique de contrôle centralisé, mais a maintenu sa fonction de réglementation. Il autorise des institutions du secteur privé à décerner des diplômes et accorde des subventions à certaines d'entre elles.

### 8.1.1 Structure Du Sous-secteur

La Figure 8.1 présente différents types d'institutions, par ordre décroissant, selon l'importance de leurs rapports avec le gouvernement. Le niveau I comprend les facultés, les écoles, les instituts et centres de l'Université d'Etat d'Haïti. Le niveau II comprend les institutions publiques affiliées et subventionnées dont le gouvernement supervise les examens et homologue les diplômes. Le niveau III inclut les institutions post-secondaires du secteur privé qui bénéficient de subventions du gouvernement et sont autorisées à décerner des diplômes. Le niveau IV comprend les institutions privées encore en probation et dont le statut n'a pas encore été décidé par le gouvernement. Ces institutions ne reçoivent aucune assistance financière de l'Etat et ne sont pas autorisées à décerner des diplômes.

L'ensemble de l'enseignement supérieur haïtien se limite au premier degré, à l'exception de trois programmes de maîtrise qui existent à l'Université d'Etat d'Haïti. Il faut noter que la liste des institutions concernées par la présente étude ne comprend pas les institutions de formation religieuse, les écoles de langues, ou les petites institutions à but lucratif qui offrent une formation professionnelle technique de courte durée.

De nombreux haïtiens poursuivent leurs études supérieures à l'étranger, particulièrement aux Etats-Unis, au Canada, en France, en République Dominicaine et au Mexique. Au cours des vingt dernières années, L'Amérique du Nord et L'Amérique Latine ont pris le relais de la France. Entre 4.000 et 5.000 haïtiens étudient en Amérique Latine, en particulier en République Dominicaine et au Mexique. L'Institut International de l'Education estime à 1.300 le nombre d'haïtiens étudiant aux Etats-Unis. Selon le consulat français en Haïti, il y aurait environ 300 en France. Cette estimation partielle de

plus de 5.000 étudiants contraste avec le total d'environ 1.370 haïtiens qui faisaient leurs études à l'étranger, en 1976.

8.1.2 L'Université d'Etat d'Haïti

L'Université d'Etat d'Haïti est composée de 16 institutions situées à Port-au-Prince, et de sept écoles affiliées, d'infirmiers et de droit, implantées dans les autres régions du pays. Les 16 institutions membres sont les suivantes : sept facultés couvrant les disciplines principales, cinq écoles et quatre instituts et centres affiliés aux facultés s'occupant respectivement de formation pratique et de recherche.

Un recteur, assisté d'un personnel de trois membres, est responsable de l'administration. Le contrôle du recteur sur les institutions membres est faible et celles-ci fonctionnent dans une grande mesure, en tant qu'entités autonomes. Les changements structuraux prévus par la nouvelle constitution renforceront l'autorité du rectorat et permettront une meilleure coordination des institutions.

L'Université offre 45 programmes. Il y avait 4.513 étudiants inscrits pour l'année académique 1984/1985 (tableau 8.1). Ce chiffre indique une légère baisse de l'effectif par rapport à celui de 4.845 pour l'année précédente, mais représente une augmentation sensible par rapport aux 3.447 étudiants de 1982/1983. Au cours de ces trois années trois institutions ont attiré le plus d'étudiants : la Faculté de Droit et des Sciences Economiques, la Faculté de Médecine, et l'Institut National d'Administration, de Gestion et des Hautes Etudes Internationales (INAGHEI). Pour l'année académique 1983/1984, ce groupe représente 60% de l'effectif total. Les facultés de médecine et de pharmacie, de sciences, d'odontologie, et d'agronomie représentent 29% de l'effectif global, ce qui constitue un déclin par rapport aux 37% de l'année précédente. Les étudiantes constituent 31% seulement des effectifs pour l'année académique 1984/1985, avec des différences manifestes entre institutions, reflétant une disparité sensible entre les sexes quant à l'accès à l'enseignement supérieur. Toutefois, l'effectif féminin de l'année 1984/1985 montre une croissance de 11% par rapport à celui de l'année précédente.

Le Tableau 8.2 présente la répartition des 606 membres du corps enseignant par nationalités, sexes et institutions. Il faut noter que seulement 14% des enseignants haïtiens sont des femmes. Plus de 90% de l'ensemble du personnel universitaire est employé à temps partiel, avec un salaire mensuel allant de 100 à 400 dollars. Le bas niveau des salaires oblige la plupart des membres de ce personnel à avoir un second emploi.

Figure 8.1

# Types d'Institutions de l'Enseignement Supérieur

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## NIVEAU I: L'Université d'Etat d'Haïti (Comprend 16 Institutions Membres):

### Facultés:

- Médecine
- Dentaire
- Sciences
- Agronomie et Médecine Vétérinaire
- Sciences Humaines
- Ethnologie
- Droit et Sciences Economiques

### Ecoles (Techniques):

- Pharmacie
- Technologie Médicale
- Ecole Moyenne d'Agriculture et Médecine Vétérinaire
- Ecole Normale Supérieure
- Arpentage

### Instituts et Centres:

- Institut National d'Administration de Gestion et des Hautes Etudes Internationales (INAGHEI)
- Institut des Sciences du Développement
- Institut d'Etudes et de Recherches Africaines d'Haïti (IERAH)
- Centre de Linguistique Appliquée

## NIVEAU II: Institutions Affiliées (7):

Ecoles nationales d'infirmiers
- de Cap-Haïtien
- de Port-au-Prince
- des Cayes

Ecoles de Droit
- du Cap-Haïtien
- des Cayes
- de Gonaïves
- de Jacmel

## NIVEAU III: Institutions Privées Agréés:

- Roi Henri Christophe (Cap-Haïtien)
- Institut Polytechnique GOC (Port-au-Prince)
- Institut Haïtien de Génie Electronique (Port-au-Prince)

## NIVEAU IV: Institutions Privées en Période de Probation:

- Institut d'Etudes Supérieures des Sciences Commerciales et Economique (Port-au-Prince)
- Institut Supérieur Technique d'Haïti (Port-au-Prince)
- Centre Universitaire d'Haïti (Port-au-Prince)
- Ecole HADEM de Construction Mécanique (Port-au-Prince)
- Institut Supérieur des Sciences Economiques et Politiques (Port-au-Prince)



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Tableau 8.1

Nombre d'étudiants inscrits
à l'Université d'Etat d'Haïti pour l'année 1983/84

| Institut | Homme | | Femme | | Total | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Nbre | % | Nbre | % | Nbre | % |
| Faculté de Médecine | 372 | 61 | 234 | 39 | 606 | 13 |
| Ecole de Pharmacie | 9 | | 49 | | 58 | |
| Ecole de Technologie Médicale | 7 | | 36 | | 43 | |
| Faculté d'Odontologie | 38 | | 23 | | 61 | |
| Faculté des Sciences | 362 | 91 | 34 | 9 | 396 | 9 |
| Faculté d'Agronomie et de Médecine Vétérinaire | 160 | 85 | 27 | 15 | 187 | 4 |
| Faculté de Droit et de Sciences Economiques | 798 | 74 | 279 | 26 | 1,077 | 24 |
| Faculté des Sciences Humaines | 221 | 68 | 105 | 32 | 326 | 6 |
| Faculté d'Ethnologie | 179 | 74 | 61 | 26 | 240 | 5 |
| Ecole Normale Supérieure | 155 | 71 | 64 | 29 | 219 | 5 |
| Institut d'Etudes et de Recherches Africaines d'Haïti (IERAH) | 118 | 82 | 25 | 18 | 143 | 3 |
| Centre de Linguistique Appliquée (CLA) | 95 | 69 | 42 | 31 | 137 | 3 |
| INAGHEI | 600 | 59 | 420 | 41 | 1,020 | 23 |
| Total | 3,114 | 69 | 1,399 | 31 | 4,513 | 99 |

Source : Rectorat de l'Université d'Etat d'Haïti

Tableau 8.2

Répartition des enseignants par nationalité, sexe et institut
à l'Université d'Etat d'Haïti, 1983/84

| Institution | Haïtiens H | Haïtiens F | Etrangers | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Faculté de Droit et des sciences économiques | 28 | 1 | 0 | 29 |
| Faculté de Médecine | 111 | 18 | 2 | 131 |
| Faculté des Sciences | 90 | 17 | 5 | 112 |
| Faculté des Sciences Humaines | 41 | 18 | 0 | 59 |
| Faculté d'Ethnologie | 31 | 1 | 0 | 32 |
| Faculté d'Agronomie | 66 | 8 | 2 | 76 |
| Faculté d'Odontologie | 20 | 4 | 0 | 24 |
| Ecole Normale Supérieure (ENS) | 46 | 5 | 0 | 51 |
| INAGHEI | 52 | 4 | 4 | 60 |
| CLA | 5 | 3 | 0 | 8 |
| IERAH | 20 | 4 | 0 | 24 |
| Total | 510 | 83 | 13 | 606 |

Source : Rectorat de l'Université d'Etat d'Haïti

Les manuels scolaires sont en quantité insuffisante et une méthode très autoritaire et pédante s'est développée au fil des années. Les professeurs distribuent des résumés ronéotypés de leurs cours pour faciliter l'apprentissage des étudiants. Des efforts ont été faits récemment pour diversifier les méthodes d'enseignement par l'organisation de séminaires, de tables rondes, de symposiums, d'études sur le terrain.

Le nombre de diplômes décernés par l'Université d'Etat d'Haïti pour l'année académique 1983/1984 est réparti par institution dans le Tableau 8.3. Pour les années académiques 1978, 1979, et 1980 des diplômes décernés représentaient respectivement 9,8% et 8% des effectifs correspondants. Si les données qui manquent étaient prises en compte, il est peu probable que le pourcentage de diplômes décernés dépasse 10% pour l'année scolaire 1983/1984, année durant laquelle l'effectif global était de 4.845 étudiants.

L'Université d'Etat d'Haïti n'est pas une entité intégrée. Il n'y a ni campus, ni foyer central de vie académique. Les différentes facultés sont éparpillées à travers Port-au-Prince, et le Rectorat est situé dans le quartier commercial du Centre-ville. Les bureaux, la bibliothèque, les archives et les salles d'étude manquent d'espace et sont mal équipés.

L'Université d'Etat d'Haïti ne perçoit pas de frais de scolarité. Le Rectorat accorde environ une centaine d'allocations mensuelles de $20 aux meilleurs étudiants. De plus, l'Université fournit depuis 1957 un salaire de soutien mensuel de $15 à $20 à des étudiants issus de familles nécessiteuses. L'université estime à 10.000 le coût d'une année d'études à la faculté de médecine. Les facultés de sciences, d'agronomie, ainsi que l'INAGHEI ont à peu près les mêmes coûts. Cependant, il faut noter que celui-ci est beaucoup plus bas en sciences sociales.

Tableau 8.3

Nombre de diplômes décernés par institution de l'Université d'Etat d'Haïti, 1983/84

| Institution | Diplômes |
|---|---|
| Faculté de Droit et des sciences économiques | 26 |
| Faculté de Médecine, de pharmacie et de technologie médicale | 148 |
| Faculté des Sciences | 61 |
| Faculté des Sciences Humaines | ND (*) |
| Faculté d'Ethnologie | 0 |
| Faculté d'Agronomie et de médecine vétérinaire | 38 |
| Faculté d'Odontologie | 11 |
| Ecole Normale Supérieure (ENS) | 30 |
| Institut national d'administration, de gestion et des hautes études internationales (INAGHEI) | 30 |
| Centre de Linguistique appliquée (CLA) | ND (*) |
| Institut d'études et de recherches africaines (IERAH) | 0 |

Source : Rectorat de l'Université d'Etat d'Haïti
(*) non disponibles

8.1.3 Les Institutions Privées

L'Université du Roi Henri Christophe (URHC). Elle a été inaugurée au Cap-Haïtien en 1980, en tant que premier centre d'enseignement supérieur indépendant à but non lucratif. Elle est reconnue d'utilité publique et bénéfice de quelques bourses d'études et d'une subvention assez importante du gouvernement. Elle offre actuellement des programmes en agronomie, en architecture, en génie et en médecine, et compte en offrir d'autres dans le futur. Ses programmes sont modelés sur le système de crédits par cours, requérant la répétition du cours dans lequel un échec a été enregistré, au lieu que l'année entière le soit.

Les inscriptions sont passées de 43 en 1981 au présent total de 106 étudiants, âgés de 19 à 26 ans, et en majorité issus de familles pauvres. Entre la première et la seconde année, l'Université enregistrait un taux d'abandons relativement élevé de 40%. L'administration pense qu'environ 60% de ces abandons sont dûs à des raisons financières. Entre 1983/84 et 1984/85, ce taux avait baissé à 34%, l'administration ayant pu faire bénéficier à certains étudiants de quelques bourses d'études.

L'effectif le plus important (41 étudiants) est celui de la faculté d'agronomie qui est suivie par ceux des facultés de médecine, de génie civil et d'architecture, comptant, respectivement, 30 et 28 étudiants. Les étudiants de première année sont les plus nombreux (54). Environ 27% seulement de l'effectif global sont des femmes ; par contre, elles représentent 40% du total des étudiants en médecine.

Tous les professeurs enseignent à temps partiel. Depuis 1981, le nombre de professeurs est passé de 8 à 58, ce qui donne un rapport étudiant/professeur de moins de 2 à 1. La plupart des professeurs sont détenteurs d'une licence universitaire, quelques-uns titulaires d'une maîtrise ; sept seulement sont des femmes. Ces professeurs sont payés 10 dollars de l'heure, quelque soit le cours enseigné.

Pour le moment l'université dispose d'un nombre suffisant de salles de classe, mais n'a pas d'espace pour une éventuelle augmentation de l'effectif. L'équipement des laboratoires et le matériel didactique sont nettement inadéquats. Les étudiants n'ont pas les moyens de se procurer les manuels nécessaires et l'Université ne peut pas les leur fournir. On peut trouver quelques exemplaires des manuels les plus importants à la bibliothèque de l'établissement. Les outils pédagogiques les plus communs sont des copies ronéotypées de certains chapitres des manuels, des résumés et des plans de cours.

Les frais de scolarité s'élèvent à 500 dollars par an. Les étudiants

bénéficient d'une assistance financière sous forme de bourse et d'emplois réservés aux étudiants. Près de la moitié du budget de fonctionnement provient des droits d'inscription, l'autre moitié de sources externes. Cette année, le gouvernement a octroyé une subvention de 40.000 dollars, à l'Université, ce qui comporte une augmentation par rapport aux 30.000 dollars alloués pour l'année 1983/1984.

Centre Universitaire International d'Haïti. Le Centre Universitaire International d'Haïti a été fondé à Port-au-Prince en 1979 par un groupe d'haïtiens qui avaient travaillé dans des universités américaines. Le système de crédits des universités américaines a servi de modèle à l'élaboration des programmes de cette université. Un groupe d'éducateurs et de personnalités américaines soutient l'Université et fait partie de son conseil d'administration. Il s'efforce de faire connaître l'Université et de trouver des sources de financement pour ses programmes.

Le centre fonctionne avec l'autorisation de l'Université d'Etat d'Haïti. Il est actuellement en période probatoire en attendant qu'une évaluation vienne fixer son statut après la sortie de sa première promotion. Toute une série de programmes académiques et de formation professionnelle avait été prévue, mais seuls quelques parties de ces programmes sont en place. Actuellement, le centre offre des programmes d'une durée de quatre ans en administration et gestion, en agronomie, sciences économiques, comptabilité, génie électronique, sciences humaines, et un programme de médecine qui s'étale sur six ans.

Il y a eu une régression de l'effectif qui est passé de 250 en 1983-1984 à 130 pour l'année académique 1984/1985. Cette baisse est attribuée à la récente hausse des droits d'inscription.

La majorité des étudiants sont inscrits en gestion des affaires et en médecine, et les effectifs les moins importants sont en sciences humaines et en agronomie. Les étudiantes ne constituent que 30% de l'effectif et sont réparties dans la plupart des programmes, à l'exception de l'électronique. Bien que le pourcentage d'étudiantes le plus élevé se trouve en économie (63%), leur plus grand nombre est en médecine. Le personnel enseignant du Centre universitaire international d'Haïti se compose de 25 professeurs à temps partiel dont 4 étrangers. Sept d'entre eux sont titulaires d'une licence, dix-huit d'une maîtrise, et sept d'un doctorat. Le salaire moyen est de 750 dollars par matière/semestre.

La qualité de l'enseignement se ressent du manque de manuels scolaires et de matériel pédagogique. Par ailleurs, les salles réservées aux cours sont insuffisantes, peu spacieuses, et mal équipées.

Les cours du Centre Universitaire International d'Haïti coûtent cher en

comparaison avec les autres écoles du secteur privé. Les frais de scolarité pour les étudiants à plein-temps s'élèvent à 545 dollars. Cette année 10 postes occupés par des étudiants permettent aux bénéficiaires d'être dispensés des frais d'inscription en échange de 10 à 20 heures de travail par semaine. Les droits d'inscription sont élevés parce qu'ils constituent la principale source de financement de l'Université.

L'Institut Haïtien de Technologie Electronique. L'Institut Haïtien de Technologie Electronique est une institution privée, non-commerciale, entièrement consacrée à l'enseignement de la technologie électrique. Il a été fondé en 1977 à Port-au-Prince et est reconnu par la "Southern Association of Colleges and Schools" des Etats-Unis. Il jouit d'une excellente réputation sur le plan local.

L'Institut offre un programme de trois ans pour la formation de techniciens en électronique et en électricité. La fin des études est sanctionnée par le grade d'associé ou par un diplôme d'études supérieures. L'Institut offre également un programme de licence d'une durée de quatre ans en vue de la formation d'ingénieurs en électronique et en électricité. Il s'aligne sur le système de crédits des universités américaines.

La majorité des 253 étudiants, soit 73%, est dans le programme de licence qui dure 4 ans et qui offre différentes spécialisations notamment en systèmes digitaux, en énergie électrique, technologie électronique, contrôle des processus, et en gestion. Le récent agrandissement des locaux, dont la capacité a plus que doublé, se traduit par un nombre élevé d'étudiants en première et deuxième année. L'Institut a déjà à son actif 143 diplômés. La plupart des étudiants travaillent à plein-temps et suivent des cours du soir à plein-temps. Il y a très peu de femmes parmi eux.

Le personnel enseignant de l'Institut comprend 18 professeurs haïtiens, dont neuf sont titulaires de licences décernées par des universités étrangères. La majorité enseigne à temps partiel et reçoit un salaire mensuel allant de 250 à 400 dollars. L'Institut dispose de deux bâtiments à Port-au-Prince comprenant un total de neuf salles de classe. Ses laboratoires sont généralement bien équipés.

Les droits d'inscriptions s'élèvent à 45 dollars par mois pour le programme conduisant au grade d'associé, et à 50 dollars par mois pour celui de licence. L'Institut est financé en partie par les droits d'inscriptions des étudiants et par les ressources financières personnelles de son président.

## 8.2 CONTRAINTES

Les principales entraves au développement de l'enseignement supérieur en

Haïti sont caractérisées par la carence de ressources fiscales institutionnelles et humaines du secteur. La situation économique limite la disponibilité des fonds. Les manuels scolaires et autre matériel pédagogique sont en quantité insuffisante, les salaires sont trop bas pour attirer des professeurs à plein-temps, et les fonds consacrés à la recherche sont très limités. Les institutions privées de formation ont un financement inadéquat et dépendent trop des droits d'inscription des étudiants.

La faiblesse de l'administration centrale, le manque de coordination entre les différentes institutions et le peu de cohérences dans son système de promotion constituent les principales contraintes structurelles de l'Université d'Etat d'Haïti. L'insuffisance des ressources humaines caractérisée par le bas niveau de qualification des professeurs et le nombre limité du personnel administratif sont autant d'autres facteurs qui méritent d'être considérés.

## 8.3 PROBLEMES

Efficacité externe. Il s'agit ici d'examiner la pertinence de l'enseignement supérieur en Haïti au niveau de la performance des sortants de l'université haïtienne tant dans des programmes d'études plus poussées à l'étranger que sur le marché local du travail. A noter que les études avancées doivent se faire dans des institutions d'outre-mer puisqu'il y a très peu de programmes allant au-delà de la licence en Haïti. Le fait que les directives d'admission de plusieurs universités américaines recommandent que les diplômés d'universités haïtiennes soient admis au niveau gradué "sans rattrapage" suggère que la licence haïtienne est généralement considérée comme l'équivalente du B.A. ou du B.S. américain. Il semble raisonnable d'accepter l'opinion générale qui s'accorde à admettre que ces étudiants obtiennent de bons résultats, bien qu'une opinion définitive sur la question nécessite l'analyse et l'interprétation de données statistiques réelles.

Pour ce qui concerne les diplômés de l'Université d'Etat d'Haïti qui entrent directement sur le marché de l'emploi, il faudrait procéder à une analyse de l'offre et de la demande de main-d'oeuvre et essayer en même temps de déterminer l'impact des normes universitaires sur les cycles d'étude, le contenu du curriculum et les possibilités d'accès à l'enseignement supérieur. Les projections en matière de main-d'oeuvre identifient l'agriculture, les industries de transformation, et les services des secteurs public et privé comme étant des domaines prometteurs pour les diplômés d'université, si l'on accepte que ces projections peuvent être considérées comme étant des indicateurs généraux de la demande de main-d'oeuvre.

Les étudiants en agronomie et en médecine vétérinaire de l'Université d'Etat d'Haïti sont ainsi préparés dans des disciplines plus ou moins prometteuses. Ce programme semble répondre aux exigences de la profession et aux objectifs prioritaires du développement national. Cependant, la situation économique générale du pays devra s'améliorer pour que ces diplômés trouvent un emploi. Les mesures d'austérité prises par le gouvernement limitent sérieusement les possibilités d'emploi dans le secteur public. Par ailleurs, les chances de s'établir à son propre compte dans l'agriculture nécessitent la possession ou l'usufruit d'une certaine étendue de terre. Or les parcelles cultivables sont en quantité très limitée.

Du fait qu'il peut s'adapter rapidement aux changements, le secteur privé de l'enseignement se trouve en meilleure position pour répondre aux besoins en main-d'oeuvre des industries de transformation en plein essor. Les diplômés de l'Institut haïtien de technologie électronique participent déjà à l'expansion dans ce domaine.

Le secteur des services comprend la médecine et la santé, la gestion, et l'éducation. Les diplômés de médecine et d'autres domaines para-médicaux sont très recherchés, mais le manque d'équipement et de fournitures de base dans les hôpitaux publics et dans les dispensaires ruraux réduit leur efficacité. Bien que l'importance de la formation d'enseignants et de gestionnaires soit traitée plus largement dans d'autres chapitres, il faut cependant souligner ici la nécessité d'améliorer ces deux programmes.

Le niveau de la qualité de la recherche dans une université est un autre indicateur significatif de son utilité institutionnelle pour le grand public. Il y a actuellement un besoin particulier de recherche appliquée en Haïti, où le progrès dépend de l'adéquation des techniques, des approches et des résultats aux besoins particuliers du pays. Une telle capacité n'a pas été rencontrée dans les institutions analysées. Sur le plan professionnel, hormis les ingénieurs et les techniciens formés à l'intention du nouveau secteur de l'industrie d'assemblage et de transformation, la plupart des intellectuels haïtiens ont eu plus de succès à l'étranger que chez eux. L'exode des intellectuels haïtiens constitue un problème important pour le gouvernement. Celui-ci peut-il continuer à former gratuitement des personnes qui iront faire carrière à l'étranger? Est-ce que ces professionnels qui quittent le pays pour des raisons économiques reviennent éventuellement avec de nouvelles compétences et contribuent au développement national ?

<u>Efficacité interne</u>. Toutes les institutions étudiées sont handicapées par le manque de ressources à la fois matérielles et humaines. La qualité de l'enseignement et le potentiel de recherche universitaire sont sérieusement

entravés par le bas niveau de qualification des enseignants et par le fait que l'enseignement à l'université n'est pas une profession à plein-temps. Les bas salaires contraignent les professeurs à chercher un second emploi. Néanmoins, ils contribuent en même temps à réduire aussi les coûts de l'éducation et par ainsi à rendre l'université accessible à un plus grand nombre d'étudiants. On devrait explorer la possibilité d'utiliser les médias en tant que moyen pour un enseignement à distance qui permettrait de rehausser les qualifications des professeurs d'université dans les disciplines prioritaires, en leur faisant acquérir au moins le niveau de la maîtrise.

Le rapport étudiant/professeur est relativement bas dans chacune des quatre institutions étudiées : Il est de 9 pour 1 à l'Université d'Etat d'Haïti, 2 pour 1 à l'Université Roi Henri Christophe, 19 pour 1 au Centre Universitaire International d'Haïti, et 17 pour 1 à l'Institut haïtien de technologie électronique. Virtuellement, tout le corps enseignant est employé à temps partiel. Ces proportions ne sont donc pas calculés sur la base de chaires d'enseignement à temps complet. Leur interprétation devrait être sujette à caution. Cependant, elles indiquent que l'efficacité serait plus élevée si le nombre d'étudiants par classe était augmenté. A l'Université Roi Henri Christophe et au Centre Universitaire International d'Haïti, le faible ratio étudiant/professeur peut être interprété par le fait que ces institutions sont encore au début de leur développement. Elles expérimentent une large gamme de programmes afin d'attirer davantage d'étudiants.

Un des principaux obstacles à une efficacité interne plus grande à l'Université d'Etat d'Haïti est le système d'avancement basé sur des examens annuels de tous les cours, ce qui réduit la productivité et augmente les coûts institutionnels. L'étudiant qui ne réussit pas à un cours doit reprendre tout le programme de l'année.

Un moyen d'obtenir un meilleur coût/efficacité pour l'amélioration de la qualité de l'enseignement consisterait à augmenter la qualité des manuels et des autres matériels pédagogiques disponibles. La pénurie dans ce domaine est générale à l'ensemble de l'enseignement supérieur.

Une utilisation plus efficace des ressources pourrait améliorer de manière significative la qualité de l'enseignement à l'Université d'Etat d'Haïti. Une approche possible serait de regrouper certains cours dans une même institution en remplaçant le système actuel où chaque institution offre un programme complet. La meilleure façon de décourager un développement isolé des institutions serait d'aménager un site central avec des installations bien équipées. Un tel programme pourrait démarrer en installant dans un lieu central accessible à toutes les institutions les laboratoires de sciences, de

langues, ainsi que les bibliothèques.

Accessibilité et équité. L'origine géographique et l'appartenance à un groupe socio-économique donné ne constituent pas un obstacle à l'accès à l'enseignement supérieur. L'admission à l'Université d'Etat d'Haïti dépend des résultats obtenus au Baccalauréat II, et l'enseignement y est pratiquement gratuit. Soixante-quinze pour cent des étudiants proviennent de familles pauvres, et environ 25% reçoivent un soutien financier de l'Etat. Environ 50% des étudiants ne sont pas originaires de la capitale. Les étudiantes constituent seulement 33% de l'effectif de l'université, et leur représentation varie de programme en programme.

La politique actuelle de décentralisation du gouvernement et la croissance parallèle des institutions privées permettront une plus grande accessibilité à l'enseignement supérieur. La décision du gouvernement de reconnaître l'Université Roi Henri Cristophe à Cap-Haïtien est un geste qui va dans ce sens.

Administration et gestion. Les problèmes administratifs dans les secteurs public et privé ont deux origines :

1. la tendance des institutions d'enseignement supérieur à préférer l'autonomie et la liberté académique à la centralisation de la planification et de la prise de décision; et
2. la pénurie de personnel qualifié qui puisse remplir des fonctions essentielles de planification, de gestion, d'évaluation, et de recherche.

Coûts et financement. Les coûts unitaires annuels dans l'enseignement supérieur varient énormément, de 739 dollars à l'Université d'Etat d'Haïti (à l'exception de la faculté de médecine) à 1.189 dollars dans une institution privée. A l'Université d'Etat d'Haïti, l'Etat prend en charge 58% des coûts et les étudiants les 42% restant. Par contre, dans une institution privée, les étudiants paient 50% à 70% des coûts. L'amélioration de la qualité de l'enseignement et du niveau des professeurs de l'enseignement supérieur aurait des implications financières significatives.

Les taux de rendement privés au niveau universitaire qui varient entre 21% et 90%, ne sont dépassés que par ceux d'un cycle complet d'apprentissage à une école technique ou professionnelle du second degré. Ces taux sont aussi considérablement plus élevés que ceux obtenus dans les autres pays en voie de développement. Les taux de rendement sociaux de l'enseignement supérieur sont de loin inférieurs aux taux de rendement individuels, le taux social moyen étant de 15% alors que le taux privé

moyen dépasse 65%. Le taux de rendement social de l'enseignement supérieur en Haïti est nettement inférieur à celui de pays comparables.

## 8.4 CONCLUSIONS

Conclusion 1 - Le financement. Les fonds publics octroyés aux institutions d'enseignement supérieur ne suffiront pas dans un avenir prévisible à libérer les universités des contraintes identifiées dans cette analyse. L'aide étrangère destinée à couvrir leurs frais d'investissement et de fonctionnement sera nécessaire pour permettre à ces institutions d'améliorer leurs programmes et de contribuer à la satisfaction des besoins du pays en cadres de niveau supérieur.

Conclusion 2 - La coordination. Le régime d'autonomie dont bénéficient les différentes facultés de l'Université d'Etat d'Haïti a eu comme résultat une duplication coûteuse des mêmes cours, du matériel pédagogique, et des locaux. Il sera nécessaire d'effectuer une réforme administrative qui permettrait un usage plus efficace des ressources au moyen d'une coordination centralisée.

Conclusion 3 - Le rectorat. Le rectorat de l'Université d'Etat d'Haïti ne dispose pas d'un personnel suffisant dans les domaines de la planification, de la gestion et de l'évaluation de l'enseignement.

Conclusion 4 - La recherche. Un financement insuffisant de la recherche appliquée empêche les universités haïtiennes de jouer leur rôle institutionnel de support au développement économique et social.

Conclusion 5 - L'accessibilité. La politique gouvernementale de décentralisation et de régionalisation contribuera à rendre l'enseignement supérieur plus accessible.

Conclusion 6 - Matériel didactique. La qualité de l'instruction est sérieusement affectée par l'insuffisance du matériel didactique.

Conclusion 7 - La Promotion. Le système actuellement en vigeur à l'Université d'Etat d'Haïti, système selon lequel le passage en classe supérieure se fait sur la base du résultat global de l'année scolaire est à la fois coûteux et inefficace.

Conclusion 8 - La qualité. Le bas niveau de qualification académique des professeurs haïtiens ainsi que leur statut d'enseignants à temps-partiel constituent des obstacles majeurs à l'amélioration de la qualité des programmes et au développement des institutions universitaires.

## 8.5 RECOMMANDATIONS

Recommandation 1 - Coordination. Planifier et mettre en oeuvre des structures et des politiques appropriées afin d'améliorer la coordination et la coopération entre les différentes institutions de l'Université d'Etat d'Haïti.

Le "Plan Directeur" de l'Université d'Etat, financé par l'Organisation des Etats Américains (OEA) et arrivant à terme au début de 1985, devrait être examiné par les donateurs afin de déterminer les domaines dans lesquels leurs efforts conjoints permettraient de créer une structure universitaire plus efficace.

Recommandation 2 - Administration. Améliorer les capacités administratives de l'Université d'Etat d'Haïti en matière de planification, de gestion et d'évaluation de l'éducation.

Un personnel compétent serait nécessaire dans ces domaines si le rectorat doit assumer une plus grande responsabilité de planification et de coordination. Il serait possible de rehausser le niveau de compétence du personnel en poste en mettant en place un système de formation pratique grâce à des séminaires et des stages, entrepris avec l'aide de coopérants techniques et de bourses d'études post-universitaires à l'étranger.

Recommandation 3 - Promotion. Remplacer l'actuel système de passage en classe supérieure de l'Université d'Etat d'Haïti, basé sur la réussite à un ensemble de cours annuels, par un système d'unités de valeur (crédits).

Cette décision devrait être prise par l'administration de l'Université. Les organisations d'aide internationale devraient être disposées à répondre aux demandes éventuelles d'assistance en matière de planification et d'administration scolaire, au cas où celle-ci serait nécessaire pour la mise en application de cette décision.

Recommandation 4 - Recherche. Offrir des possibilités de formation afin de développer des capacités en matière de recherche appliquée en Haïti par des stages pratiques, des projets conjoints de recherche, et des bourses de recherche.

Il serait bénéfique de mettre en place des stages pratiques permettant aux étudiants de haut niveau et aux professeurs, de travailler en collaboration avec des chercheurs des pays donateurs sur des projets de recherche appliquée en Haïti. Les programmes de recherche pourraient être mis en oeuvre en



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collaboration avec les instituts haïtiens de recherche afin d'améliorer leurs capacités de concevoir, de planifier et de gérer de grands projets de recherche. Les donateurs pourraient établir un fonds, en vue de l'octroi de bourses de recherche en faveur, aussi bien de personnes que d'institutions, dans les domaines de développement jugés prioritaires.

Recommandation 5 - Le secteur privé. Transférer une plus grande partie des coûts de l'enseignement supérieur du gouvernement aux bénéficiaires en encourageant la croissance du nombre d'institutions payantes dans le secteur privé.

Le gouvernement devrait augmenter ses subventions et offrir un plus grand nombre de bourses aux institutions reconnues d'utilité publique. Les donateurs pourraient aussi contribuer à cet effort. La priorité devrait être accordée aux institutions qui favorisent l'accès à l'enseignement supérieur des étudiants des zones rurales. De telles mesures seraient plus efficaces du point de vue du coût que de celui de la prise en charge totale par le gouvernement de tous les frais des étudiants à l'Université d'Etat.

Recommandation 6 - Coopération. Développer des programmes pour promouvoir les efforts de développement institutionnel à l'Université d'Etat et dans les institutions privées en encourageant et en finançant une coopération à long-terme avec les universités des pays donateurs.

La coopération inter-universitaire pourrait constituer un moyen efficace d'aider les institutions haïtiennes à recycler leur corps enseignant et à améliorer leurs programmes. Les institutions haïtiennes pourraient être jumelées aux grandes universités des pays donateurs ayant de l'expérience dans les domaines prioritaires de développement en Haïti. Il serait souhaitable de mettre en place un système de financement pour aider les enseignants des disciplines clés, créer des bourses d'études et des programmes de recherche en commun, permettre la conception et l'élaboration des programmes ainsi que l'achat d'équipement et de matériel pédagogique.

Les institutions du secteur privé devraient être encouragées à développer des domaines de spécialisation, évitant ainsi la dupication avec l'Université d'Etat (comme c'est le cas en médecine). L'Université Roi Henri Christophe et le Centre universitaire international d'Haïti envisagent, tous deux, la création de programmes en sciences de l'éducation. On pourrait encourager le développement des liens avec des universités de pays donateurs qui démontreraient une certaine compétence, par exemple, dans des domaines tels que la recherche et l'évaluation de l'éducation, la conception et l'élaboration des

programmes d'enseignement - domaines importants qui pourraient aider à rehausser la capacité du pays à gérer efficacement son système d'éducation dans sa phase actuelle d'expansion.

Recommandation 7 - Siège central. Offrir des fonds et une assistance technique à l'Université d'Etat pour l'aider à réunir les laboratoires de sciences et de langues, les bibliothèques, et autre matériel pédagogique dans une installation centrale où ils seront accessibles à toutes les institutions membres.

La construction d'un immeuble adéquat et bien équipé dans un emplacement accessible constitue le meilleur moyen pour désamorcer la tendance vers un développement institutionnel dispersé, incontrôlé et inadéquat. Un tel projet exigerait un engagement financier important de la part des donateurs mais pourrait être intégré dans un plan à long-terme. Ce centre collectif de ressources pourrait servir de base à la création d'un campus universitaire digne de ce nom, avec la possibilité d'y ajouter graduellement des dortoirs et des lieux de récréation.

## CHAPTER PREFACE

Chapter 8, "Higher Education," was reviewed in Port-au-Prince on April 28, 1986 by the following persons:

| | |
|---|---|
| Mr. Yves Joseph | Director of Cabinet, Ministry of Education |
| Mrs. Marie Thérès Duperval | Assistant Director of Cabinet, Ministry of Education. |
| Mr. Joseph Herns Henry | Director of Planning, Ministry of Education |
| Mr. Max Paul | Human Resources Development Officer, Ministry of Planning. |
| Mr. Gary Perredin | Chief of the Evaluation Section, Division of Planning, Ministry of Education |
| Mr. Jerôme Jean-Noël | Chief of the Service of External Cooperation, Division of Planning, Ministry of Education |
| Mr. Jean-José Raymond | Technician, Division of Planning, Ministry of Education |

Additional comments were offered in individual sessions later the same day by Mr. Jacques Edouard Alexis, Dean of the College of Agronomy and Veterinary Medicine, State University of Haiti. Mr. Milton Adams, Deputy Director of the IEES Project, Florida State University, attended all sessions as facilitator.

Corrections of factual detail and statistical presentation were made at the outset of each session. Reviewers expressed general satisfaction with the content and conclusions of the chapter, but wished to register the following remarks and suggestions:

(i) The constraints to the development of higher education identified in the chapter must be addressed if the university is to to play a more proactive role in the achievement of national development objectives.

(ii) The reviewers felt that two additional perspectives need to be kept in mind in reviewing the chapter:

- There is unlikely to be agreement on all points made in section 8.1.1.2 concerning the historical development of the university, because such historical accounts are subject to the interpretation of each university administration.

- The descriptions of programs offered at the private institutions of higher learning are based on information obtained from administrators of these institutions at a time when it was not possible to determine with great accuracy the actual degree of program implementation.

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# 8.0 HIGHER EDUCATION*

This chapter of the sector assessment covers the objectives and circumstances of higher education institutions. Most university-level training takes place at the State University of Haiti which offers a wide range of programs, mainly at the bachelor's degree level. Several tuition-based private institutions have emerged in the higher education subsector, in the last five years, in response to a strong social demand. This chapter is concerned with the State University and three of these private institutions: the Roi Henri Christophe University, the International University of Haiti, and the Haitian Institute of Electronic Technology.

Conclusions and recommendations of this chapter concern the need to improve: (a) coordination between institutions of the State University, the administrative capacity of its Rectorate, and its inefficient system of promotion; (b) research capabilities; (c) the growth of private sector institutions; (d) resource utilization patterns; and (e) central site development at the State University.

The current status of higher education is presented in the first section, which includes a brief history of the subsector and descriptions of the four institutions. An analysis of issues follows along the lines of the thematic framework used throughout this sector assessment. Plans, constraints, and needs are then discussed. All of the above information is used to derive a set of priority-ranked recommendations given at the end of the chapter.

## 8.1 STATUS

In assessing the present status of higher education it is useful to consider the first context and the historical development of this subsector along with a brief description of the activities of international development agencies in connection with higher education. The types and levels of institutions and the national objectives in this subsector are then discussed. This is followed by detailed descriptions of the State University of Haiti and the three examples of private institutions. These schools were selected to show a range and diversity of existing institutions. They include a public university, the State University of Haiti; a private recognized institution, the Roi Henri Christophe University of Cap-Haitien; a private institution on probation, the International University of Haiti; and a recognized university-level technical school, the Haitian Institute of Electronic Technology. The institutional descriptions cover administration, programs, students, academic staff,

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*The draft of this chapter was prepared by Milton N. Adams, Florida State University.

curriculum and teaching methods, examinations, facilities and equipment, and costs and financing.

### 8.1.1 Background

The evolution of Haiti's cultural and intellectual traditions is unique. These traditions have been influenced by, and have influenced, currents of world thought for some two centuries. Underdevelopment is often defined in broad strokes that highlight certain similarities among developing nations, but significant and striking differences come into perspective upon examining a nation's development within its own historical context.

#### 8.1.1.1 Context

A proper understanding of higher education in Haiti requires a broader view than consideration of present institutions of higher learning and the students enrolled in them. There have been "highly educated" Haitians for much longer than there has been a Haitian university, and their scope of action has been much larger than the island of Haiti.

The roots of Haiti's cultural and intellectual traditions are deep. They are associated with the nation's distinction in 1804 of becoming the first black republic and the second republic, after the United States, in the Western Hemisphere. These distinctions are a source of national pride. The nation's history has been one of the principal sources of creative inspiration for its intellectuals.

This tradition can be traced back to Haiti's first major poet, Antoine Dupre, who rose to national prominence on the front line with the young militia forces of Port-au-Prince in 1812, encouraging them with patriotic chants to resist the siege that King Christophe had led against the city in his quest to unify the southern and northern regions of the country under his central control. Dupre's best known work, Hymn to Liberty, is among the first pioneering works read by secondary school students in the Illustrated Manual of the History of Haitian Literature, an anthology commissioned by Government and published in 1961 for use in public schools. It includes selections from the works of Juste Chanlatte (1766-1828), poet and official publicist for both Dessalines and Christophe, and editor-in-chief of the Telegraph, the official journal of the Republic. Chanlatte is also author of the play Nehri, commemorating the victory of Christophe over the expeditionary troops of Leclerc.

Thomas Madiou (1814-1884) was the Republic's first historian. Madiou earned a law degree in France where he had spent much of his youth. Upon his return to Haiti, he asked for a good book on Haitian history to better inform himself about his national heritage. When told there was no such book, he

replied, "Well, then, I will have to write one." In 1847, he published the first volume of The History of Haiti, which was followed the next year by volumes two and three. Between 1848-1860, Beaubrun Ardouin (1796-1865) published an 11-volume work entitled Study of Haitian History. In 1854, Emile Nau (1812-1865) sought to give a more complete picture of the pre-colonial history of his country and published a work on the original aborigine civilization, A History of the Caciques.

One is obliged, in a discussion of Haiti's important literary figures, to include such persons as Edmond Laforest, Pierre Faubert, Etzer Vilaire, Dominique Hippolyte, Jean Brierre, Jacques Alexis, Jacques Roumain, J. C. Dorsainville, Luc Grimmard, and Jean Price Mars--to mention just a few of the more than 200 poets, dramatists, historians, sociologists, and political writers who are studied in Haitian secondary schools.

Certain paradoxes can be seen in the Haitian intellectual tradition, which seem to reflect the troubled evolution of a small, proud, independent nation which has sought to maintain an "overture" toward Western Civilization in the shadow of the hemisphere's leader, whose early policy was to keep it in a state of isolation. There is a cultural tension observed in the keen sense of national pride expressed by Haitians on the one hand, and on the other by their attachment to French as the nation's official language. This contradiction has surfaced recently in the ongoing public debate over Government's recent decision to use Creole as the medium of instruction in primary schools. The language issue is an important one since French is valued as an international language. Many believe that an international language is needed to establish the international dialogue that all nations require.

In this respect, it is interesting to note how painting has recently emerged in Haiti as a vehicle for universal expression, propelling many talented artists to international recognition. The Haitian artist Franck Etienne was featured in the October 1984 issue of Jeune Afrique. Writer, poet, painter, he is the author of the first Creole Novel (1968), and has been director of a Port-au-Prince secondary school for the past 24 years. In recent years, art galleries have sprung up like dance halls in Port-au-Prince; some 25 are listed in the telephone directory. Art is displayed in public gardens, hotel lobbies, and busy street corners. One sign on the wall of a Port-au-Prince atelier paradoxically sums up the cultural interplay between local and universal currents of the Haitian identity. It reads: "Haitian Art: Primitive, Realist, Surrealist."

Another paradox can be seen in the fact that many of the most prominent Haitian intellectuals were educated not in Haiti, but in France. Even today

large numbers of students still prefer to study and work abroad. While most expatriate Haitian intellectuals have left for such destinations as France, the United States, and Canada, a considerable number are to be found in French-speaking Africa. This is an interesting connection which dates back to the early independence period of the former Belgian Congo (Zaire) where, during 1960-69, an estimated 1,000 Haitians worked in technical, professional, and administrative posts, filling the vacuum left by the departing Belgians. Some were contracted by international development agencies, some arrived through bilateral agreements, and still others arranged for their own passage. Haitians worked at the highest levels of development planning in Zaire as representatives of the World Health Organization, UNICEF, the Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations, and Unesco, and as consultants to the Ministers of Finance, Civil Service, and Education. The tradition of Haitian intellectuals of stature on the international scene has continued through the work of such men as Marc Bazin, World Bank representative to the United Nations, and François Latortue and Robert Bazile with the Organization of American States.

This brief overview clearly illustrates that Haiti has had a long and distinguished history of leaders in the Western intellectual tradition who, though for the most part not products of Haiti's institutions of higher learning, were products of Haitian culture. Their achievements have been a source of pride and inspiration to Haitians and others who view them as torch-bearers who have projected a black intellectual presence before a world which at one time rejected such a notion with skepticism and hostility.

The present challenge to Government and its international development partners is to strengthen the capacity of higher learning institutions within the country and to harness the nation's intellectual leadership for the achievement of national development objectives. These objectives are presented in the second section of this chapter and are discussed after a history of the development of higher education in Haiti and an overview of the role of international development agencies in this subsector.

8.1.1.2 Brief History of Higher Education

Higher education is a loose collection of quasi-autonomous and independent institutions which operate with varying degrees of association with Government and the State University of Haiti. The history of the subsector can be usefully viewed from the vantage point of Government's evolving role in controlling and coordinating these activities. The role has grown from an early laissez-faire policy of limited involvement through an intermediate effort at centralized administration to its present policy of decentralization and regionalization.

The antecedents of the State University of Haiti date back to the period of early independence when the nation was established on the ruins of the old Saint-Domingue without a sufficient corps of professionals, and confronted by a policy of international isolation. The first order of business was to provide for the health and general welfare of the population. In 1808, a series of laws was enacted, establishing three military schools of health in the north, west, and south regions of the country and charging their officers with treating the sick, enforcing public health ordinances, and promoting the general health of the soldiers and peasants. These schools were the forerunners of the modern Haitian College of Medicine. In the following years a few independent institutions emerged in the fields of law and medicine, created through the efforts of British and American missionaries with the assistance of a few French intellectuals who remained in Haiti.

By 1815, King Henri Christophe had established in the northern kingdom the foundations of the Royal Academy which grouped schools of medicine, surgery, pharmacy, arts and trades, and the embryo of a school of agriculture. After Christophe's death, President Boyer initiated, in 1825, a plan for the creation of a National Academy of Haiti in Port-au-Prince, which was never fully realized.

Between 1830 and 1880, the schools of agronomy and applied sciences and a teacher training institution emerged, based on the tradition of the Grandes Ecoles of France. These institutions received some public financing but enjoyed complete autonomy under the administration of a Director. During this period, Government initiated a scholarship program through which some of its most talented secondary school graduates were sent to European institutions for advanced studies. By 1915, Haitian higher education had become consolidated, with more qualified professors and improved curricula in the professional schools of law, medicine, pharmacy, engineering, and architecture. The U.S. occupation of 1915-34 introduced a more pragmatic and technical approach to these programs.

Higher education in Haiti by the 1940s was comprised of a small number of autonomous institutions. These were influenced on the one hand by a francophone tradition, characterized by its "overture toward the world," and on the other hand by an open appreciation for the American scientific and technological tradition. By now, a clear tendency toward elitism was also setting in. The limited number of places available in these institutions conferred upon their graduates enormous prestige and important political and economic advantages. Realization of this situation among the population is what has fueled the current strong social demand for education at all levels. It is manifest at the level of higher education by the many Haitian students who seek to study abroad

and by the establishment at home in the last 10 years of several new post-secondary institutions in the private sector.

Government's role in the development and regulation of these activities has varied considerably over the past 60 years. On August 4, 1920, a law was passed creating the University of Haiti, defined as "the ensemble of all primary, secondary, and higher learning institutions in the private and public sectors, including their professional and administrative personnel." This global policy gave way in 1944 to a more functional definition. In the first of a series of decrees during 1944-45, President Elie Lescot took an important step toward Government control of higher education on December 27, 1944, by establishing the University of Haiti as the central administrative entity concerned uniquely and exclusively with higher education and research. By subsequent decrees, the existing institutions became faculties and their directors were made deans. The new system was placed under the control of a rector who administered the subsector with a University Council made up of deans. The rector was under the tutelage of the Ministry of National Education.

In 1960, in its efforts to regulate activities of higher education, Government took its most direct form of control in a December 16 decree incorporating these institutions into the State University of Haiti. Government sought to establish normative regulations over all programs and personnel, but financial and political constraints rendered the effort unpopular and unsuccessful.

It has been noted that academic standards and admission requirements at the University were relaxed during this period for political patronage. Many of the most competent and experienced teachers at all levels left the country for more viable careers in Africa, France, Canada, and the United States.

In recent years Government has relaxed its policy. In the new constitution of 1983, the post of rector was elevated to the autonomous status of a minister. The present policy of Government is to accord a greater degree of academic freedom to the University and to encourage decentralization and regionalization at all levels of education.

With the expansion of enrollments at the State University of Haiti over the past two decades, a significant change has occurred in the composition of its student body. The change reflects Government's policy to democratize higher education by offering increased access to socio-economically disadvantaged students through a program of student support stipends. The administration estimates that currently as many as 75% of its students are from low-income families. Upper class families, when able, have preferred sending their children abroad to more prestigious European and American institutions.

Unfortunately, at this juncture when the University has come closest to addressing the aspirations of its constituency, its programs are most weakened by budgetary problems and institutional constraints which threaten to devalue the gains achieved through democratization. Its present challenge is to improve the quality of its programs, while maintaining its policy of expanding opportunities to the vast majority of the population who have been historically excluded.

8.1.1.3 Activities of International Development Agencies

The development of higher education in Haiti has been affected in its quality and availability by constraints related to its funding, personnel, curricula, pedagogical style, and its organization and administration. A number of international development agencies have been involved in various forms of short and long-term assistance to the State University of Haiti. They are briefly described below.

Association of French-Speaking Universities (Association des Universités Partiellement et Entièrement de Langue Française - AUPELF). Its support to the University has been in the form of short-term immediate aid. AUPELF provided financial assistance on the creation of the Center for Applied Linguistics (CLAP). It has donated textbooks to the Colleges of Law and Medicine, provides opportunities for faculty development through short-term training and exchange programs, offers student scholarships, and has trained technicians and provided them with tools and instruments for the maintenance of scientific laboratories and equipment.

The Canadian International Development Agency - CIDA. CIDA is considered one of the University's most important development partners. It has sent a large contingent of technical assistants to teach on the University staff, and has provided significant funding to the College of Agronomy and the National Institute of Administration, Management, and International Studies (Institut National d'Administration de Gestion, et des Hautes Etude Internationales - INAGHEI).

Funds for Aid and Cooperation, (Fond d' Aide et de Coopération - FAC). Through this agency the French government has about 12 technical assistants on the teaching staff of the State University of Haiti. In addition, they send distinguished French speakers and experts for lectures in Haiti, provide a modest fund for medical research, and have donated books, audio-visual equipment, and laboratory materials. The number of scholarships they have provided is considered equal in importance to those offered for studies in the United States.

Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations - FAO. FAO has been active with the College of Agriculture, providing field experts,



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professors, scholarships, and agricultural materials.

Inter-American Development Bank - IDB. The IDB has been active in the College of Medicine, providing funding in 1977 for improvements in its library, science laboratory facilities, and classrooms.

Organization of American States - OAS. In the arts, the OAS has worked closely with the Haitian National Institute of Arts and Culture (Institut National Haïtien de la Culture et des Arts - INHCA), a cultural institution created in 1982 by Mme. Duvalier for training in, and the promotion of, the expressive arts at the popular and university levels. In collaboration with Unesco, it is financing the restoration of the Citadelle built by Christophe in the North. Excavation work north of this fortress has unearthed the ruins of Vega Real, the first Spanish settlement in Haiti dating back to the 1500's. USAID is helping to build the access road.

Since 1976, OAS has worked with the Rectorate in developing a comprehensive University Master Plan detailing new construction needs, equipment requirements, departmental curricula changes, and improvements in the administrative structure. OAS has financed two-thirds of the cost of this study, which should be completed by January 1985. In addition, OAS has made available short-term professional development grants to Haitian professors in education, engineering, music, and architecture for training in the United States and Latin America.

Unesco. Unesco has been very active in a broad way in providing funding and technical assistance for educational reform in Haiti. It maintains a mission of consultants accessible to the Rectorate and University staff, has donated textbooks and pedagogical materials, and has provided scholarships.

U.S. Agency for International Development - USAID. USAID has not been active in this subsector but has provided some limited material assistance.

Other sources that have provided either travel grants for faculty or scholarships for students include the Governments of Japan and Taiwan, the Latin American Scholarship Program (LASPAU), and the Fulbright Fellowship Program. The University has inter-university accords with Canadian, American, and French institutions. These have involved various forms of cooperation with the University of Ottawa, the University of Montreal, and Texas A&M University. Agreements are currently being sought with Howard University, Harvard University, and the Tuskeegee Institute.

World Health Organization - WHO. WHO has given support to the College of Medicine through scholarships leading to master's degrees in public health, sanitation engineering, and public health administration. One popular program, now discontinued, was to provide medical textbooks, with the Organization, the college, and the students each paying one-third of the costs.

### 8.1.2 Structure of the Subsector

Although the early period of higher education was characterized by the relatively slow development of its institutions and restricted opportunities for the population, the last decade has become a new era of rapid growth. These last 10 years have shown considerable expansion in this subsector, as embryonic profit and nonprofit private institutions have emerged in response to the rising social demand for postsecondary training. While Government has relaxed its policy of centralized control, it has sought to maintain its regulatory function; its authorization is required for the granting of diplomas, and it is a source of badly needed financial assistance to private-sector institutions which are chronically undercapitalized.

#### 8.1.2.1 Types of Institutions

Types of institutions in the subsector are classified in Figure 8.1 according to decreasing degrees of institutional linkages with Government. Level I includes Government-funded colleges, schools, institutions, and centers that formally comprise the State University of Haiti. Level II includes Government-supported and affiliated public institutions in which Government endorses diplomas. Level III includes private post-secondary institutions that receive some subsidies from Government and have its authorization to grant diplomas. Level IV includes those private institutions whose status has not yet been decided by Government and which are under probation, that is, observation; they receive no funds from Government and are not authorized to grant diplomas.

This is not an exhaustive list of all of the institutions of higher learning in Haiti; it is complete only for the categories presented. It does not include religious training institutions or language schools, or small, private, for-profit institutes providing short-term technical and professional training. These types of institutions are not analyzed in this assessment but are discussed briefly in the following paragraphs.

A number of private schools have a special status by virtue of their religious affiliation, such as the Ecole Evangélique de la Bible, the Séminaire de Théologie Evangélique, and the Grand Séminaire de Notre-Dame. Other institutions are affiliated with diplomatic missions, such as the Institut Lope de Vega operated by a consortium of Spanish-speaking countries, and the German-Haitian Institute funded by the German government. These schools offer programs in language instruction, grant degrees, and provide scholarships for advanced studies in their respective countries.

Finally, one must take into account the increasing number of profit-oriented "storefront" institutes and "parlor schools" offering various types of

Figure 8.1

# Type of Higher Learning Institutions

## LEVEL I:

### State University of Haiti *(Université d'Etat d'Haïti)*:

Colleges *(Facultés)*:

- Medicine
- Dentistry
- Agronomy and Veterinary Medicine
- Human Sciences
- Ethnology
- Law and Economics

Technical Schools *(Ecoles)*:

- Pharmacy
- Medical Technology
- Middle School of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine
- Secondary Teacher Training *(Ecole Normale Supérieure - ENS)*
- Surveying

Institutes and Centers:

- National Institute of Administration, Management, and International Studies *(Institut National d'Administration de Gestion et des Hautes Etudes Internationales - INAGHEI)*
- Institute of Development Sciences *(Institut des Sciences du Développement)*
- Haitian Institute of African Studies and Research *(Institut d'Etudes et de Recherches Africaines d'Haïti - IERAH)*
- Center of Applied Linguistics *(Centre de Linguistique Appliquée - CLAP)*

## LEVEL II:

### Affiliated Institutions (7):

National Schools of Nursing at:

- Cap-Haitien
- Port-au-Prince
- Les Cayes

Schools of Law at:

- Cap-Haitien
- Les Cayes
- Gonaives
- Jacmel

## LEVEL III:

### Recognized Private Institutions (3):

- Roi Henri Christophe at Cap-Haitien
- GOC Polytechnical Institute at Port-au-Prince
- Haitian Institute of Electronic Technology at Port-au-Prince

## LEVEL IV:

### Private Institutions on Probation (5):

- Commercial and Economic Institute of Higher Studies at Port-au-Prince
- Superior Technical Institute of Haiti at Port-au-Prince
- International University of Haiti at Port-au-Prince
- HADEM College of Engineering at Port-au-Prince
- Superior Institute of Economics and Politics at Port-au-Prince

short-term technical and professional training in business, accounting, computer programming, and language study. Operating out of houses and shops, these centers and institutes offer short programs of study from six months to two years in response to a popular demand for marketable skills. They could be considered comparable in their objectives to the American two-year community college. No systematic study has been done on the quality of these schools, which is said to vary widely between institutions and between programs. For the present, Government appears to have adopted a laissez-faire policy, neither recognizing nor restricting them.

8.1.2.2 Types and Levels of Instruction

This sector assessment reveals a wide range of programs at the post-secondary level, with both public and private sectors emphasizing professional and technical training. This observation, however, reflects only the number and nature of existing institutions, not their absorptive capacity relative to demand. Access to the State University of Haiti is free but limited by the number of available places. Access to the private schools is contingent upon the students' ability to pay. At all of these institutions, the level of instruction is limited to undergraduate studies, with the minor exception of two master's degree programs at the State University of Haiti. The overall picture that emerges is of a subsector sufficiently wide in breadth but lacking in depth.

8.1.2.3 Haitians Studying Abroad

Unfavorable conditions and limited opportunities at home have been the historical reasons prompting many Haitians to pursue higher studies abroad. The countries which host the largest numbers of Haitian students, as of 1984, are the United States, Canada, France, the Dominican Republic, and Mexico. There has been a shift in the past 20 years from France to North and Latin America. While it has not been possible to obtain official statistics for each of these countries, several government officials have estimated that between 4,000 and 5,000 Haitians are currently studying in Latin America, principally in the Dominican Republic and Mexico. The Institute of International Education estimates the number of Haitians studying in the United States at 1,300. French consular officials in Haiti estimate that about 300 Haitians are studying in France.

This partial estimate of over 5,000 represents a significant increase over figures provided by the Encyclopedia of the Third World 8 years ago. In 1976, a total of 1,366 Haitians were reported to be studying abroad in the following countries: United States (580), France (317), Canada (262), Belgium (117), Spain (51), and West Germany (39).

### 8.1.3 National Goals and Objectives

In the Five-Year Social and Economic Development Plan, 1981-1986, prepared by the Secretary of State for Planning, Government states four major objectives for the State University of Haiti:

1. Orient University instruction toward research, and train superior cadres in the domains of science and technology. This would require creating new posts for a nucleus of full-time professors.
2. Diversify the types of training available by developing a system of options, and offer alternative cycles of training allowing students to acquire marketable skills in less than four years.
3. Develop a Continuing Education Program that offers upgrading courses for professionals, and allows adults to return to school to learn new skills.
4. Expand the University capacity and restructure its services to receive an additional 400 students a year until total enrollments attain 6,200 by 1986 (1984/85 enrollment is 4,398).

Although the State University of Haiti is not directly included in the general Education Reform, in the Report from the Rectorate of the State University of Haiti for the 1983/84 Academic Year, the Rector and the University Council have formed these development objectives:

1. The administrative and technical restructuring of the different services of the Rectorate with supportive programs and training which maximize the efficiency of personnel.
2. The functional, harmonious, and efficient integration of the different activities of the University's institutions.
3. A priority project for the transformation of the Teacher Training Institute (Ecole Normale Supérieure) into a School of Education (Faculté des Sciences de l'Education), permitting a better preparation, and the necessary diversification of pedagogical cadres benefiting the entire Haitian educational system.
4. The development of a Master Plan for the University.
5. A Loi Cadre (act providing a legal framework) to establish the internal lines of authority and new relationships between the activities of the University and the institutions.
6. A Statut du Professeur d'Université defining the qualifications, role, and privileges of Haitian professors of higher education.
7. Creation of a University fund for fundamental and applied research.

8. A program to promote greater knowledge and appreciation of the University in the international university milieu.
9. Establishment and development of relations of exchange and cooperation with overseas centers of higher education.
10. Establishment of a fruitful cultural dialogue with these centers.

Of these ten University objectives, the most progress has been made on the fourth: the development of a University Master Plan. This plan, partially financed by the OAS, is a comprehensive set of studies intended to provide an integrated framework for the other goals and objectives. It consists of 25 volumes addressing the following topics:

1. A Structural Policy for Haitian Higher Education.
2. A Study of the Ethno-Socio-Psychological and Linguistic Milieu of Haiti in the View of a Reform of the University of Haiti.
3. Principal Values in the Expression of the Haitian Identity.
4. Elements which Inhibit the Application of Technology.
5. A Department of Human Disciplines and Behavior.
6. A Department of Biology for the SUH.
7. Structural Plan for the Department of Physics.
8. Geology Program - A Proposed Structure for the College of Science.
9. Recommendations Relative to a Department of Chemistry.
10. Recommendations Concerning a Department of Mathematics.
11. Considerations on the Development of a Health Center or a Biomedical Center at SUH.
12. Recommendations Concerning a Sports Center at SUH.
13. Recommendations Concerning the Creation of a Zoological and Botanical Garden.
14. A University "Physical Plant" for SUH.
15. Recommendations Concerning the Creation of an Art Center at SUH.
16. Plans for a Library System at SUH, Part I.
17. Plans for a University Library Building, Part II.
18. Conclusions and Recommendations Relative to the Development of a Library System, Part III.
19. Appendices (Library, Part IV).
20. Rationale for an Extension Unit at SUH.
21. Basis for the Development of a Physical Master Plan for SUH.
22. Annex II, Architectural Details.
23. Recommendations Concerning the Creation of a Planning Unit.

24. Recommendations Concerning the Creation of a Center for Environmental Studies.

25. Plans for the Development of the Secondary Teachers Training School (ENS), 1984-1987.

Most of these items are planning documents. The 26th volume, the final study of the series, was completed in December 1984 and analyzes the current status of higher education. It had not yet been authorized for dissemination at the time of this assessment. The plans that were reviewed seem, on the whole, to be well designed; however, at present, funding does not appear to be available for their implementation. Plans concerning the development of the secondary teachers training school (ENS) into a College of Education are being reviewed by the Inter-American Development Bank for possible support in 1986.

Concerning the other University objectives, those calling for new administrative policies (1,2,5,6) are under study, but have not yet been enacted. Objectives 8, 9, and 10 concern the development of linkages of cooperation and exchange with the international university community; the major vehicles for such programs are discussed in Section 8.1.1.3 under the activities of the international development agencies. The creation of a fund for fundamental and applied research, expressed in Objective 7, is not operational.

With regard to the four objectives of Government's Five-Year Plan, some progress has been made toward the diversification of programs with the creation of 3-year programs for agricultural and medical technicians within the Colleges of Agronomy and Medicine. INAGHEI, the National Institute for Administration, Management, and International Studies, has established a continuing education program to upgrade the skills and qualifications of practicing professionals. Data presented in Section 8.1.5.3 indicate that objectives calling for a progressive expansion of enrollments and an orientation toward science and technology are not being met systematically.

### 8.1.4 Manpower Requirements

Projections prepared by the Ministry of Education (Table 8.1) show anticipated demand for university-trained personnel to the beginning of the next decade. Some questions have been raised about these projections; the reader is referred to the manpower supply and demand analysis of Chapter 2 for a fuller discussion. These projections are used in this assessment only to provide a general orientation for a discussion of external efficiency in the issues section of this chapter. They show the greatest demand for high-level manpower in the areas of public and private services, agriculture, and manufacturing.

This assessment shows a strong demand for higher education in Haiti which



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TABLE 8.1

Higher Level Manpower Projections

1981-86 - 1986-91

| Area of Economic Activity | 1981-86 | 1986-91 | 1981-91 |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Agriculture | 435 | 540 | 975 |
| 2. Manufacturing Industries | 445 | 500 | 945 |
| 3. Electricity, Gas, and Water | 40 | 50 | 90 |
| 4. Construction and Public Works | 94 | 105 | 199 |
| 5. Commerce | 196 | 210 | 406 |
| 6. Transportation and Communications | 212 | 210 | 422 |
| 7. Real Estate | 42 | 60 | 102 |
| 8. Public and Private Services | 690 | 840 | 1,530 |
| TOTAL | 2,154 | 2,515 | 4,669 |

Source: Ministry of Education.

is, at present, in relative balance with existing educational opportunities at home and abroad. However, in five years, demand is expected to exceed supply as the projected number of secondary school graduates increases by as much as 50% (see Table 8.1.2). Government policy to meet this demand by gradually increasing enrollments at the State University of Haiti has not been implemented in a systematic manner because of budgetary constraints, and it is not expected to have a major impact on this development. Private sector institutions can play a critical role in providing students with educational alternatives.

The analysis of current student flow patterns in Section 2.8.3.2 presents an approximate indication of student continuation rates in Haiti. It indicates that as many as 90% of all secondary school graduates pursue higher studies. About 60% of this group enroll in Haitian institutions, 90% of whom attend the State University of Haiti. As many as 30% are estimated to pursue higher studies abroad. In the coming years, private sector institutions will be in a position to reshape this pattern, if they are able, through quality programs at lower costs to attract a greater share of those students who go abroad. In the long term, shifting educational costs to beneficiaries by developing the private sector offers the most realistic approach to meeting the expected increase in demand.

### 8.1.5 State University of Haiti

The State University of Haiti consists of 12 member institutions located in Port-au-Prince, and seven affiliated schools of nursing and law in the regions. It is made up of seven colleges (Facultés), which are the institutional entities for the study of the major disciplines. Its schools (Ecoles), institutes, and centers are affiliated with colleges and focus, respectively, upon practical training and research.

#### 8.1.5.1 Administration

Under the new constitution of 1983, the State University of Haiti acquired the status of an independent public institution, no longer dependent upon the Ministry of Education. The administration of the University is the responsibility of a Rector, named by the President of the Republic and having a status equal to that of a minister of Government.

The office of the Rector, the Rectorate, is managed by the Rector, a Chief Accountant, an Assistant Accountant, and an Executive Secretary. It is sorely understaffed. The Rector administers the University's central budget to its member institutions, with the exception of the College of Medicine and the College of Agronomy which receive their budgets, respectively, from the Ministries of Public Health and Agriculture. The central university budget

comes from the Ministry of Planning and the Ministry of Finance.

The Rector appoints new professors and determines the penalties for unsatisfactory professional performance. He makes recommendations to the deans for improving the quality of the colleges. He exercises financial control over new purchases and maintenance expenditures in the colleges.

The Rector is assisted in activities of policy formulation by a University Council (Conseil de l'Université) comprised of the deans of the colleges and the directors of the four institutes and centers. At the institutional level, the deans are the Rector's representatives. They are assisted in matters of policy and administration by a Faculty Council (Conseil des Professeurs) comprised of the department chiefs and by special committees concerned with finances, admissions and equivalences, curriculum, libraries, and discipline.

The Rector's influence and control over the member institutions has traditionally been weak, and they have functioned as autonomous fiefdoms under their deans. This first year under the new constitution will be an important transitional period during which new structural policies are to be put in place to reinforce the authority of the Rectorate and to assure better coordination among the institutions.

8.1.5.2 Programs

The State University of Haiti offers a range of 45 programs at its 16 member institutions. These are presented in Table 8.2 with entrance requirements, years of study, majors, and type of diplomas awarded.

8.1.5.3 Students

During the 1984/85 academic year, 4,513 students were enrolled at the State University of Haiti. This number represents a decline from the previous year; a situation which is not consistent with objectives of Government's Five-Year Plan. Enrollment in 1983/84 was 4,845 students, up significantly from a 1982/83 figure of 3,447.

Throughout this three-year period, three institutions within the University have attracted the greatest number of students: the College of Law and Economics, the College of Medicine, and INAGHEI. For the 1983/1984 academic year, this group of professional schools represents 60% of total University enrollment (Table 8.3). The four colleges based on scientific disciplines--the Colleges of Medicine and Pharmacy, Science, Dentistry, and Agronomy--represent 29% of enrollments, a decline from 37% registered the previous year. Between these two years, according to Table 8.4, the number of students enrolled in the College of Science declined from 687 to 416. The college has an average attrition rate of 53%; attrition is highest between the second and third years

TABLE 8.2

Program of Studies at the State University of Haiti, 1984/85

| Institution (a) | Years of Study | Majors | Diploma Awarded |
|---|---|---|---|
| College of Medicine and Pharmacy | 6 | Social and community preventive medicine<br>Internal medicine<br>Cardiology<br>Dermatology<br>Urology<br>Pathology<br>Microbiology<br>Biology<br>Thoracic surgery | Doctor of Medicine |
| College of Dentistry | 4 | Maxillo facial surgery<br>Stomatology<br>Hygiene and preventive dentistry | Dental Surgeon |
| College of Agronomy and Veterinary Medicine | 5 | Agronomy | Agronomical engineer |
| College of Science | 5 | Biology<br>Physics<br>Chemistry<br>Geology<br>Mathematics<br>Engineering<br>Architectural, Civil, Electromechanics, Sanitary | Licence (B.S. Degree) |
| College of Human Sciences | 4 | Psychology<br>Sociology<br>Social services<br>Communications | Licence and maitrise |
| College of Ethnology | 4 | Anthropology | Licence and maitrise (Master's Degree) |
| College of Law and Economics | 4 | Law<br>Economics | Licence |
| School of Pharmacy | 3 | Pharmacy | Pharmacist |



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TABLE 8.2 (Continued)

| Institution (a) | Years of Study | Majors | Diploma Awarded |
|---|---|---|---|
| School of Medical Technology (affiliated with College of Medicine) | 2 | Medical technology | Medical Technician |
| Middle School of Agriculture and Veterinary Nursing (affiliated with College of Agronomy) | 2 | | Agricultural Technician |
| Secondary Teacher Training School (Ecole Normale Supérieure) | 4 | Letters<br>Natural sciences<br>History<br>Geography<br>Mathematics<br>Philosophy<br>Languages | Licence |
| School of Surveying (affiliated with College of Science) | 2 | Surveying | Surveyor - Geometer |
| National Institute of Administration, Management, and International Studies (INAGHEI) | 4 | Administration | Licence |
| Institute of Development Sciences (affiliated with College of Ethnology) | 2 | Sciences of Development | Maitrise |
| Haitian Institute of African Studies and Research (IERAH) | 4 | African studies and research | Licence |
| Center of Applied Linguistics (CLAP) | 3 | Linguistics | Licence |

(a) The entrance requirement is a Baccalauréat II (high school diploma) for all institutions except the School of Veterinary Nursing, which requires Seconde (two years before the Baccalauréat II), and the Institute of Development Sciences, which requires a University diploma.

Source: Rectorate of the State University of Haiti.

TABLE 8.3

Student Enrollment at the State University of Haiti 1983/1984

| Institutions | STUDENTS Male No. | Male Percent | Female No. | Female Percent | Total | Percent of Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| College of Medicine | 372 | 61 | 234 | 39 | 606 | 13 |
| School of Pharmacy | 9 | 15 | 49 | 85 | 58 | 1 |
| School of Medical Tech. | 7 | 16 | 36 | 84 | 43 | 1 |
| College of Dentistry | 38 | 62 | 23 | 38 | 61 | 1 |
| College of Science | 362 | 91 | 34 | 9 | 396 | 9 |
| College of Agronomy and Veterinary Medicine | 160 | 85 | 27 | 15 | 187 | 4 |
| College of Law & Economics | 798 | 74 | 279 | 26 | 1,077 | 24 |
| College of Human Sciences | 221 | 68 | 105 | 32 | 326 | 6 |
| College of Ethnology | 179 | 74 | 61 | 26 | 240 | 5 |
| Secondary Teacher Training School (ENS) | 155 | 71 | 64 | 29 | 219 | 5 |
| Institute of African Studies and Research | 118 | 82 | 25 | 18 | 143 | 3 |
| Center of Applied Linguistics | 95 | 69 | 42 | 31 | 137 | 3 |
| INAGHEI | 600 | 59 | 420 | 41 | 1,020 | 23 |
| Total | 3,114 | 69 | 1,399 | 31 | 4,513 | 99 |

Source: Rectorate of the State University of Haiti.

TABLE 8.4

Attrition Rate in the College of Science

1983/84 to 1984/85

| | Student Enrollment Yr. 1 | Yr. 2 | Yr. 3 | Yr. 4 | Yr. 5 | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1983/84 | 171 | 195 | 97 | 93 | 131 | 687 |
| 1984/85 | 158 | 99 | 70 | 46 | 43 | 416 |
| Attrition Rates | | .43 | .64 | .53 | .54 | .53 |

Source: Data from the Rectorate of the State University of Haiti.



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where 64% of the students failed in 1984. This trend does not support Government's development objective to train superior cadres in science and technology.

It should be noted that Table 8.3 combines the data for schools and institutes with their college of affiliation; the College of Agronomy includes the School of Veterinary Medicine, and the Colleges of Science and Ethnology include, respectively, the School of Surveying and the Institute of Development Sciences. Data are provided to the University administration in this aggregated form, which complicates the analysis. These problems are discussed more fully in the analysis section of this chapter.

Enrollment by gender is an additional point of interest. In 1984/85, women accounted for 31% of enrollments, though there are notable differences by institution. This is an 11% increase over the number of women enrolled in 1976.

The Rectorate does not maintain statistics on the socioeconomic background and geographical origin of students, but a study published in 1979 by the Centre Haitien d'Investigations en Sciences Humaines (CHISS) presented the following profile. The majority of the students were between 21 and 25 years of age; 83% were under 25. About 54% had earned their secondary school diplomas from public schools, and 46% were private school graduates. Fifty percent of the students were from the capital and 50% came from the outlying areas. Some 88% were from families whose monthly income was not more than $100. Some 46% were from families whose parents were artisans, farmers, semi-skilled workers, and soldiers; 24% had parents in business and commerce; the remaining 20% were from the homes of senior-level public administrators and teachers. Some 29% received no assistance from their families. About 72% taught courses in secondary schools or found other forms of employment to support themselves.

Estimates by University administrators, in updating this profile during the assessment, suggest that the socioeconomic background of the students has not changed very much. Of 100 students, it is estimated that at least 75% are from families of modest income. Some 20% are from the middle class and the remaining 5% are from upper class families.

No precise information is obtainable on the estimated 5,000 Haitians studying abroad. It is generally assumed that European and North American schools are the preferred institutions of well-to-do families but that poorer students do manage to obtain scholarships and family support for such studies as well. This pattern is probably similar for Latin America, though the proximity of the Dominican Republic would make it more accessible to poorer students.

8.1.5.4 Academic Staff

Currently 606 professors are on the staff at the State University of Haiti. Information on their distribution within the University by gender and by institution is presented in Table 8.5. More than 90% are employed part-time and earn a monthly salary between a minimum of $100 and a maximum of $350-$400. Salary is based upon the number of hours taught and the importance of the course in the overall program of the department. Professors often teach in different colleges. It is estimated that about 60% have the equivalent of a bachelor's degree, some 20% possess master's degrees, and about 20% have doctorates. The highest percentage of doctorates are found in the Colleges of Agronomy, Medicine, and Ethnology, and the lowest in the College of Science.

TABLE 8.5

Distribution of Faculty by Institution and Gender at the State University of Haiti, 1983/84

| Institutions | Haitians M | Haitians F | Foreigners | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| College of Law and Economics | 28 | 1 | 0 | 29 |
| College of Medicine, Pharmacy, Medical Technology | 111 | 18 | 2 | 131 |
| College of Science | 90 | 17 | 5 | 112 |
| College of Human Sciences | 41 | 18 | 0 | 59 |
| College of Ethnology | 31 | 1 | 0 | 32 |
| College of Agronomy and Veterinary Medicine | 66 | 8 | 2 | 76 |
| College of Dentistry | 20 | 4 | 0 | 24 |
| Secondary Teacher Training School | 46 | 5 | 0 | 51 |
| National Institute of Management and International Studies (INAGHEI) | 52 | 4 | 4 | 60 |
| Center of Applied Linguistics (CLAP) | 5 | 3 | 0 | 8 |
| Institute of African Studies and Research | 20 | 4 | 0 | 24 |
| Total | 510 | 83 | 13 | 606 |

Source: Data from the Rectorate of the State University of Haiti.



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The low salaries they receive force the majority of professors to work at second jobs in the morning in either the private sector or as government consultants. The number of professors who leave the University for other careers is quite low, estimated between 5% and 10% per year. It was much higher in the past when opportunities existed in Africa, and when North American immigration policies were less restrictive.

At present, the teaching staff at the University has no legally recognized professional status which would clearly define their responsibilities and privileges and establish minimal qualifications for the profession. Such a document, the Statut du Professeur d'Université, is presently being prepared by the University administration and is expected to be presented this academic year.

The minimal level of their training and the small amount of time that second jobs leave for self-improvement and course preparation must certainly have an adverse effect on the quality of the staff's teaching. It will be critical that efforts to improve the quality of University programs equally address the problems posed by the general low level of faculty qualifications. Recommendations to this end are presented in the final section of this chapter.

8.1.5.5 Curriculum and Teaching Methods

Curriculum development and course design are conducted at the institutional level and are the responsibility of the Decanat composed of the dean and his two vice-deans. This work might also include the department chiefs and faculty members. At the College of Agronomy, which is financed by the Ministry of Agriculture, that Minister's advice is also sought along with that of organizations involved in agriculture.

This tradition of institutional autonomy in curriculum development has produced a problem of redundancy in the number of similar courses offered at the University and a lack of unity in their content. The subject of chemistry, for example, is offered separately in the Colleges of Medicine, Science, and Agronomy. In each institution, the curriculum content is different, oriented toward the particular requirements of that discipline.

The program of studies in the departments combines theoretical and practical classes. The actual mix of theory and practice varies in different programs as does the duration of an academic day. In the Colleges of Medicine, Dentistry, Science, and Agronomy, theoretical courses are taught from 8 a.m. to 9 a.m. Laboratory or field work is scheduled from 9 a.m. to noon. Theoretical courses are resumed from 3 p.m. to 6 or 7 p.m. In actuality, there is some variation in this schedule and in the ratio of theory to practice. The average length of a theoretical course is 50 minutes, while the courses of practical application last from 2 to 4 hours.



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Because not enough textbooks are available to students, a highly directional, pedantic method of teaching has evolved. Professors are required, out of necessity, to prepare mimeographed resumes of the salient points of their lectures for distribution to students as study guides. Material that is not supplied in this manner is conveyed by the professors in the form of lectures in the theoretical classes. In the CHISS study, the majority of students surveyed described the teaching methods at the University as "outdated" and "indigestible." They were, on the whole, dissatisfied with the organization of the University and the quality of the programs. About 52% planned to complete their studies abroad in Europe; 28% intended to pursue further studies in North America; 6% planned to study in Latin America. Two were completely satisfied with instruction at the University, and 12% gave no response.

Some effort has been made in recent years to diversify teaching methods through such forms as seminars, round table discussions, symposia, and field trips. Audiovisual instructional supports are employed in the Colleges of Medicine and Agronomy and at INAGHEI, but they are not widely used in the other facilities because of lack of funds. The College of Agronomy provides pedagogical training to its faculty.

8.1.5.6 Examinations

The minimum requirement for admission to the State University of Haiti is the Baccalauréat II, awarded after 13 years of school. In addition to this general requirement, competitive entrance examinations are administered at INAGHEI and at the Colleges of Law, Agronomy, Medicine, and Dentistry. It is generally estimated that one in five applicants is accepted at the University. For this academic year, 1984/85, entrance was even more difficult. For example, out of 700 applicants who applied for admission to INAGHEI, only 150 were accepted because of the limited number of available places. The ratios of applicants to positions in the Colleges of Medicine, Agronomy, and Science were respectively 700:100, 500:60, and 400:100. At the College of Medicine, the ceiling on new enrollment has been lowered since 1979 from 150 to 100 because it was felt that the production targets were being met sufficiently and that graduates were seeking employment abroad.

Examinations at the State University of Haiti are generally administered at the end of each semester, leading to a final examination which covers the course material of the entire year. There is some variation to this general practice at the College of Agronomy where a policy of formative evaluation employing monthly examinations has been instituted.

The grading system is based upon a numerical scale from 60 to 100, with 60%

being the lowest passing grade. In most colleges, the students must have a minimum combined average of 65% at the end of each year for all courses taken. If not, the entire year must be repeated, all courses included. However, this policy does not apply to first-year students in those programs which have a preparatory year (année préparatoire) such as INAGHEI, ENS, the Colleges of Medicine, Dentistry, and Science, and the School of Pharmacy. The preparatory year is intended to serve as a transition between secondary school and university studies, during which students receive instruction in foundation courses. Students who fail to attain the minimum average in these programs are eliminated.

The number of diplomas awarded by institution for the 1983/84 academic year is shown in Table 8.6. Data were not available for two institutions. For the academic years ending in 1978, 1979, and 1980, the percentage of diplomas awarded to total enrollments was 9%, 8%, and 8% respectively. If the missing data were included, it is not likely that this figure would exceed 10% for the 1983/84 school year, in which total enrollment was 4,845 students.

TABLE 8.6

Number of Diplomas Awarded by Institution

at the State University of Haiti, 1983/84

| Institution | Diplomas Awarded |
|---|---|
| College of Law and Economics | 26 |
| College of Medicine, Pharmacy, Medical Technology | 148 |
| College of Science | 61 |
| College of Human Sciences | N/A |
| College of Ethnology | 0 |
| College of Agronomy and Veterinary Medicine | 38 |
| College of Dentistry | 11 |
| Secondary Teacher Training School (ENS) | 30 |
| National Institute of Management and International Studies (INAGHEI) | 30 |
| Center of Applied Linguistics (CLAP) | N/A |
| Haitian Institute of African Studies and Research (newly created) | 0 |
| Total | 344 |

N/A = Not available

Source: Rectorate of the State University of Haiti.



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8.1.5.7 Facilities and Equipment

Inadequate facilities and equipment are the most frequently cited constraints which limit access to the State University of Haiti, and reduce the quality of its programs. In certain institutions oriented toward scientific and technical professions, Government and the international development agencies have made improvements in the areas of new construction and extension, and in providing some new equipment; but in general, the conditions under which most students receive their education are far from optimum.

The State University of Haiti exists more as a concept than an integrated entity. There is no campus or other central institutional focus of student and academic life. Each institution is its own isolated principality, scattered throughout the city of Port-au-Prince in various commercial and residential districts. The Rectorate is located in the busy downtown section of the city in an old building it shares with other bureaus of the Ministry of Education. The University must rent space for the Center of Applied Linguistics, the Secondary Teacher Training School, the College of Ethnology, the Institute of Development Sciences, and the Institute of African Studies and Research. Most of them occupy old office buildings that have been adapted to classroom use. Offices, library space, filing rooms, and study areas are inadequate. The availability of textbooks and professional journals is far short of what is needed.

Much of Government and international aid has been directed toward improving conditions in four key institutions: the Colleges of Science, Agronomy, and Medicine, and INAGHEI. In cooperation with Government in 1977, the Inter-American Development Bank shared the costs for improving the library and science laboratories at the College of Medicine. The Canadian International Development Agency has partially financed the construction of new laboratories, classrooms, a library and an auditorium at the College of Agronomy. They also helped finance the construction of a new wing to the INAGHEI building. In 1977, Government financed construction of a new College of Science. But even those institutions housed in newer facilities have budgets too low to enable them to purchase an adequate supply of books, journals, microscopes, and other technical equipment needed for their programs.

8.1.5.8 Costs and Financing

Students are not assessed tuition fees at the State University of Haiti. The costs of their education are borne by Government. Students are, however, required to pay an annual student fee to obtain their identification cards. Part of this fee is used to purchase and to reproduce instructional materials. The fee ranges from a low of $20 to a high of $200 at the College of Medicine, where it is used to offset laboratory costs.

Two types of financial support are provided to students. The Rectorate awards about 100 merit stipends, lauréats, each month to the best student as a type of incentive. The recipients are recommended by their deans and receive about $20. In addition, since 1957, the University has had a policy of providing monthly support stipends of $15-20 to students from needy families. Priority is given to those students from outlying areas without family in the Capital.

The University administration estimates that the average annual unit cost of preparing a student in the College of Medicine is about $10,000. Costs are considered to be somewhere in this range for students in the Colleges of Agronomy and Science and at INAGHEI. They are much less for students in the social and human sciences.

Information on the 1984/85 central University budget of $1,373,000, administered by the Rectorate, is provided in Table 8.7. It is by no means a complete portrayal of resources. Finances for the University's activities are derived from four different sources, some of which cannot be accurately evaluated. These are the Rectorate, various ministries, international development agencies, and the Office of the President of the Republic.

TABLE 8.7

Central Administration Budget for the

State University of Haiti, 1984/85

| Category | Allocation |
|---|---|
| Salaries (academic and support personnel) | $1,240,320 |
| Fixed costs | 5,040 |
| Services rendered | 3,000 |
| Materials and supplies | 11,836 |
| Rent for five institutions | 16,092 |
| Printing and reproduction | 2,520 |
| Contractual services | 7,966 |
| Gasoline, oil, tires, spare parts | 11,616 |
| Communications, water, auxiliary services | 1,728 |
| Electricity | 5,160 |
| Petty cash | 1,800 |
| Equipment | 9,228 |
| Contributions from International Organizations (UNICA, AUPELF, etc.) | 2,400 |
| Student stipends | 17,400 |
| Allocations to institutions | 36,892 |
| Total | $1,373,000 |

Source: Data collected from the Rectorate of the University.



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The central budget is used to pay salaries and operating costs at all the Colleges, with the exception of the Colleges of Medicine and of Agronomy which are funded directly from the Ministries of Health and Agriculture. This year, for example, the College of Agronomy will receive from Government a $390,000 operating budget, a $600,000 development budget, and an $80,000 allocation from the Ministry of Agriculture. In addition, CIDA will provide it with $400,000. This produces a total allocation of $1,470,000.

In addition to the special stipends to students from needy families provided by the Rectorate, the Office of the President provides about 1,000 stipends. Substantial investments in the University have also come in the form of new construction, equipment, technical assistance, and material either partially or fully financed by international development agencies. The fact that the total dollar value of all aid to the University cannot be assessed at the Rectorate attests to the limits of its role as a central authority, and underscores the need for more effective coordination and management.

It is worth noting that this budget has no provision for institutional development. The total annual allocation divided among the eight institutions dependent upon central funding amounts to $36,892. At the Rectorate it is referred to as a "famine budget." Due to austerity measures, this year's allocation to the University was reduced 10% from the 1983/84 level.

8.1.6 The Roi Henri Christophe University

The Roi Henri Christophe University (URHC) was inaugurated in Cap-Haitien, October 8, 1980, as Haiti's first independent, nonprofit center for higher education. Its creation was authorized by President Jean-Claude Duvalier in a decree dated September 8, 1980, and published in the official gazette of Haiti September 18.

The University is named after Henri Christophe, who in 1811 became King of Haiti. Christophe is most remembered for the construction of the Citadelle, an architectural and engineering marvel represented on the University's coat of arms. He also founded the Haitian Royal Academy to promote agricultural, technical, and educational innovations, and he envisioned the establishment of an international center for higher learning in the north of Haiti. The University motto is, "From my ashes I am reborn."

The University is located in a restored 19th century mansion in the city square of Christophe's city of Cap-Haitien, the former French colonial capital. In this building, now a historic landmark, American President Franklin Delano Roosevelt signed the Treaty of July 5, 1934, which ended the United States occupation of Haiti. Formerly the Union Club of the Cape, the building was donated to the University by the Club's active members for the development of

the youth of Cap-Haitien and the country.

The school was founded by Dr. Louis Noisin, a native of Cap-Haitien, who was formerly an education administrator in Zaire, and has also been a professor at several American universities. The University has constructive linkages with Government, Haitian businessmen, and the international community. It is recognized by Government and receives a significant Government subsidy and some student scholarships.

The University is seeking to develop cooperative ties with the University of Florida, Gainesville; Evansville University, Indiana; the University of Nebraska at Lincoln; Meharry Medical College and Fisk University at Nashville, Tennessee; and the Florida Agricultural and Mechanical University at Tallahassee.

The founder of URHC is active in the Cap-Haitien community and in the Haitian Association of Voluntary Agencies (HAVA). He has organized several area business seminars and an international businessmen's conference. He hosts a radio program, "The Voice of the University," which seeks to involve the Cap-Haitien community in the life of the University.

The tradition of self-determination symbolized by King Henri Christophe is the guiding spirit of this young institution. The philosophy is "excellence in everything for a prosperous Haiti." The University offers a liberal education combining elements of the French and the American educational systems, emphasizing the total development of the student as an individual who can contribute to the national development of the country. The general orientation is scientific, with programs in agriculture, engineering, and medicine to improve the conditions of the population.

The University's primary purpose is to provide higher education opportunities to the people of the Northern Region, comprising over 700,000 inhabitants. Its feeder system is the approximately 10,000 secondary school students of the North and Northeast Departments. It offers an alternative to the growing number of qualified candidates who are turned away from the State University of Haiti, because of the limited number of places, due to its financial constraints. A parallel objective of the University is to serve as a force for community development and to become a center for the revitalization of social and cultural activities in Cap-Haitien.

8.1.6.1 Administration

Major policy decisions at URHC are made by an Executive Council comprised of the President, Vice-President, and seven other members. The Executive Council meets about every 2 weeks and is assisted in academic matters by the

deans of the three programs. General administrative responsibilities are handled by the President, with the aid of two coordinators and two secretaries. The administration hopes to improve its capacity by training one of its coordinators to operate a TRS-80 II computer, which was recently donated to the University.

8.1.6.2 Programs

The University admission policy requires that applicants have a good mastery of French and that they possess a Baccalauréat II, a certificate of good moral conduct, and two letters of recommendation.

The academic year is divided into two semesters, September-January and February-June. The University offers programs of studies in three areas: Agronomy, Engineering, and Medicine. Its plans call for the creation of programs in education, nursing, applied technology, business, and social sciences. Programs are organized along the principles of the American credit system. Students progress through the system by accumulating credits for the number of courses they complete. A failure in a course requires repeating only that particular subject, not the entire year.

The programs at URHC are still in their early stages of development, and materials and equipment are limited. Within these constraints, the programs aspire to offer a practical education to support the development of the region.

The program in agronomy deals with methods to improve regional food production, technical assistance to farmers, the organization of fishing cooperatives, and the re-introduction of pork production to the region. Plans call for creating experimental farms on 150 acres of land donated by an area businessman, and establishing soil conservation and reforestation programs.

In architecture and engineering, emphasis is placed on the construction of low-cost housing and inexpensive sanitation facilities. Course-work also covers environmental protection and the restoration of Haiti's historical sites. The regional focus of the medical program in an area where there is one physician per 18,000 inhabitants is to improve the general health of the population through the dissemination of information on hygiene and nutrition.

8.1.6.3 Students

As a private institution authorized to operate under Government policy of regionalization, URHC draws the majority of its students from Region I, composed of the North and Northeast Departments of Haiti. The region contains about 25 secondary schools. Total secondary school enrollment for the region in 1983/84 was 10,090 students, a 26% increase over the previous year. During 1981-83, about 1,730 students were enrolled in the final two grades of secondary school.



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In 1982-84, a total of 325 students graduated with the Baccalauréat II, the diploma required to begin university studies. Very few of these students obtained places at the State University of Haiti. The administration reports that 185 candidates expressed the desire to register for higher studies at URHC in 1984, but that only 54 could afford to enroll.

Since its first year of operation in 1981, student enrollments at URHC have grown from 43 to its present total of 106. Students range in age from 19 to 26. The majority are from poor families and have some difficulty paying their tuition fees with regularity.

Between the first and second year of its operation, the University registered a relatively high rate of attrition at 40%. The administration estimates that about 60% of these students were forced to abandon their studies for financial reasons. The remaining 40% failed to meet the academic requirements. One explanation is that they had expected much less rigor at a new private institution and were later unable to make adjustments in their study habits. The attrition rate between the academic years 1983/1984 and 1984/1985 was down to 34%, partly as a result of the administration's success in finding a limited number of scholarships from Haitian and international donors.

Student enrollments by year and program are shown in Table 8.8. Agronomy has the largest enrollment with 41 students, followed by Medicine, and Architecture and Engineering, with 30 and 28 students respectively. The largest number of students, 54, are in their first year. About 24% are women, with women representing 40% of total enrollments in the medical program. They are the majority in the second and fourth years, representing 71% and 100% of these class enrollments. The category of "options" includes embryonic programs in nursing, communications, and laboratory technician training. All seven of the first-year enrollments are women. Overall, women represent only 27% of total enrollments.

#### 8.1.6.4 Academic Staff

During its initial years, the URHC administration has focused upon developing a foundation of competent staff in the major content areas needed to support its programs and future expansion. As is the case for all institutions of higher learning in Haiti, its staff is part-time. Since 1981, the number of professors has increased from eight to the present number of 58, giving a student/teacher ratio of less than 2:1.

Most of the academic staff are recruited with the Licence (B.A., B.S. degrees); a few have their master's degrees. They are a relatively young staff, between 25 and 36 years of age; seven are women. They are paid $10 an hour for all courses taught. Students evaluate professors at the end of each year.

TABLE 8.8

Student Enrollments by Year and Program at Roi Henri Christophe University, 1984-85

| Year | AGRONOMY | | | ARCHITECTURE & ENGINEERING | | | MEDICINE | | | OPTIONS | | | Total number of Students | Percent of female Students |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number of Students | Females No. | Females % | Number of Students | Females No. | Females % | Number of Students | Females No. | Females % | Number of Students | Females No. | Females % | | |
| 1st | 19 | 3 | 16 | 13 | 2 | 15 | 15 | 1 | 6 | 7 | 7 | 100 | 54 | 1 |
| 2nd | 9 | 2 | 22 | 8 | | | 7 | 5 | 71 | | | | 24 | 29 |
| 3rd | 7 | 0 | | 7 | | | 4 | 2 | 50 | | | | 18 | 1 |
| 4th | 6 | 3 | 50 | | | | 4 | 4 | 100 | | | | 10 | 70 |
| Total | 41 | 8 | 20 | 28 | 2 | 7 | 30 | 12 | 40 | 7 | 7 | 100 | 106 | 27 |

8.1.6.5 Curriculum and Teaching Method

Program designs and curricula are developed by working groups of professors, assisted by members of the University's Technical Council (Conseil Technique). This Council is composed of 11 professionals from engineering, agronomy, business, and commerce who meet twice a year to review programs and to make recommendations for improvement. A council of medical doctors, the Conseil Medical, performs a similar review and quality control function for the medical program.

At this stage in the evolution of its programs, material and equipment constraints do not allow much innovation in teaching methods. Courses appear, on the whole, to be conducted by professors in the classical expository style, employing mainly blackboards and chalk.

8.1.6.6 Examinations

To take final examinations in their courses, students must satisfy an 80% attendance requirement and must have paid all outstanding fees. Professors are responsible for developing their examinations at the end of the semester. Examination results so far have shown that students are particularly weak in the basic sciences.

Before diplomas are awarded at the end of each program cycle, students will be required to pass final examinations administered by the State University of Haiti.

8.1.6.7 Facilities and Equipment

Classroom facilities at the University seem to be adequate to meet present demand and utilization patterns, but will need to be expanded as enrollments increase. Eight classrooms are available, and two additional rooms in the basement are being prepared for classroom use. Work is scheduled to start soon to expand the central library. The medical program uses local hospital facilities for its practical courses.

Laboratory equipment and instructional materials such as books are in very short supply. Students cannot afford the costs of textbooks, nor can the University afford to purchase enough books for each student's individual use. A few copies of the most important texts are maintained in the University library. Mimeographed chapters, summaries, and outlines are the most commonly used instructional materials. These shortages limit the opportunities for practical, experience-based instruction. The unsatisfactory performance of students in scientific subjects is particularly attributed to the lack of laboratory materials, textbooks, journals, and manuals.

With a sufficient corps of professors to staff its programs, the next major



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challenge facing the University is to obtain the instructional material needed to attain its goal of providing a high quality education to the students of the region.

8.1.6.8 Costs and Financing

Three categories of student costs are set up at URHC: tuition, inscription, and registration fees. Tuition is $500 per year and is paid in 10 monthly installments of $50. A one-time $20 inscription fee is charged at the time of the student's initial enrollment. A $10 registration fee is paid at the beginning of every semester.

Some financial assistance is available to students in the form of scholarships and work grants. At present, five full-time scholarships have been provided: one by Rotary Club International, one by a regional development organization, and three by Haitian commercial and industrial enterprises. Businessmen in the community have provided four students with part-time jobs to help them finance their studies. The administration is negotiating with several ministries to obtain 34 scholarships for this academic year.

About half of the URHC operating budget is derived from student fees, the other half from external sources. This year the University received a government subsidy of $40,000, an increase over $30,000 allocated in 1983/84. It has also received donations from Haitian supporters totaling $5,000, and $10,000 from international donors. Material contributions have included a TRS-80II (see p. 44) computer for its administration, a comprehensive set of medical reference books for its library, some laboratory materials, and 150 acres of land for its future expansion needs.

Information on the University's annual operating costs is presented in Table 8.9. The largest expense category is $60,000 for 58 faculty members, averaging little more than $1,000 a year per professor. This pattern of low teacher salaries is found at all levels of education in Haiti and explains the part-time nature of the profession.

TABLE 8.9
Annual Operating Budget at
Roi Henri Christophe University, 1984/85

| Expenditure | Amount |
|---|---|
| Salaries for academic staff | $60,000 |
| Administrative salaries | 36,000 |
| Salary for night watchman | 600 |
| Supplies and materials | 5,000 |
| Equipment maintenance | 1,000 |
| Facilities maintenance and utilities | 3,000 |
| Construction and renovation | 12,000 |
| Preparation of examinations | 200 |
| Insurance | 7,000 |
| Total | $124,800 |

### 8.1.7 The International University of Haiti

The International University of Haiti (IUH) was established in Port-au-Prince in 1979 by a group of returning Haitian intellectuals who had formerly worked as faculty members and administrators at American universities. Its mission is to provide a program of interdisciplinary education in Haiti, modeled along the lines of the American university credit system, and to establish a framework for research seminars and joint international development studies.

Its goals are to mobilize academic and other resources needed to expand higher educational opportunities in Haiti and to respond to the academic, professional, and business needs of Port-au-Prince and the provincial areas.

The University is supported by a group of United States educators and community leaders who comprise its board of trustees. On its behalf, they work to establish linkages for the University and attempt to raise funds for its programs. The University plans to develop cooperative programs with Ramapo College of New Jersey, Rutgers University, Florida International University, and several other American universities and colleges.

#### 8.1.7.1 Administration

The University is directed by a 5-member Executive Committee and an 11-member board of trustees. The Executive Committee meets once a month to review progress under the direction of University President Yolaine Armand. Other administrative personnel include a controller and director of admissions, a director of public relations and his student assistant, a librarian, and two secretaries.

#### 8.1.7.2 Programs

The International University of Haiti became operational in 1982 under a permit granted by the State University of Haiti. It is in its third year of operation and has the official status of an institution under probation until an evaluation can be conducted when it graduates its first class of students. Its founders envision the University offering a full range of academic and professional programs, including Schools of Arts and Sciences, Business Administration and Economics, Intercultural Studies, and Human Services. At this early stage of its development, only the basic components of these programs are in place. It currently offers 4-year programs of studies in business administration, agronomy, economics, accounting, electronic engineering, and human services, and a 6-year program in medicine.

In a program modeled after the American university credit system, students are required to complete 120 credits to earn a B.A. or B.S. degree, equivalent to the Haitian licence. The system of credits is designed to allow students to

plan their own program of studies, at their own pace and according to the availability of courses. Before advancing to their areas of specialization, all students must undergo a year of preparatory studies.

The general admission requirement at IUH is the Baccalauréat II, but some students are allowed to enroll with the Baccalauréat I after passing a University proficiency examination. The University also offers a program of studies for students who have not succeeded on the Baccalauréat I, which leads to an American-accredited high school equivalency diploma, allowing them to pursue university studies at IUH. The General Equivalency Degree examination used in Washington, D.C. is translated into French and administered at the Haitian-American Institute under the supervision of an American proctor.

8.1.7.3 Students

For the 1984/85 academic year, 130 students were enrolled in degree programs at the University, and four students were auditing classes as "free students." This enrollment figure represents a significant decline from the 1983/84 level of 250 students. This attrition is attributed to a highly unpopular tuition increase this year from $350 to $435 a semester for continuing students and $545 for new students. Out of about 150 applicants this year, only 40 were financially capable of enrolling.

Data on enrollments by program are presented in Table 8.10 and show that the majority of IUH students are in the programs of Business Administration and Medicine while the smallest numbers are in Human Sciences and Agronomy, indicating a student preference for highly marketable urban professions. Women make up only 30% of the enrollment and are represented in most programs, with the exception of Electronic Engineering. The highest percentage of female students, 63%, are in Economics, and the largest numbers are enrolled in the program of Medicine.

8.1.7.4 Academic Staff

The IUH academic staff consists of 25 part-time professors, with four foreign professors on the staff. The staff identified on its faculty list hold seven B.A or B.S. degrees, 13 masters' degrees, and seven doctorates. They range from 27 to 43 years of age. During the period of this sector assessment, it was not possible to determine whether all of the instructors identified on the faculty list were actually teaching courses at the University. The attrition rate for professors has been low--only two have left in the last 2 years. Salaries average about $750 a course per semester. Professors are supervised by an academic director, and are formally evaluated by students at the end of each semester.

TABLE 8.10

Student Enrollments by Year and Program at the International University of Haiti, 1984-85

| Program | 1st Year | | 2nd Year | | 3rd Year | | Total Number of Students by Program | Total Percent of Females by Program |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number of Students | Percent of Females | Number of Students | Percent of Females | Number of Students | Percent of Females | | |
| Agronomy | 2 | 50 | 3 | 0 | | | 5 | 40 |
| Human Sciences | 2 | 50 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 5 | 20 |
| Business Administration | 15 | 33 | 8 | 50 | 17 | 30 | 40 | 35 |
| Economics | 2 | 50 | 3 | 66 | 3 | 33 | 8 | 63 |
| Electronic Engineering | 7 | 0 | 12 | 0 | | | 19 | 0 |
| Medicine | 20 | 40 | 24 | 25 | | | 44 | 32 |
| Accounting | 1 | 0 | 4 | 50 | 4 | 50 | 9 | 44 |
| Total Enrollment | 49 | | 56 | | 25 | | 130 | |
| Total Percentage of Females | | | | | | | | 30 |

8.1.7.5 Curriculum and Teaching Methods

Curricula are designed by a committee of professors with the assistance of the academic dean. An attempt is made to design most of the programs like those of American universities. A major pedagogical objective is to combine theoretical classwork with field internships, but so far this has been realized only in the business program.

The quality of instruction is severely limited by a serious lack of textbooks and other instructional material supports. Professors are required to buy their own books from the United States and to write short summaries and exercises which are mimeographed and distributed to students.

8.1.7.6 Examinations

Two examinations are administered for each course at IUH, one at mid-term and another at the end of the year. Professors develop their own examinations from material covered in the course syllabus. Grading is based upon a letter system from A to E, with numerical equivalents from 4 to 0 used for the calculation and recording of grade point averages (GPA). First-year students must attain a minimum GPA of 1.70. For second-, third-, and fourth-year students, the required average is respectively 1.85, 1.90, and 2.00. The pass rate is estimated at 80%.

8.1.7.7 Facilities and Equipment

The International University of Haiti is faced with a problem of insufficient classroom space and equipment, which it will need to resolve in order to fulfill its mission and realize its objectives. It is located in a modest-sized house in Bourdon, a residential area outside of Port-au-Prince. The building provides space for five classrooms, administrative offices, a library, and a small student lounge and study area. IUH has already outgrown this space and the administration has plans to purchase land and build a more adequate structure. Members of its board of trustees are reported to be working with Canadian sources to obtain a $300,000 loan for this purpose. At the present level of enrollment, there are not enough textbooks, library resources, laboratory materials, and other necessary instructional resources, which appears to compromise seriously the quality of the program.

8.1.7.8 Costs and Finances

The individual costs of an education are high at the International University of Haiti in comparison with other schools in the private sector. Tuition for a full-time load of 15 credits is $435 for continuing students, and $545 for students starting the program this year. In addition, students pay a one-time $100 admission fee, a $20 registration fee for each semester, a $5

educational materials fee for each course, a $5 cultural activities fee, and $10 for an identification card. To assist promising students in financial need, 10 work grants were made available this year by which the students receive free tuition in exchange for 10 to 20 hours work at the University.

Student costs at the University are high because they are, at present, its major source of finances. The institution receives no Government subsidies and reports no significant amount of support generated by its international fund-raising activities. Information on the University's 1984/85 operating costs is given in Table 8.11. In comparison, one notes that the total budget figure is approximately equal to that of the Roi Henri Christophe University. There are significant differences, however. At IUH, no funds are allocated for expansion, and its salary costs per professor are higher because of its location in the capital. URHC and IUH are able to invest only 4% and 2% of their respective budgets for instructional materials.

TABLE 8.11

Annual Operating Costs at the International University of Haiti, 1984/85

| Expenditures | Amount |
|---|---|
| Teacher salaries | $50,000 |
| Administrative salaries: | |
| President | 10,000 |
| Director of Admissions | 15,000 |
| Two secretaries | 12,000 |
| Night watchman | 1,000 |
| Chauffeur | 1,000 |
| Librarian | 3,000 |
| Instructional materials | 3,000 |
| Equipment maintenance | 600 |
| Building lease | 14,000 |
| Building maintenance | 600 |
| Preparation of exams | 660 |
| Utilities | 6,000 |
| Reproduction | 6,000 |
| Publicity | 3,000 |
| Supplies | 2,400 |
| Total | $128,660 |

### 8.1.8 The Haitian Institute of Electronic Technology

The Haitian Institute of Electronic Technology (HIET) is a private, nonprofit institution that prepares students for careers in electronics and electrical technology. It was established in Port-au-Prince in 1977 and became operational in 1979. It is the first private institution to have received Government recognition. It is accredited by the American-based Southern Association of Colleges and Schools, and enjoys an excellent reputation with local business and industry.

The Institute is the realization of the personal mission of its president and founder, Hugo Noel. Born in the North of the country and educated in Cap-Haitien and Port-au-Prince, Noel earned his B.S. degree in electronic engineering in the United States and was employed in the electronics industry there from 1967-71. Upon his return to Haiti, he worked for several years as chief engineer with the national television company before deciding to establish his own electronics laboratory in 1975, taking on several young apprentices to help him.

Most Haitians, he recalls, were only interested in becoming doctors and lawyers at the time. He expanded the laboratory into a school in 1977 with the goals of sharing his technical knowledge acquired abroad with young Haitians, creating the technical human resource base needed to encourage the establishment of high-technology manufacturing industries in Haiti to create jobs, and contribute to the country's development.

#### 8.1.8.1 Administration

The chief administrative officer of the Institute is the President, who is assisted by a dean of academic affairs, a co-administrator, a chief of student affairs, and a chief of engineering and technical development. The President is responsible for the overall operation of the school. During his absence he is replaced by the co-administrator.

#### 8.1.8.2 Programs

The Institute offers a 3-year Associate degree program in electronics and electrical technology for the training of technicians, and a 4-year Bachelor of Science degree program for engineers in electronics, electrical, and engineering technology. The general entrance requirement is the Baccalauréat I, and all students are interviewed to determine whether they are sufficiently motivated to study in the field.

The Institute is organized along the lines of the American university credit system. During the first year of the Associate degree program, students take 36 credit hours in technical mathematics, electricity, electrical

management, and English. The second year includes 39 credit hours in audio and video circuits. The final year of studies includes 15 credits in circuit construction and repair.

The majority of students, 73%, are enrolled in the 4-year B.S. program, which, after completion of a core curriculum, offers specializations in digital systems, electrical power, electronic communications, process control, and management.

8.1.8.3 Students

At present, 253 students are enrolled at the Institute, which is operating at its maximum capacity. An estimated 60% of the students are from the Port-au-Prince area, and the others are from the various regions. The majority of the students hold full-time jobs during the day and attend classes on a full-time basis in the evening. No age limitation is set for students and they range from 19 to 34 years. Very few women are students. The Institute has the distinction of having trained Haiti's first woman electronic engineer, who after graduation in 1979, joined the faculty and is currently in Italy for advanced studies. Only two women are currently enrolled. Distribution of students by year and program of studies is shown in Table 8.12. The large number of students in the first and second years reflect the recent expansion of the school's facilities, which more than doubled its capacity. Since its establishment, the Institute has produced 143 graduates.

8.1.8.4 Academic Staff

The Institute has an academic staff of 18 Haitian professors, half of whom earned their degrees from American and other foreign universities, mostly at the B.S. level. The majority are employed full-time in Haitian businesses and industries and teach at the Institute on a part-time basis. Average salaries are $250 to $300 a month (a few earn as much as $400), depending upon the number of hours taught and the importance of the subject matter. The student/teacher ratio is 14:1.

8.1.8.5 Curriculum and Teaching Methods

The Institute's programs are modeled after those of Florida International University with which it maintains cooperative relations. FIU has provided the Institute with a computer for laboratory diagnostic use; two of the Institute's graduates are presently studying there.

In addition to the FIU program, curricula also combines elements of the Heathkit and Hitchcock teaching systems. These are commercially prepared programmed materials used widely in the United States for self-instruction in electronics. About half of the program is based upon practical laboratory experience.

The teaching method is multilingual. basic texts and manuals are written in English. After they have been read by the students, the professor interprets them more fully in Creole. Students take their notes of these lectures in French.

8.1.8.6 Examinations

Quizzes are given to students monthly to monitor their progress. Examinations are administered at the end of each semester. They are prepared by the professors and reviewed by the academic dean and the President. Students who fail a course are permitted to retake the examination the following year. If they fail a second time, they are required to repeat the course. The administration estimates the pass rate at 80-90%.

TABLE 8.12

Enrollment by Program at the Haitian Institute of Electronic Technology, 1984/85

| Year of Study | B.S. Program for Engineers | A.S. Program for Technicians | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1st | 86 | 30 | |
| 2nd | 61 | 16 | |
| 3rd | 24 | 22 | |
| 4th | 14 | -- | |
| Total | 185 | 68 | 253 |

8.1.8.7 Facilities and Equipment

The Institute has two three-story buildings in Port-au-Prince providing space for nine classrooms. Its second building was just renovated for use in 1984 and has doubled the school's capacity. Its laboratory equipment is considered to be adequate for present needs, but will need to be improved to support plans for a graduate degree program in industrial technology.

8.1.8.8 Costs and Finances

Tuition fees at the Institute are $45 a month in the Associate degree program and $50 a month in the B.S. degree program. In addition, students pay an initial $30 enrollment fee and an annual student fee of $100. The Institute is financed by revenues from student fees and by the financial resources of its President. Monthly operating costs are estimated at $7,000-$8,000.

## 8.2 ANALYSIS

This section opens with an analysis of higher education, leading to a set of conclusions and recommendations. The analysis focuses first on the five thematic areas that provide the context for the subsequent discussion of plans, constraints, and needs.

Important differences need to be noted among the various types of institutions examined in this analysis. The State University of Haiti's history goes back to the 1940's, and it is currently entering a phase of reform and consolidation. On the other hand, the three private schools which are analyzed are new institutions that are just formulating many of the policies and structures that will guide their development.

### 8.2.1 Issues

This discussion follows the same themes which form the framework for other chapters of this sector assessment: external efficiency, internal efficiency, access and equity, administration and management, and costs and financing.

#### 8.2.1.1 External Efficiency

The analysis of external efficiency is concerned with questions of relevance; that is, what is the usefulness of the training received in Haitian institution of higher learning? Two basic linkages are considered in this analysis: (a) the fit between one level of training and the next superior level and (b) the correspondence between training, career opportunities, and job performance. They are discussed to the extent that data permit.

Further Studies. Does the academic training received in Haitian undergraduate programs prepare its graduates for advanced studies? Such studies would by necessity have to be pursued abroad since there are few graduate degree

programs in Haiti. Specific data are not available to answer this question, but certain policy guidelines can be helpful. The guide for the Admission and Academic Placement of Students from the Caribbean, prepared by the National Association for Student Affairs (NAFSA) and the National Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admission Officers (NACRAO), advises its member colleges and universities that applicants who have successfully completed partial course work at the State University of Haiti may be considered for transfer admission, and those who are graduates may be considered for graduate-level admission. A similar recommendation is made in the document Foreign Educational Credentials Required for Consideration of Admission to Universities and Colleges in the United States, prepared in 1983 for USAID, Office of International Training, by the National Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admission Officers. The recommendation that Haitian university graduates should be admitted into advanced study programs "without deficiencies" suggests that the Haitian licence is generally equivalent to the American B.A. and B.S. degrees.

The recent granting of accreditation to the Haitian Institute of Electronic Engineering by the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools might also be considered a positive response to this question. The school is considered the foremost institution in its field in Haiti. Its President maintains a portfolio of letters of recognition and appreciation attesting to the value of the program and to the performance of its graduates in overseas training programs from Miami-Dade Community College, the International Association of Universities, the Organization of American States, and the State of Florida Department of Education. The other two institutions examined in this assessment--the Roi Henri Christophe University and the International University of Haiti--have not graduated their first classes.

While it would be useful to have statistics on the actual pass rate of Haitian graduate students abroad, it seems reasonable in the absence of such data to accept the general consensus on this question, which is that they perform quite well. As NAFSA observes, "The educational system of Haiti is highly competitive and selective. The successful candidate who completes the Baccalauréat I and II will have gone through a succession of rigid nationally administered examinations, each of which is decisive for continuance in the system." For a fuller discussion of these examinations the reader is referred to Chapter 6. At the university level, the competition is just as rigorous. The first-year examinations eliminate as many as 30% of this select group, leaving only "la crème de la crème." The average student who survives the Haitian system of higher education is highly motivated and persevering and would

not be expected to have too much difficulty in adapting to the demands of an American university.

Professional Relevance. The other part of the external efficiency issue concerns those graduates who do not pursue higher studies, but instead enter directly into the job market. Is their training geared to actual employment opportunities and current practices? This question requires analysis of the fit between manpower supply and demand and analysis of how well educational planners have considered such predictions in university policies affecting student enrollment, program offerings, and curricula content.

It is difficult to predict with accuracy the types of knowledge and skills required and the number of workers that will be needed in a dynamic economy. The Ministry of Education manpower projections, presented in Table 8.1, indicate that for this decade, the major areas of opportunity for university graduates will be in the fields of agriculture, manufacturing industries, and services in the public and private sectors. Since the accuracy of these projections is uncertain, they will be used in this analysis only as general indicators of demand. This analysis of external efficiency will focus on the areas in which employment opportunities are developing and discuss those programs which seem to have the best fit.

Students enrolled in the College of Agronomy and Veterinary Medicine at the State University of Haiti are being prepared for a field of moderately high opportunity. Its professors are among the most qualified in the University. Significant financial inputs of about $1.5 million have been made this year by Government and international development agencies to improve its facilities, to upgrade the quality of its programs, and to diversify the fields of specialization offered.

Viewed as to its inputs, organization, and content, the College of Agronomy program appears to have high relevance to the actual requirements of the profession and to priority national development objectives. Yet, the general economic climate will have to change if its graduates are to have the opportunity to demonstrate their newly acquired competencies. The current austerity measures taken by Government severely restrict the possibilities of their employment in the public sector for the near future. Opportunities in the agro-business part of the private sector requires land, which has long been in short supply in Haiti. One possible solution proposed in the course of this assessment is for Government to provide state-owned lands to the young graduates for their use as demonstration farmers.

The service sector includes the fields of medicine and health, management, and education. University graduates from the College of Medicine are highly

regarded for their competence, but the frequent shortages of equipment and basic supplies in public hospitals and rural health centers are said to restrict their possibilities of intervention. Doctors, pharmacists, dentists, and laboratory technicians employed in private urban practices are generally considered to function at a satisfactory level of professional standards. The relevance of management and teacher training at the university level is treated in other chapters, but the general impression is that both programs need to be improved.

Because of its ability to adjust rapidly to innovation, the private educational sector is probably the best situated to meet projected manpower needs in the evolving manufacturing industries. Graduates of the Haitian Institute of Electronic Technology are already participating in this area of expansion. The HIET President report that the school's engineering graduates earn between $1,000 - $2,000 a month and its technicians start at about $500 a month. He has received letters of appreciation from several manufacturers about the performance of his graduates, one offering to hire 50 of them.

Research. In addition to the pertinence of its training, the quality of a university's research is another significant indicator of its institutional relevance to the professional communities and the general population it serves. There is a particular need for applied research in developing countries such as Haiti, where progress will require technologies, approaches, and products specifically adapted to its needs. There is little evidence at the institutions surveyed that such a capacity exists.

Several factors related to limitations of funding, time, and the expense of publishing contribute to this problem. First, little, if any, funding is allocated to institutions for the purpose of research. While certain institutions at the State University, such as the Colleges of Medicine and Agronomy, receive modest research budgets from external donors, other institutions created for the purpose of research, such as the Haitian Institute of African Studies and Research. The Institute does not have sufficient friends to support both an academic program and a research component, and has thus been forced to sacrifice the latter for the former.

Staffing patterns pose another problem. The majority of the staff at all of Haiti's institutions of higher learning are employed part-time and work during their non-teaching time as consultants, entrepreneurs, and high school teachers. They have little opportunity for scholarly research and writing, and it is not a criteria for either hiring or advancement. Publishing and distribution costs would present a further strain to institutional budgets where funding for basic instructional materials is already inadequate.

Brain drain. An important issue addressed in a discussion of external efficiency in higher education is that of the intellectual brain drain. Except for the technicians and engineers receiving training for the new assembly and manufacturing sector, most Haitian intellectuals have fared much better abroad than at home. One profile which emerges from the review of this subsector is that of highly selected, competent intellectuals operating within a setting of limited economic growth and low reward, who are more or less forced to leave the country in order to practice their professions under adequate conditions for reasonable salaries. It has been casually stated, for example, that more Haitian doctors are practicing in Montreal than in Port-au-Prince.

The exodus of trained Haitians raises important policy questions for Government. Can it continue to offer free training to individuals who use their skills to pursue careers overseas? Do the remittances they send back to their families compensate for Government's lost investment? The 30% reduction in available places for new students at the State University College of Medicine suggests that Government has decided that it is not in the best interest of the country to do so.

Do those professionals who leave for economic reasons eventually return with new skills to make their contribution to the national development effort? Some observers suggest that in recent years, under the present Government policy of liberalization, greater numbers of expatriate intellectuals have returned to work for the country, and not just to retire. The founders of the Roi Henri Christophe University, the International University of Haiti, and the Haitian Institute of Electronic Technology certainly give some credence to this notion, as do a number of other professionals one encounters in the public and private sectors. It is difficult to determine whether these individual cases reflect a broader trend. If so, it will be a gain for the country.

8.2.1.2 Internal Efficiency

How well are resources used to maximize learning in the institutions examined in this assessment? This issue includes such factors as the effectiveness of teachers, student/teacher ratios, the availability of teaching materials, teaching methods, and classroom space utilization.

Despite the many differences among the institutions examined, it can be seen that they all are handicapped by material and human resource limitations that reduce their internal efficiency. The most important of these limitations, it appears, transcends their institutional boundaries: It is the prevailing socioeconomic context within which they must function.

Teachers. The quality of instruction and the potential for a research capability at the institutions surveyed are limited, severely in some cases, by

the low level of teacher qualifications and by the fact that university teaching is not a full-time profession.

With limited opportunities for graduate studies in Haiti, the only means for most teachers to upgrade their qualifications from the level of a B.A. or B.S. degree is through donor country study grants, which are far too few and tend to be for short study periods. Few donors provide grants for doctoral studies. This situation seems to reflect the concern that, having received the training, most professors would be reluctant to return to their country to work for prevailing salaries.

The low salary scale in Haiti forces professors, out of economic necessity, to seek second and sometimes third sources of employment in other institutions and in other sectors. The amount of instruction delivered to students, its quality, and student/teacher contact time out of class, can only be compromised by this part-time professional pattern. This factor reduces the amount of time professors allocate for preparing their courses and the amount invested in their own intellectual and professional development.

Yet, there is a troubling paradox in the fact that low teacher salaries also lower the cost of education and have thus made it possible to expand access. Doubling the salaries of professors and hiring them on a full-time basis would increase unit costs and reduce the amount of Government funds that now support students. In the private sector, salary increases would inevitably lead to tuition hikes. This dilemma, manifested at other levels of education with similar consequences, reflects prevailing economic conditions, which are not unique to Haiti but which create the context in which higher education must operate--and, if at all possible, improve and expand.

The use of instructional media needs to be explored both as a vehicle for enhancing the quality of University courses and as one element within an integrated distance learning program for upgrading the qualifications of university instructors to the master's degree level in certain priority disciplines. Educational radio would seem to be the most practical media choice since it is scheduled for use in 1985 as a component of the inservice teacher training program. Thus, the required facilities, equipment, and trained personnel will already be in place. The feasibility of these options needs to be considered as part of a comprehensive, integrated strategy for using radio in teacher training, in-school broadcasts, and adult education information campaigns.

Student/Teacher Ratio. Data on student/teacher ratios presented in Table 8.13 show relatively low ratios at each of the four institutions surveyed. While greater efficiencies could be achieved by increasing enrollments and class sizes, these measures would add to the costs of student subsidies at the State

University, and would require expanding the facilities of the private institutions.

The low aggregate ratio of 9:1 at the State University reflects the policy of a wide range of programs being offered to relatively few students. The

TABLE 8.13

Student/Teacher Ratios by Institutions

| Institution | Ratio |
|---|---|
| State University of Haiti (aggregate) | 9:1 |
| College of Law and Economics | 24:1 |
| College of Medicine and Pharmacy | 5:1 |
| College of Science | 6:1 |
| College of Ethnology | 10:1 |
| College of Agronomy | 2:1 |
| College of Dentistry | 3:1 |
| Secondary Teacher Training School | 3:1 |
| National Institute of Management and International Studies (INAGHEI) | 17:1 |
| Center of Applied Linguestics (CLAP) | 15:1 |
| Institute of African Studies and Research | 6:1 |
| Roi Henri Christophe University | 2:1 |
| International University of Haiti | 19:1 |
| Haitian Institute of Electronic Technology | 7:1 |



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University's low enrollment is due both to space limitations and to a tradition of viewing higher education as the domain of the elite.

At the Roi Henri Christophe University and the International University of Haiti, these low ratios reflect their early stages of development, where they are attempting to establish and to staff a wide range of programs to attract students unable to enroll at the State University of Haiti. This strategy has led to a duplication of effort in certain programs, such as medicine and agriculture, which also exist at the State University of Haiti. The wisdom of this approach needs to be reconsidered and replaced by a strategy of specialization, consolidation, and then diversification. This has been the successful route taken by the Haitian Institute of Electronic Technology.

System of Promotion. A major handicap to internal efficiency at the State University is the system of promotion by year of studies, which has a negative impact upon productivity and increases institutional costs. This is not a problem at the private institutions, where the credit system is employed.

At the State University, the unit of progression is one year of course work. The student must pass each individual course and maintain an overall average between 60-65, determined by each department. Students who fail an individual course but attain the minimum overall average have an opportunity to retake the examination in that subject in a special examination session (session extraordinaire d'examens) in September. Those students who are successful in September may advance to the next year. Those who fail the examination are required to repeat the entire program year. In certain colleges--Dentistry, Science, Medicine and Pharmacy, and the Secondary Teachers Training School--first-year repetition is not allowed, and the student is eliminated from the program.

Overall repetition rates and the average length of studies are difficult to determine exactly. Available data indicate that for every 100 students who enter the University, 39 fail or drop out during their first year. For those institutions where data are available, the average dropout rates for the period 1978-84 were: Ethnology, 49%; Dentistry, 49%; Human Sciences, 44%; Pharmacy, 43%; Science, 43%; Law, 41%; Center of Applied Linguistics, 30%; Agronomy, 28%; and Secondary Teacher Training School, 24%.

Analysis over the same time period at four colleges for which information was available indicates that most students require more than the standard number of years to complete their programs. The percentage of students who manage to complete their studies on schedule are: Agronomy, 60%; Science, 50%; Dentistry, 36%; and Law, 4%.

A more precise interpretation of these figures is complicated by the

phenomenon of double enrollments, whereby some students enroll in two programs to increase their possibilities of success and, in mid-year, abandonments, whereby some students enroll in two programs to increase their possibilities of success and, in mid-year, abandon the one that presents the most difficulties. But this limitation notwithstanding, the inefficient nature of the system in its waste of resources is evident in several areas. Students who are required to repeat an entire year place an additional subsidy burden upon Government, and a burden on their families. Those who are disqualified after one year represent wasted investments.

Materials and Methods. Expanding the availability of textbooks and other instructional materials is probably the single most cost-effective measure that can be taken to improve the quality of instruction in institutions of higher learning. The problem is one of availability and costs. The limited number of texts that are available are imported at a price that is unaffordable to most students.

In the College of Medicine, the problem is particularly serious because of the range of subjects that must be treated and the fact that medical textbooks are very expensive. Two approaches to this problem initiated at the College could be useful as strategies deserving wider application. The first is a subsidy approach by which the purchase costs of textbooks are shared equally by an international donor agency, the institution, and students. Such a program was very successful but was discontinued when the donor funding ended. The second approach, currently in operation, was to establish a lending library from which approximately 3,000 medical textbooks used in course work are loaned to students each year.

The unavailability of textbooks and other secondary reading materials is general throughout the system of higher education. It is probably more critical in the small private institutions that have less resources and fewer linkages with the international donor community. This condition has resulted in an expository method of teaching, requiring a rote form of learning which is characteristic of these institutions. One notable exception is the Haitian Institute of Electronic Technology, which has taken the lead in using high-quality, programmed, instructional systems by basing its curriculum on the Hitchcock and Heathkit materials.

Significant improvements in the quality of instruction at the State University of Haiti could no doubt be achieved through using resources more efficiently. One strategy which needs to be considered is that of consolidating certain courses at one institution, replacing the present autonomous arrangement by which each institution attempts to provide a full program of studies. This

tendency has led to costly duplications in personnel, materials, and facilities. For example, separate chemistry courses with considerable overlap and gaps between them are offered in the Colleges of Science, Medicine, and Agronomy. Serious consideration needs to be given to ways of implementing the stated Government policy objective of achieving a "functional, harmonious, and efficient integration of the different activities of the University's institutions."

The principles of consolidation and integration should be used to guide the University in its development and expansion plans. Perhaps the best incentive for overcoming the present tendency toward separate, unequal, and inadequate institutional development is to provide superior facilities at a central location. A phased program of development might be considered by which science and language laboratories and library resources are located at one central site for use by all of the institutions. In time, this common resource could serve as the center for a full-fledged university campus, with phased construction of recreational facilities and dormitories.

8.2.1.3 Access and Equity

The geographical origin and socioeconomic background of students are not formal barriers to higher education in Haiti. Entrance to the State University of Haiti is awarded on the basis of Baccalauréat II test scores and, in certain Colleges, by competitive examinations. For those accepted, education is free except for nominal student fees. These factors are barriers only to the extent that they determine the quality of a student's secondary education. Seventy-five percent of the students at the University are considered to be from low-income families. About 25% of those enrolled receive support allowances from Government. About 50% of the student body are considered to be from outside the capital area. Women represent only 33% of University enrollments, though their participation varies across programs.

At the Roi Henri Christophe University and the International University of Haiti, women students represent only 27% and 30% of the respective enrollments. They enroll in greatest numbers in the medical programs of both universities, as well as at the State University. They are least represented in the engineering programs.

Geography and socioeconomic status do interact to pose special hardships for those high school graduates from the provinces who have difficulties supporting themselves in the capital for four years or more without the help of their families.

Government's current policy of decentralization and regionalization, and the parallel growth of private institutions, are two developments that could



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have a positive impact on increasing access. Government's decision to recognize the Roi Henri Christophe University in Cap-Haitien is a step in this direction. As such institutions develop their programs and expand their capacities, they will augment the supply of highly trained personnel in the country without increasing Government's financial burden. In the long run, Government funds which would have been spent on increased student subsidies would be available instead to improve program quality and increase teacher salaries.

8.2.1.4 Administration and Management

Administrative problems in Haitian higher education arise from two sources. One is the historical tendency of its higher educational institutions to prefer autonomy and academic freedom over centralized planning and decisionmaking. The other is a problem of manpower; staff are insufficient to perform the functions of planning, management, evaluation, and research that are necessary. This is equally true for both public and private sectors.

The weakness of the central administration of the State University of Haiti is seen in the paradox that its overall budget is smaller than that of some member institutions. This reflects the historical tendency. The Rectorate has difficulties obtaining current information on institutional enrollments, diplomas awarded, operating budgets, and future plans. Only three professional employees are assigned to this staff: two accountants and an executive secretary.

At the institutional level, appropriate organizational structures seem to be in place under the deans for the effective management of educational programs. Faculties vary but there is usually a dean, two vice deans for research and academic affairs, department heads, and special committees. The College of Agronomy also has a director for human resources and a director for material resources.

In the area of program planning, important technical assistance has been provided to the University by OAS, Unesco, CIDA, and other international development agencies. These specialists will need to be replaced by local planners once their contracts have terminated.

In the private sector, the need for qualified personnel in administration and management is just as apparent. In day-to-day operations, these functions are often carried out by one person, perhaps with a part-time assistant.

8.2.1.5 Costs and Financing

Unit costs for a single year of higher education vary widely. They range from $739 at the State University of Haiti (excluding the School of Medicine) to $1,189 at a private institution. The percentage of this cost paid by students

also varies considerably between the public and the private sector. At the State University of Haiti, Government pays 58% of the costs and a student pays 42%. At private universities, students pay 50% - 70% of the costs, with the rest borne through subsidies or donor support.

The fact that students in the newer, private universities are willing to pay a significant proportion of the costs suggests that it might be possible to shift some of the burden of public sector costs to the beneficiaries. Shifting costs is not the only concern, however.

Addressing the need to improve the quality of instruction and instructors at the university level has significant cost implications. Attracting more highly qualified faculty requires an ability to offer a reasonable salary and an environment conducive to successful academic life. And, activities such as operating a university-level library are expensive endeavors; yet, they are essential to a university.

The private rates of return for this level of education which vary from 21% to over 90%, are exceeded only by those of completion of a vocational technical course at the senior level in Haiti. The private rate of return is also significantly greater than those calculated for other developing countries.

The total rates of return on higher education are much lower than the private ones (average rate of 15% as compared to 65%). And, Haiti's total rate of return for higher education is significantly lower than those of other comparable developing countries. This suggests a wastage of resources that are not being reinvested for the "social" or "overall good" of the country. It must be noted, however, that information from this assessment shows the total rate of return on higher education exceeding that of primary education.

There is a serious lack of data to allow for financial planning in the subsector. This is particularly a problem in the public sector.

### 8.2.2 Plans

The Rectorate and OAS have developed what is called the University "Master Plan." This comprehensive document assesses the status of the University and presents detailed plans for administrative reform, new construction, reorganization of the colleges and departments, and new course designs. Implementation of the development aspects of the plan appears to be delayed by lack of funds. The project to transform ENS into a College of Education is being reviewed by the Inter-American Development Bank; some new, Government-funded construction has been aimed at expanding the school's capacity. This project is discussed in greater detail in Chapter 7 on Teacher Training.

At the private institutions, plans call for establishing linkages with the international university community, expanding classroom space, and adding new programs.

### 8.2.3 Constraints

The major constraints to the development of higher education reflect economic, structural, and human resource problems. The austerity measures imposed by economic conditions limit the availability of funds. There are insufficient books and other instructional materials, salaries are too low to pay for full-time professors, and funds for research are insufficient. Private institutions are under-capitalized and too dependent upon student fees. Their attempts to respond to social demand with diversified programs causes them to spread their limited resources too thinly.

Major structural constraints at the State University of Haiti are its weak central administration and the lack of coordination among its member institutions and its system of student promotion. The low level of faculty qualifications and the inadequate number of administrative personnel represent major human resource constraints.

### 8.2.4 Needs

Needs have been expressed during the course of this assessment for material support and technical assistance of various kinds. There is need for additional funding to increase faculty pay and provide full-time positions, as part of the effort to improve the quality of course offerings. A general need has also been expressed for resource persons in educational planning and curriculum development, faculty exchanges, and professional upgrading programs.

Administrative improvements and reforms are needed for such purposes as strengthening central administration, improving coordination among institutions, and making more efficient use of existing resources.

Specific needs expressed included assistance in the form of textbooks, instructional materials, journals, and specialized equipment for scientific laboratories and for agricultural and electronics programs.

## 8.3 CONCLUSIONS

The preceding analysis forms the basis of eight general conclusions which provide the foundation for the recommendations advanced in the final sector of this chapter.

### Conclusion 1 - Funding

Government funding for institutions of higher learning will not, for the foreseeable future, be sufficient to overcome the major constraints identified

in this assessment. If these institutions are to improve their programs and to contribute to the nation's needs for high-level manpower, external assistance will be necessary to cover their capital and recurrent costs.

Conclusion 2 - Coordination

The historical tendency toward autonomy among the several colleges within the State University of Haiti has led to costly duplications in courses, materials, and facilities. Administrative reform, leading to improved central coordination, will be needed to ensure a more efficient use of resources.

Conclusion 3 - Rectorate

The Rectorate of the State University is not adequately staffed with personnel in the areas of educational planning, management, and evaluation to assume an expanded responsibility for central planning and coordination.

Conclusion 4 - Research

Inadequate funding for applied research limits the institutional role of Haitian universities to support social and economic development.

Conclusion 5 - Access

A positive step to increase access to higher education has been taken by Government through its policy of decentralization and regionalization.

Conclusion 6 - Instructional Materials

The quality of instructional programs in institutions of higher learning is severely restricted by the inadequate supply of instructional materials such as textbooks, reference books, and basic laboratory equipment.

Conclusion 7 - Promotion

The present system by which students are promoted through the State University of Haiti on the basis of a year's coursework is costly and inefficient.

Conclusion 8 - Quality

The low level of academic qualifications among Haitian professors and their part-time status are major obstacles to instructional program quality and institutional development.

## 8.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are presented in priority order, according to their potential for improving higher education in Haiti with minimal capital and recurrent expenditures.



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Recommendation 1 - Coordination. Plan and implement administrative changes in structures and policies for improved coordination and cooperation among institutions of the State University of Haiti.

The State University "Master Plan," funded by the OAS and scheduled for completion in early 1985, should be examined by donors for areas in which their coordinated support would be most effective in creating a more efficient university structure.

Recommendation 2 - Administration. Improve the administrative capacity of the State University of Haiti for educational planning, management, and evaluation.

Competent personnel will be needed in these areas if the Rectorate is to assume greater responsibility for central planning and coordination. Existing personnel could be upgraded in these skill areas through seminars and workshops, on-the-job guidance provided by technical assistants, and overseas graduate degree training.

Recommendation 3 - Promotion. Replace the present system of promotion by program year at the State University with a credit system.

This decision will need to be made by University administrators. International development agencies should be prepared to respond to requests for assistance in educational planning and administration, which might be used to assist with implementation of the decision.

Recommendation 4 - Research. Provide training opportunities to develop an applied research capability in Haiti through internship programs, joint research projects, and research grants.

Develop internship programs that encourage advanced students and university staff to work with donor country researchers on applied research projects in Haiti. Such programs would provide valuable practical experience for Haitian researchers, who are at present limited by lack of funds. Joint research projects could be undertaken with existing Haitian research institutes to improve their institutional capacity for designing, planning, and managing large projects. To expand the funding base for university research, donors could establish a common fund to provide research grants to individuals and institutions in priority development areas.

Recommendation 5 - Private Sector. Shift more of the costs for higher education from Government to the beneficiaries by encouraging the growth of tuition-based institutions in the private sector.

Government should increase its subsidies and provide more scholarships to those private institutions it considers to be working in the public interest. Donors could also support this effort. Priority should be given to institutions which expand access to higher education in the rural areas. Such measures would prove to be more cost-effective than the present policy of subsidizing total student costs at the State University.

Recommendation 6 - Linkages. Develop programs to support institutional development efforts at the State University and at private institutions by encouraging and funding long-term inter-university linkages with donor country universities.

Inter-university cooperation could be an effective means for providing assistance to Haitian institutions in faculty development and program improvement. Haitian institutions could be associated with large donor country universities experienced in their priority development areas. Funding could be made available for faculty support in key disciplines, study grants, joint research, program design and curriculum development, and equipment and instructional materials. Private sector institutions should be encouraged to develop specialty areas, avoiding duplication with the State University [as is at present the case in medicine]. Both URHC and IUH are planning to develop programs in the area of education. To avoid duplication, linkages could be encouraged with donor country universities whose respective strengths are, for example, in such areas as educational research and evaluation, or curriculum design and development. Both are very important areas that would help to develop the country's capacity to manage its expanding educational system with greater efficiency.

Recommendation 7 - Central Site. Provide capital and technical assistance to the State University of Haiti for a phased program to house science and language laboratories, library resources, and other instructional equipment at a central site for shared use among its member institutions.

Providing superior facilities at a central location is the best incentive for overcoming the present tendency toward separate, unequal, and inadequate institutional development. Such a project would require a major commitment from donors but one which could be integrated into long-term development planning. The common resource area could serve as the center for a full-fledged university campus, with phased construction of recreational facilities and dormitories.



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# HAITI

Education and Human Resources **Sector Assessment**

**Evaluation du Secteur** de l'Education et des Ressources Humaines

March 1987

mars 1987

I E E S

AMESED

Improving the Efficiency of Educational Systems

Amélioration de l'Efficacité des Systèmes Educatifs

## Volume IV

## Tome IV

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Study conducted by the Improving the Efficiency of Educational Systems (IEES) consortium in collaboration with the Ministry of National Education of the Republic of Haiti and with the United States Agency for International Development (USAID)

Etude réalisée par le consortium pour l'Amélioration de l'Efficacité des Systèmes Educatifs (AMESED) en collaboration avec le Ministère de l'Education Nationale de la République d'Haïti et l'Agence Américaine pour le Développement International (USAID)

Improving the Efficiency of Educational Systems (IEES) is an initiative funded in 1984 by the United States Agency for International Development (AID). The principal goals of the IEES Project are to help developing countries improve the performance of their educational systems and strengthen their capabilities for educational planning, management, and research.

To achieve these goals, a consortium of U.S. institutions has been formed to work collaboratively with selected host governments and USAID Missions over the next ten years in devising programs of activity for each collaborating country aimed at improving the efficiency of their educational systems. The consortium consists of the Florida State University (prime contractor), Howard University in Washington, DC, the Institute for International Research (IIR), and the State University of New York at Albany (SUNY/Albany).

There are currently seven countries collaborating with the IEES initiative to improve educational efficiency. Three are in Africa: Botswana, Liberia, and Somalia. The other four countries are Haiti, Indonesia, Nepal, and the Yemen Arab Republic.

IEES produces documents with the goal of promoting research and planning in educational policy issues within IEES-collaborating countries. The IEES Document Clearinghouse at the Florida State University is the center for distributing documents published by the project. Inquiries should be addressed to them at the address below.

Sur l'initiative de l'Agence pour le Développement International (USAID), a été crée en 1984 un projet pour l'"Amélioration de l'Efficacité des Systèmes Educatifs" (AMESED). Ce projet a pour but d'aider les pays en voie de développement à améliorer le fonctionnement de leurs systèmes éducatifs et à renforcer leurs capacités en matière de planification, de gestion, et de recherche dans le domaine éducatif.

Pour réaliser ce but, un consortium d'universités et d'instituts de recherche américains a été constitué. Les membres du consortium sont appelés à collaborer au cours des 10 prochaines années, avec les gouvernements d'un certain nombre de pays en voie de développement et avec les représentations locales de l'USAID afin de réaliser dans chaque pays participant, un programme d'activités visant à améliorer l'efficacité du système éducatif. Le consortium comprend l'Université d'Etat de Floride (FSU), l'Université Howard à Washington DC, l'Institut de Recherche Internationale (IIR), et l'Université d'Etat de New York à Albany (SUNY/Albany).

Actuellement sept pays participent à cet effort. Parmi eux trois sont situés en Afrique. Ce sont: le Liberia, le Botswana, et la Somalie. Les autres pays sont Haïti, l'Indonesie, le Népal, et la République Yéménite Arabe.

L'AMESED édite une série de documents dans le but de promouvoir la recherche et la planification en matière d'éducation dans les pays participant au projet. Le Centre de Documentation de l'AMESED à l'Université d'Etat de Floride est chargé de la distribution de l'ensemble des documents publiés sous l'égide du projet. Les éventuelles commandes de documents doivent être addressées à:

**IEES/AMESED**
Learning Systems Institute
204 Dodd Hall
The Florida State University
Tallahassee, Florida 32306
USA
(904) 644-5442

Agency for International Development
Project No. 936-5823

# HAITI

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REPUBLIQUE D'HAITI

# MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE

LE MINISTRE
DE
L'EDUCATION NATIONALE

No.....

Port-au-Prince, le 17 DEC 1986 19.....

Le Ministère de l'Education Nationale accueille avec intérêt le Projet d'Amélioration de l'Efficacité des Systèmes Educatifs qui dans le cadre de la Coopération Bilatérale a permis la réalisation de l'évaluation du secteur de l'Education et de ses ressources humaines. Il est important de signaler que ce travail représente la première évaluation de cette importance du secteur éducation. Une implantation réussie du Projet Educatif Haitien passe nécessairement par une évaluation et une meilleure utilisation de nos ressources natérielles et humaines.

En ce qui concerne cette première version de l'étude, il convient de faire état des contraintes du terrain dans la collecte des données et des limites de l'approche méthodologique initialement adoptée. Ces considérations ont porté le Ministère de l'Education Nationale à planifier avec les membres de la Florida State University une série de séances de travail au cours desquelles des recommandations importantes ont été faites en vue d'une plus grande participation des instances nationales à toutes les étapes de l'étude, laquelle sera reprise dans un avenir pas très lointain.

Les recommandations ont porté particulièrement sur l'implication directe et nécessaire de l'Université dans l'élaboration et la conduite de l'enquête dans la double perspective de promouvoir la recherche et de contribuer à la formation de nos cadres.

Le Ministère de l'Education Naitonale accorde une place de choix à la recherche pédagogique et à l'échange d'expériences professionnelles. Cette coopération permet une meilleure utilisation de l'assitance technique et contribue au renforcement des capacités d'intervention de nos services.

Le Ministère de l'Education Nationale saisit l'occasion pour signifier sa haute appréciation du travail accompli par les membres et représentants du Consortium d'Universités Américaines. Il leur renouvelle ainsi qu'à l'Agence Américaine pour l'Aide Internationale l'assurance de sa considération distinguée.

Rosny DESROCHES
Ministre
de l'Education Nationale de
la Jeunesse et des Sports

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## English Translation
## of letter from the Minister of National Education

Port-au-Prince, 17 December 1986

The Ministry of Education welcomes with great interest the Improving the Efficiency of Educational Systems (IEES) Project which, in the framework of bilateral aid, provided the assistance necessary to conduct this assessment of the education and human resource system in Haiti. It is significant to note that this work represents the first educational evaluation of such magnitude ever undertaken in Haiti. To succeed in bringing to fruition a truly Haitian design for our educational system, careful evaluation and more efficienct use of our human and material resources are both essential.

As concerns the studies that served as a basis for this first system-wide evaluation, one must take account of the constraints under which data collection had to take place and the limitations of the initial methodology. Such considerations motivated the Ministry of Education to organize with representatives of the IEES Consortium a series of joint working sessions during which key recommendations concerning greater participation of Haitian counterparts in all stages of future assessments were made. The evaluation will in fact be updated and revised in this manner in the near future.

The recommendations highlighted in particular the necessity of directly involving the University of Haiti in the conception and execution of the new assessment in order both to promote policy research and to contribute to the training of our own staff.

The Ministry of Education accords great importance to instructional research and to the exchange of professional experience. This sort of international cooperation ensures better utilization of technical assistance and helps to reinforce national institutional capacity.

The Ministry of Education wishes to take the opportunity to express its great appreciation for the work carried out by members and representatives of the IEES Consortium. The Ministry reaffirms its cordial regards for them and for the United States Agency for International Development.

Rosny DESROCHES
Minister
of National Education,
Youth, and Sports



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This assessment would not have been possible without the assistance and endorsement of Gerard Dorcely, the Minister of Education at the time of this study. The Minister himself, his entire Cabinet, officials of the Ministry of Education, and representatives from other ministries of Government met with team members on numerous occasions to help them in many ways. Also, we thank the many educators in the private sector who gave so willingly of their time and offered useful suggestions to the team.

IEES would like to additionally acknowledge and thank the following people, all of whom contributed significantly to producing this assessment:

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Cette évaluation n'aurait pas été possible sans l'assistance et l'appui du Ministre de l'Education, Mr. Gérard Dorcely, et du personel du Département de l'Education Nationale (DEN). Monsieur le Ministre, tous les membres de son Cabinet, de nombreux fonctionnaires du Département de l'Education, et des représentants d'autres ministères du gouvernement ont maintes fois accordé des entrevues aux membres de notre équipe pour les aider de diverses façons. Notre reconnaissance va également aux nombreux enseignants et responsables des écoles du secteur privé qui nous ont reçu et qui ont, à chaque fois, fait des suggestions fort utiles.

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**Nicole Victor**
**Lola Zook**

**Sector Assessment Field Team:**

**Milton Adams,**
Co-Team Leader, FSU
**Stephen Anzalone, IIR**
**Victor Cleutat,**
Co-Team Leader, IIR
**Peter Easton, FSU**
**Paul Emoungu, Howard Univ.**
**Benoit Millot, Univ. of Dijon**
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**Lois Vandenberg, Michigan**
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**Ibrahima Bah**
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**Monica Duchnowski**
**Wanda Gandy**
**Alan Hoffman,**
Production Coordinator
**Rennie Kaczorowski**
**Karen Loewen**
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**Sandra Stelfox**
**Jean Van Dyke,**
Word Processing Director
**Margaret Vanos**

# Préface
(français)

Entre octobre et décembre 1984, une équipe de consultants mise à la disposition du Ministère de l'Education Nationale par l'Agence Américaine pour le Développement Internationale (USAID) a séjourné en Haïti pour mener une enquête sur la situation d'ensemble du système éducatif haïtien et en établir le bilan et le diagnostic. Ce travail a été entrepris dans le cadre du programme AMESED (Amélioration de l'Efficacité des Systèmes Educatifs), une initiative d'une durée de dix ans financée par l'USAID et sous l'égide de laquelle des études semblables ont été réalisées dans plusieurs autres pays en voie du développement.

Le document qui fut le fruit de ce travail a été soumis au Ministère de l'Education Nationale en août 1985 mais, en raison des évènements, n'a pu être revu et corrigé par le personnel du MEN qu'en avril 1986. Il paraît ici pour la première fois sous sa forme définitive. L'original du document a été rédigé en anglais. Une version abrégée en a ensuite été tirée et traduite en français aux Etats-Unis. Le document provisoire diffusé en août 1985 comportait donc un premier tome en anglais et un deuxième de moindre volume en français.

L'équipe AMESED a dû faire face à certaines difficultés qui ont quelque peu circonscrit la portée de son travail. Pour une série de raisons conjonctuelles, il n'a pas été possible de lui adjoindre un groupe d'homologues haïtiens pour partager le travail d'évaluation et d'analyse, quoique de nombreux responsables tant du secteur privé que du secteur public aient été consultés au cours de la mission. L'équipe AMESED s'est également heurtée à un manque général de renseignements sur la situation de l'enseignement privé qui, comme chacun le sait, constitue en Haïti un élément très important du système éducatif. Les auteurs des différents chapitres de ce volume ont tenté de pallier à cette carence en menant des enquêtes sur le terrain, mais le programme d'une mission de courte durée ne se prêtant guère à la collecte exhaustive des données, ils se sont vus obligés de laisser vide des pans entiers du tableau qu'ils dressaient.

Ceci nonobstant, la vue d'ensemble du système éducatif haïtien présentée dans les pages qui suivent peut constituer un apport à la planification de l'éducation en Haïti, et cela autant par sa méthodologie que par son contenu. D'une part, on y trouve rassemblé et synthétisé un ensemble de données quantitatives et qualitatives sur la situation de toutes les branches du système éducatif en fin 1984, présenté de manière à favoriser l'analyse des rapports entre l'éducation et le développement en Haïti. D'autre part, la méthodologie même de l'évaluation place les données ainsi rassemblées dans un contexte des plus pertinents pour le développement du système éducatif haïtien: celui de l'efficacité--à la fois *efficacité interne*, c'est à dire le rapport entre les ressources consacrées aux programmes éducatifs et les résultats pédagogiques obtenus, et *efficacité externe*, c'est à dire l'impact de l'éducation sur le devenir de l'enfant et sur le développement de la société toute entière.



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Une première version de ce document a fait l'objet d'une analyse attentive par des représentants du Ministère de l'Education Nationale et des autres institutions haïtiennes concernées entre le 10 et le 24 avril 1986. Au cours de cette période, une équipe composée de quatre consultants de l'AMESED qui avaient participé à l'étude initiale, s'est réunie à plusieurs reprises avec les responsables des différentes branches du système éducatif haïtien pour revoir et corriger le texte du document initial. Une première rencontre sous la présidence du Ministre de l'Education a eu lieu le 10 avril. Elle a été suivie par une série de séances de travail. Chaque séance portait sur un chapitre donné du document et regroupait un représentant de l'AMESED et un ou plusieurs responsables de la branche du système éducatif en question. Un bref résumé de chacune de ces séances figure en préface aux différents chapitres du texte qui suit. Une dernière séance plénière, tenue le 24 avril 1986, a permis de tirer les conclusions d'ensemble de cet exercice d'évaluation.

Hormis la correction d'un certain nombre d'erreurs dans la présentation statistique ou le développement historique des différents chapitres, les participants ont tenu à faire ressortir plusieurs points de portée plus générale:

- Etant donné le laps de temps qui s'était écoulé entre la réalisation de l'étude et l'examen du document au niveau du Ministère, bon nombre des données statistiques de base étaient devenues périmées. Plutôt que d'essayer de tout actualiser, les participants ont jugé mieux d'éditer le document tel qu'établi, avec les corrections de détail qui seraient nécessaires, et de prévoir la réalisation d'une nouvelle évaluation dans deux ans.

- Le format paraîssait inadéquat, le résumé en français ne représentant pas très fidèlement le texte anglais et comportant en plus un certain nombre d'erreurs de traduction. Pour l'édition définitive du document, il a été préconisé de reprendre le résumé en français et de faire alterner les textes dans les deux langues. Quant à l'approche à adopter à l'avenir, les participants estimaient que de futures évaluations devraient être rédigés directement en français, puis traduites en anglais au besoin.

- Enfin, de l'avis de tous, à l'avenir il serait hautement souhaitable de confier le travail en grande partie à une équipe de chercheurs haïtiens, tout en leur assurant la formation et l'assistance technique nécessaires pour mener le travail à bon terme.

Le travail de correction et de reprise du résumé français du document a été assuré conformément aux recommandations du Ministère, par les traducteurs du Centre de Développement des Ressources Humaines, sis Delmas 55 à Port-au-Prince. Le document a ensuite été divisé en quatre volumes, chacun regroupant plusieurs chapitres et chaque chapitre comportant le texte intégral en anglais précédé du résumé en français.



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# Preface
(English)

From October to December 1984, a team of consultants engaged by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and supervised by the Ministry of Education of the Republic of Haiti devoted eight weeks to an assessment of the current state of the Haitian educational system and an evaluation of its priority needs. This work was carried out under the aegis of the Improving the Efficiency of Educational Systems (IEES) Project, a ten-year initiative financed by the Washington offices of USAID that has contributed to similar sector assessments in several other developing countries.

The study that resulted from this effort was submitted to the Ministry of Education in August 1985, but was not fully reviewed and corrected by Ministry personnel until April 1986 because of intervening events. It appears here for the first time in final form.

The original document was written in English. A summary version was then composed and translated into French in the United States. The draft document disseminated in August 1985 included therefore one volume in English and a second and considerably shorter one in French.

The IEES team had to deal with certain difficulties that limited somewhat the scope of its study. For a series of reasons, it was not possible to arrange for a full team of Haitian counterparts to share the work of evaluation and data analysis, though numerous educators from both the public sector and the private sector were consulted during the course of the assessment. The team also discovered a general lack of information about the current status of private education, which constitutes a major element of the Haitian educational system. The authors of the different chapters of this volume made an effort to compensate for this lack of information by carrying out some first-hand data collection in the field. The schedule of a two-month mission did not afford enough time to perform an extensive inventory of the situation, however, and they were consequently unable to fill in certain parts of the picture.

Despite these shortcomings, the overall view of the Haitian educational system presented in the pages to follow may constitute a very worthwhile contribution to the concerns of educational planning in Haiti, by virtue both of its content and of the methodology employed. The study assembles a mass of qualitative and quantitative information on the status of the different branches of the educational system in late 1984 and presents these data in a manner conducive to analysis of the relations between education and development in Haiti. Furthermore, the methodology used places this information in a context that seems particularly pertinent for the development of the Haitian educational system: namely, that of improving efficiency -- both internal efficiency, or the ratio of resources invested in educational programs to the instructional results obtained, and external efficiency, or the impact of the educational experience on the personal and job futures of the students and on the development of society as a whole.



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The draft version of this document was reviewed by representatives of the Ministry of Education and of other concerned Haitian institutions from April 10 to April 24, 1986. During this period, a team composed of four IEES consultants (themselves among the authors of the original assessment) met on several occasions with leaders of the different branches of the Haitian educational system in order to examine and critique the draft text. An inaugural meeting was held on April 10th under the presidency of the Minister of Education. It was followed by a series of work sessions, each one focusing on a single chapter of the assessment and grouping together one of the IEES consultants and one or more representatives of the subsector in question. A brief resume of the conduct and results of each meeting appears as a preface to each related chapter of the final four volume assessment. A final plenary session was held on April 24th to draw overall conslusions from the sector assessment review process.

Over and beyond necessary correction of a certain number of factual errors in the statistical or descriptive data presented in each chapter, participants in this final meeting felt it important to make the following general points about the assessment:

- Given the time that had elapsed between the conduct of the initial assessment and review of the resulting document by the Ministry, a good number of the statistical data used were no longer current. Rather than attempting to update all this information, participants in the meeting felt it preferable to publish the existing document with the necessary corrections of factual error and to devote principal energy to planning for conduct of an entirely new assessment within two years.

- The overall format of the current assessment was judged inadequate, since the French resume was not a very faithful condensation of the English original and included a certain number of translation errors. It was suggested that the French text be corrected and improved before final edition of the current assessment, and that the two versions be presented side by side in a single volume. As for future assessments, all felt that they should be drawn up directly in French, then translated into English as needed.

- Finally, it was generally agreed that every effort should be made in the future to entrust prime responsibility for conduct of such assessments to a team of Haitian educational researchers, while providing them with whatever additional training and technical assistance they might require.

The work of correcting the French resume was carried out, at the suggestion of the Ministry, by staff of the Human Resource Development Center, Delmas 55 in Port-au-Prince. The document was then divided into four volumes, each one containing several related chapters and each chapter including the full English text preceeded by the French summary.



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# Résumé

## But

*L'évaluation du secteur de l'éducation et des ressources humaines en Haïti* présentée dans les pages qui suivent décrit l'état du système éducatif haïtien et analyse ses principaux besoins. A partir de cet examen, le document cherche à identifier des voies et moyens qui permettraient de mieux atteindre les objectifs primordiaux du gouvernement dans le domaine de l'éducation, ceci grâce à un usage plus efficace des ressources disponibles ou potentielles et à une coordination plus étroite entre le programme du Gouvernment et les activités des organismes donateurs d'aide. Le texte intégral de l'évaluation est réparti en 4 volumes.

## Principales recommandations

Les recommandations qui découlent de cette évaluation portent sur les cinq points suivants, énumérés par ordre d'importance :

- renforcer l'éducation de base,
- promouvoir le développement de nouvelles compétences techniques, génératrices de revenus,
- renforcer les capacités institutionnelles des organismes d'enseignement publics et privés déjà en place,
- effectuer des études pouvant servir de base à la planification de l'éducation, et
- promouvoir une coordination plus étroite parmi les donateurs.

## Contexte

Haïti est l'un des pays les plus défavorisés du monde : les trois-quarts de sa population de six millions d'habitants subsistent au-dessous du niveau de pauvreté absolue définie par la Banque Mondiale. A l'heure actuelle, les ressources humaines du pays représentent la meilleure base de croissance économique. Toutefois, ces ressources ne peuvent être pleinement mises en valeur que si d'importants ajustements sont effectués dans le système éducatif.

En effet, l'accès à l'éducation est sérieusement limité à tous les niveaux. En 1980 le taux d'alphabétisation n'était que de 23%. L'efficacité et la qualité de l'enseignement sont généralement faibles. En outre, le système éducatif haïtien est caractérisé par une très forte dépendance envers le secteur privé lequel compte 60% environ des élèves inscrits à l'école primaire et 80% de ceux inscrits à l'école secondaire. Une réforme de l'éducation a récemment été lancée pour tenter de remédier aux problèmes d'accès à l'école, de l'inefficacité du système éducatif et de la qualité médiocre de l'enseignement. Pour que cette réforme réussisse il faudrait, cependant que la participation des donateurs et du secteur privé s'intensifie. Dans l'ensemble, la participation des donateurs au financement de l'éducation est particulièrement faible en Haïti. Seulement 5,2% du montant de l'aide externe (environ 8,7 millions de dollars) a été consacrés à l'éducation en 1983.



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## Sources de renseignements

La présente évaluation a été préparée par une équipe de huit personnes qui a travaillé en Haïti pendant une période de huit semaines, entre octobre et décembre 1984. Au cours de cette période, les membres de l'équipe ont eu plus de 250 entretiens avec plusieurs catégories de personnes concernées par le développement du système éducatif haïtien : des fonctionnaires des ministères de l'Education Nationale, de la Santé Publique, du Plan, de l'Agriculture, et des Affaires Sociales ; des directeurs d'écoles primaires et secondaires publiques et privées en milieux urbain et rural ; des doyens de facultés et d'écoles normales ; et des responsables d'institutions d'enseignement technique et professionnel ainsi que des représentants de tous les principaux organismes donateurs. L'équipe a également consulté plus de 265 rapports et documents connexes.

## Présentation du rapport

L'évaluation se compose de quatorze chapitres et deux documents annexes qui portent sur les différentes branches du système éducatif haïtien. Les chapitres et annexes sont regroupés en quatre volumes comme suit :

- Le premier volume traite des problèmes de planification de l'ensemble du système et comprend trois chapitres. Le chapitre 1 comporte la synthèse du rapport tout entier, le chapitre 2 est consacré à l'analyse économique et fiscale de l'éducation en Haïti (examen des coûts, calcul des taux de rendement et analyse de l'offre et la demande de la main-d'oeuvre), tandis que le chapitre 3 est centré sur la question de la coordination des donateurs.

- Le second volume porte sur l'enseignement fondamental et comprend deux chapitres et deux annexes. Le chapitre 4 est consacré à la situation de l'éducation préscolaire en Haïti, le chapitre 5 à l'enseignement primaire, et les annexes A et B traitent respectivement des systèmes d'élaboration et de distribution des manuels scolaires et de l'organisation des programmes de nutrition scolaire.

- Le troisième volume regroupe trois chapitres qui touchent à l'enseignement secondaire et supérieur : le chapitre 6 est consacré à l'enseignement secondaire classique, le chapitre 7 à la formation des enseignants et le chapitre 8 à l'enseignement supérieur.

- Le quatrième volume traite de trois autres types de formation dispensés en Haïti : le chapitre 9 présente une analyse des programmes de formation en matière de gestion, alors que le chapitre 10 est consacré à la formation technique et professionnelle. Le chapitre 11 analyse le secteur de l'éducation non formelle.

Tous les chapitres traitant d'une branche particulière du système éducatif tel l'enseignement primaire ou l'enseignement secondaire, suivent le même cheminement analytique. La première partie du chapitre est consacré à un examen de l'évolution historique de la branche du système éducatif en question ainsi qu'à la présentation des objectifs qui lui ont été fixés dans le cadre du développement national. Ensuite la situation actuelle du sous-système est analysée à travers un certain nombre d'indicateurs de performance. Une fois ce protrait établi, l'ensemble des données ainsi rassemblées est évalué à partir de cinq critères de performance pour apprécier le niveau de fonctionnement du système à l'heure actuelle. Ces



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critères sont : l'efficacité interne, l'efficacité externe, le degré d'équité et d'accès à la formation, l'administration et la gestion des programmes, et leurs coûts et financement. L'évaluation des progrès réalisés dans chacun de ces domaines tient compte en même temps des contraintes qui pèsent sur le fonctionnement du système et de ses besoins les plus pressants. Enfin, des conclusions et des recommandations sont formulées dans le but d'identifier les moyens à mettre en oeuvre pour améliorer la qualité et la quantité des résultats pédagogiques, pour renforcer l'efficacité du système et pour orienter les investissements futurs vers des directions particulièrement productives.

## Politique générale

L'analyse de l'ensemble des résultats de l'évaluation a permis d'identifier cinq problèmes d'orientation générale auxquels le gouvernement haïtien doit faire face en matière d'éducation:

1. Il est essentiel d'améliorer l'efficacité et la qualité des divers programmes d'éducation et de formation et—dans la mesure du possible—de les étendre aux couches de la population qui n'en ont pas encore bénéficié. Cependant, étant donné la capacité financière et institutionnelle actuelle du gouvernement, un remaniement structurel profond, ainsi qu'une aide supplémentaire des donateurs d'une part et du secteur privé de l'autre, s'avèrent nécessaires.

2. Les programmes d'éducation et de développement des ressources humaines sont particulièrement difficiles à coordonner à cause du rôle prépondérant qu'y joue le secteur privé. Il est néanmoins important de réaliser une telle coordination pour pouvoir étendre la réforme de l'éducation aux nombreuses écoles primaires et secondaires privées qui n'y participent pas encore.

3. Il ne peut y avoir de véritable développement économique sans un programme efficace de développement de nouvelles compétences productrices de revenus, surtout dans les régions rurales défavorisées.

4. Le manque de données fiables sur la situation des écoles et des programmes rend le contrôle, l'évaluation et la planification des interventions éducatives particulièrement difficiles.

5. Le gouvernement ne dispose, pour le moment, d'aucun système de coordination des multiples interventions des donateurs et du secteur privé dans le domaine de l'éducation.

## Qualité des programmes

Huit questions d'importance relative à la qualité et à la pertinence des programmes d'éducation sont examinées dans le chapitre de synthèse. Ces questions concernent la définition de la politique générale de l'éducation, le développement de nouvelles capacités institutionnelles, le développement de compétences en matière de planification et de gestion, le rôle du secteur privé, l'utilisation des ressources matérielles et financières, la coordination des activités des donateurs, la collecte des données nécessaires à la planification et la langue d'enseignement.



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## Recommandations générales

Le chapitre de synthèse présente cinq recommandations et une série de quatorze activités qui devraient permettre de mettre celles-ci en pratique. Ces recommandations concernent essentiellement les trois points suivants :

1. **Contribuer au développement socio-économique à l'échelle nationale.**

   - Renforcer l'éducation de base.
   - Développer de nouvelles compétences productrices de revenus au moyen d'activités d'éducation non formelle et de programmes d'enseignement technique et professionnel à orientation bien spécifique.
   - Améliorer la coordination des activités des donateurs.

2. **Développer les capacités humaines et institutionnelles des structures responsables de l'organisation du système éducatif.**

   - Renforcer la capacité des institutions publiques et privées déjà existantes.
   - Elaborer des programmes de formation et de perfectionnement de cadres administratifs et de gestionnaires du système éducatif.

3. **Faire meilleur usage des ressources existantes.**

   - Augmenter la disponibilité du matériel didactique.
   - Améliorer et étendre les programmes de nutrition pré-scolaire et primaire.
   - Reprendre et améliorer les programmes de recyclage des instituteurs des écoles primaires publiques et privées.
   - Effectuer des enquêtes et des études pour servir de base à une planification plus rationnelle du système éducatif. Ces études devront porter en priorité sur :

     - l'offre et la demande de main-d'oeuvre,
     - la mise en place de systèmes de collecte des informations pour permettre une meilleure gestion du système éducatif,
     - la méthodologie des programmes d'éducation non formelle qui ont connu le plus de succès en Haïti,
     - la recherche de méthodes d'utilisation de la radio comme appui à l'enseignement dans une variété de contextes, et
     - l'examen de systèmes alternatifs d'enseignement au niveau de l'école primaire.

Un répertoire des sigles et acronymes utilisés dans le texte des différentes chapitres est présenté dans les pages qui suivent. La liste des personnes contactées par l'équipe d'évaluation et la bibliographie des ouvrages consultés figurent en annexe du Volume I (appendices A et B).



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# Executive Summary

## Purpose

The *Haiti Education and Human Resources Sector Assessment* describes the current status and needs of the Haitian education and human resources system. On the basis of this analysis, it seeks to identify ways to more effectively focus available and anticipated resources on achieving the Government's underlying objectives, and to encourage closer coordination between Government and the international donor community. The full sector assessment is presented in four volumes.

## Overview of Recommendations

Recommendations based on this assessment address the following five broad objectives, listed by order of importance:

- Strengthening basic education.
- Improving income-producing skills.
- Reinforcing existing public and private educational institutions.
- Conducting planning studies and surveys.
- Improving donor coordination.

## Background

Haiti is one of the poorest countries in the world. Three-fourths of its population of six million live below the level of absolute poverty defined by the World Bank. Human resources constitute the most promising foundation for economic growth in the country. These resources cannot be developed, however, unless major adjustments are made within the present education system.

Educational opportunities are seriously limited at all levels. The literacy rate was only 23 percent in 1980. Access, efficiency, and quality are low at all levels of education. There is a heavy dependence on the private sector, with about 60 percent of primary students and 80 percent of secondary students in private schools. An Education Reform has recently been initiated to address problems of restricted access, low efficiency, and poor quality. The Reform needs increased donor and private sector support, however, if it is to succeed. Donor assistance is particularly low in the education sector. Only 5.2 percent (about $8.7 million) of total external assistance to Haiti was devoted to education in 1983.

## Sources

The assessment was prepared by an eight-person team which worked in Haiti for eight weeks ending in December of 1984. More than 250 interviews were conducted with officials from: the Ministries of Education, Health, Planning, Agriculture, and Social Affairs; public and private primary and secondary schools in urban and rural areas; universities and teacher training institutions; vocational and technical training schools; and all major donors. Over 265 reports and related documents were reviewed.



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## Report Organization

The assessment is composed of fourteen chapters and two substantive annexes that deal with different branches of the Haitian educational system. It is divided into four volumes as follows:

- Volume I deals with overall educational planning issues and contains three chapters: Chapter One is a synthesis of the conclusions of the entire report. Chapter Two presents an economic and fiscal analysis of the Haitian educational system, including data on costs, rates of return, and manpower supply and demand. Chapter Three concerns donor coordination.

- Volume II focuses on the basic levels of the formal educational system and contains two chapters and two annexes. Chapter Four analyzes the current situation of preprimary education in Haiti, and Chapter Five examines the status of primary education. Annex A to Volume II is devoted to the issue of school textbooks, whereas Annex B deals with school feeding programs.

- Volume III concerns secondary and higher education and contains three chapters. Chapter Six deals with classical secondary education. Chapter Seven deals with teacher training. Chapter Eight presents the situation of higher education and university training.

- Volume IV examines three other branches of the Haitian educational system. Chapter Nine focuses on management training, Chapter Ten on vocational-technical education, and Chapter Eleven on nonformal education.

All chapters that deal with particular branches of the Haitian educational system follow a similar pattern of analysis. First, the present status of the branch of education in question is examined, including consideration of historical background, current plans and objectives, and various indicators of system performance. Next, this data is analyzed from the point of view of five criteria of system operation: internal efficiency, external efficiency, degree of equity and access, management and supervision, and costs and financing. Progress made in each of these categories is evaluated within the framework of the major constraints under which the system operates and its most pressing needs. Finally, conclusions are drawn and a series of recommendations are made concerning ways to improve the quality and quantity of educational outcomes, to achieve greater system efficiency and to orient future investment in the most productive directions.



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## Policy Issues

An analysis of the results of all chapters of the assessment leads to identification of five global policy issues that presently confront Government:

- Education and human resources programs must be improved, expanded, and sustained, but the present institutional and economic capacity of Government cannot support the required activities without significant restructuring and additional assistance from donors and the private sector.

- Coordination of education and human resources activities is especially difficult because of the dominant role of the private sector. This coordination is critically important, particularly for extending the current Education Reform to the many private sector primary and secondary schools.

- Economic growth will not take place without an effective program for developing income-producing skills, especially in the poor rural areas.

- Program planning and monitoring for all subsectors of education is severely restricted by a lack of reliable and current information on status, supply, and demand.

- No plan exists for Government to coordinate the numerous donor and private sector activities in the realm of education in order to focus them on the attainment of national development goals.

## Quality and Relevance Issues

Eight issues of educational development are extensively discussed in the assessment: policy reform, institutional capacity, planning and management capacity, the role of the private sector, resource utilization, donor coordination, information for planning, and the language of instruction.



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## Overall Recommendations

Five recommendations and a supporting group of 14 activities are set forth in the synthesis chapter. These recommendations can be grouped under three primary areas of focus.

1. **Contributing to national social and economic development.**

   - Strengthening basic education.
   - Improving income-producing skills through public and private nonformal education programs and targeted programs of vocational and technical education.
   - Improving coordination of donor activities.

2. **Building capacity within the education and human resources sector.**

   - Strengthening existing public and private sector educational institutions.
   - Developing a targeted training program for institutional development.

3. **Making more efficient use of existing resources.**

   - Increasing the availability of instructional materials.
   - Improving and extending the preprimary and primary school feeding programs.
   - Improving inservice training for public and private primary school teachers.
   - Conducting basic planning surveys (manpower supply and demand survey, educational management information system plan, study of successful nonformal education programs, exploration of possible uses of educational radio, examination of alternative primary-level instructional systems).

A glossary of acronyms used in this assessment follows this executive summary. The list of persons contacted and the bibliography of documents consulted in the course of the assessment are included as Appendices A and B to Volume I.



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# Acronyms

## English

| | |
|---|---|
| **ACDI** | Canadian International Development Agency (See CIDA) |
| **ADIH** | Association of Haiti Industries |
| **AMG** | Global Missionary Action |
| **AUPELF** | Association of French-Speaking Universities |
| **BID** | Inter-American Development Bank (IDB) |
| **BIRD** | International Bank for Reconstruction and Development/The World Bank (IBRD) |
| **CAC** | Community Action Council |
| **CAF** | Resources Training Center |
| **CAP** | - |
| **CAPES** | - |
| **CARE** | Concerned Americans for Relief Everywhere |
| **CENA** | National Episcopal Literacy Council |
| **CEP** | Primary Education Certificate |
| **CES** | Center for Special Education |
| **CFA** | Rural Training Center |
| **CFPH** | Haitian Professional Training Center |
| **CFT** | Technical Training Center |
| **CHF** | Cooperative Housing Foundation |
| **CHISS** | Haitian Center for Studies in Human |
| **CIDA** | Canadian International Development Agency (See ACDI) |
| **CINEC** | Community Integrated Nutrition and Education Center |

# Sigles

## Français

| | |
|---|---|
| **ACDI** | Agence Canadienne de Développement International |
| **ADIH** | Association des Industries d'Haïti |
| **AMG** | Action Missionnaire Globale |
| **AUPELF** | Association des Universites Partiellement ou Entièrement de Langue Francaise |
| **BID** | Banque Interaméricaine de Développement |
| **BIRD** | Banque Internationale pour la Reconstruction et le Développement/ La Banque Mondiale |
| **CAC** | Conseil d'Action Communautaire |
| **CAF** | Centre d'Appui aux Formations |
| **CAP** | Certificat d'Aptitude Pédagogique |
| **CAPES** | Certificat d'Aptitude Pédagogique d'Enseignement Secondaire |
| **CARE** | - |
| **CENA** | Conseil Episcopal National d'Alphabétisation |
| **CEP** | Certificat d'Etudes Primaires |
| **CES** | Centre d'Education Spéciale |
| **CFA** | Centres de Formation Agricole et Artisanale |
| **CFPH** | Centre de Formation Professionelle d'Haïti |
| **CFT** | Centre de Formation Technique |
| **CHF** | - |
| **CHISS** | Centre Haïtien d'investigations en Sciences Humaines |
| **CIDA** | Agence Canadienne de Développement International |
| **CINEC** | Centre Intégré de Nutrition et d'Education Communautaire |



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|---|---|---|
| **CLAP** | Center of Applied Linguistics | Centre de Linguistique Appliquée |
| **CMA** | Auto Mechanics Center | Centre Mécanique Auto |
| **CMPP** | Model Center for Professional Improvement | Centre Modèle de Perfectionnement Professionnel |
| **CNC** | National Council of Cooperatives | Conseil National de Coopératives |
| **CODEPLA** | Development Planning Committee (Council of Evangelical Churches of Haiti) | Comité de Développement de Planification (Conseil des Eglises Evangéliques d'Haïti) |
| **CODEVA** | Commission for the Development of Artibonite Valley | Commission pour le Développement de la Vallée de l'Artibonite |
| **COHAN** | Haitian-Netherlands Cooperation | Coopération Haïtiano-Néerlandaise |
| **CPF** | Polyvalent Training Center | Centre Polyvalent de Formation |
| **CPFP** | Pilot Center for Professional Training | Centre Pilote de Formation Professionnelle |
| **CPR** | Regional Pedagogical Center | Centre Pédagogique Régional |
| **CRS** | Catholic Relief Services | - |
| **CS** | Satellite Training Center | Centre satellite |
| **CWS** | Church World Services | - |
| **DARNDR** | Ministry of Agriculture, Natural Resources, and Rural Development | Département de l'Agriculture, des Ressources Naturelles et du Développement Rural |
| **DDR** | Division of Rural Development | Division du Développement Rural |
| **DEN** | Ministry of Education | Département de l'Education Nationale |
| **DESE** | Division of Health Education and Training | Division d'Education Sanitaire et d'Entraînement |
| **DETP** | Directorate of Technical and Professional Education | Direction de l'Enseignement Technique et Professionnel |
| **DFC** | Development Finance Corporation | - |
| **DHF** | Division of Family Hygiene | Division d'Hygiene Familiale |
| **DSPP** | Ministry of Public Health and Population | Département de la Santé Publique et de la Population |
| **EASPNH** | Expansion and Improvement of Primary and Teacher Education in Haiti | Expansion et Amélioration du Système d'Enseignement Primaire et Normal en Haïti |
| **EDH** | Electricity of Haiti | Electricité d'Haïti |
| **EF** | Basic Education | Education Fondamentale |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| **EMAV** | Middle School of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine | Ecole Moyenne d'Agriculture et de Médecine Vétérinaire |
| **EMTG** | Middle School of Geology | Ecole Moyenne de Techniciens de Géologie |
| **EN** | Normal School (Primary Teacher Training College) | Ecole Normale |
| **ENI** | Normal Training Schools | Ecoles Normales d'Institutrices |
| **ENS** | Superior Normal School (Secondary Teacher Training School) | Ecole Normale Supérieure |
| **FAC** | French Assistance and Cooperation | Fonds d'Aide et de Coopération |
| **FAMV** | College of Agronomy and Veterinary Medicine | Faculté d'Agronomie et de Médecine Vétérinaire |
| **FAO** | Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations | Organisation des Nations Unies pour l'Alimentation et l'Agriculture |
| **FDI** | Industrial Development Fund | Fonds de Développement Industriel |
| **FHD** | Haitian Development Fund | Fondation Haïtienne du Développement |
| **FIC** | Christian Brothers | Frères d'Instruction Chrétienne |
| **FIU** | Florida International University | - |
| **FMI** | International Monetary Fund (IMF) | Fonds Monétaire International |
| **FNS** | National Federation of Labor Unions | Fédération Nationale des Syndicats |
| **FONDEV** | Haitian-German Development Fund | Fonds Haïtiano-Allemand pour le Développement |
| **FPP** | Foster Parent Program | - |
| **FRG** | Federal Republic of Germany | - |
| **GAC** | Community Action Groups | Groupements d'Action Communautaires |
| **GDP** | Gross Domestic Product | - |
| **GNP** | Gross National Product | - |
| **GPA** | Grade Point Average | - |
| **GPP** | Pilot Project Group | Groupement Projet Pilote |
| **GREAL** | Literacy Research and Experimentation Group | Groupe de Recherche et d'Expérimentation en Alphabétisation |
| **HAMCHAM** | Haitian-American Chamber of Commerce | |
| **HAVA** | Haitian Association of Voluntary Agencies | |



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|---|---|---|
| **HDF** | Haitian Development Foundation | - |
| **HIET** | Haitian Institute of Electronic Technology | - |
| **IBRD** | International Bank for Reconstruction and Development/The World Bank (See BIRD) | Banque Internationale pour la Reconstruction et le Développement/ La Banque Mondiale |
| **ICC** | International Child Care | - |
| **ICTA** | Christian Institution for Technology | Institution Chrétienne de Technologie et d'Agriculture |
| **IDA** | International Development Association | Association Internationale de Développement |
| **IDB** | Inter-American Development Bank (See BID) | Banque Interaméricaine de Développement |
| **IDEA** | Diocesan Institute of Adult Education | Institut Diocésan d'Education des Adultes |
| **IEES** | Improving the Efficiency of Educational Systems | - |
| **IHS** | Haitian Institute of Statistics | Institut Haïtien de Statistiques et d'Informatique |
| **IICA** | Inter-American Institute for the Commercialization of Agriculture | Institut Interaméricain pour le Commercialisation Agricole |
| **ILO** | International Labor Organization (See OIT) | Organisation Internationale du Travail |
| **IMF** | International Monetary Fund (See FMI) | Fonds Monétaire International |
| **INAGHEI** | National Institute for Administration, Management, and Higher International Studies | Institut National d'Administration, de Gestion et des Hautes Etudes Internationales |
| **INHCA** | Haitian National Institute of Arts and Culture | Institut National Haïtien de la Culture et des Arts |
| **INFP** | National Institute of Professional Training | Institut National de Formation Professionnelle |
| **IPN** | National Pedagogical Institute | Institut Pédagogique National |
| **IUH** | International University of Haiti | Centre Universitaire d'Haïti |
| **LASPAU** | Latin American Scholarship Program | - |
| **MBCH** | Baptist Mission of Haiti | Mission Baptiste Conservatrice d'Haïti |
| **MCC** | Mennonite Central Committee | - |
| **MPC** | Management and Productivity Center | - |
| **MPF** | French Pedagogical Mission | Mission Pédagogique Française |



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|---|---|---|
| **NACRAO** | National Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admission Officers | - |
| **NAFSA** | National Association for Foreign Student Affairs | - |
| **NFE** | Nonformal Education | Education Non-Formelle |
| **NGO** | Nongovernmental Organiza tion (See ONG) | Organisme non-gouvernemental |
| **OAS** | Organization of American States (See OEA) | Organisation des Etats Américains |
| **ODN** | Development Organization of the North | Organisme de Développement du Nord |
| **ODNO** | Development Organization of the North-West | Organisme de Développement du Nord-Ouest |
| **ODVA** | Development Organization of Artibonite Valley | Organisme de Développement de le Vallee de l'Artibonite |
| **OEA** | Organization of American States (OAS) | Organisation des Etats Américains |
| **OIT** | International Labor Organization (ILO) | Organisation Internationale du Travail |
| **OMS** | World Health Organization (WHO) | Organisation Mondiale de la Santé |
| **ONAAC** | National Organization for Literacy and Community Action | Office National d'Alphabétisation et d'Action Communautaire |
| **ONART** | National Office of Artisanry | Office National de l'Artisanat |
| **ONEC** | National Office of Community Education | Office National de l'Education Communautaire |
| **ONG** | Nongovernmental Organization (NGO) | Organisme non-gouvernemental |
| **ONTRP** | National Office of Tourism and Public Relations | Office National du Tourisme et des Relations Publiques |
| **ORT** | Oral Rehydration Therapy | - |
| **PADF** | Pan American Development Foundation | - |
| **PAHO** | Pan-American Health Organization | - |
| **PAM** | World Food Program (WFP) | Programme d'Alimentation Mondiale |
| **PNUD** | United Nations Development Program (UNDP) | Programme des Nations Unies pour le Développement |
| **PVO** | Private Voluntary Organization | - |
| **RHDS** | Rural Health Delivery System | - |
| **SAWS** | Seventh Day Adventist World Service | - |
| **SCCT** | Cooperation and Technical Service | Service de la Coopération Technique |



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|---|---|---|
| **SDR** | Special Drawing Rights | |
| **SNEM** | National Service of Major Diseases | Service National des Endémies Majeures |
| **SNFP** | National System of Professional Training | Système National de Formation Professionnelle |
| **SYG** | Student years per graduate | - |
| **TBA** | Traditional Birth Attendant | - |
| **TELECO** | Telecommunications of Haiti | Télécommunications d'Haïti |
| **UNDP** | United Nations Development Program (See PNUD) | Programme des Nations Unies pour le Développement |
| **Unesco** | United Nations Education, Science, and Culture Organization | Organisation des Nations Unies pour le Science, l'Education et la Culture |
| **UNFPA** | United Nations Fund for Population Activities | Fond des Nations Unies pour les Activités en Matière de Population |
| **UNICA** | Association of Caribbean Universities and Research Institutes | - |
| **UNICEF** | United Nations Children's Fund | Fonds des Nations Unies pour l'Enfance |
| **UPMDI** | Materials Production and Printing Unit | Unité de Production de Matériel Didactique et d'Impression |
| **URHC** | Roi Henri Christophe University | Université Roi Henry Christophe |
| **USAID** | U.S. Agency for International Development | - |
| **WFP** | World Food Program (See PAM) | Programme d'Alimentation Mondiale |
| **WHO** | World Health Organization (see OMS) | Organisation Mondiale de la Sante |
| **WVI** | World Vision International | Vision Sur le Monde |



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# Chapitre 2

# Choisir

## Formation des Gestionnaires

Management Training

## AVANT PROPOS

Le chapitre 9, "Formation des Gestionnaires," a été revu et corrigé à Port au-Prince le 10 avril 1986 par Mr. Frantz Noailles et Mr. Serge Délormé de l Institut National d'Administration, de Gestion et des Hautes Etudes Internationales (INAGHEI) avec la collaboration de Mr. Milton Adams, Directeur adjoint de l'AMESED et chercheur à l'Université d'Etat de la Floride (FSU).

La première partie de la séance fut consacrée à des corrections de détail et de présentation statistique. Celles-ci ont été incorporées au texte du document.

Les participants ont estimé que le chapitre constituait un premier pas fort utile vers la réalisation d'une évaluation de la formation en gestion de plus grande envergure. Ils ont néanmoins tenu à faire les suggestions suivantes concernant le contenu du document et la méthodologie à adopter pour de futures études de ce type :

(i) Il a été remarqué que la partie analytique du document se repose en trop grande partie sur des études portant uniquement sur la formation de gestionnaires pour le secteur industriel.

(ii) Les participants trouvaient que le problème de la "validité externe" des programmes de formation--c'est à dire, du degré de correspondance entre le contenu du curriculum d'une part et les compétences et connaissances requises sur le marché du travail de l'autre--devrait être examiné dans un contexte plus large, car il représente une défaillance de l'ensemble du système éducatif plutôt qu'une faiblesse des seuls programmes de formation en gestion.

(iii) Une participation plus systématique de chercheurs haïtiens à la réalisation de futures évaluations de ce type permettrait de mieux appréhender le fonctionnement interne de l'INAGHEI et de donner un poids égal à la formation des gestionnaires pour le secteur commercial et bancaire.

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## 9.0 FORMATION DE GESTIONNAIRES

La mise en place de gestionnaires locaux compétents chargés de gérer la croissance économique et sociale à l'échelle nationale est une initiative indispensable pour le développement du pays. Le perfectionnement des cadres demeure une étape décisive pour la réalisation de cet objectif, et ce chapitre fait le bilan des possibilités actuelles de formation et de participation dans le domaine de la gestion. Etant donné que le niveau actuel de l'assistance au développement en Haïti est plus élevé qu'il n'a jamais été, on s'attendrait à ce qu'il y ait une forte demande en cadres haïtiens capables de gérer ce développement. Il semble, cependant, que les haïtiens ont très peu d'ocassions à l'heure actuelle de participer à la direction de leurs propres activités de développement.

### 9.1 SITUATION ACTUELLE

Le développement des capacités de gestion dans le secteur public est entravé à la fois par des contraintes structurelles et par un manque de stimulants. Le processus de prise de décision est extrêmement centralisé et réduit les possibilités de la plupart des gestionnaires du secteur public. Le caractère arbitraire du système de promotion du secteur public décourage bon nombre de gestionnaires compétents et les conduit à chercher du travail dans le secteur privé. En même temps, le volume important des activités de développement augmente la demande de gestionnaires plus qualifiés dans le secteur public.

Divers problèmes empêchent l'amélioration des méthodes de gestion dans le secteur privé. Les entreprises familiales haïtiennes sont entravées par des attitudes méfiantes développées à l'endroit des gestionnaires du pays qui ne font pas partie de la famille. Ceci est un sérieux handicap pour les petites entreprises qui veulent se développer et se transformer en compagnie commerciale. Des attitudes semblables réduisent considérablement les possibilités d'emploi de gestionnaires haïtiens compétents dans les entreprises étrangères et multinationales du secteur privé. La plupart des entreprises privées semblent douter des capacités des gestionnaires haïtiens et préfèrent engager des étrangers aux postes de direction. Les organismes privés nationaux et internationaux à but non lucratif (ONG) gèrent une part importante des fonds d'aide qui touchent directement la population haïtienne. Cependant, même ces organismes de bienfaisance utilisent très peu les services de gestionnaires haïtiens.

Non seulement les chances d'acquérir de l'expérience dans le domaine de la gestion demeurent actuellement limitées pour les haïtiens, mais les possibilités

de formation dans cette branche sont également restreintes. Les institutions qui offrent une formation en gestion sont médiocres tant du point de vue de la diversité des programmes offerts que de leur qualité.

### 9.1.1 Contexte nécessaire pour une amélioration des méthodes de gestion

Haïti est fière d'être la première république noire et la deuxième nation souveraine de l'hémisphère occidental, mais sa situation actuelle ne correspond pas à la grandeur de son passé. Entre autres choses, son bilan accuse une gestion médiocre et une carence de cadres compétents en matière de planification, de production et d'utilisation efficiente des ressources.

C'est au cours de son premier plan quinquennal 1972-1976 qu'Haïti a commencé à accepter l'aide au développement. Cette décision a entraîné une surchage des capacités locales en matière de gestion déjà fortement limitées. Si l'on veut que les processus de développement déjà en cours obtiennent des résultats durables, il s'avère indispensable d'améliorer les méthodes de gestion utilisées.

L'importance de l'aide extérieure nécessite un travail conséquent de gestion pour planifier et mener à bien une grande variété de programmes. Par exemple, pour l'exercice 83-84, l'aide étrangère représentait environ 70% de la totalité du budget consacré au développement et s'élevait à environ $220 millions. La majeure partie de l'aide étrangère est concentrée dans les secteurs du commerce, des affaires, des finances, de l'agriculture, des ressources naturelles et de la santé. La capacité de gestion déjà limitée de la plupart des institutions publiques de ces secteurs a été sévèrement éprouvée par ces responsabilités supplémentaires. Les faiblesses de cette gestion ont porté les donateurs multilatéraux et bilatéraux à imposer des conditions rigoureuses pour les aides futures, exigeant une amélioration des méthodes générales de gestion des institutions publiques responsables des projets de développement.

Le mécontentement des principaux donateurs (Etats-Unis, France, Canada, RFA, etc.) a amené au cours des dix dernières années à confier la gestion de bon nombre de leurs programmes de développement à des organismes non gouvernementaux à vocation humanitaire. Ces donateurs ont réduit le montant de l'aide accordée au gouvernement et ont coopéré plus étroitement avec les ONG en particulier dans le cadre des projets qui touchent directement les populations de la zone rurale.

Quelques donateurs bilatéraux, dont les Etats-Unis, ont créé des organismes non gouvernementaux intermédiaires chargés d'exécuter certains de leurs projets de développement. Par exemple, pour encourager le développement des entreprises privées, l'Agence Américaine pour le Développement International (USAID) a créé



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la Société Financière de Développement (SFD) et la Fondation Haïtienne de Développement (FHD) qui offrent une formation en gestion assortie d'une assistance technique complémentaire. Le Centre pour la Gestion et la Productivité de l'Entreprise Privée également prévu par l'USAID est dans la phase de planification.

L'augmentation de l'aide au développement accordée au secteur privé modifie également les conditions de gestion des entreprises haïtiennes. Les services relatifs au secteur tertiaire et au commerce représentent les domaines d'expansion les plus rapides. Ils ont créé de nouveaux emplois, particulièrement dans l'industrie d'assemblage, où Haïti pourrait devenir un sérieux concurrent pour les industries d'assemblage et d'exportation de l'Extrême Orient. Néanmoins, pour que ce potentiel de croissance locale soit entièrement réalisé, il doit être accompagné d'un renforcement des capacités locales en matière de gestion. Certaines entreprises auraient reporté leurs projets d'expansion à cause du manque de gestionnaires haïtiens compétents.

En raison du manque de renseignements disponibles, il s'avère impossible de faire une évaluation détaillée des besoins nationaux en matière de gestion. Cependant, une première estimation des besoins du secteur privé a été faite sur la base de plusieurs études récentes, et d'une série d'entretiens informels réalisés avec des personnes compétentes en la matière. La difficulté de trouver des gestionnaires formés et qualifiés a été évoquée à plusieurs reprises. Au niveau de la supervision, il existe peu de personnel ayant des compétences techniques et capable d'assumer des responsabilités en matière d'organisation. La formation en gestion doit être considérée comme un besoin urgent, au même titre que celle de techniciens, de superviseurs et d'ouvriers. Quant à la formation des cadres supérieurs et moyens, les interlocuteurs ont préconisé la poursuite des programmes de formation continue qui devraient porter de préférence sur des sujets pratiques tels la production, le contrôle des opérations, les finances, les techniques d'organisation du travail, l'étude du marché, l'utilisation des micro-ordinateurs, les techniques d'exportation et la réglementation douanière.

En ce qui concerne l'utilisation des programmes de formation dans le domaine de la gestion, une étude a révélé que :

- Bien que le besoin d'une formation dans le domaine de la gestion soit énorme, seule un petit nombre de sociétés parmi celles enquêtées s'avouait prêt à investir dans ce domaine ou avaient prévu un budget à cet effet.
- Seulement 8% des sociétés utilisaient les programmes offerts par l'Institut National d'Administration, de Gestion et d'Etudes

Internationales (INAGHEI). Les sociétés contactées faisaient peu confiance à l'INAGHEI qu'elles considéraient comme orientée uniquement vers la formation d'administrateurs publics.

- Les sociétés qui investissaient dans la formation de gestionnaires envoyaient leur personnel à l'étranger, notamment aux Etats-Unis.
- D'une façon générale, les sociétés n'étaient pas satisfaites des programmes offerts en Haïti et n'étaient pas disposées à les utiliser.

Au début du premier plan quinquennal 1972-1976, le développement des ressources humaines est devenu une priorité nationale. L'Institut pour la Formation Professionnelle (INFP) a été crée en 1973 pour planifier et coordonner un système national de formation professionnelle. En plus de la formation dispensée aux instituteurs de l'enseignement primaire, l'Institut Pédagogique National (IPN) fournit une formation permanente aux directeurs d'établissements scolaires et aux inspecteurs publics, mais il n'existe aucun programme d'administration scolaire pour former des gestionnaires académiques à quelque niveau que ce soit. Le système éducatif national comprend diverses institutions qui offrent une formation pour la plupart technique et professionnelle à l'intention des ouvriers du secteur industriel. L'INAGHEI est la seule institution publique d'enseignement supérieur à offrir une formation en gestion.

Au cours du second plan quinquennal 1976-1981, une Commission Administrative a été créée pour planifier la réforme administrative. Cette réforme vise à améliorer les conditions de travail et le système de promotion des fonctionnaires de l'Etat. Pour répondre à ces objectifs, la Commission a préparé un projet de loi définissant le statut des enseignants, qui prévoit un système d'avancement dans lequel les barèmes de salaires seraient déterminés en fonction de l'ancienneté et des qualifications. Un projet de loi similaire est à l'étude pour l'ensemble des employés de la fonction publique.

Les possibilités offertes aux haïtiens pour participer à la gestion de leur propre développement sont actuellement relativement limitées. Le débat portant sur les propositions relatives à la réforme administrative au cours de l'actuel plan quinquennal 1982-1986 révèle un manque général de structures et de dispositions susceptibles de motiver des gestionnaires potentiels à revendiquer ce rôle. Les critères arbitraires de recrutement, de promotion et de paiement des administrateurs publics découragent un certain nombre de personnes compétentes à travailler dans le secteur public.

Le nombre d'emplois disponibles pour des gestionnaires haïtiens dans les organismes non gouvernementaux a été évalué au cours d'une série d'entretiens officieux. Il en ressort de ceux-ci que les haïtiens rencontrent des obstacles considérables s'ils veulent participer à la gestion des ONG. Ces organismes

semblent s'intéresser davantage à l'amélioration des compétences techniques du personnel haïtien qu'à lui confier des responsabilités de gestion. On aurait besoin de plus de données pour confirmer cette hypothèse, mais la tendance actuelle semble être plutôt à la restriction.

9.1.2 Institutions et Programmes

L'INAGHEI est la seule institution publique offrant une formation en gestion en Haïti. Quelques instituts privés dont certains ont fait leur demande pour être reconnus officiellement par le MEN offrent des programmes de formation en gestion, mais il s'agit pour la plupart d'une formation peu adaptée aux besoins du secteur commercial haïtien.

L'INAGHEI fait partie de l'Université d'Etat d'Haïti, mais dépend du Ministère des Finances pour son budget. L'Institut offre des programmes universitaires en Sciences Politiques, en Administration Publique, en Gestion et en Comptabilité. Au début de l'année universitaire 1983-84, l'INAGHEI comptait 1.020 étudiants (dont 600 hommes et 420 femmes). Environ les deux-tiers d'entre eux étudiaient à temps partiel.

Le personnel enseignant comprend 62 personnes, dont 56 haïtiens et 6 étrangers envoyés par le Canada et la France dans le cadre de l'assistance bilatérale. L'ensemble du personnel est relativement peu qualifié, plus de 50% d'entre eux ne peuvent justifier d'une formation allant au-delà des deux premières années d'université. La majorité du personnel est employée à temps partiel.

L'Institut délivre trois types de diplôme : (a) une licence (90 crédits) est décernée en Administration Publique, en Gestion et Comptabilité, en Sciences Politiques et en Relations Internationales ; (b) un diplôme (60 crédits) de Comptabilité est délivré uniquement à une catégorie spéciale de comptables professionnels formés dans les écoles secondaires techniques ; et (c) un certificat (30 crédits) est délivré en Administration Publique et en Sciences Politiques.

L'Administration de l'INAGHEI affirme ne pas pouvoir satisfaire toutes les demandes de formation à cause d'un manque de moyens et d'équipement. Il lui faut surtout du matériel informatique. Ainsi, l'absence de données permettant le suivi des programmes offerts par l'Institut est attribuée au manque d'information.

Le budget de fonctionnement alloué à l'Institut par le gouvernement pour l'année fiscale 1984/85 s'élèvait à environ 500.000 dollars. En 1983, l'INAGHEI a également reçu une aide très importante de l'ACDI et de l'Université d'Ottawa. Pour une inscription à temps plein, les frais annuels de scolarité s'élèvent à

35 dollars par étudiant. La formation permanente et les cours de comptabilité coûtent environ 50 dollars pour 45 heures de cours.

Quelques programmes de formation ayant trait à la gestion, sont ou ont été offerts par des organismes privés. Ces derniers comprennent à la fois des institutions offrant un enseignement universitaire qui attendent d'être reconnues et de petits établissements privés offrant des cycles courts dans des domaines comme la comptabilité (voir chapitre 8).

Le Centre Universitaire International d'Haïti est une institution privée fondée en 1979. Elle a été ouverte en 1982 et attend d'être officiellement reconnue à la suite d'une évaluation de sa première promotion. Elle possède une école de commerce et de sciences économiques dont le programme s'étend sur quatre ans et qui offre à ses étudiants à temps plein et à temps partiel des cours de gestion générale, de gestion du personnel, de comptabilité et d'analyse de projets. Pour l'instant cet institut compte environ 40 étudiants.

Une autre institution privée non encore reconnue est l'Institut des Hautes Etudes Commerciales (IHECE) qui offre des programmes de formation permanente aux cadres des secteurs public et privé. L'IHECE dispense des cours de gestion générale, de comptabilité, de macro-économie, et d'analyse quantitative, tout en mettant l'accent sur la planification, la gestion et la gestion du personnel. Le nombre moyen des inscriptions dans ce cycle de quatre ans s'élève à environ 250 étudiants, dont une grande partie est employée dans le secteur public.

## 9.2 CONTRAINTES

Le développement des capacités locales en matière de gestion dépend des possibilités de formation et de participation à la gestion. Celles-ci sont très limitées en Haïti. L'importance des contraintes varie entre le secteur public et le secteur privé.

Dans le secteur public la contrainte essentielle est liée à l'absence d'une politique ferme de la part du gouvernement quant à l'application de la réforme administrative et à la réorganisation de la fonction publique préconisées depuis 1949.

Les contraintes budgétaires et l'inexistence d'un système de promotion réduisent considérablement la capacité de ce secteur à attirer et à retenir des gestionnaires compétents. Les bas salaires du secteur public sont à l'origine du départ de certains gestionnaires attirés par les salaires élevés du secteur privé. Il en résulte qu'un nombre limité de gestionnaires fait carrière dans la fonction publique et arrive difficilement à faire face au rythme des activités croissantes provoquées par la multiplication des projets de développement. On

espère que le statut unique, tant attendu, permettra de remédier à cette situation en augmentant le taux de recrutement et de rétention de gestionnaires plus compétents dans la fonction publique.

Les possibilités d'emploi dans le domaine de la gestion sont également limitées pour des raisons d'ordre structurel. Les prises de décision en matière de gestion sont extrêmement centralisées, ce qui laisse peu de latitude aux cadres moyens pour excercer et parfaire leurs compétences en matière de direction.

Par contre, le secteur privé offre un meilleur salaire et davantage de sécurité. Cependant, les entreprises privées préfèrent employer des étrangers aux postes de responsabilité, donc très peu de débouchés sont offerts aux gestionnaires haïtiens dans la plupart des organismes non gouvernementaux.

Etant donné que ces organismes travaillent souvent avec les couches les plus défavorisées de la population, on risque de voir s'y développer des attitudes paternalistes. Ce paternalisme naît de l'hypothèse que les pauvres sont des êtres démunis incapables de gérer leurs propres affaires. Ces organismes en s'adressant aux besoins les plus primaires de la population peuvent négliger la nécessité d'amener les bénéficiaires à un degré d'autonomie qui leur permettra de poursuivre le processus de développement une fois l'aide extérieure terminée.

## 9.3 PROBLEMES

Les points suivants ont été identifiés à partir des informations mentionnées ci-dessus.

Efficacité externe. Afin de déterminer les moyens d'offrir une formation en gestion, il s'avère nécessaire de se renseigner sur le type de formation souhaitée, comme l'indique l'enquête effectuée auprès des employés.

De même, pour prévoir les contributions de l'INAGHEI dans ce domaine, il serait souhaitable de connaître le nombre de diplômés estimés et réels de l'Institut, pour le comparer aux besoins de main-d'oeuvre et à la demande de gestionnaires estimés. Les informations concernant le placement des diplômés devraient inclure des données sur l'évolution du marché de l'emploi et du niveau des salaires. De plus, des renseignements sur la formation permanente des diplômés seraient fort utiles pour évaluer l'adéquation de la formation dispensée à l'INAGHEI par rapport aux besoins des entreprises.

Efficacité interne. A ce niveau également, les données nécessaires pour l'évaluation du niveau d'efficacité ne sont pas disponibles, notamment en ce qui concerne les flux d'étudiants à l'INAGHEI. Le peu de qualifications des enseignants laisse douter de la qualité de l'enseignement. Le fait que plus de



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la moitié des enseignants n'aient pas d'autre diplôme à part la licence réduit considérablement la variété de programmes de qualité pouvant être offerts.

Accessibilité et équité. L'INAGHEI et l'ensemble des autres instituts de formation de gestion sont tous situés dans la capitale. Ceci signifie que la majorité des haïtiens n'ont pas facilement accès à cette formation. A l'INAGHEI, la plus grande partie des étudiants (59%) sont des hommes, ce qui fait penser que le sexe peut être un facteur limitant les demandes et les admissions. Il n'existe pas de données sur la répartition des inscriptions par sexe, par catégorie socio-économique ou par région d'origine dans les différents programmes.

Administration et contrôle. Une fois qu'une étude des besoins de main-d'oeuvre qualifiée du pays aura été effectuée et que l'on disposera de données indiquant les choix à faire, il faudra développer au niveau national des possibilités de planification de la formation en gestion mieux adaptées aux besoins à long terme du pays. Ces possibilités n'existent pas à l'heure actuelle.

Coûts et financement. Dans ce domaine également une étude mérite d'être réalisée en vue de déterminer le coût de la formation actuelle, particulièrement en fonction du niveau de formation fourni. De même, on aurait besoin d'informations beaucoup plus complètes sur la situation actuelle des programmes afin d'assurer une meilleure utilisation des ressources disponibles, et surtout afin d'éviter une duplication de formation dans certains domaines tandis que d'autres ne sont pas abordés.

## 9.4 CONCLUSIONS

Sous les réserves qui s'imposent compte tenu du peu de renseignements disponibles au moment où cette évaluation a été effectuée, nous pouvons tirer les conclusions suivantes :

Conclusion 1 - Possibilités limitées. Les possibilités de formation et l'emploi en matière de gestion dans les secteurs public et privé, sont plus limitées qu'on aurait pu le penser étant donné le montant élevé de l'aide au développement.

Conclusion 2 - Formation. Les programmes de formation en gestion sont médiocres et ne sont pas sufisamment diversifiés pour répondre aux besoins des secteurs public et privé.

Conclusion 3 - Haïtianisation des postes de direction. Dans le secteur privé, l'haïtianisation de la gestion reste plutôt faible, notamment parmi les ONG.

## 9.5 RECOMMANDATIONS

Les recommandations suivantes s'appuient sur l'ensemble des données présentées ci-dessus.

Recommandation 1 - Réformes. Assurer la mise en oeuvre des réformes administratives et de la fonction publique.

La mise en oeuvre au moment opportun de ces réformes par le gouvernement élargirait la base des capacités de gestion dans le secteur public et augmenterait les chances qu'ont les cadres haïtiens d'accéder à des postes de responsabilité. Des progrès ont déjà été réalisés grâce à deux décrets récemment publiés, la Loi Organique de 1984 et le décret définissant le statut des enseignants. Le premier prévoit la réorganisation du Ministère de l'Education, alors que le second définit des critères de recrutement et d'avancement, et établit l'échelle des salaires des enseignants du primaire dans le cadre de la Réforme. La mise en vigueur de ces décrets confirmerait l'intention du gouvernement de poursuivre une véritable politique de réforme. L'appui que fourniront les donateurs à ces initiatives montrera dans quelle mesure eux aussi soutiennent une telle politique.

La mise en oeuvre effective de ces réformes aurait à coup sûr des répercussions économiques importantes car elles seraient de nature à améliorer l'efficacité et le rendement de l'ensemble des institutions du secteur public. Les programmes de formation en gestion pourraient être renforcés et mieux adaptés aux besoins des secteurs public et privé, ce qui permettrait une répartition plus efficace des ressources et l'élaboration de programmes axés sur la demande réelle de compétences pratiques.

Recommandation 2 - Alternatives. Encourager et promouvoir d'autres programmes dans le secteur privé.

D'autres alternatives devraient être examinées dans le secteur privé. Etant donné le niveau d'efficacité administrative plutôt faible qui caractérise l'INAGHEI à l'heure actuelle, de nouveaux investissements ne semblent pas y être indiqués pour le moment. Des projets d'appui aux instituts privés de formation sont actuellement à l'étude par les donateurs. Si ces projets étaient adoptés, le secteur privé s'en trouverait grandement renforcé et pourrait dans un deuxième temps stimuler le développement de la formation dans le secteur public. Une initiative telle que la création du nouveau Centre de Gestion et de Productivité de l'USAID devrait encourager le secteur privé, notamment

les ONG, à confier davantage de responsabilités aux gestionnaires haïtiens.

Recommandation 3 - Haïtianisation. Faire en sorte que la gestion des entreprises et des organismes privés soit effectuée progressivement par des cadres haïtiens sur l'ensemble du pays.

Les ONG devraient se pencher sur le problème de l'emploi des gestionnaires haïtiens qui travaillent au sein de leurs services et faire des propositions précises visant à leur confier une plus grande responsabilité dans la gestion de leurs projets de développement.

## CHAPTER PREFACE

Chapter 9, "Management Training," was reviewed in Port-au-Prince on April 10, 1985 by Mr. Frantz Noailles and Mr. Serge Délormé of the Institut National d'Administration, de Gestion et des Hautes Etudes Internationales (INAGHEI) with the assistance of Mr. Milton Adams, Deputy Director of IEES, Florida State University. Corrections of factual detail and statistical presentations were made at the outset of the review session.

The reviewers felt that the chapter constituted a useful first step towards an evaluation of management training of larger scope. The following comments and suggestions for strengthening the chapter were made:

(i) It was felt that the analysis relied somewhat too heavily on studies which focus exclusively on the training of industrial sector managers.

(ii) Reviewers felt that the problem of the external validity of training, that is, the degree of correspondence between training curricula and actual skills needed on the marketplace, needed to be analyzed within a broader context since this discrepancy is a characteristic shortcoming of the entire educational system.

(iii) Participation of Haitians in future chapter updates would ensure better information on the actual operations of INAGHEI, and sharper focus on its training of managers for commercial and banking enterprises.

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## 9.0 MANAGEMENT TRAINING*

Establishing a local capability for managing national social and economic growth is an essential goal of development. A critical step toward this goal is to develop managerial skills, and this chapter focuses on the potential for Haitians to acquire these skills. Issues of managerial performance and evaluation are not within the scope of this chapter, which is concerned with assessing the existing opportunities for training and participation in management that are available to Haitians.

The present level of development assistance in Haiti is higher than it has ever been. Unprecedented opportunities for Haitians to take part in managing this development might be expected to accompany this relatively high level of assistance, since this kind of practical participation is essential to developing their ability to manage. Interviews suggest, however, that Haitians have little opportunity to participate extensively in managing their development activities.

Management development in the public sector seems to be especially restricted by structural and incentive constraints. For historical and political reasons, the decisionmaking process is tightly controlled and highly centralized, which reduces the opportunity for many public sector managers to take part in this process. The arbitrary nature of the public sector reward system discourages many competent managers, influencing them to seek employment in the private sector. At the same time, the high level of development activities is increasing the demand for more competent managers in the public sector. Thus, there appear to be conflicting forces in the public sector with regard to increased opportunity for managers.

Management development in the private sector is limited by different problems. The domestic part of this sector is hampered by inherited patterns in family businesses that foster distrust of "outside" Haitian managers. The situation is critical for those family businesses that are beginning to grow into corporate structures. These same patterns continue to limit the opportunities for participation by competent Haitian managers. The prospects are similar in the international part of the private sector. Private businesses express prejudices based on beliefs that productivity is low among Haitian managers, and many of them prefer to hire expatriates for managerial positions.

Foreign and domestic private voluntary organizations manage a significant amount of development assistance that directly affects the Haitian population.

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*The draft for this chapter was prepared by Paul N. Emoungu, Howard University.

Foreign organizations are larger and more powerful than the domestic ones, and the Haitians working in them would be expected to have better opportunities to acquire managerial skills. Even these charitable organizations, however, show only a limited capacity to make use of Haitian managers. Some information suggests that attitudes of paternalism in these organizations may prevent Haitians from participating as fully as might be possible in managing their own developmental activities.

Several basic needs must be satisfied to improve the prospects of developing management capacity in Haiti: A public commitment to management development should be established; the localization of management must become a national priority; and better management training must be sought. Accomplishment of the first two objectives is essential to improve the overall prospect for developing domestic capabilities for management. Donors are faced with challenges to meet these needs.

Donors could exercise a significant degree of influence to help secure the implementation of pending administrative and civil service reforms. Securing these reforms would have important economic consequences for donors. If these reforms are not forthcoming in the near future, the donors can certainly work toward improvement in the private sector. This alternative, however, would force donors to commit themselves to a policy of localizing management in Haiti, and prospects for such a policy do not inspire much optimism at this point. If the donors can meet this challenge, the private sector can take the lead in developing management capabilities.

## 9.1 STATUS

Haiti is 180 years old. It is the first black republic and the second sovereign nation in the Western Hemisphere, but conditions today fall short of matching this historic pride. Haiti is among the poorest nations even alongside some of the youngest. This record is, among other things, a reflection of poor management--the result of a lack of skills in planning, generating resources, and using them efficiently (i.e., obtaining more output from minimum resources) to attain institutional goals. In many respects, Haitian management has not kept pace with our modern times.

As a solution to rampant poverty, Haiti opened the door to development assistance with its first Five-Year Plan 1972-1976. This activity exerted tremendous pressure on a managerial capacity that was already hard pressed. Nevertheless, more comprehensive and more competent management is necessary if the ongoing development process is to have permanent and long-range effects. This chapter assesses the efforts toward management development in Haiti in the

context of the present public sector resources, with attention to the role of development assistance.

This section describes some survey findings on the extent of managerial needs (demand) and the existing training capacity (supply) to meet these needs. These surveys were conducted during 1982-84 and provide information on the private business sector. Limited information on the public sector was obtained from Government documents, and further information was gathered through intensive internal interviews with several major bilateral, multilateral, and nongovernmental organizations.

### 9.1.1 Background

The Development Context. External assistance has been substantial, entailing a significant managerial burden to plan and operate a wide range of externally funded programs. The United Nations Development Program (UNDP) data for 1983 indicates a total assistance level of about $167 million for Haiti. The multilateral assistance contributed $67 million (40%), and the bilateral and the private voluntary organizations contributed $78 million (47%) and $23 million (14%) respectively. The total external assistance represented 69% of the approximately $220 million total development budget in FY 1983/84, against 31% for Government.

Much of this assistance is concentrated in the commerce/trade/finance, agriculture, natural resources and health sectors. The already limited capacity of many public institutions involved in these sectors is being severely strained by these added responsibilities. The resulting management shortcomings have forced multilateral and bilateral donors to impose stringent conditions for further assistance, requiring improvement of the overall management of public institutions responsible for development projects.

Dissatisfaction with the limited local management capabilities for development projects in the public sector was one of the factors in the decision by major bilateral donors (e.g., the United States, Canada, France, and the Federal Republic of Germany) early in this decade to operate many of their programs through private voluntary organizations involved in humanitarian projects. These donors reduced their levels of bilateral assistance to Government and cooperated closely with private voluntary agencies, especially in projects that deal directly with the masses of the rural poor.

Some bilateral donors, like the United States, have established intermediate nongovernmental organizations to implement some of their development projects. To encourage the growth of private businesses, for example, the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID) created the Development Finance Corporation (DFC) and the Haitian Development Foundation (HDF) and will offer

training for management development and related technical assistance. The Private Enterprise Management and Productivity Center, also being established by USAID, is in the planning stage. The Center will encourage businesses to take advantage of the services provided by the DFC and HDF.

The services will comprise training for management development and related technical assistance. The increased participation of private voluntary organizations in the development process presents a different set of management development problems, which will be discussed below. Growth of development assistance in the private sector is also affecting management requirements for Haitian private businesses. Services related to manufacturing and commerce are among the fastest growing areas. They have created many new jobs, especially in assembly industries. The Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), for example, considers that prospects for Haiti's economic growth are promising because of the nearby United States market, an abundant supply of inexpensive labor with high productivity, and a relatively stable political climate. Haiti could become a strong competitor for the assembly and export industries of the Far East. For this growth potential to be fully realized, however, it must be accompanied by a commensurate expansion of local management capabilities; reportedly some businesses are postponing their expansion plans because of an insufficient supply of competent local managers.

Prospects for Management Development: The Private Sector. A comprehensive assessment of the nature and the extent of national managerial needs is impractical because of insufficient information. This assessment is based on three studies conducted during the last several years. While limited in scope, since they deal only with private businesses, these studies do provide a reasonable estimate of management needs and supply. They are: Marc Lindenberg and the Central American Management Institute, Human Resources Needs in the Private Sector: A Preliminary Assessment of Training Needs and Resources in the Assembly Industries in Haiti, Port-au-Prince, July 1982; Daniel B. Dunham, Vocational Education, Manpower and Training Programs in Haiti, USAID, Washington, D.C., August 1982; and F. Carl Braun and Capital Consult, Haiti Private Sector Demand for Management Training Programs, Port-au-Prince, June 1984.

The first two studies were based on informal, intensive interviews of businesses selected on the basis of their reputation as "leading businesses." Their findings are thus based on how these businesses perceived managerial needs. The third study used a sample of 24 firms, 75% of the 32 contacted. These firms represented export firms (12, or 50%), domestic-market industries

(5, or 21%), trade (4, or 17%), and services (3, or 13%). Results reported in the three studies are summarized below.

9.1.1.1 Human Resources Needs in the Private Sector: A Preliminary Assessment of Training Needs and Resources in the Assembly Industries in Haiti

One objective of this study was to assess how managers and community leaders perceived existing training resources in Haiti, and to use this information to identify general programmatic options and strategic issues. Results are reported under three topics:

Quantity and Quality of Staff. The survey identified basic problems at all levels--upper-level and middle-level managers, supervisors, and technicians. The upper-level is comprised of general managers; middle-level managers are division heads who have responsibility for a major department; and supervisors are those who manage more than 100 employees.

Those interviewed reported difficulty finding trained and qualified Haitian managers. They also said that foreign managers are reluctant to live and work in Haiti for extended periods. These problems are compounded by sociocultural factors. For instance, conflicts are caused by the transition from the structure of a family firm to that of a corporation. In part, these conflicts are due to reluctance to hire non-family members or to decentralize management functions and bring Haitian "outsiders" into the family firm. These conflicts are also due to the lack of sufficient skills in such areas as production, control, marketing, finance, and export marketing. At the supervisory level, difficulties were reported in finding personnel with technical ability who also had organizational ability and could assume responsibility. All managers reported difficulty in helping rural people adjust to organized work activity.

Quantity and Quality of Training Opportunities. At the time of the survey, the National Institute for Administration, Management, and Higher International Studies (Institut National d'Administration, de Gestion et des Hautes Etudes Internationales - INAGHEI) was in existence. A part of the State University of Haiti, INAGHEI is the only public entity in the country that provides administration and management training. Ten out of the 12 manager-owners interviewed had no knowledge of INAGHEI, and the other two thought that the Institute provided training for the public sector only. At the level of supervisory training there were no courses, but interest was shown in having them. Only two of the 12 interviewees had training programs within their firms.

Training Priorities. Management training was rated as the most urgent



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need, followed by technical, supervisory, and worker training. For upper-level and middle-level management, preference was given to continuing education programs, with training courses in functional and sectoral areas such as production, control, finance, organization, marketing, minicomputers, export marketing, and tariff regulations.

Mention was made of a Management Project, a two-cycle continuing education project for middle- and upper-level managers developed by the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) in collaboration with INAGHEI. More than 60 applications were received for the 27 places available; topics most in demand were marketing, general management, human resource management, and inventory control. A follow-up course was planned, but it was never executed. It appeared that there was a strong demand among Haitian business firms for such instruction.

#### 9.1.1.2 Vocational Education, Manpower, and Training Programs in Haiti

The purpose of the study was to determine whether vocational education and training programs in Haiti have the capacity to prepare a work force for jobs expected to be created through further economic development. The following site visits and interviews were conducted:

Ministry of Education

Cité Simone - Private Voluntary Organizations Program

Resources Training Center (CAF)

National Institute of Professional Training (INFP)

School of Agriculture, Damien

Barbancourt Rhum

Duval Industries

Haitian Tractor

INAGHEI

Haitian Development Foundation

Guy Douyon, Management Training Consultant

Marc Bazin, Former Minister of Finance

Small Business Owners/Managers

The broad view expressed by the respondents was that management development at higher levels of training is not sufficient without a technically competent work force.

The public sector vocational training programs were found to need greater emphasis on:

- Planning and organization sufficient to support nationwide preparation of people for jobs.
- Provision of adequate facilities, training equipment, and teachers, and ability to serve a broader proportion of national vocational training needs.
- Institutional coordination, along with programs that are relevant to the private sector.
- A clear vision of training needs.
- Curriculum development. Little information is available on the status of instructional curriculum, how it is developed or updated, and methods used for classroom and shop instruction.
- Progress in securing private sector input as to what kind of programs are needed, what should be taught, who should teach, and how teachers should be trained.
- Provision of specific alternatives to formal in-school or institutional programs.
- Provision of training for a larger portion of the country's needs for skilled worker technician or vocational instructor training, in institutions like the National Institute for Professional Training (Institut National de Formation Professionnelle - INFP) and the Pilot Center for Professional Training (Centre Pilote de Formation Professionnelle - CPFP). Only a small part of these needs are now met, and graduates tend to be poorly prepared for the work place.
- Integrated, comprehensive programs to meet needs not only in commercial and banking areas, but in the industrial sector, like the kind of training provided by INAGHEI.

Programs that private organizations need to emphasize more are:

- Training programs for middle-level managers.
- Better opportunities for on-the-job apprenticeships.
- Cooperation with Government in planning training programs.

9.1.1.3 Haiti Private Sector Demand for Management Training Programs

This survey sought some answers to these questions: What are the main programs Haitian firms use for management training, in or outside of the country? In what specific areas are management training needs most felt? Are these firms interested in investing in such training? What are the preferred institutional delivery systems? The characteristics and names of the 24 firms that participated in the survey are listed in Table 9.1.

TABLE 9.1

Characteristics of Surveyed Firms

| Firms | Products | Work Force | Managerial Staff Size |
|---|---|---|---|
| Export | | | |
| Alpha Electronics S.A. | Electronics | Over 500 | 27 |
| Plurifac S.A. | Electronics | Over 500 | 20 |
| Manufacture S.A. | Apparel | Over 500 | 50 |
| GTE Sylvania | Electronics | Over 500 | 41 |
| International Garments S.A. | Apparel | Over 500 | 12 |
| Caribbean Contracts | Apparel | Over 500 | 6 |
| Apparel Industries S.A. | Apparel | Over 500 | 15 |
| Playball S.A. | Sporting goods | Over 500 | 5 |
| International Apparel | Apparel | 251 -500 | N/A |
| Boulos - Duchatelier | Shoes | 251 -500 | N/A |
| Somontel S.A. | Electronics | 101 -250 | 2 |
| Caribe Wicker | Furniture | 101 -250 | 3 |
| Domestic Market Industries | | | |
| Acierie d'Haiti S.A. | Steel bars/rods | 251 -500 | 30 |
| Rose Bags Co. | Paper products | 51 -500 | 4 |
| S.H.A.I.S.A. | Food products | 51 -100 | 6 |
| Imprimerie Le Natal S.A. | Printing | 51 -100 | 4 |
| United Show Associates S.A. | Shoes | 251 -500 | 12 |
| Trade/Commerce | | | |
| L.D'Adesky Steamship Div. | Shipping | Over 20 | 8 |
| Establissements Raymond Flambert | Construction materials | Over 20 | N/A |
| Digepa S.A. | Import/export | 11 - 20 | 5 |
| Agemar S.A. | Shipping | 11 - 20 | 8 |
| Services | | | |
| Banque Royale du Canada | Banking | 142 | N/A |
| Dupuy, Merove-Pierre & Co. | Insurance | Over 10 | N/A |
| Cabinet Lamarre | Legal | Over 10 | N/A |

Source: Adapted from F. Carl Braun and Capital Consult, Haiti Private Sector Demand for Management Training Programs, Port-au-Prince, 1984.



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On utilization of management training programs by the surveyed firms, it was found that:

- Although the need for management training is overwhelming, only a small number of firms were willing to invest in it or had budgeted for it.
- Only 8% of the firms made use of the programs offered at INAGHEI.
- Those firms that invested in management training did so mostly outside of the country, especially in the United States.
- Firms in general were not satisfied with, nor willing to use, the programs in Haiti.

The lack of budgeting for management training by most firms and their unwillingness to use local training facilities do not necessarily indicate that there is no demand for management training programs. All participating firms were acutely aware of the need for such programs. They were interested in allocating funds for effective programs and were sufficiently motivated by the changes in the ownership structure of their firms, from family ownership to corporate ownership, to be willing to hire more managers, provided they are well-trained to operate efficiently as decisionmakers.

In view of this interest in management training, firms were asked to indicate their preferences for program content (see Table 9.2) and course formats (some preferences for different types of formats are shown in Table 9 3). They prefer courses with definitive functional content that respond directly to firms' needs, such as cash flow analysis, general project preparation, working capital analysis, and pricing policies under the "Investment Analysis" category; management usage of computers, evaluating the financial performance of a firm on a continuing basis, and quality control, under the "Management" category; and market forecasting and U.S. market research under the "Marketing/Exporting" category.

They are more interested in short but intensive (one-half day to 3 days) seminars or workshops than in other instructional formats. Sixteen firms (67%) preferred short-term courses with an intensive seminar at the beginning, followed by monthly sessions over a 2- or 3-month period. Only nine firms (38%) indicated a preference for continuing education on a medium-term basis, with intensive courses at the outset followed by annual refresher courses.

Prospects for Management Development: The Public Sector. At the beginning of the first Five-Year Plan, 1972-1976, when the development movement started in a substantial way, the development of human resources became a national priority in the short as well as the long-term. In response to this national priority, a presidential decree of October 9, 1973, created the

TABLE 9.2

Seminar and Workshop Subjects Chosen by Managers and Owners

| Subjects | Type of Firm | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Export | Trade | Domestic Market | Services | Total |
| **Investment Analysis** | | | | | |
| General project preparation | 6 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 13 |
| Financial analysis | 4 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 9 |
| Loan application preparation | 4 | 3 | 3 | 1 | 11 |
| Cash flow analysis | 7 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 13 |
| Balance sheet preparation and analysis | 5 | 1 | 4 | 1 | 11 |
| Obtaining technological/equipment information | 4 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 7 |
| Evaluating joint ventures | 3 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 4 |
| Evaluating licensing agreements | 2 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 3 |
| Working capital analysis | 6 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 12 |
| Pricing policies | 6 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 12 |
| **Management** | | | | | |
| Time management | 6 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 10 |
| Negotiating contracts | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 7 |
| Evaluating the financial performance of a firm on a continuing basis | 5 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 13 |
| Small business management | 2 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 9 |
| Quality control | 9 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 12 |
| Inventory control | 6 | 1 | 3 | 0 | 10 |
| Accounting systems | 4 | 3 | 3 | 0 | 10 |
| Production management | 8 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 11 |
| Personnel management | 7 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 11 |
| Pricing for the local market | 2 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 6 |
| Export pricing | 5 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 6 |
| Management usage of computers/EDP | 8 | 3 | 3 | 1 | 15 |
| Setting piece-rates (time/motion studies) | 8 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 8 |
| **Market/Exporting** | | | | | |
| Market forecasting | 6 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 12 |
| Selling techniques | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 7 |
| U.S. market research | 7 | 1 | 3 | 1 | 12 |
| Haiti market research | 1 | 2 | 4 | 1 | 8 |
| Product promotion | 4 | 4 | 2 | 1 | 10 |
| Advertising | 3 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 5 |
| Developing a market strategy | 3 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 9 |
| Negotiating produce distribution agreements | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Export problems/risks | 3 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 5 |
| Finding U.S. partners | 5 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 7 |
| How U.S. departments/agencies can help | 6 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 9 |
| How to participate in trade shows | 2 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 3 |
| Penetrating the U.S. market | 4 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 8 |
| Setting up U.S. corporation | 5 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 8 |
| Tax/laws-customs regulations-import/export regulations of the U.S. | 4 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 7 |

Source: F. Carl Braun and the Capital Consult, Haiti Private Sector Demand for Management Training Programs, Port-au-Prince, 1984.

TABLE 9.3

Course Format Preferences of Managers and Owners

INTEREST IN SHORT-TERM CONTINUING COURSES(a)

| Sector | N | Yes | No | Don't Know/No Answer |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Export | 12 | 10 (83%) | 1 ( 8%) | 1 ( 8%) |
| Domestic | 5 | 3 (60%) | - | 2 (40%) |
| Trade | 4 | 1 (25%) | 2 (50%) | 1 (25%) |
| Services | 3 | 2 (67%) | - | 1 (33%) |
| Total | 24 | 16 (67%) | 3 (13%) | 5 (21%) |

INTEREST IN CONTINUING EDUCATION ON A MEDIUM TERM BASIS

| Sector | N | Yes | No/No Answer/Don't Know |
|---|---|---|---|
| Export | 12 | 4 (33%) | 8 (67%) |
| Domestic | 5 | 1 (20%) | 4 (80%) |
| Trade | 4 | 2 (50%) | 2 (50%) |
| Services | 3 | 2 (67%) | 2 (33%) |
| Total | 24 | 9 (38%) | 15 (67%) |

PERCEPTION OF IDEAL DURATION OF SEMINARS

| Sector | N | 1/2 Day | 1 Day | 2 Days | 3 Days |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| For Manager/Owner | | | | | |
| Export | 10 | 4 | - | 4 | 2 |
| Domestic | 2 | 2 | - | - | - |
| Trade | 4 | 1 | 1 | 2 | - |
| Services | 3 | - | 1 | 2 | - |
| Total | 19 | 7 (37%) | 2 (11%) | 8 (42%) | 2 (11%) |
| For upper/middle staff | | | | | |
| Export | 9 | 1 | 3 | 3 | 2 |
| Domestic | 3 | 2 | - | 1 | - |
| Trade | 4 | 1 | - | 3 | - |
| Services | 3 | - | 1 | - | 2 |
| Total | 19 | 4 (21%) | 4 (21%) | 7 (37%) | 4 (21%) |

(a) Topics/subjects most often mentioned (number of firms citing):

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Production management | 6 | Quality control | 5 |
| Cash flow analysis | 4 | Time management | 4 |
| Evaluating financial performance | 3 | Computers/EDP | 3 |
| | | Inventory control | 2 |

Source: F. Carl Braun and Capital Consult, Haiti Private Sector Demand for Management Training Programs, Port-au-Prince, 1984.



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National Institute for Professional Training (INFP) to plan and coordinate a national system for professional training.

The training of elementary education teachers is the responsibility of the National Pedagogical Institute (Institut Pédagogique National - IPN). This institute also provides continuing education for school administrators and supervisors. There is no program in Educational Administration to train educational managers at any level. At INAGHEI, some thought has been given to organizing a program in educational administration to address this need, but because of Haiti's relatively low absorptive capacity for such graduates the training would have to be offered on a revolving basis, alternating with an MBA program and training for health administrators.

The national system comprises several institutions providing mostly vocational/technical training for the industrial sector workers. One of the most important is the Pilot Center for Professional Training, which provides training in general mechanics, auto mechanics, electricity, metalwork, and related skills. The Model Center for Professional Improvement (Centre Model de Perfectionnement Professionnel - CMPP) coordinates continuing education for employees and independents. It is not a training unit. Under this national system of professional training, the Ministry of Social Affairs and the Ministry of Agriculture, Natural Resources, and Rural Development each provide a variety of professional and work-oriented training within their jurisdictions.

During the second Five-Year Plan, 1977-1981, an Administrative Commission was created to plan the course of the administrative reform. One of the Commission's priorities was the continuing education of public sector managers. It advocated the organization of short-term training seminars in some key administrative units like National Education, General Customs and Taxation, Agriculture, Health, and Public Works.

The Commission also endeavored to improve working conditions and the incentive structure. To meet these objectives it prepared a Teacher Charter Bill, creating a career path and salary levels by years of service and qualifications, which at this writing (December 1984) has been signed into law. A similar bill is pending for all the public administration employees--the statut unique.

The only higher education institution in this public system that offers management training is INAGHEI. Its profile is provided below in Section 9.1.3.

In summary, prospects for management development in the public and the private sectors indicate different needs in the two sectors. Some programs are narrowly conceived in terms of either sectoral or functional areas, with little

responsiveness to overall national management needs. There is an emphasis on the "recipe" types of programs and a distrust of traditional, formal, long-range training. There is also a need for continuing education for those already employed, and very little interest in institutional development for management training. In short, the approach to meeting needs for management development appears piecemeal and uncoordinated.

Management Participation Opportunity. Opportunities for training to meet short-term and limited needs are not sufficient to develop management capability. This training must be complimented and supported by opportunities for participation in management. In the course of this assessment, it became apparent that, despite the need for management training and experience, the opportunity for Haitians to participate in managing their own development is currently relatively limited.

The discussion of the administrative reform proposals in the present Five-Year Plan, 1982-1986, indicates a pervasive lack of an incentive structure. The public sector is characterized by arbitrary criteria for recruiting, promoting, and paying public administrators. This tends to discourage some competent persons from working in the public sector.

Since much of the bilateral assistance is now being channeled through private voluntary organizations, and since management opportunities appear limited in the public sector, it would seem that competent Haitian managers would find more and more opportunities in the private sector. However, the brief review of management development prospects among private businesses indicated a general distrust of Haitian managers.

To assess management opportunities among the private voluntary organizations, informal interviews--intensive but off-the-record--were conducted with high-ranking Haitians and expatriates. The results of these interviews show that Haitians face serious obstacles to participating in management positions. A year ago for example, an international private voluntary organization with four project directors had, for the first time, only one Haitian in one of these positions. This person had served 6 years in the organization. A similar organization that has been operating in Haiti for more than a decade has only one Haitian as an assistant director, and this organization has no long-range plans to nominate Haitians to assistantships or higher positions. This same pattern was found in other organizations visited.

At this point, it appears, these organizations are more interested in increasing the technical capacity of Haitians than their management capacity. Both multilateral and bilateral agencies have on-the-job training programs at the level of technicians involved in specific development projects. Such



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training is usually an integral part of a particular development activity and is not considered to be part of an overall management training program. Without long-range plans to promote Haitian managers, it is not clear whether increasing the technical capacity of Haitians is a prerequisite for their managerial promotion.

Some multilateral organizations indicated that in the past they conducted on-the-job training for some public managers in connection with specific development projects, but the practice has been discontinued. The reason given is that some trained Haitian managers demand higher salaries, commensurate with the salaries of their expatriate colleagues; if they are not satisfied, they leave to go elsewhere in Haiti or overseas. The agencies then refuse to incur further training investment costs which may have no return.

More systematic information is needed to support this assessment of the apparent limits on management opportunities for Haitians in these organizations. The trend, however, appears toward a continuing limitation on participation opportunity.

### 9.1.2 Goals and Strategies

National goals and strategies for management development that are derived from national management needs do not exist. The statements made below concerning such goals and strategies are those in regard to the administrative reform that are advocated in the current Five-Year Plan, 1982-1986. These remain, however, concepts without clear policies to implement them.

Goals. The overall long-range goal is to increase the efficiency of the Haitian public administration to make it responsive to the development challenge and resulting social transformations. Specific objectives are:

- Overhaul and reform public administration.
- Create and institutionalize a single statute governing all the public sector employees. This statute should define rights and obligations, recruitment, selection, promotion, and salary criteria for all employees from local to national levels.
- Improve the coordination of all the administrative branches.
- Introduce new stringent procedures of budgetary management and accountability in all branches.

Strategies. Approaches to be followed to attain these goals include the following:

- Initiate a comprehensive study of the entire public administration with a view toward its reorganization.
- Train public administrators at all levels.



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- Modernize the structure and the technology of the public management.

9.1.3 Institutions and Programs

The National Institute for Administration, Management, and Higher International Studies (INAGHEI) is the only specialized public institution of management training in Haiti. Some training is also offered through private programs, including some academic institutions awaiting accreditation. For example, the newly created International University of Haiti (IUH) has a school of Business Administration and Economics. However, training fitted to the daily needs of business activities does not seem to be readily available.

9.1.3.1 INAGHEI

Administration. INAGHEI is under the Rectorate of the State University of Haiti, but depends on the Ministry of Finance for its budget. The Institute offers degree programs in Political Science, Public Administration, Management, and Accounting. It is administered by a Dean, a Director of Studies, a Secretary General, and an Academic Secretary. Each degree program is headed by a Coordinator.

Students. At the beginning of the 1983/84 academic year there were 1,020 students (600 men and 420 women). Most of them (659) attended evening sessions as part-time students, and the rest (361) were full-time students. No information was available on enrollments or graduates by program or gender, nor were data yet available for the 1984/85 academic year. Forms are being prepared to collect this information for the first time since the Institute was created in 1973. According to the Dean, there are no resources to establish a competent research and development capability at INAGHEI.

There are three categories of student admission; admission is based on passing an entrance examination, having a university degree, or professional experience. Applicants with a high school diploma must pass an entrance examination administered by the Institute in September. They are tested in four subjects: general culture, general history, Haitian history, and mathematics. Those who pass are admitted into the preparatory first year. Applicants with a university degree, who want to improve their qualifications and/or change their career, are tested only in general culture before admission. Those who pass are admitted directly into the program of their choice by skipping the preparatory year. Applicants with a high school diploma and at least 5 years of professional experience are tested only in general culture before being admitted into the preparatory first year.

Academic Staff. The academic staff includes 62 instructors--56 Haitians and six provided through bilateral assistance by Canada and France. This staff



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has comparatively low academic qualifications; more than 50% have no qualifications beyond the first university degree.

Curriculum. The Institute awards three types of degrees. A Licence is awarded in Public Administration, Management and Accounting, Political Science, and International Relations. This degree requires 90 credits, and it takes up to 4 years (including the preparatory year) of full-time studies. A Diplome is awarded only in Accounting to a special class of professional accountants trained in the secondary technical schools. It requires 60 credits, and may take 3 to 4 years of full-time studies. A Certificat is awarded in Management, Public Administration, and Political Science. It requires 30 credits, and may take up to 2 years of part-time studies.

Since 1977, INAGHEI has introduced continuing education programs ranging from 1 week to 4 months which are coordinated by two committees representing the public and the private sectors. The University of Ottawa assists with guest lecturers. Specific programs are tailored to satisfy the demand. About 65% of participants have come from the private sector. Information on the total enrollment in these programs is not available, but it appears to be lower than might be expected. The Institute has no research and development capacity to follow the participants in these programs and assess their effectiveness. The demand for these courses comes from both the employees and their employers.

Quality of Instruction. Assessing the quality of instruction is difficult in the absence of relevant information. The relatively low level of the qualifications of the teaching faculty is a known factor that casts doubt on the quality of instruction; as indicated above, the majority of instructors have no qualifications beyond the first university degree. Comparable information indicates that the IUH faculty possess better academic qualifications than that of INAGHEI. For example, the majority of instructors at the IUH possess Masters' degrees.

This low level of qualification of the INAGHEI teaching staff limits the range of programs that can be provided. Furthermore, the majority of the teaching staff is hired on a part-time basis. This restricts their opportunities to upgrade their qualifications, and they have neither the necessary training nor the time to do research. Most of them have more than one job in a single day and, thus, cannot devote their full time to teaching and related duties.

Facilities and Equipment. INAGHEI's authorities reported that the lack of sufficient facilities makes it impossible to satisfy the training demand; the most serious shortcoming is lack of equipment. Authorities expressed great need for information-processing equipment. The inadequacy of data for

monitoring the progress of the Institute is attributed to the lack of computer capacity.

Costs and Financing. The operating budget provided by Government for FY 1984 is estimated at about $500,000. The UNDP data for 1983 show that INAGHEI also received $227,400 from the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), and $934,000 from the parent University of Ottawa. This assistance was used to pay four technical advisors and to help reorganize and upgrade teaching modules in management.

Student contributions are $35 annually for full-time registration. Continuing education courses and those in Accounting cost about $50 for 45 hours of instruction. Most employees attending these courses receive some financial assistance from their employers. Students do not buy textbooks; these are loaned to them until the end of the semester, and credits are suspended for those who fail to return their textbooks. Authorities plan to raise registration fees to help meet rising costs of operations.

9.1.3.2 Private Programs

A variety of training courses having some application to management are, or have been, available from private sources. These range from university-level academic institutions awaiting accreditation to small private organizations offering short-term courses in such subjects as accounting. This aspect of potential training for management is discussed in more detail in Chapter 8, Higher Education.

The International University of Haiti (Centre Universitaire d'Haïti - IUH) is a private institution established in 1979. It became operational in 1982 and is awaiting accreditation, upon evaluation of its first graduation classes. It has a School of Business Administration and Economics within its 4-year academic program. The School offers courses for full- and part-time students in such subjects as general management, personnel management, cost accounting, and project analysis. Current enrollment in the School is about 40 students.

Another private institution awaiting accreditation is the Commercial and Economic Institute of Higher Studies (L'Institut des Hautes Etudes Commerciales et Economiques - IHECE), which provides continuing education programs for both public sector and private sector students. Administered like a university, IHECE offers a variety of courses in general management, accounting, macroeconomics, and quantitative analysis, with an emphasis upon planning, financial management, and personnel management. The average enrollment in this 4-year program is 250, many of them public sector employees who are returning students.



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Other specialized institutions have provided some training for administrative personnel (e.g., the Customs School; the National School of Financial Administration, which operated during 1978-82), and various courses have been offered by private organizations. Analyses of these offerings was beyond the scope of this assessment.

## 9.2 ANALYSIS

The status of management development in Haiti offers many challenges. The current lack of management training opportunities should not lead to discouragement and inaction, especially with regard to the public sector. The situation is both a challenge to Government and an opportunity for donors to use their influence to enhance the development of human resources in management for both the public and the private sectors. Activities should focus on several basic needs:

- public commitment to management development,
- localization of management in the private sector,
- better management training programs.

### 9.2.1 Needs

Public Commitment to Management Development. This commitment could be shown most convincingly by implementing the pending administrative and civil service reforms. These reforms are needed to foster the efficient management of public institutions by improving working conditions and the incentive structure for public employees. Such improvements would expand management opportunities in Government and encourage competent Haitian managers to enter and stay in the public sector.

Estimates of the ability to implement these reforms suggest two possible courses of action for donors. The first course would be for donors to assume that the reforms are imminent and that they can help expedite the implementation of these improvements. The action implications of this approach are significant; to improve and strengthen present management training programs in the public sector becomes the most economical first step to make use of resources already invested.

The second course, if donors believe that the administrative and civil service reforms are not likely, at least in the short run, is that donors must explore alternative investment opportunities with new programs in the private sector while continuing to encourage public commitment.

Localization of Management in the Private Sector. The earlier discussion of management participation opportunity indicated that management opportunities for Haitians in the private sector are limited, especially in the private

voluntary organizations. At this time, these organizations do not appear to have specific plans to localize the management of their development projects. There is a need not only for management job opportunities for Haitians but also for a national policy that encourages localization of management. Recent World Bank documents on management training in developing countries (Staff Working Papers 584, 585) suggest that such a policy must exist if management training is to materialize. Such a policy would provide guidance for planning training programs and help to avoid piecemeal and ad hoc approaches to managerial development. Implementation of such a policy might encourage PVOs to consider the localization issue when they are making training and staffing decisions.

Better Management Training Programs. Present training programs are characterized by low instructional quality and low external efficiency. Better alternative programs are needed, if present ones cannot be improved. Such programs, for donors who have settled on the second course of action mentioned above, can best be instituted in the private sector. In a recent project planning paper, USAID concludes that the best way to invest in management training would be to create a private management training center. It is expected that this type of institution would train sufficient numbers of competent Haitian managers to meet the needs of the private sector. This achievement could help the private sector take the lead in management training and ultimately influence similar improvements in the public sector.

An important challenge is to make the best possible use of resources already invested in the public sector programs. Even if the desired public service reforms were not forthcoming, Haiti would be better off with something than with nothing; attention would then be best concentrated on strengthening the public programs already initiated or contemplated.

### 9.2.2 Plans

The current Five-Year Plan, 1982-1986, provides for the training of public functionaries and employees. Comparable plans were not evident for the private sector.

According to the Plan, the objective of training in the public sector (Formation et Perfectionnement des Fonctionnaires et Employés Publics) is to supply to this sector, from the local to the national levels, competent managers and employees. This training is also to be a mechanism for the recruitment and promotion of the public personnel. Priority will be given to upper-level managers. The Administrative Commission, responsible for the administrative reform, will coordinate all training activities in the public sector. The Commission will also endeavor to coordinate this training with the

national system of professional training mentioned earlier. The Commission will be assisted by INAGHEI.

During this Plan period (1982-86) major training programs are to consist of study cycles, workshops, seminars in the field, and scholarships to study abroad. These programs are distributed as follows:

- Six study sessions of 4 months each to train agents assigned to the commune level. Two sessions each year are planned.
- Three study sessions of 3 months each to train Prefect agents. One session each year is planned.
- Three study cycles of 4 months each to train specialists in budget management. One cycle each year is planned.
- Five study cycles of 4 months each to train special agents in personnel management. One cycle each year is planned.
- Five study cycles of 4 months each to train specialists in organizational management and methods. One cycle each year is planned.
- Five study sessions of 5 months each to train technicians in project preparation and evaluation. One session each year is planned.
- Three study cycles of 6 months each to train technicians in regional, sectoral, and national planning. One cycle each year is planned.

The Administrative Commission is to organize some 20 field seminars as required by the administrative reform. Seminars will range from 1 to 4 weeks according to each field concerned. The Ministry of Planning is to coordinate overseas study scholarships determined by the needs of upper-level managers in various public institutions.

These plans do not inspire optimism. The third year of the Five-Year Plan is well under way and very little progress has been recorded concerning implementation of these plans.

### 9.2.3 Constraints

Management development depends on existing opportunities for training and participating in management. At present these opportunities appear quite limited in Haiti. The constraints seem to vary in significance between the public and the private sectors. There are political and ideological dimensions to these constraints.

The Public Sector. The fundamental constraint in the public sector is lack of strong policy commitment by public authorities to implement administrative and civil service reforms which have been advocated since 1949.

Budgetary and incentive factors diminish the ability of this sector to attract and retain competent managers. Comparatively lower public sector



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salaries cause some managers to leave for higher salaries in the private sectors. This salary discrepancy probably discourages some potential managers from even entering the public sector. The net effect is that only a few public managers remain, and the pressure of increasing development activities is straining the capacity of this small group. The long awaited statut unique is expected to remedy this situation by improving the supply and the retention rate of more competent managers.

Management opportunity is also restricted structurally. For political reasons managerial decisionmaking is highly centralized. Because of this centralization, middle-level managers have little or no opportunity to develop and exercise their managerial skills.

The Private Sector. In contrast to the public sector the private sector provides better job rewards and security. Given the level of development assistance that takes place within this sector, one might expect that management participation opportunity for Haitians would be optimal and that this would attract competent managers from the public sector. However, private businesses tend to hire foreign managers. So far, limited management opportunity has been made available to Haitians in the major international private voluntary organizations, even though these are essentially charitable organizations whose activities focus on helping the destitute. A significant level of development activities is channeled through these organizations. Like all organizations, they have an interest in their survival, and this may make it difficult for them to share responsibilities with Haitians or to consciously plan to restrict their own future domain. To voluntarily localize their activities can easily become a continually postponed objective.

It is also possible that, because some of these organizations are working with the local people who are least skilled and most in need of help, they may unconsciously develop paternalistic attitudes. Paternalism arises from the premise that the destitute are helpless and incapable of managing their own affairs. Organizations trying to meet the most basic needs may give little attention to the idea of bringing the recipients to the level of self-sufficiency and enabling them to carry on the development processes long after outside intervention has ended. Without a definite program to train Haitians, there will be no competent Haitians to take over--and thus the continuing presence of the intervening organizations will be justified. Paradoxically, external assistance is widely regarded as necessary for development, but it can also be a limiting influence (e.g., in management development).

9.2.4 Issues

The interaction of needs, plans, and constraints results in three types of issues. They are discussed under the thematic headings of external efficiency, internal efficiency, and access and equity.

External Efficiency. To examine external efficiency, information is needed on the kinds of training that are in demand, as indicated by a manpower survey. This would provide a realistic basis for deciding the best ways to provide this training.

Similarly, to obtain a basis for planning INAGHEI's contributions to the sector, information is needed on estimated and actual graduation rates, compared with projected manpower needs and management demands. Information on graduate placement should include occupational trends and income. In addition, information is needed on the continuing education of graduates, to assess the relevance of their formal training to their occupational settings. No such data are available for INAGHEI.

Survey and interview results reviewed above indicated that the attitude of the private sector was generally negative toward INAGHEI, which was regarded as being concerned with public sector administrative activities. As noted earlier, an innovative project in continuing education for upper- and middle-level managers was developed by the Inter-American Development Bank in collaboration with INAGHEI. The course was to serve as a basis for orienting managers to possible special courses in functional areas to be offered later at INAGHEI, but the follow-up cycle was never executed. This experience raised a question about the relevance of INAGHEI's programs to local business needs.

Internal Efficiency. Here too, the information needed to examine the level of efficiency is not available, especially for INAGHEI's student flow and quality of instruction. The low-level qualifications of INAGHEI instructors raises doubts about the quality of instruction and programs. The fact that over half of the instructors have no academic qualifications beyond their first university degree seriously restricts the range of quality programs that can be provided.

Access and Equity. INAGHEI, and such other management training facilities as are available, are located in Port-au-Prince. This means that access to this training is not available to a large proportion of Haitians. There is little prospect of remedy for this situation at this time.

Males are overrepresented (59%) among both full-time and part-time students at INAGHEI, suggesting that gender may be a factor restricting applications and/or admissions. Males and females constitute 58% and 42% of the full-time students, and 59% and 41% of the part-time students. No data are

available on distribution by program to indicate how the gender differences are distributed, nor are there any data on regional or socioeconomic representation.

Administration and Supervision. Once the results from a manpower survey become available to provide a basis for considering options, there will be a need to develop in-country capacity to plan management training in response to the country's needs. The planning should be on a long-term basis, and it should cover both the public and the private sectors. The capacity to do this planning does not presently exist.

Costs and Financing. Here again, there is need for information to determine what current costs are, especially in relation to what level of training is being provided. Full information on current programs is a prerequisite for planning the best use of available resources, especially to avoid possible duplication of training in some areas while other areas are left uncovered.

## 9.3 CONCLUSIONS

Within the limitations of the information available for this assessment, the following conclusions can be drawn:

Conclusion 1 - Limited Opportunity

Opportunities for training and participation in management appear to be more limited in both the public and the private sectors than would be expected, given the high level of development assistance.

Conclusion 2 - Training

Management training programs appear to be of low quality and not diversified enough to meet the needs of the public and the private sectors.

Conclusion 3 - Localization

There is no significant localization of management in the private sector, especially among the private voluntary organizations.

## 9.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

Recommendation 1 - Reforms. Secure the implementation of the administrative and civil service reforms.

Timely implementation of these reforms by Government would broaden the base of management capability in the public sector and enhance opportunities for Haitians in the field of management. Progress in this direction has already been made through recent passage of two laws--the 1984 Loi Organique and the Teachers Charter. The first reorganizes the Ministry of Education; the



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second provides for recruitment, promotion, and salary criteria for the elementary education teachers in the context of the Education Reform. The implementation of these laws constitutes a real test of the policy commitment of Government to institute meaningful reforms. Helping to secure such reforms on a national basis is, similarly, a test of donors' commitment to such policies.

The economic consequences of securing these reforms would be enormous, in that they would make possible the improvement of present public institutions. Training programs could be consolidated and adapted to meet the needs of both the public and the private sectors. This could bring about a more efficient allocation of resources as well as result in training programs targeted to meet specific needs for management in both sectors.

Recommendation 2 - Alternatives. Encourage and support alternative programs in the private sector.

Alternative intermediate possibilities should be explored in the private sector. INAGHEI is not a good prospect for investment as it is currently operating. Existing plans for alternative donor investment in the private sector could give this sector the lead in management training, which might eventually influence management training within the public sector. The reality of such expectations as the proposed USAID Management and Productivity Center should encourage the private sector, especially the private voluntary organizations, to adapt policies of timely localization of management. Securing such a commitment would be equivalent to securing the administrative reforms in the public sector. If this could be done, then it would be a viable alternative to management training in the public sector.

Recommendation 3 - Localization. Localize management in Haiti.

Private voluntary organizations should survey management opportunities for Haitians working for them and make specific, timely proposals to localize the management of development projects.



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*Chapitre*

# 10

Chapter

## *Enseignement Technique et Professionnel*

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## Vocational and Technical Education

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## AVANT PROPOS

Le chapitre 10, "Enseignement Technique et Professionnel," a été revu et corrigé à Port-au-Prince le 6 avril 1986 par Mr. Jean-Marie Lumarque, Directeur adjoint de l'Institut National de Formation Professionnelle (INFP), avec la collaboration de Mr. Peter Easton, AMESED/Florida State University.

La première partie de la séance fut consacrée à des corrections de détail et de présentation statistique. Celles-ci ont été incorporées au texte du document.

Mr. Lumarque estimait que la présentation était juste dans l'ensemble et qu'elle offrait un aperçu utile de la situation du système de formation technique et professionnelle en fin 1984. Il a néanmoins regretté qu'il n'ait pas été possible d'inclure dans le document davantage de renseignements sur la situation des instituts privés de formation technique et professionnelle et a souhaité que de futures évaluations de ce type comportent des enquêtes plus approfondies sur le secteur privé.

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## 10.0 ENSEIGNEMENT TECHNIQUE ET PROFESSIONNEL

L'enseignement technique et professionnel est défini ici comme des cours, des cycles d'enseignement, ou des stages pratiques de niveau secondaire qui :

- exigent un certain niveau de formation académique préalable,
- sont sanctionnés par un certificat ou un diplôme, et
- sont conçus pour donner aux participants des compétences techniques directement utilisables sur le marché de l'emploi.

On distingue souvent la formation professionnelle, orientée vers un emploi immédiat, de l'enseignement technique qui transmet des connaissances scientifiques plus générales, prépare l'étudiant à une variété d'emplois et peut lui permettre de poursuivre sa formation à un niveau supérieur. Cette distinction correspond très approximativement à la différence entre l'enseignement technique du premier degré et celui du second degré dans le système haïtien.

Les différentes formes d'enseignement technique et professionnel en Haïti peuvent être classés en s'appuyant sur deux caractéristiques fondamentales de ces écoles : d'une part, le secteur économique concerné et d'autre part la source de financement. Sur le premier plan, il s'agit de tenir compte de la branche de l'économie pour laquelle le programme prépare ses étudiants :

1. production primaire (agriculture, élevage, aménagement du territoire, exploitation minière, etc.) ;
2. industries de transformation et de traitement (artisanat et manufacture) ; et
3. les services (commerce, fonction publique, administration, services sociaux).

La distinction souvent faite entre les domaines "moderne" et "traditionnel" de l'économie recoupe ce classement en ce sens que les méthodes dites modernes et traditionnelles peuvent être utilisées aussi bien dans l'agriculture que dans l'industrie manufacturière.

Sur le second plan, les sources de financement se divisent en deux catégories principales : les sources publiques (gouvernementales) et les sources privées (non gouvernementales). A l'intérieur du secteur public, on trouve à la fois les programmes financés par le Ministère de l'Education et ceux exécutés par d'autres ministères ou instituts publics. Le secteur privé est encore plus diversifié : il englobe comme catégories distinctes tous les organismes non gouvernementaux (religieux et/ou philanthropiques), les entreprises industrielles et les institutions de formation à but lucratif. Les donateurs bilatéraux et multilatéraux apportent également des sources de financement

importantes à l'enseignement technique et professionnel, mais ils ont tendance à intervenir indirectement par le biais d'autres organismes d'assistance directe.

Le croisement de ces deux caractéristiques--branche de l'économie visée et source de financement--aboutit à une grille d'analyse qui permet de faire l'inventaire des diverses formes d'enseignement technique et professionnel en Haïti.

## 10.1 SITUATION ACTUELLE

Par le passé, le gouvernement a fait très peu pour développer l'enseignement professionnel ; cependant, au cours des années 50 et 60 des instituts privés d'enseignement technique ont commencé à faire leur apparition. A partir de 1970 le secteur industriel a connu un certain essor et la formation technique est devenue plus importante. L'Institut National de Formation Professionnelle (INFP) a été créé en 1973 et des efforts ont été entrepris pour rénover le petit réseau d'écoles publiques de formation professionnelle qui existaient à travers le pays. Cependant Haïti est entré dans les années 1980, doté d'un appareil de formation professionnelle peu développé dont le rapport avec le système d'éducation formelle n'avait jamais été défini de façon satisfaisante. La formation aux métiers industriels et commerciaux avait pris de l'importance grâce à la croissance de l'économie urbaine, mais la plus grande partie de cette formation était le fait du secteur privé (près de 80% des instituts de formation étaient privés en 1981/82).

L'enseignement technique et professionnel doit désormais être analysé dans le cadre de la Réforme de l'Education. L'une des idées de la Réforme est de développer l'enseignement technique au niveau secondaire et d'orienter davantage d'étudiants vers la formation professionnelle.

Il y a deux sortes d'écoles techniques dirigées par le Ministère de l'Education et l'INFP (désormais considéré comme la direction d'enseignement technique et professionnel du Ministère). Les écoles d'enseignement technique du premier degré préparent des élèves ayant terminé l'école primaire à devenir des ouvriers qualifiés après un cycle de formation de quatre ans. Les écoles d'enseignement technique du second degré forment des élèves, ayant neuf ou dix années de scolarité, à des emplois de techniciens au moyen d'un programme s'étendant sur trois ou quatre ans. D'autres ministères et instituts publics s'occupent de la formation de cadres techniques sur la base de leurs propres besoins.

Il n'y a aucune structure unifiée d'administration dans le secteur privé, quoique les deux-tiers des instituts privés de formation soient placés sous la tutelle théorique d'un ministère. Quelques organismes religieux ont mis en

place des petits réseaux d'écoles techniques à travers le pays. Les programmes de formation techniques au sein des industries sont peu nombreux à l'heure actuelle et dépendent des entreprises individuelles concernées. Les instituts à but lucratif comptent entièrement sur leurs propres moyens.

La seule étude d'ensemble récente concernant l'enseignement technique et professionnel a été réalisée par l'Unité de Planification du Ministère de l'Education Nationale et a porté sur l'année scolaire 1981/82. Une sélection des résultats globaux est présentée dans les Tableaux 10.1 (institutions) et 10.2 (diplômés). Dans cette étude les instituts professionnels et techniques sont répartis en trois groupes : écoles techniques, écoles de commerce, et centres d'enseignement ménager. Les données recueillies permettent de faire les quatre observations suivantes :

- Les centres ménagers constituent de loin la catégorie la plus nombreuse car ils représentent 78% des instituts de formation et 68% des inscriptions totales. A peu près tous les étudiants inscrits sont des filles (96%). (A noter que le Tableau 10.2 indique les diplômés et non les inscrits.)
- Le nombre des écoles privées est supérieur au nombre des écoles publiques dans toutes les catégories et représentent 79% de l'ensemble des instituts. En 1981 il n'existait pas d'écoles de commerce publiques de niveau secondaire.
- Il y a deux fois plus d'écoles et trois fois plus d'étudiants dans le Département de l'Ouest que dans n'importe quel autre département du pays.
- Dans l'ensemble, 79% des inscrits sont de sexe féminin. Les femmes représentent presque la totalité des inscriptions (96%) des centres ménagers et la majorité (74%) des inscriptions dans les écoles de commerce. Cependant, dans les écoles techniques, les femmes représentent une faible minorité (9% des inscriptions).

La formation technique et professionnelle dans le secteur primaire de l'économie (agriculture, élevage, aménagement du territoire, exploitation des mines, etc.) a retenu relativement peu d'attention. Cette situation serait dûe en partie au fait que très peu de candidats à l'enseignement technique secondaire viennent des régions rurales ou voudraient y travailler.

Les quelques programmes de formation qui existent dans le secteur primaire de l'économie sont pris en charge par deux types de sources de financement : Certains ministères du gouvernement ont des écoles pour former leur propre personnel technique, le Ministère de l'Agriculture en particulier. Dans le

secteur privé, quelques organismes missionaires forment des jeunes des régions rurales aux techniques améliorées d'agriculture. Le Ministère de l'Education n'organise aucune formation professionnelle en matière d'agriculture, et les sociétés commerciales ne subventionnent presque pas d'institution de formation dans ce domaine. Pour le moment les perspectives d'emploi sont trop limitées pour encourager l'établissement d'institutions à but lucratif dans le domaine de la formation de techniciens agricoles.

Les efforts déployés par le gouvernement en matière de formation technique tendent surtout à satisfaire les besoins en main-d'oeuvre de l'industrie de traitement et de transformation (artisanat, manufacture, industrie). Le Ministère de l'Education supervise neuf écoles secondaires techniques du premier degré et quatre du second degré. Quelques organismes privés ont également pris des initiatives dans ce domaine. C'est un secteur où le capital initial requis et les coûts d'opportunité des enseignants qualifiés sont tous les deux très élevés.

Tableau 10.1

Instituts de formation professionnelle et technique par secteur et par type, 1981/82

| Institutions | Publiques | Privées | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| Ecoles Techniques | 18 | 38 | 56 |
| Ecoles Commerciales | 0 | 51 | 51 |
| Centres d'enseignement ménager | 86 | 304 | 390 |
| Total | 104 | 393 | 497 |

Source : Unité de Planification, Ministère de l'Education Nationale.

Deux écoles techniques du second degré--le Centre Pilote de Formation Professionnelle (CPFP) et le Centre de Formation Professionnelle d'Haïti (CFPH) --sont bien équipées et ont un personnel qualifié grâce, en partie, au soutien constant dont ils bénéficient de la part des organismes donateurs qui les ont fondées. Les deux autres instituts publics du second degré--l'école J.B. Damier et l'école Elie Dubois--sont moins bien nanties. Le programme des écoles du second degré met davantage l'accent sur les travaux pratiques que celui des écoles techniques du premier degré. L'inscription à ces écoles est gratuite à l'exception du CFPH où le droit d'inscription est de 100 dollars et la scolarité de 30 dollars par mois. Environ 60% des étudiants qui commencent le programme obtiennent un diplôme ou un certificat à la fin de leurs études.

L'industrie, les organismes non gouvernementaux (ONG) et les autres instituts d'enseignement technique privés s'occupent davantage de la formation dans le secteur industriel que dans le secteur agricole, bien que leurs efforts

Tableau 10.2

Diplômés de l'enseignement professionnel et technique par secteur et par sexe, 1981/82

| Institutions | Publiques | Privées | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| Ecoles Techniques | | | |
| Garçons | 277 | 192 | 469 |
| Filles | 18 | 0 | 18 |
| Sous-total | 295 | 192 | 487 |
| Ecoles Commerciales | | | |
| Garçons | 0 | 324 | 324 |
| Filles | 0 | 734 | 734 |
| Sous-total | 0 | 1,058 | 1,058 |
| Centres Ménager | | | |
| Garçons | 4 | 0 | 4 |
| Filles | 585 | 2,413 | 2,998 |
| Sous-total | 589 | 2,413 | 3,002 |
| Total | | | |
| Garçons | 281 | 516 | 797 |
| Filles | 603 | 3,147 | 3,750 |
| TOTAL | 884 | 3,663 | 4,547 |

Source : Unité de Planification, Ministère de l'Education Nationale.

soient très disparates et difficiles à résumer ou quantifier.

Quant au secteur tertiaire de l'économie (commerce, administration, services sociaux), on peut dire que le gouvernement participe massivement aux formations qui débouchent sur ce domaine dans la mesure où presque tout l'enseignement primaire et secondaire classique constitue en quelque sorte une formation technique qui prépare à un emploi salarié dans l'administration publique ou privée. Le gouvernement subventionne aussi des programmes de formation pour les employés de l'industrie touristique et pour le personnel médical. Il y a beaucoup d'instituts privés de formation dans le secteur tertiaire. Ceux qui prédominent sont les écoles de commerce et de secrétariat et les centres ménagers.

## 10.2 CONTRAINTES

Les efforts pour améliorer l'enseignement technique et professionnel en Haïti doivent s'accommoder des difficultés suivantes :

- une économie très dualiste comprenant un secteur moderne hautement centré sur la capitale, et un marché de l'emploi incapable d'absorber une augmentation majeure d'ouvriers techniquement qualifiés ;
- un système de taxation de la production nationale caractérisé par un manque d'efficacité et d'équité et un budget national incapable de faire face à toute augmentation des frais de fonctionnement ;
- l'absence d'un cadre administratif efficace, susceptible de

concilier les priorités des sections compétentes du gouvernement, et des divers programmes de formation financés par le secteur privé avec les intérêts des employeurs éventuels ;

- un manque de personnel qualifié pour s'occuper de l'analyse des besoins en main-d'oeuvre et l'élaboration des programmes de formation technique et professionnelle ;
- un secteur privé qui se méfie de l'ingérence du gouvernement et préfère agir indépendamment ; et
- une carence de données concernant le marché de l'emploi, le devenir des diplômés, les abandons dans les programmes existants, et la nature des programmes offerts par les instituts privés de formation.

## 10.3 PROBLEMES

Etant donné la diversité de l'enseignement technique et professionnel et l'absence de données relatives à certains aspects du système, il est difficile de formuler des jugements d'ensemble. Cependant, les problèmes suivants peuvent être notés.

Efficacité externe. La performance des diplômés sur le marché de l'emploi est un indice important de la pertinence de leur formation. L'efficacité externe de la formation technique dans le secteur primaire de l'économie est extrêmement basse. Auparavant les diplômés avaient la possibilité de travailler comme agents ou techniciens du gouvernement ; ce dernier ne peut plus engager de personnel et il y a peu d'autres emplois disponibles.

Dans le secteur secondaire de l'économie, les programmes de formation offerts par les instituts publics sont caractérisés par une meilleure emprise sur le marché de l'emploi. Les diplômés des écoles techniques du second degré (CPFP, CFPH, J.B. Damier) trouvent généralement du travail, ou arrivent à s'établir à leur propre compte. Il faut noter cependant que beaucoup d'entre eux émigrent tôt ou tard, en particulier ceux qui sont spécialisés dans des branches techniques où la demande est très forte. Le taux de réussite parmi les diplômés des écoles techniques du premier degré n'est pas aussi élevé, quoique ceux qui sont issus des instituts dirigés par des missions fassent peut-être exception à la règle. Il y a très peu d'emplois disponibles pour des jeunes gens ayant le niveau de qualification que ces écoles fournissent et ils n'ont généralement pas les moyens de s'établir à leur propre compte. On ne dispose pas d'informations concernant le marché de l'emploi pour les diplômés des écoles de commerce et de secrétariat, bien que l'importance du nombre de ces derniers laisse supposer une demande relativement forte.

Efficacité interne. Il n'existe pas en Haïti d'examens standardisés qui



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puissent permettre d'estimer la quantité et la qualité des connaissances effectivement acquises par les étudiants des écoles techniques. On peut se faire une première idée de la qualité de l'enseignement en évaluant la qualité des moyens mis en oeuvre (enseignants, matériel, équipement). De façon générale les écoles techniques et professionnelles sont trop peu nombreuses et trop mal équipées en personnel et en matériel pour accueillir de manière efficace une portion significative des élèves sortant des écoles primaires et secondaires. Plus de 50.000 élèves ont terminé l'école primaire en 1984, mais il y avait moins de 2.000 places disponibles dans les écoles techniques et professionnelles du premier degré (par rapport à 35.000 places dans la première année du secondaire général). En 1983/84, plus de 120.000 élèves étaient inscrits dans les écoles secondaires générales (22.000 d'entre eux dans des écoles publiques) et 12.000 seulement dans des écoles techniques du secondaire qu'elles soient publiques ou privées (exception faite des centres ménagers). La concurrence est très forte pour l'admission dans les écoles techniques du second degré. La demande semble plus faible au niveau du premier degré, mais dépasse cependant le nombre de places disponibles.

Le niveau de compétence technique et professionnelle acquis dans les instituts publics de formation est généralement très bas. Les deux instituts subventionnés par l'aide extérieure offrent une formation de meilleure qualité, bien qu'il pourrait leur être reproché d'être un peu trop académiques et spécialisés par rapport au profil des postes disponibles. Il est difficile d'évaluer la qualité de l'enseignement dans les instituts privés de formation à cause de leur diversité et du manque de données les concernant. Le public tend de plus en plus à croire que ces instituts promettent beaucoup plus qu'ils n'offrent en réalité.

Les centres de formation mis en place par les ONG, les missions ou les congrégations religieuses semblent avoir un niveau d'efficacité interne plus élevé que les autres instituts privés.

Accessibilité et équité. De façon générale, la formation technique est profondément dominée par les différences de sexe. Les filles représentaient seulement 8,7% des inscriptions dans les écoles techniques en 1981 (bien qu'elles constituaient près des trois-quarts de l'effectif des écoles de commerce et de secrétariat) et pourtant la majorité des ouvriers d'usine en Haïti sont des femmes. Les quelques filles inscrites dans les écoles techniques sont toutes spécialisées dans l'artisanat. Même dans les écoles de commerce, où les filles représentent la grande majorité de l'effectif, la branche la plus spécialisée (comptabilité) est monopolisée par les garçons (68%).

Les possibilités de formation sont inéquitablement réparties par région.



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Le nombre de places disponibles par millier d'habitants dans le Département de l'Ouest (3,43) est plus de trois fois supérieur à la moyenne de cet indice pour le reste du pays (1,06). En outre, les instituts publics et privés de formation technique sont presque tous concentrés dans les régions urbaines.

Administration et contrôle. Il n'y a pas d'institution publique centrale qui soit capable de coordonner la grande diversité des programmes de formation technique subventionnés par le gouvernement, ni d'inventorier les efforts du secteur privé de façon précise. Il n'existe pas non plus de système standardisé au niveau national pour agréer les instituts privés de formation technique, ni pour contrôler et sanctionner les connaissances acquises par leurs élèves. On observe également une absence de structures qui permettraient d'associer les employeurs aux décisions prises quant au contenu des programmes de formation et quant aux politiques de recrutement et de placement des élèves. Jusqu'à une date récente, il n'existait pas de législation sociale régissant l'échelle des salaires ou le droit du travail, même au niveau de la fonction publique.

Coûts et financement. L'enseignement technique et professionnel de bonne qualité coûte cher par rapport aux autres types de formation. Un fort coût unitaire (par étudiant) ajouté aux taux d'abandon rend les coûts par diplômé extrêmement élevés, dépassant 7.000 dollars dans certains cas. En dépit de sa cherté, l'enseignement technique et professionnel peut être rentable, tant au niveau social qu'au niveau individuel, dans les secteurs productifs de l'économie et peut remplir des fonctions secondaires importantes. Pour assurer cette rentabilité, un meilleur contrôle et une meilleure coordination s'avèrent nécessaires. Mais ils sont difficiles à assurer en raison des contraintes budgétaires. En principe, l'INFP est financé à partir des revenus produits par une "taxe d'apprentissage" imposée à toutes les entreprises privées. Cette taxe n'est cependant pas perçue systématiquement et les revenus sont versés au Trésor plutôt qu'à l'INFP, qui n'en reçoit qu'une faible proportion par l'intermédiaire du Ministère de l'Education.

## 10.4 CONCLUSIONS

Les conclusions suivantes sont basées sur les informations et analyses présentées ci-dessus.

Conclusion 1 - Sous-développement du système. L'enseignement technique et professionnel est insuffisamment développé, en raison, à la fois du peu de prestige dont jouissent traditionnellement les occupations manuelles et techniques dans le milieu haïtien et de la faible demande pour ce type de compétences constaté jusqu'à récemment sur le marché de l'emploi. Les

programmes de formation dans le secteur public sont peu nombreux, à portée très limitée, éparpillés dans plusieurs ministères et peu coordonnés entre eux.

Conclusion 2 - Faible efficacité. L'efficacité interne du système public d'enseignement est très faible. Seule une proportion infime des élèves sortant de l'école primaire y trouvent une place et le taux d'abandon est élevé. A l'exception de trois centres fondés et soutenus en grande partie par l'aide étrangère, les instituts publics de formation technique sont pratiquement dépourvus d'équipement et de budgets de fonctionnement. Le problème du personnel existe dans tous les centres car il est très difficile de recruter et de retenir des instructeurs compétents qui, en général, ont de meilleures offres dans l'industrie ou dans le commerce.

Conclusion 3 - Pertinence des programmes. Du point de vue individuel, l'efficacité externe de la formation technique dispensée par le secteur public est relativement élevée au niveau des écoles techniques du second degré mais plutôt médiocre pour celles du premier degré. La plupart des diplômés du CPFP, du CFPH, et de l'école J.B. Damier trouvent des emplois, quoique bon nombre d'entre eux finissent par émigrer dans l'espoir d'obtenir des salaires plus rémunérateurs et des conditions de vie meilleure.

Du point de vue social, le système arrive à satisfaire la plupart de la demande solvable de main-d'oeuvre qualifiée. Toutefois, il y a deux besoins collectifs urgents qu'il ne parvient toujours pas à satisfaire : (a) orienter un nombre toujours plus important d'élèves de l'école secondaire vers des emplois techniques productifs, et (b) faciliter la création de nouveaux emplois pour des ouvriers qualifiés. Il est évident que la création d'emplois ne dépend pas uniquement du système de formation technique et professionnelle, mais le système éducatif a un rôle à jouer dans ce processus. L'orientation professionnelle des élèves de l'école secondaire dépend de l'intégration de l'enseignement technique à la Réforme de l'Education.

Conclusion 4 - Accès. Il est évident que les filles bénéficient nettement moins des programmes en place que les garçons. On les trouve presque uniquement dans les centres ménagers et de formation de secrétariat en dépit du fait qu'elles constituent la majorité de la main-d'oeuvre industrielle. L'accès à la formation est très inégal selon qu'il s'agit d'une région urbaine ou rurale.

Conclusion 5 - Agriculture. L'agriculture et le secteur primaire en général sont les domaines les moins bien servis par l'enseignement technique et professionnel.



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Conclusion 6 - Secteur privé. Le secteur privé a pris une part beaucoup moins importante dans l'enseignement technique et professionnel que dans l'éducation secondaire générale en raison à la fois de la faiblesse de la demande et de l'importance de l'investissement initial nécessaire. Les instituts privés à but lucratif n'ont vu leur nombre s'accroître que ces dernières années. Jusqu'ici les industries du secteur privé et les agences bénévoles n'ont pas joué un rôle très important dans le domaine de la formation technique.

Conclusion 7 - Information. A l'heure actuelle, le gouvernement ne dispose pas des renseignements nécessaires pour planifier le développement de la main-d'oeuvre et pour organiser un système d'enseignement technique et professionel sur des bases plus cohérentes. Il n'est donc pas en mesure de contrôler, de coordonner et de superviser le travail des instituts privés de formation. Il y a également une pénurie de données relatives à l'offre et à la demande de main-d'oeuvre qualifiée.

Conclusion 8 - Coûts. L'enseignement technique et professionnel est la branche du système éducatif qui revient le plus cher si l'on tient compte des coûts annuels par étudiant et par diplômé. Les taux de rendement individuel et social sont toutefois relativement bons, et il semble possible d'abaisser les coûts de la formation en prenant certaines mesures tels que le système de double vacation, l'utilisation polyvalente des locaux et l'introduction dans les programmes de formation d'activités génératrices de revenus.

## 10.5 RECOMMANDATIONS

Les recommandations suivantes sont basées sur les analyses et conclusions présentées ci-dessus.

Recommandation 1 - Rénovation. Rénover le système public d'enseignement technique et professionnel.

Les efforts entrepris par le gouvernement et la Banque Mondiale pour rénover le système d'enseignement technique et professionnel et pour l'intégrer à la Réforme de l'Education, méritent d'être soutenus. Des efforts complémentaires de la part du secteur privé pourraient être très utiles (voir la Recommandation 4 ci-dessous).

Recommandation 2 - Le rôle du secteur public. Renforcer le rôle du secteur public.

Le rôle du secteur public, et de l'INFP en particulier, mérite d'être renforcé dans les domaines suivants :

A. collecte, analyse, et diffusion de données concernant l'offre et la

demande de main d'oeuvre ;

B. établissement d'un système d'inspection qui permette d'agréer les instituts privés de formation, de définir des normes de certification technique, et d'établir une échelle des salaires liée aux qualifications et à la productivité. Ces tâches nécessiteront probablement une coordination entre plusieurs ministères, notamment ceux des Affaires Sociales, du Plan, de l'Education, du Commerce et de l'Industrie) ;

C. analyse des postes de travail, et méthodologie d'élaboration de programmes de formation "sur mesure" pour l'apprentissage de compétences techniques précises ;

D. mise à l'essai de nouvelles méthodes d'auto-financement des cycles de formation et l'incorporation dans les programmes d'activités directement productives et génératrices de revenus ; et

E. expérimentation de méthodes pour créer de nouveaux emplois et pour augmenter les capacités d'absorption du marché par rapport à la main-d'oeuvre qualifiée, notamment par l'établissement de petites entreprises articulées sur les industries nouvelles.

Pour rendre ces mesures possibles, il serait nécessaire de mettre en place un système de perception et de redistribution de la taxe d'apprentissage qui assure aux structures de contrôle de l'enseignement technique et professionnel le financement dont elles ont besoin.

Recommandation 3 - Application. Améliorer la méthodologie de l'enseignement technique et professionnel dans les nouveaux centres.

La rénovation des programmes d'enseignement et des locaux existants devrait s'appuyer sur plusieurs principes fondamentaux :

A. rentabiliser au maximum les ateliers et les locaux déjà en place par l'adoption d'un système de double vacation, par l'introduction d'activités de formation non formelle et de programmes de recyclage et de perfectionnement en cours d'emploi à l'intention des travailleurs déjà en poste, et en prévoyant d'autres utilisations des locaux et du matériel par des groupements communautaires, etc. ;

B. récupérer une partie des frais de formation en louant l'équipement et les locaux à de petites entreprises locales, et (ou) en produisant et vendant des objets ou des services ;

C. mettre en place des programmes d'instruction modulaire qui répondent mieux aux besoins spécifiques de main-d'oeuvre au niveau régional et



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qui permettent également d'accélérer la formation ;

D. établir un lien étroit entre les programmes de formation et les possibilités de création de nouveaux emplois, notamment par l'octroi de crédits aux petites entreprises susceptibles d'embaucher les sortants de la formation ; et

E. rétablir l'équilibre en matière d'accès aux programmes de formation technique entre les différentes régions, entre des zones urbaines et zones rurales, et entre garçons et filles.

Recommandation 4 - Secteur privé. Encourager le secteur privé à fournir des efforts complémentaires.

Le secteur privé pourrait contribuer à augmenter sensiblement l'offre et la demande d'un enseignement technique et professionnel de bonne qualité à condition de prendre les mesures suivantes :

A. Le secteur industriel devrait être encouragé à mettre sur pied, en liaison avec l'INFP et les instituts privés, des programmes de formation susceptibles d'améliorer les compétences techniques des ouvriers et d'augmenter la valeur ajoutée par la main-d'oeuvre industrielle en Haïti.

B. Les donateurs bilatéraux devraient fournir à des ONG appropriés l'aide nécessaire pour établir deux nouveaux instituts de formation professionnelle et technique, ou pour rénover deux instituts déjà existants. L'un des instituts en question devrait être situé dans un centre urbain et l'autre dans une région rurale. L'accent devrait être mis sur trois aspects de cette initiative :

- la construction de locaux réservés à la formation et l'élaboration de programmes d'enseignement appropriés ;
- l'étude des besoins et du potentiel de main-d'oeuvre dans la région desservie par chaque centre ; et
- la création de nouveaux emplois et la mise en place des structures de crédit, d'approvisionnement en équipement et d'investissement nécessaires aux petits entrepreneurs désireux de s'établir à leur propre compte.

Recommandation 5 - Formation. Mettre en place un programme de formation du personnel.

Il serait très utile de fournir une formation en analyse de la main-d'oeuvre, en élaboration de programme d'enseignement professionnel et en gestion de projet au personnel chargé de la planification et de la formation technique au sein des agences gouvernementales et bénévoles.



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CHAPTER PREFACE

Chapter 10, "Vocational and Technical Education," was reviewed in Port-au-Prince on April 6, 1986 by Mr. Jean-Marie Lumarque, Deputy Director of the National Institute for Professional Training (Institut National de Formation Professionnelle, INFP), with the collaboration of Mr. Peter Easton of IEES/Florida State University. Corrections of factual detail and statistical presentation were made at the outset of the session.

The reviewer found that the chapter was generally accurate and provided useful insight into the status of vocational education in late 1984. Regret was expressed that more thorough information on the situation of private vocational-technical education was not included in the chapter. Fuller inquiries into the situation of training in the private sector should be one focus of future assessment efforts.

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# 10.0 VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION*

The realm of vocational and technical education in Haiti is both extremely diverse and very central to the concerns of national development. It lies at the crossroads between the formal education system and the labor market, in the broadest sense of the term. The role of vocational and technical education is to provide a transition between general academic education and productive employment in the various sectors of the Haitian economy.

The lines that separate vocational and technical education from nonformal education for income generation (Chapter 11) and from higher education in professional fields (Chapter 8) are not sharp. Some higher-level training institutions fulfill roles in more than one of these categories. The distinction between vocational and technical education on the one hand, and on-the-job training on the other, is also somewhat blurred. In this chapter, vocational and technical education will be operationally defined as organized courses or practicums below the collegiate level which:

- Require some amount of previous formal education.
- Grant a certificate or diploma attesting to the competence acquired.
- Are designed to give students technical skills relevant to salaried jobs or to productive self-employment.

This definition still covers a great variety of training. A distinction is often drawn between vocational training, which is oriented toward imminent employment in a specific type of job, and technical education, which contains a larger element of general scientific knowledge, equips the individual for a range of allied occupations, and may lead to further formal training as well as to the job market. This distinction corresponds roughly to the difference between enseignement technique de premier degré (first-degree technical training) and enseignement technique de deuxième degré (second-degree technical training) in the Haitian system. However, the highest levels of technical training fall outside the boundaries of this chapter and, as will be evident further on, the compartmentalization between first and second degree is beginning to break down.

It should be noted that in French the term "vocational school" (école vocationnelle) has a somewhat different and special meaning. The term generally refers to primary schools that include manual skills in their curriculum. In Haiti, the écoles vocationnelles were rural elementary schools giving a terminal primary education organized around manual arts and housekeeping skills.

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*The draft for this chapter was prepared by Peter A. Easton, Florida State University.



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The National Institute for Professional Training (Institut National de Formation Professionnelle - INFP) also makes two other distinctions. The first concerns the role which training plays in the participants' careers and the second concerns the mode of operation of the training institution.

Classifying vocational and technical training with respect to the first distinction, the INFP recognizes five types of courses:

1. Initial training (formation initiale): the instruction necessary to qualify young people and unemployed adults for skilled employment.
2. Academic upgrading (nivellement préalable): the remedial education necessary to give participants the minimum level of general knowledge and literacy skills required by their prospective employment.
3. Technical upgrading (perfectionnement): the sort of continuing education by which already employed (or self-employed) workers acquire additional skills and specialization in their job area, are updated on recent advances in the field, etc.
4. Retraining (réclassement): the means by which workers--including those laid off by compressions in the labor market--acquire the skills necessary to qualify for a new profession.
5. Rehabilitation (réhabilitation): special vocational training to equip handicapped workers for productive employment.

As to the mode of vocational training, INFP distinguishes between mobile training centers and fixed centers, and in the latter category, it differentiates:

1. Traditional training centers, which simply dispense vocational and technical education.
2. Centers for training and production that also produce material for sale and, thus, finance a part of their own operation budget.
3. Training and production employment centers that make their facilities available on a rental basis for local enterprises.
4. Training enterprises that simultaneously carry out all the functions of a productive business in order to defray most, if not all, of the costs of training.

These distinctions are generally useful in describing specific training programs, but the classification scheme that is most useful for an inventory of Haiti's vocational and technical education is based instead on two more fundamental characteristics of these schools: the branch of the economy for which the program prepares its students and the type of organization by which it is sponsored.

Since the objective of vocational and technical education is to orient participants toward and/or equip them for productive work in some sector of the national economy, it is reasonable to classify programs by the sector that they serve: (a) primary production (e.g., agriculture, livestock, forestry, and mines); (b) processing and transformation (crafts, manufacturing, and industry); (c) services (commerce, government, and social services).

The distinction often made between "modern" and "traditional" spheres of the economy cuts across the above classification--that is, there can be "modern" and "traditional" modes of agriculture or of manufacture. Those terms will not be used very much in the present chapter because the two spheres are closely related and successful technical training often involves a blend of both (e.g., adaptation of "modern techniques to traditional contexts," incorporation of traditional skills and knowledge into existing vocational curricula, etc.).

As for the types of sponsoring organizations, these fall first into two main categories: public sector (Government) and private sector (everything else). The public sector is further subdivided into programs sponsored by the Ministry of Education and programs run by other ministries or public institutes. The private sector is even more diverse; it includes, as distinct categories of sponsors, private voluntary organizations (religious or philanthropic), industry, and proprietary ("for-profit") training institutions. Bilateral and multilateral donor agencies are obviously important sponsors as well, but they tend to act through one or another of the direct sponsors listed above. For that reason, they may also significantly tilt the resource balance among these various institutions.

In Figure 10.1, the different categories of these two characteristics (economic sector served and type of sponsorship) are crossed to create a rough grid for inventorying types of vocational and technical education in Haiti. Examples of the types of programs identified with the different intersections of the two characteristics are indicated in each cell. As with any classification scheme, there are gaps and overlaps, and several important programs cannot be readily classified. For example, few or no proprietary training centers focus on the primary production sector, and the Ministry of Education has left most of this domain to the interested ministries; many institutes offer skills relevant <u>both</u> to industrial manufacturing production and to clerical services (both types of competences are obviously needed in industry). But the grid at least provides a framework for encompassing and analyzing much of the diversity and complexity of vocational and technical education in Haiti.



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Figure 10.1

Classification Grid for Haitian Vocational and Technical Education, with Examples of Each Type of Training

| SPONSORSHIP | | ECONOMIC SECTOR | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Primary Production | Processing and Transformation | Services |
| PUBLIC | Ministry of Education | (few examples) | Public vocational institutes for training mechanics and electricians | Home economics centers |
| | Other ministries | Ministry of Agriculture middle schools for agricultural extension agents | Ministry of Social Affairs centers for training artisans | Nurses training schools |
| PRIVATE | PVOs | Mission-sponsored agricultural schools | Salesian Fathers' industrial arts centers | Mission-sponsored secretarial schools |
| | Industry | Training in agro-industry | Training division of Haytian Tractor Inc. | On-the-job training in banking institutions |
| | Proprietary institutions | (few examples) | Private institute of engineering training | Private computer training |

## 10.1 STATUS

This section begins with a brief historical sketch of the background for vocational and technical education in Haiti. This is followed by a discussion of national goals and strategies, including plans and projects to promote educational objectives, as well as a description of the structure of public and private educational facilities. The section closes with summaries of the programs serving the different economic sectors.

### 10.1.1 Historical Setting

Haitian education in the 19th century has been characterized as restricted, elitist, and academic. Though the system produced some brilliant people, it was modeled on classical French education and was almost entirely circumscribed within the thin strata of the urban ruling class. Haitians today speak, moreover, of the strong bias against manual labor that characterized not only the schools but elite culture as a whole during this period, and that bias still affects the shape and content of the educational system. Some feel this attitude was anchored in the escape from slavery and forced labor which underlay the revolution on which the country was founded.

This is not to say that Haitians were uncritical of this heritage, unaware of the value of physical labor and productive activities in their economy, or unanimously satisfied with the existing educational system. However, political events repeatedly deprived those with a contrary vision of the means for reform. Lysius Salomon, Jr., Minister of Public Education under President Faustin Soulouque, induced Government to adopt, as early as 1848, a law calling for creation of schools on rural plantations that would teach improved agricultural practices along with academic subjects. His two successors--J. B. Damier and Elie Dubois (for whom the two oldest still-existing vocational/technical schools in the country are named)--both attempted to preserve a professional and practical element in the Haitian school curriculum. The model of French classical education for the children of the elite became increasingly prevalent, however, after Government decided in 1860 to authorize French religious orders to open schools in Haiti and to take over a number of the existing schools in urban areas.

Salomon tried to advance many of the same reforms when he became President in 1879, but those who followed him did not share his concerns. Farm schools, often promised and promoted, never truly materialized. Several urban arts and trades schools were founded around the turn of the century. Only one, however--the Elie Dubois School for Girls, created in 1907 by Belgian nuns--survived more than a decade. Dantes Bellegrade, Minister of Public Education in 1908-09 and again in 1913-14, tried to revive the farm school movement, but



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he lost political support when the Oreste government was overthrown, and the needed funds were all allocated to the military.

New steps, though not always judicious ones, were made during the American occupation of Haiti (1915-34). A network of postprimary trade schools was created in the main provincial towns of the country and in Port-au-Prince, and the J.B. Damier School for Upper Secondary Technical Education was established in the capital. At the same time, the U.S. forces tried to impose on Haiti a rural vocational system modeled on Booker T. Washington's plans for the education of American blacks. The occupation forces were generally disdainful of the existing French system of education, considering it too academic and impractical, and they created a separate rural education system under the Department of Agriculture. The schools were designed to teach young peasants agricultural and home building skills, as well as basic literacy, and to help them become modern farmers. The experiment had little success because of the disinterest of rural people, who saw little future in agriculture and were more concerned that their children earn academic credentials. In an evaluation conducted shortly before the end of the American occupation, Dr. Robert Moton, the President of Tuskeegee Institute, concluded that it had been a major mistake to create two separate and unequal systems of education.

Once the American occupation was over, the French system of education was reinstated, but rural schools remained under the Department of Agriculture. Also, some manual labor was included in their curricula until 1946 when President Estime eliminated this dual system. Leaders of the "Revolution of 1946" also emphasized the importance of a vocational element in the secondary curriculum. Government did little more in this direction between 1932 and 1970, but private trade schools began to appear in the 1950s and 1960s, principally offering commercial and clerical courses. Rural schools were once again turned over to the Department of Agriculture by President Francois Duvalier, though only limited funds were appropriated for them.

With the moderate tendency toward social and economic liberalization which characterized the 1970s, Haiti's industrial sector began to grow and technical training in both the public and the private domains became more important. The National Institute for Professional Training was created in 1973, and efforts were renewed to revive the network of public technical training schools. In 1978, rural and urban schools were once again unified under the Department of Education and a single nationwide Education Reform--whose vocational and technical aspects are described below--was proposed.

Haiti, therefore, entered the 1980s with an unevenly and scantily developed vocational training system whose relation to formal academic



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education had never been satisfactorily defined. On the one hand, the traditional educational culture considered manual trade and industrial occupations as distinctly inferior and emphasized the value of classical training. On the other, there was revived resistance to a dual system of education that "tracked" nonelite, and particularly rural, groups into low-status and poorly paid futures. Rural vocational training, though tried in various forms since early in the century, had never really functioned. Despite this surrounding bias, training for industrial and commercial trades had become more important because of the increasing prominence of the urban economy, but most initiative in the area had been taken by the private sector.

### 10.1.2 National Goals and Strategies

Vocational and technical education now must be viewed in connection with the Education Reform being implemented in Haiti's schools. Objectives of the Third Five-Year Plan and the more recent Two-Year Plan are described in this section, as are some of the World Bank education projects.

Education Reform. One of the main tenets of Haiti's Education Reform, proposed first in 1979, was the idea that the educational system needed to be reoriented and reorganized to better satisfy the nation's requirements for technically competent personnel. One corollary of this position was the proposition that more students needed to be diverted from general secondary education into technical secondary training. The form that this emphasis was to take was made somewhat more explicit in the Third Five-Year Social and Economic Development Plan published in August 1981.

The Third Five-Year Plan (1981-86). Human resource development and employment is one of seven main policy categories analyzed in the Third Five-Year Plan (1981-86). The Plan sets general goals for the 1980s: improve the adjustment between manpower supply and demand to reduce unemployment and underemployment (which affected more than 50% of the work force in 1980), expand internal markets, and raise the standard of living. Four specific objectives are cited as means to reach these general goals:

- Increase the number of productive jobs.
- Raise the skill level of the work force.
- Reduce the proportion of 10 to 14-year-old youths in the labor supply.
- Improve working conditions, particularly in the modern sector.

The plan cites 15 general strategies for attaining these objectives, one of which relates directly to technical training:

Augment the capacities of the existing technical and professional training centers; revise their curricula to bring them into greater conformity with the needs for qualified manpower and improve the internal efficiency of the system of technical and professional training.

Proposed strategies less directly relevant to training include emphasis on labor-intensive investments in agriculture and construction, and the establishment of structures for gathering and disseminating labor market information and for providing vocational guidance and placement services in secondary schools.

The second volume of the plan contains more specific objectives for each branch of the educational system. The following quantitative targets are cited for professional and technical education over the 5-year period:

1. Increase enrollment in public technical secondary schools by some 5,000 students, so that students in these institutions constitute fully one third of all public secondary school enrollment by the end of the period. (In 1981, public technical school enrollment constituted less than 20% of total enrollment in public secondary schools; overall enrollment in secondary-level business and technical institutes, public and private, represented less than 10% of all public and private secondary students.)
2. Build 15 new "first cycle" professional schools and four new "second cycle schools," leading to a total of 36 schools in 1985/86, distributed as follows: First degree, 29; Second degree, 7.
3. Recruit and train 520 new teachers for secondary level technical education.

The qualitative objectives for the same period are defined as follows:

1. Adapt the instructional program of the professional schools to labor market realities.
2. Reinforce "preprofessional" programs in the curriculum or primary and secondary schools.
3. Enlarge first cycle professional schools, particularly those outside Port-au-Prince.
4. Reorganize private business/secretarial schools.
5. Reinforce the INFP.

Finally, the plan calls for expenditure of $15,300,000 over the 5-year period for construction of the new professional schools, more than 80% of which was to have come from foreign assistance.

The Two-Year Plan (1984-86). Two years into the implementation of the Five-Year Plan, it was evident that accomplishments were not keeping pace with objectives, partly because the latter had been very ambitious and partly because the 1981-83 period was one of economic recession. The Planning Division of the Ministry of Education consequently adopted an adjusted set of targets in its revised Two-Year Education Plan, 1984-86, in May 1984.

The new document observed that public technical school enrollment had increased only by some 12 hundred students over the first 2 years of the period, that only two new schools had been added to the existing infrastructure, and that the anticipated renovation of technical training programs had not yet been undertaken. It reiterated the goal of reinforcing and renovating technical and professional education and defined the following specific objectives for the remaining 2 years of the 5-year period.

| | 1984/85 | 1985/86 |
|---|---|---|
| Total enrollment in public technical schools | 4,840 | 5,090 |
| Additional teachers needed | 22 | 18 |
| Additional schools planned | 2 | 0 |

These scaled-down objectives are followed by an estimate of the progress in technical school construction that will be possible during the 1985-90 period due to the Fourth Education Project, partly financed by the World Bank. Finally, the Two-Year Plan mentions less specifically the following further innovations expected for technical and professional education by 1986:

- Constitution of a mobile training program.
- Constitution of a support program for training in depressed urban areas (zones marginales).
- Creation of a retraining and upgrading program within the INFP for vocational teachers and mid-career workers.
- Strengthening the planning and management facilities of INFP.

World Bank Education Projects. The World Bank is hardly a Haitian institution, though its education projects in Haiti are implemented by an administrative unit directed and partly staffed by Haitian personnel. At first glance, one might question its inclusion within a section that concerns "national goals and strategies." However, just as International Monetary Fund policy toward Haiti over the last decade has been a major influence on national fiscal and monetary planning, so the World Bank's view of the status and needs of the Haitian education system and its willingness to support reform and extension have been significant in the formulation of educational goals and strategies. In fact, the direction of national planning for vocational and

technical education cannot be fully understood without taking account of World Bank activity. Other donors, particularly Canada and France, have also exercised influence on vocational/technical policy.

The exact nature of projected World Bank support for vocational and technical education will be discussed later under the section on future plans. Here it needs to be noted that to date three successive World Bank education projects have been or are being implemented. Their purposes have been related to the educational goals and strategies proposed in the Second (1976-1981) and Third (1981-1986) Five-Year Plans in at least two important ways:

1. World Bank support was contingent on a thorough reform of the Haitian educational system, and the directions for this reform have been stated in the national plans. The objectives of the reform include adapting secondary education to Haitian development needs and increasing the relevance and the relative importance at this level of technical and professional training.
2. World Bank resources (plus the assistance made available by other major donors who tend to align themselves with World Bank policy) constituted the major portion of the investment funds available to Haiti for expanding and reforming education. Consequently, the rhythm of disbursement of these resources and the rate of World Bank project implementation have been major influences on defining and attaining national educational goals.

The policy of educational reform and expansion supported by the World Bank accorded considerable importance to developing vocational and technical training, but the strategy called for beginning with the overhaul of primary education. Initially, it was assumed that the primary reform would be well under way by the early years of the Third Five-Year Plan and that resources and attention might then be given to secondary education (or rather to the integration of junior secondary education into the new ten-year basic education cycle). Implementation of primary reform and related World Bank projects was slower than expected, however, and relatively little was done to reform secondary education through 1983/84. The shortfall in attaining the interim objectives of the Third Five-Year Plan for vocational and technical training therefore in part simply reflects delays in the rate at which World Bank support and investment has materialized. These delays were in turn partly conditioned by the implementation capacities of the Ministry of Education and the general economic and administrative climate.



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### 10.1.3 Structure

Public Sector and Private Sector. In vocational and technical education, as in all educational subsectors, the question of the structure and organization of training is dominated by the contrast between the public sector and the private sector and the ways in which they complement--or conflict with--each other. In 1981/82, nearly 80% of all institutions for vocational and technical training were classed as "private" (though approximately two-thirds of these were at least under the nominal supervision or "sponsorship" of a Government ministry). As in the other branches of Haitian education, this situation is complicated by the fact that the private sector is not a single entity. The term is a general designation for everything outside Government and, therefore, includes such diverse subsets as church-related centers, industry-sponsored training programs, and commercial training institutes operated for profit.

Managerial Responsibility. No unified structure of managerial responsibility exists in vocational and technical education, though some progress has been made in this direction in recent years and a proposal for a national system of professional training has been formulated by Government. (It will be summarized below). The private sector remains heterogeneous, and no coordination has developed among proprietary institutes, private voluntary organizations (PVOs), religious schools, and industry (or even within each subgroup). Until recently, there was little more coordination in the public sector, partly because technical and professional education was not regarded as important in national development until the 1970s.

A number of ministries have technical schools for the recruitment and training of their staff. The Ministries of Agriculture, of Mines, and of Health all sponsor some form of secondary technical education for prospective personnel. Others, such as the Ministry of Social Affairs and the Ministry of Tourism, directly train the technical staff who will work in the branch of the economy with which the Ministry is concerned. Finally, the Ministry of Education has had for a number of years a division responsible for "technical and professional education" and has operated as many as a dozen technical secondary schools.

The first attempt to create a structure for overall coordination of vocational and technical education was made in 1975 when Government created the National Institute of Professional Training. The INFP was assigned the following functions:

- Study the possibility of establishing a National System of Professional Training (Système National de Formation Professionnelle - SNFP) which

would be maximally responsive to the nation's manpower needs.

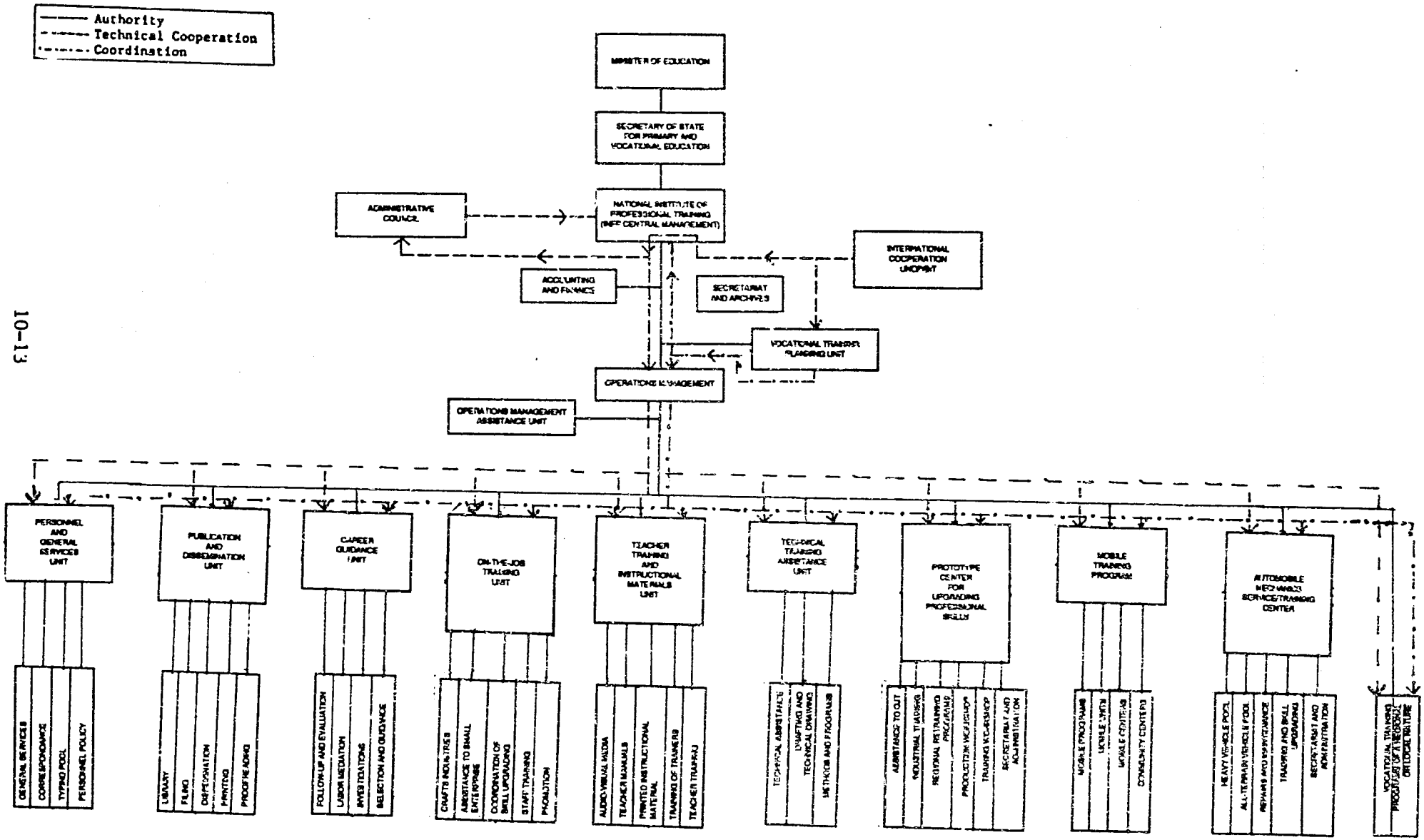
- Coordinate and "harmonize" the various programs of professional training already in existence.
- Assess current needs for manpower training.
- Support the creation of a system for vocational guidance and selection of trainees.
- Develop programs for the retraining and upgrading of mid-career workers, plus the necessary instructional material.
- Help reinforce the work and training of local artisans.
- Assist private business with training-related needs.

Until 1984, the INFP existed as a semiautonomous institute within the Ministry of Education, theoretically (and in fact partially) funded by the proceeds of an "apprenticeship tax" that was to be levied on all private business at a rate equivalent to 1% of the business' total wage bill (including fringe benefits and the value of non-monetary advantages). At the same time, the Ministry of Education maintained a Directorate of Technical and Professional Education (Direction de l'Enseignement Technique et Professionnel - DETP) responsible for its own network of technical schools.

In 1984, in anticipation of the reform of secondary education and of future World Bank projects in the vocational and technical field, the organization of the Ministry of Education was improved and the problem of overlapping functions between the INFP and the DETP was resolved. The DETP was eliminated and its staff transferred to the INFP, which now constitutes a full-fledged Directorate and has sole responsibility within the Ministry of Education for technical and professional education. The internal structure of the INFP and its position within the Ministry of Education are portrayed in Figure 10.2.

The technical schools managed by the Ministry of Education and its vocational training division, the INFP, are basically of two varieties. First-degree technical schools accept students who have completed their primary education and prepare them for positions as skilled workers by means of a 4-year course of studies. Second-degree technical schools require completion of the 9th or 10th grade for entry and prepare students for jobs as technicians through a 3- or 4-year program. Theoretically, the diploma granted by both first- and second-degree institutes has full academic equivalency and allows their graduates to continue their formal training, if they so desire. In fact, many first-degree graduates manage to continue in secondary school, but the second-degree diploma is not presently considered the equivalent of an academic baccalauréat, and few second-degree graduates can continue on to higher education.

FIGURE 10.2
Proposed INFP Structure



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Outside the Ministry of Education, other branches of Government continue to have responsibility for the areas of technical education that concern them. The principal administrative structures involved are the following:

- Within the Ministry of Agriculture, Natural Resources, and Rural Development, the Economic Development Office (Service du Développment Economique) of the College of Agronomy is responsible for supervision of technical secondary schools.

  These schools are of two kinds:

  - Agricultural and Veterinary Middle Schools (Ecoles Moyennes d'Agriculture et de Médecine Vétérinaire) which accept applicants having at least a ninth-grade education (quatrieme) and turn out "agricultural technicians" at the end of a 3-year course of study.

  - Centers for Agricultural and Artisan Training (Centres de Formation Agricole et Artisanale) which accept young people who have completed (or in some cases nearly completed) primary school and turn out agricultural monitors (moniteurs agricoles) or local extension agents after a 3-year course of study.

- Within the Ministry of Mines, the Division of Geological Research is responsible for the supervision of the Middle School of Geology (Ecole Moyenne de Géologie) which recruits applicants having at least a ninth-grade education and turns out geological technicians after a 3-year course.

- Within the Ministry of Health, the Division of Health Education and Training (Division d'Education Sanitaire et d'Entraînement) is responsible for supervising training schools for nurses and nurses' aides. Nursing schools require the baccalauréat degree for admission and are therefore considered as an element of higher education and not included here. Three schools for nurses' aides (aides soignantes) recruit candidates who have at least a ninth-grade education and give them 9 months of instruction in first aid, basic pharmaceutical knowledge, and community health organization.

- The National Office of Artisanry (Office National de l'Artisanat - ONART), which is administratively linked to the Ministry of Social Affairs, has responsibility for two centers for training local artisans and craftsmen, one at Petit-Goave and the other at Camp Perrin. Candidates for this training need no specified level of formal education but are chosen according to the aptitude they show for their chosen craft. Training may last from 2 months to a year.



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- The National Office of Tourism and Public Relations (Office National de Tourisme et des Relations Publiques - ONTRP) is responsible for supervising two secondary-level technical training institutes--the Tourist Guides Training School (Ecole de Formation des Guides) and the Haitian School of Hotel Management (Ecole Hôtelière d'Haïti). Both accept students who have completed the 11th grade (la seconde). The guides' training lasts 1 year and the hotel management course takes 2 years.

As mentioned earlier, there is little managerial structure in the private sector, though two-thirds of the "private" centers of professional training are under the nominal supervision of one ministry or another. Some religious organizations (e.g., the Salesian Fathers, the Methodist Church) have networks of several technical schools throughout the country. Industry-sponsored efforts depend on the individual enterprises concerned. "For-profit," or proprietary institutions (sometimes referred to in Haiti as the secteur privé sauvage--the "wild" part of the private sector), depend for the most part only on themselves. Government has talked over the last 10 years about regulating the private sector to guarantee minimum standards, but little has been done.

Several semipublic or private institutions created in the last few years to advance industrial and business development in Haiti may, however, influence the amount and type of training available in the private sector. The Industrial Development Fund (Fonds de Développement Industriel - FDI) loans money to new enterprises--small endeavors in particular--to get started in business. It has exhibited a willingness to participate in and underwrite technical training in management and marketing. The Haitian Development Fund (Fondation Haïtienne du Développement - FHD) provides limited resources for micro-businesses with loans ranging from $200 to $7,500. The FDH is also interested in supporting appropriate management training. The Haitian-American Chamber of Commerce (HAMCHAM) has demonstrated similar interests. The U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID) Mission has recently prepared a project paper proposing the establishment of a Management and Productivity Center (MPC) that will operate in Port-au-Prince and offer training and credit services to new small businesses.

On the side of labor, until quite recently, there were no national labor organizations below the professional level and, thus, no organized workers' education movement, though company unions with limited powers existed within some individual enterprises. Under the funding influence of the United States Carribbean Basin Initiative, the Haitian Government authorized the establish-

ment of a National Federation of Labor Unions (Fédération Nationale des Syndicates - FNS) in 1984. The FNS is receiving assistance from the American Institute for Free Labor Development and international union organizations. The FNS is interested in addressing issues of working conditions, including training. Concrete initiatives may be expected in the near future.

### 10.1.4 Programs

This section describes the status of the different types of vocational and technical education programs outlined above. Because of the diversity and dispersion of the programs, the absence of central management, and the general lack of reporting, evaluation, and data collection procedures, detailed analyses cannot be provided for student flows, student/teacher ratios, levels of competence acquired, quantities and types of instructional materials used, and so forth, in all or even most of the branches of this subsector. The INFP is now conducting a survey that would provide more recent and complete information on the entire spectrum of professional training.

What exists at present are some aggregate statistics on the relative importance of the different kinds of training currently available, plus varying amounts of information about specific programs or types of programs. The aggregate statistics will be analyzed first. Then the leading characteristics will be examined for the kinds of programs now available to address training needs in the three main sectors of the economy--primary production, processing and transformation, and services.

#### 10.1.4.1 The Aggregate Picture

The only recent overall study of technical and professional education was done by the Planning Division of the Ministry of Education for the 1981/82 school year. Selected aggregate results from this survey are presented in Tables 10.1 through 10.4.

The survey divides technical and professional institutes into three groups:

1. Technical schools (Ecoles professionelles) which prepare young people for trades such as carpentry, tailoring, masonry, and electronics.
2. Business and secretarial schools (Ecoles de commerce) where accounting, clerical skills (e.g., typing and stenography), and, more recently, computer use are taught. These schools also often teach business English.
3. Home economics centers (centre ménagers) where sewing, cooking, pastry confection, embroidery, etc., are the main items on the curriculum. In many cases, these centers also give remedial literacy courses or remedial instruction in the classical formal school curriculum.



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Table 10.1

Distribution of Vocational and Technical Training Institutes in 1981-82
By Geographical Region, Type of Establishment, and Public/Private Sponsorship

| | TYPE OF INSTITUTION | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Technical Schools | | | Business Schools | | | Home Economic Centers | | | TOTAL | | |
| Department | Public | Private | Total | Public | Private | Total | Public | Private | Total | Public | Private | Overall Total |
| West | 4 | 10 | 14 | - | 24 | 24 | 14 | 107 | 121 | 18 | 141 | 159 |
| North | 2 | 7 | 9 | - | 14 | 14 | 14 | 35 | 49 | 16 | 56 | 72 |
| North East | - | - | - | - | - | - | 3 | 10 | 13 | 3 | 10 | 13 |
| North West | 1 | 5 | 6 | - | 5 | 5 | 6 | 45 | 51 | 7 | 55 | 62 |
| Artibonite | 1 | 5 | 6 | - | 5 | 5 | 16 | 35 | 51 | 17 | 45 | 62 |
| Center | - | 5 | 5 | - | 1 | 1 | 6 | 16 | 22 | 6 | 22 | 28 |
| South | 4 | - | 4 | - | 2 | 2 | 9 | 25 | 34 | 13 | 27 | 40 |
| South East | 4 | 3 | 7 | - | - | - | 11 | 6 | 17 | 15 | 9 | 24 |
| Grand-Anse | 2 | 3 | 5 | - | - | - | 7 | 25 | 32 | 9 | 28 | 37 |
| Total | 18 | 38 | 56 | 0 | 51 | 51 | 86 | 304 | 390 | 104 | 393 | 497 |

Source: Ministry of Education, Planning Division, Enquete sur les Etablissements d' Enseignement Technique et Professionnel en Haiti, July 1983.

TABLE 10.2

Distribution of Vocational and Technical School Enrollment in 1981-82 by Gender, Type of Institute Attended, and Geographical Region

| Department | Technical Schools | | | Business Schools | | | Home Economics Centers | | | Totals | | | Coverage (Places avail. per 1,000 pop.) | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M | F | Total | M | F | Total | M | F | Total | M | F | Overall Total | Pop. 1982 | All Sch. | B&T[a] Only |
| West | 1,780 | 8 | 1,788 | 1,107 | 2,983 | 4,090 | 823 | 7,668 | 8,491 | 3,710 | 10,659 | 14,369 | 1,715,803 | 8.37 | 3.43 |
| North | 665 | 8 | 673 | 155 | 328 | 483 | 15 | 3,145 | 3,160 | 835 | 3,481 | 4,316 | 456,692 | 9.44 | 2.53 |
| North East | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | 394 | 394 | --- | 394 | 394 | 235,965 | 1.67 | -0- |
| North West | 76 | --- | 76 | 18 | 98 | 116 | 30 | 1,163 | 1,193 | 124 | 1,261 | 1,385 | 288,790 | 4.79 | 0.66 |
| Artibonite | 320 | --- | 320 | 48 | 273 | 321 | --- | 2,471 | 2,471 | 368 | 2,744 | 3,112 | 664,807 | 4.68 | 0.96 |
| Center | 31 | 17 | 48 | 3 | 32 | 35 | --- | 951 | 951 | 34 | 1,000 | 1,034 | 360,734 | 2.86 | 0.23 |
| South | 380 | --- | 380 | 34 | 77 | 111 | 13 | 1,234 | 1,247 | 427 | 1,311 | 1,738 | 509,996 | 3.41 | 0.96 |
| South East | 327 | 159 | 486 | --- | --- | --- | 3 | 1,132 | 1,135 | 330 | 1,291 | 1,621 | 178,812 | 9.06 | 2.72 |
| Grand-Anse | 302 | 176 | 478 | --- | 23 | 23 | 10 | 1,137 | 1,147 | 312 | 1,336 | 1,648 | 640,590 | 2.57 | 0.78 |
| All | 3,881 | 368 | 4,249 | 1,365 | 3,814 | 5,179 | 894 | 19,295 | 20,189 | 6,140 | 23,477 | 29,617 | 5,053,189 | 5.86 | 1.87 |
| Percent | 91.3 | 8.7 | 100/ /14.3 | 26.4 | 73.5 | 100/ /17.5 | 4.4 | 95.6 | 100/ /68.2 | 100/ /20.7 | 100/ /79.3 | 100/ /100 | | | |

[a]Business and Technical

Source: Ministry of Education, Planning Division, Enquete sur les Etablissements d' Enseignement Technique et Professionnel en Haiti, July 1983.

TABLE 10.3

Distribution of Vocational-Technical Graduates in 1981-82
by Gender, Specialty, and Public/Private Sponsorship

| Overall Specialty | Public | | | Private | | | Total | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M | F | Total | M | F | Total | M | F | Total |
| **Technical** | | | | | | | | | |
| Mechanics[a] | 123 | 0 | 123 | 110 | 0 | 10 | 233 | 0 | 233 |
| Electricity | 62 | 0 | 62 | 14 | 0 | 14 | 76 | 0 | 76 |
| Building Trades[b] | 51 | 0 | 51 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 51 | 0 | 51 |
| Crafts[c] | 41 | 18 | 59 | 68 | 0 | 68 | 109 | 18 | 127 |
| Subtotal | 277 | 18 | 295 | 192 | 0 | 192 | 469 | 18 | 487 |
| **Business** | | | | | | | | | |
| Secretarial[d] | -- | -- | -- | 50 | 538 | 588 | 50 | 538 | 588 |
| Accounting | -- | -- | -- | 238 | 114 | 352 | 238 | 114 | 352 |
| Other[e] | -- | -- | -- | 36 | 82 | 118 | 36 | 82 | 118 |
| Subtotal | -- | -- | -- | 324 | 734 | 1,058 | 324 | 734 | 1,058 |
| **Home Economics** | | | | | | | | | |
| Tailoring/Dressmaking | 0 | 21 | 21 | 0 | 1,014 | 1,014 | 0 | 1,035 | 1,035 |
| Cooking-Pastry | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 305 | 305 | 0 | 305 | 305 |
| Combined Tailor/Cooking | 1 | 472 | 473 | 0 | 633 | 633 | 1 | 1,105 | 1,106 |
| Hotel/Bar/Restaurant | 3 | 36 | 39 | 0 | 188 | 188 | 3 | 224 | 227 |
| Cosmetology | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 137 | 137 | 0 | 137 | 137 |
| General Crafts | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 34 | 34 | 0 | 34 | 34 |
| General Home Economics | 0 | 56 | 56 | 0 | 102 | 102 | 0 | 158 | 158 |
| Subtotal | 4 | 585 | 589 | 0 | 2,413 | 2,413 | 4 | 2,998 | 3,002 |
| TOTAL | 281 | 603 | 884 | 516 | 3,147 | 3,663 | 797 | 3,750 | 4,547 |

[a]Includes general, diesel, automobile mechanics.
[b]Includes masonry, furniture-making.
[c]Includes coopersmith, cobbler, tailoring, cooking.
[d]Includes stenography, typing, PBX.
[e]Includes management, business English, undetermined

Source: Ministry of Education, Planning Division, Enquête sur les Etablissements d' Enseignement Technique et Professionnel en Haïti, July 1983.

TABLE 10.4

Distribution of Enrollments, Numbers of Teachers, and Student/Teacher Ratios of Vocational and Technical Schools in 1981/82 by Type of Institute and Public/Private Sponsorship

| | Public | Private | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| Technical Schools | | | |
| Enrollment | 2,205 | 2,044 | 4,249 |
| Number of Teachers | 93 | 104 | 197 |
| Student/Teacher Ratio | 23.7 | 19.7 | 21.6 |
| Business Schools | | | |
| Enrollment | - | 5,179 | 5,179 |
| Number of Teachers | - | 205 | 205 |
| Student/Teacher Ratio | - | 25.3 | 25.3 |
| Home Economics Centers | | | |
| Enrollment | 6,743 | 13,446 | 20,189 |
| Number of Teachers | 172 | 583 | 755 |
| Student/Teacher Ratio | 39.2 | 23.1 | 26.7 |
| Total | | | |
| Enrollment | 8,948 | 20,669 | 29,617 |
| Number of Teachers | 265 | 892 | 1,157 |
| Student/Teacher Ratio | 33.8 | 23.1 | 25.6 |



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The survey also indicates the number of people who received diplomas in each of the specialties offered by these three types of institutes in 1981/82, the number of students and teachers in each, and the distribution of these data across the nine administrative departments of the country and between public and private sectors.

These data have a number of shortcomings that need to be taken into account. First, training in the primary sector of the economy--agriculture, livestock, mining, etc.--is not included, nor are the training programs operated by other ministries, like those of Health and of Social Affairs. Second, the private sector is left undifferentiated; no distinction is made among proprietary institutes, PVOs, and business or industry-sponsored establishments. In this respect, the taxonomy used in the survey is less adequate than that adopted for the yearly census of primary schools (see Chapter 5). Given the variety of efforts in the private sector, it seems likely that the survey results considerably understate enrollments in this area; for example, the report of only 10 private technical schools in the entire Western Department (which includes the capital) seems very low, even for 4 years ago. Third, the original tables have some internal inconsistencies. Taken together, these factors suggest that the data should only be considered indicative of general patterns and orders of magnitude.

These problems notwithstanding, the survey results do offer some useful insights into the overall situation of vocational and technical education for trades, industry, and services:

1. Home economics centers represent by far the largest group of training institutes, accounting for 78.4% of the institutes and 68.2% of the total enrollment. More than 95% of the students in these centers are female.
2. Private schools outnumber public schools in all categories, accounting for 79% of the institutes overall. In 1981, there were no public business schools at the secondary level; all commercial and secretarial training was given by private institutes.
3. The Western Department (which includes Port-au-Prince) has more than twice as many schools and three times as many students as any other department. The regional imbalance is clearly illustrated by the last two columns of Table 10.2, which present the number of places available in secondary technical schools per 1,000 people for each of the nine departments. Given the generally nonvocational nature of home economics centers (and their weight in the data), the most revealing figures are those in the last column concerning the number of business

and technical school students per 1,000 population. The ratio varies from zero in the Northeast and 0.66 in the Northwest to a high of 3.43 in the West. Vocational and technical education is evidently an urban phenomenon, but not yet a very widespread one.

4. Overall, women occupy nearly 80% of the places, since they constitute almost all of the home economics enrollments and the majority of those enrolled in business courses. They are a small minority (8.7%) in technical schools, however.
5. The student/teacher ratio in technical and business schools, which ranged in 1981/82 from 19.7 to 25.3 (Table 10.4), is roughly comparable to the student/teaching-posts (chaires) ratio in general secondary education (21.8 in 1982/83). As in general secondary schools, however, the teachers or posts often do not represent full-time positions, so the actual ratio of students to full-time teaching equivalencies is certainly much higher than this figure suggests. Student/teacher ratios appear to be higher in the public sector than in the private sector, and highest of all in the home economics centers.

Partial data on other years available from a variety of sources (principally the Annuaires Statistiques published by the Ministry of Education) are presented in Tables 10.5 through 10.7. This information gives some sense of the evolution of the situation. Several tendencies are of interest:

1. Enrollment in public and semipublic institutions of vocational/technical education seems to be increasing at a rate (about 2% a year between 1976 and 1982) distinctly below the rate of growth of public general secondary school enrollments (6.5% a year over the same period) and far below that of the total general secondary school population (18% a year). In longer perspective, these enrollments appear to be virtually unchanged. Ministry of Education documents report the following numbers of students in public vocational/technical training institutions at various times in the past (Kleber, Vielot, "Primary Education in Haiti," in The Haitian Potential: Research and Resources of Haiti, 1975):

   1946 - 3,416 students
   1956 - 2,600 students
   1962 - 3,668 students
2. Comprehensive information on the evolution of enrollments or numbers of institutions in the private sector is lacking, but it seems likely that these are growing at a much faster rate than those in the public sector. Whereas the Ministry of Education survey reported 10 private

TABLE 10.5

Evolution of Number of Graduates of Public and Semipublic Institutes of Vocational-Technical Educaiton by Specialty, 1979-80 through 1982-83

| Specialty | 1979/80 | 1980/81 | 1981/82 | 1982/83 | Total 1979-83 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Mechanics | 124 | 123 | 144 | | |
| Building trades | 60 | 36 | 31 | | |
| Electricity and electronics | 93 | 84 | 100 | | |
| Industrial design | 12 | 17 | 4 | N/A | N/A |
| Metalworking | 21 | 31 | 28 | | |
| Crafts | 13 | 16 | 7 | | |
| Tailoring | 89 | 79 | 76 | | |
| Health Profession | 14 | 0 | 8 | | |
| Total | 426 | 386 | 398 | 307 | 1,517 |

N/A = not available

TABLE 10.6

Evolution of Enrollments in Public and Semipublic Vocational-Technical Schools by Specialty, 1976-77, 1978-79, 1982-83

| Specialty | 1976/77 | 1978/79 | 1982/83 |
|---|---|---|---|
| Mechanics | 565 | 717 | 712 |
| Building trades | 359 | 505 | 468 |
| Electricity and electronics | 172 (15) | 284 (22) | 328 (57) |
| Industrial design | 12 | 12 | 19 |
| Metalworking | 176 | 352 | 106 |
| Crafts | 265 | 459 | 163 |
| Tailoring | 592 | 724 | 517 |
| Other | 365 | 190 | 625 |
| Total | 2,506 | 3,243 | 2,938 |



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TABLE 10.7

1983 Graduates and 1984/85 Enrollments of Technical, Business, and Secretarial Schools (Public and Private) of the Port-au-Prince Metropolitan Area

| Specialty | Graduates 1983/84 M | F | Total | Enrollments 1984/85 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Technical | | | | |
| Mechanics | 140 | 2 | 142 | 648 |
| Building trades | 41 | 0 | 41 | 208 |
| Electricity | 194 | 14 | 208 | 806 |
| (Electronics) | (73) | (0) | (73) | (252) |
| Industrial design | 10 | 0 | 10 | 34 |
| MetalWorking | 61 | 0 | 61 | 120 |
| Crafts | 8 | 0 | 8 | 29 |
| Tailoring | 22 | 82 | 104 | 160 |
| Photography | 16 | 5 | 21 | 27 |
| Subtotal | 492 | 103 | 595 | 2,032 |
| Business and Secretarial | | | | |
| Secretarial | 6 | 530 | 536 | 1,307 |
| Accounting | 174 | 57 | 231 | 642 |
| Ticketing | 10 | 20 | 30 | 40 |
| Computer use | 0 | 0 | 0 | 43 |
| Management | 5 | 16 | 21 | 24 |
| Cosmetology | 0 | 50 | 50 | 30 |
| Subtotal | 195 | 673 | 868 | 2,086 |
| Total | 687 | 776 | 1,463 | 4,118 |



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technical training institutes in the entire Western Department in 1981/82 (Table 10.2), a census conducted in late 1984 by the INFP found 30 such institutes in metropolitan Port-au-Prince alone.

3. The distribution of students by specialty seems to be shifting in favor of electrical trades (especially electronics) and mechanical skills and away from building trades, tailoring, and crafts. This tendency probably reflects the development of assembly and export industries in the capital.

Turning from the aggregate picture, the sections below consider the specific character of technical and professional programs in each of the three main sectors of the economy. The limited information available on each of these subdivisions of the vocational/technical education system will be supplemented by case studies of selected institutions.

#### 10.1.4.2 Training for the Primary Sector: Agriculture, Forestry, Animal Husbandry, and Mines

In general, technical and professional training for the primary sector of the economy appears to be the branch of vocational education that has received the least attention to date in Haiti. This perhaps reflects both the continuing poverty of most of the agricultural sector and the fact that few people who reach the level of secondary technical education are from rural areas and/or feel any desire to work in them. Adding to the apparent disinterest in training in this sector is a lack of knowledge about what has gone on. Information must be gathered from scattered sources.

Training in the primary sector of the economy is organized by two kinds of sponsors. In the public sector, the technical ministries concerned--the Ministry of Agriculture in particular--have had schools for a number of years to train their own technical staff. In the private sector, some missionary organizations have set up centers or schools to teach rural young people improved agricultural techniques. The Ministry of Education does not supervise any vocational training in agriculture, and virtually no training institutions are sponsored by proprietary or agro-industry entities in the primary sector of the economy. For the present, prospects are too limited to encourage establishment of proprietary training facilities or make them profitable.

Public Sector. The Ministry of Agriculture in theory offers three levels of training for its future agents. All three levels have recently been placed under the responsibility of the College of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine (Faculté d'Agronomie et de Médecine Vétérinaire - FAMV), located adjacent to the Ministry. The highest level is University training given within the



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College of Agronomy itself, which is described in Chapter 9, that deals with higher education.

Below this, the Ministry and the College of Agronomy have been responsible for two intermediate levels of technical training corresponding roughly to first- and second-degree professional education. The higher of the two is the Middle School of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine (Ecole Moyenne d'Agriculture et de Médecine Vétérinaire - EMAV), also located in the Port-au-Prince metropolitan area adjacent to the Ministry. It recruits students who have at least a 10th grade education and puts them through a 3-year course of agricultural science, forestry, veterinary medicine, and general academic training designed to make them well-rounded agricultural technicians. Data on recent cohorts of the EMAV are not available because of the recent reorganization of the supervisory structures within the Ministry.

The lowest level of formal agricultural training has been carried out in a small network of Rural Training Centers (Centres de Formation Agricole et Artisanale - CFAs) located in the predominantly rural areas of La Borde, Dufailly, Lessons, Chatard, and Bell'Anse. The CFAs were intended to recruit young men and women, no older than 21 years, who had successfully completed their primary education. After a 3-year course of study which mixed academic courses (dominant in the first year) and professional courses in agricultural technology and related topics (which accounted for more than 80% of study time in the final 2 years), students who received a grade of 65% or better on the final examination were awarded their Brevet Agricole. They were then supposed to become agricultural monitors or local extension agents employed by Government. However, no quantitative information is available on the number of schools, students, and graduates involved in this cycle of agricultural training in recent years.

Judging by the comments of staff of the College of Agronomy and those of other vocational educators in Haiti, this mid-level agricultural training network has not worked very well. Those at the College of Agronomy responsible for the system are the first to point out its weaknesses, and a reform (described in Section 10.2.4) is planned. The principal failures of the two branches of the existing system can be summed up as follows:

1. Rural Training Centers (CFAs)
   - The CFAs have been virtually without an operating budget for the last 2 years. As a consequence, classes for the 1983/84 school year did not actually begin until January 1984, and as of early December 1984, the 1984/85 session had not yet begun.



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- The buildings sheltering these centers (for the most part, dilapidated structures built 40 or more years ago as farm schools) are no longer adequate.
- The teachers themselves have little training in agriculture and less in teaching methods. At present, no funds are available to retrain them.
- Though a standard curriculum was proposed in 1981, it has not been adopted in the field, and there is a general dearth of teaching materials and even basic tools.
- The Ministry of Agriculture cannot afford to hire the graduates of the CFAs, and it is unclear what the payoff for their training is supposed to be.

2. Middle Schools of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine (EMAV)
   - The only functioning EMAV is located in Port-au-Prince and, thus, is quite removed from direct contact with agricultural problems in the field.
   - The students who succeed in the competition for admissions to the EMAV are mostly city dwellers who have finished secondary school but failed to pass the baccalauréat examination. Most of them have little interest in an agricultural career but come to the EMAV principally because it offers them the opportunity to be subsidized for continuing study. (All EMAV students receive a Government scholarship). Some of them attend a few courses at EMAV but concentrate on night study in Port-au-Prince in preparation for their next try at the baccalauréat.
   - The curriculum is not very practical, the teachers have not been properly prepared for their jobs, and there is a rapid turnover of instructional staff.
   - Graduates of EMAV are considered agricultural technicians, but the Ministry of Agriculture does not currently have the funds to employ them, and few avenues for productive self-employment in agriculture have been discovered or explored.

Largely similar conditions exist in the Middle School of Ceology (Ecole Moyenne de Techniciens de Géologie - EMTG) located adjacent to the INFP. The EMTG presently has only eight students. The recent closing of Haiti's bauxite mining operations implies no further demands for trained personnel from this quarter, although there is some possibility that gold mining operations will be underway soon.

One other professional training activity aimed at the primary sector of the economy was started in the last few years under the Ministry of Education--namely, the Resource Training Center (Centre d'Appui aux Formations - CAF). The CAF was created in 1980 with the help of USAID funding to upgrade the technical skills of workers implementating small-scale rural infrastructure projects, through short-term training sessions. Between 1981 and 1984, approximately 250 rural development workers designated by farm cooperatives, regional development projects, and small businesses participated in CAF-organized training activities. The project was suspended in late 1984 because of several shortcomings:

- Unit costs had become very high.
- Fewer than two thirds of the participants learned anything new or were able to apply what they learned in their jobs, according to the results of a midterm evaluation.
- The Ministry of Education turned out to be poorly equipped and staffed to manage the endeavor, and consistent follow-up was not provided by USAID.

At present, the Ministry of Education and USAID have tentatively agreed to set the CAF up as a self-financing training institution in the private sector, because the training needs it was designed to meet still exist. However, no further steps have been taken so far.

Private Sector. Training for agriculture and rural production is offered in the private sector. Though rural incomes are generally far too low to generate commercial interest in agricultural education, many mission and philanthropic organizations are interested in rural development and related training. A partial list of the missions and PVOs involved in agricultural training is given in Table 10.8.

Among Protestant evangelical groups, the Annuaire Protestant of 1983 lists 19 missions that sponsor agricultural projects, a number of which have a training component. The Fermé Ecole of Fermath (Baptist), the Institut Chrétien de la Vie Rurale en Vialet (Methodist), and the Bohoc Technical Institute near Pignon (nondenominational) all offer training in agricultural science and technology, generally underwritten by mission funds. On the Catholic side, an equal number may exist. Examples include the Milot Rural Center for Development (Centre Rural de Développement de Milot - CRUDEM), founded by the Canadian Brothers of the Sacred Heart; the Diocesan Institute for Adult Education in St. Raphael (Institut Diocésain d'Education des Adultes - IDEA); and the Emmaus Center in Papaye.

TABLE 10.8
Partial List of Private Voluntary Organizations and Missions Involved in Agricultural Training in Haiti, 1984

| Organization | Location(a) | Category | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Prot. | Cath. | PVO |
| 1. Action Missionaire Globale | P-P/Leogane | X | | |
| 2. Baptist Haiti Mission | Fermath | X | | |
| 3. Centre Agricole de Convention Baptiste | Cap-Haitien | X | | |
| 4. CARE | P-P | | | X |
| 5. Christoffel Blendenmission International | Petionville | | X | |
| 6. Caritas Diocésain de Hinche | Hinche | | X | |
| 7. CODEPLA | P-P | | | X |
| 8. CODEVA | Vallee Jacmel | | X | |
| 9. Congrégation des Filles de Sagesse | P-P | | X | |
| 10. Centre Haïtien de Recherche pour la Promotion Féminine | P-P | | | X |
| 11. Christianville Foundation | P-P | X | | |
| 12. Christian Mission of Pignon | Pignon | X | | |
| 13. Coopération Haïtiano-Néerlandaise | P-P | | | X |
| 14. Christian Reformed World Relief Committee | P-P | X | | |
| 15. Church World Service | P-P | X | | |
| 16. Développement Communautaire Chrétien d'Haïti | Les Cayes | | X | |
| 17. Emmanuel International | P-P | | X | |
| 18. Eglise Méthodiste d'Haïti | P-P | X | | |
| 19. Fonds Haïtiano-Allemand pour le Développement | P-P/Mirebalais | | | X |
| 20. Foster Parents Plan International | P-P/Jacmel | | | X |
| 21. Groupement Pilot Project | Petite Riviere | | | X |



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| Organization | Location(a) | Category | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Prot. | Cath. | PVO |
| 22. Haitian-American Friendship Foundation | P-P/Bohoc | X | | |
| 23. Organisation d'Assistance Evangelique d'Haïti | P-P | X | | |
| 24. Institut de Technologie et d'Animation | P-P | | X | |
| 25. The Missionary Church Association | P-P | X | | |
| 26. Mennonite Central Committee | P-P | X | | |
| 27. Mennonite Economic Development Assistance, Inc. | P-P | X | | |
| 28. Mission de l'Eglise Evangélique Ebénezer | Gonaives | X | | |
| 29. Mission for Christ, Inc. | P-P | X | | |
| 30. Missionaires de Scheut | P-P | | X | |
| 31. OMS International | P-P | | | X |
| 32. Pan-American Development Foundation | P-P | | | X |
| 33. Parish of Ducis | Les Cayes | | X | |
| 34. Congrégation des Petites Soeurs de Ste. Thérèse | P-P | | X | |
| 35. Alliance pour l'Enfance et le Dév. Communaut. | P-P | | | X |
| 36. Service Chrétien d'Haiti | P-P | X | | |
| 37. Union des Coopératives de la Région Sud | Jacmel | | | X |
| 38. West Indies Self Help | P-P | | | X |
| 39. World Vision International | P-P | X | | |

(a)P-P = Port-au-Prince. The location listed is in most cases the location of the headquarters of the organization, not necessarily the location of the school.

Source: U.S. Agency for International Development, Port-au-Prince files.

In many cases, these projects started as local community development efforts with a nonformal training and "conscientisation" component, and they evolved toward agricultural education because a significant proportion of local problems were agricultural in nature. The training may still be on the borderline between the formal and nonformal, but as more complex problems are addressed, more general education is needed as a base for resolving them. Many other similar projects may exist, but the information is not centrally available and visits to the parent organization, if not to the training centers themselves, are generally necessary to learn about the training programs.

The Christian Institution for Technology and Agriculture in Leogane (Institution Chrétienne de Technologie et d'Agriculture - ICTA) provides one example of a formal training center sponsored by a Protestant mission. ICTA was founded in 1981 by the Haitian branch of Global Missionary Action (Action Missionaire Globale - AMG), a Dutch international organization, which paid for the construction of a school and workshop with adjoining agricultural facilities, an office complex, dormitories with dining facilities, a primary school, and a health clinic. The center accepts prospective students who have successfully completed 9th or 10th grade into one of two sections--Construction Technology or Agriculture. ICTA initially allowed wider latitude in its admission criteria, accepting candidates with qualifications ranging from the primary school certificate to the baccalauréat; however, experience showed that the former did not have enough general training to learn the material, whereas the latter created difficulties because they aspired to something "better" than agricultural or construction technology. Consequently, the center set the minimum entrance level at 9th grade and the maximum at 10th grade.

Students are chosen on the basis of a competitive entrance examination. Fees are not high, given that room and board and all instructional materials are provided. Students are expected to pay $10 a month toward food costs and a $20 reimbursable deposit for the use of all tools. They are also expected to pay $10 a year for insurance. The complete system of fees was introduced only in 1984. Most new enrollees are paying what they owe, but the record is not as good for those who enrolled 2 years ago, and were accustomed to everything being free. The school sells some of its carpentry and farm products to defray expenses and runs a cooperative general store.

In 1984, more than 300 students competed for a maximum of 50 places. About one fourth of those accepted are from the Port-au-Prince metropolitan area and the remainder from outlying areas. According to the director, the majority have farming backgrounds and attended high school in public lycées. At present, ICTA is recruiting two full cohorts of students every 3 years, but



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are planning to start yearly admissions, varying the number accepted in the different sections to keep within the current 100-student capacity of the Leogare facilities. Counting third-year students now engaged in field apprenticeships, the ICTA has a present total enrollment of 146.

The teaching program, which covers 3 years, is outlined in Table 10.9. ICTA provides a wide range of technical training in both the agriculture and construction technology branches, because employment and self-employment opportunities in Haiti are better for someone who can handle several related specialties. General academic courses are given more weight in the first year; workshop and practical courses predominate in the second year; and the third year is principally devoted to field apprenticeships. To ensure successful placement of its students in these trial positions, ICTA pays all their expenses and the prospective employer need pay no salary during the period of apprenticeship. Students are supervised throughout this year by periodic visits from ICTA staff and spend either 1 day a week or 1 unbroken month (depending on the distance of their apprenticeship site from Leogane) during the year back at the ICTA for refresher instruction in areas that have given them difficulty on the job.

TABLE 10.9

Teaching Program at the Christian Institution for Technology and Agriculture (ICTA)

| | Agriculture Section | | Construction Technology Section | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Year | Technical Courses | Academic Courses | Technical Courses | Academic Courses |
| First Year | Agriculture<br>Animal Husbandry | Physics<br>Chemistry<br>Mathematics<br>English<br>French<br>Bible | General Technology | Physics<br>Chemistry<br>Mathematics<br>English<br>French<br>Bible |
| Second Year | Agriculture<br>Plumbing<br>Carpentry<br>Electricity | Chemistry<br>Geology<br>Mathematics<br>English<br>Bible | Plumbing<br>Masonry<br>Carpentry<br>Electricity | Mathematics<br>English<br>Bible |
| Third Year | Field apprenticeship with refresher courses at ICTA | | | |



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Instruction in practical skills links theory and practice very closely. Classroom time for each specialty averages 2 hours a week, the remainder of the time being spent in supervised exercises and production in workshops adjacent to the classroom. The school is well equipped in basic electrical, woodworking, plumbing, masonry, livestock, and farming equipment.

ICTA has a staff of 14 instructors, two of them part-time, including three in agriculture, eight in construction technology, and two in academic studies. All have diplomas from a recognized second-degree professional school plus some practical work experience. Most have also had at least a brief training session (stage) in vocational teaching methods at the INFP. There have been only a few problems with losing teachers, though the former director left for the United States. One reason for this good record is that the ICTA pays its staff considerably more than teachers in the public system. The current director has his first baccalauréat (rhétorique), attended J. B. Damier professional school for 4 years, worked for 2 years as a technician, then served as an instructor at the Pilot Center for Professional Training (CPFP, a French-supported second-degree professional school) before coming to teach at the ICTA.

In addition, nine other staff take care of general support. Salaries are well above the norm for vocational and technical schools, ranging from $250 to $500 a month. Teachers, moreover, are paid for 13 months a year, including a 1 month paid vacation. They receive one meal a day free at the ICTA and are provided with free transportation daily to and from Port-au-Prince.

ICTA's annual operating budget was $167,500 in 1983/84, or approximately $1,150 per student for a full quota of 140-150 students (of whom one third spent most of their time in the field). Given annual capital amortization costs of $10,000 to $15,000, total student costs per year are about $1,250. Dropout rates are relatively low: only 10-15% over the 3-year duration of the program, with few or no repetitions. This implies about 3.3 student-years of investment per graduate and a total per-graduate cost of about $4,000-$4,200.

The first class of the agricultural branch of the school has not yet graduated, so there are no data on their subsequent employment. All are in a year of apprenticeship with agro-industrial concerns or other private organizations (e.g., missions) involved in agricultural development. ICTA hopes that its farm graduates will be more inclined to work for themselves in agriculture than to work for existing enterprises, but they acknowledge that the students will be hampered by shortages of land, capital, and markets.

There are some training initiatives in agro-industry, though virtually no information is available about them at a central level. A gardening and



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commercial farming enterprise operating a short distance from Port-au-Prince (Comme Il Faut), for example, devotes some effort to training its employees in agricultural techniques. Further investigation might well reveal other similar examples.

10.1.4.3 Training for the Processing and Transformation Sector

Most of Government's vocational and technical education is designed to meet the manpower needs of development in the processing and transformation sector of the economy--manufacturing, crafts, construction, and industry. Private sector organizations have also taken some initiative in this domain. Training for the industrial sector is difficult to organize because both capital requirements and the opportunity costs of qualified teachers are very high. Public sector programs will be considered first, followed by the training given by private schools, industries, and private voluntary organizations.

Government Programs. The Ministry of Education has a network of professional training institutions composed of nine first-degree technical secondary schools (Table 10.10) and four second-degree technical training schools. To these should be added a few "preprofessional" primary schools (Ecoles vocationnelles) where certain manual activities are taught in the upper grades. Girls are more involved than boys in these activities, which center on sewing, cooking, and dressmaking. The girls may receive a Certificat d'aptitude professionnelle at the same time as, or even in place of, their primary school certificate if they pass a practical examination in these skills. All second-degree institutions are located in the capital; five of the nine first-degree schools are located outside the metropolitan area.

The first-degree centers require prospective students to have a primary school certificate. They conduct a 4-year program which leads to a diploma in the specialty studied. The main technical specialties are carpentry, ironwork, auto mechanics, shoemaking, and ceramics for boys, and dressmaking and culinary arts for girls. The number of students and diplomas granted by these schools in 1982/83 is presented in Table 10.10. Boys predominate in the student body, with the exception of one girls' school (St. Surin de Manigat) where studies are limited to dressmaking, cooking, and embroidery.

In theory, the curriculum is divided between general studies and technical studies. In fact, from inspection reports it can be seen that most of these schools are virtually devoid of teaching material and equipment, staffed by untrained teachers, and housed in poorly maintained buildings up to 50 years old. The professional schools outside Port-au-Prince often have monthly operating budgets (salaries excluded) of under $50. Their teachers receive the



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TABLE 10.10

Enrollment, Teaching Staff, and Diplomas Granted in Public First-Degree Technical Training Schools, 1982/83

| School | Location | Enrollment | Diplomas | Teaching Staff |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Arts et Meiers | Port-au-Prince | 420 | 60 | 29 |
| Masion Centrale | Carrefour | 173 | None | 18 |
| Centre d'Apprentissage de St. Martin(a) | Port-au-Prince | Closed | Closed | Closed |
| St. Surin de Manigat | Port-au-Prince | 115 | 12 | 15 |
| Ecole Prof. du Cap-Haïtien | Cap-Haitien | 137 | 17 | 12 |
| Ecole Prof. des Gonaïves | Gonaives | 240 | 12 | 10 |
| Ecole Prof. des Cayes | Cayes | 133 | 8 | 7 |
| Ecole Prof. de Jacmel | Jacmel | 180 | 6 | 10 |
| Ecole Prof. de Jérémie | Jeremie | 287 | 15 | 15 |
| Total | | 1,685 | 130 | 116 |

(a) Reopened in 1983/84

same $100 monthly salary as primary school teachers. They are supervised at irregular intervals by Inspectors of Vocational Instruction living in Port-a-Prince (one female Inspector is stationed in Gonaives), who are also supposed to help the school administer its final examinations but have little to offer in the way of material support. An exception is the National School of Industrial Arts and Trades (Ecole Nationale des Arts et Métiers) in Port-au-Prince--in reality a semipublic institution founded and operated by the Salesian Fathers with some support from the Ministry of Education. This school employs trained instructors and has received considerable equipment from foreign donors.

Since relatively little information on the situation of the first-degree professional schools is available at a central level, one can get a clearer idea only by site visits. Information was gathered at the Apprenticeship Center of St. Martin (Centre d'Apprentissage de St. Martin), a first-degree professional school in a poor neighborhood of the capital. It is reported to be in somewhat better shape than the first-degree schools outside of Port-au-



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Prince, as it has more spacious facilities and receives $100 a month for an operating budget.

The teaching program of the St. Martin Center is shown in Table 10.11. Approximately one half of the 24-25 hours of weekly time is devoted to vocational subjects and workshop activities. The remaining time is occupied with related skills like drafting and accounting (2-3 hours) or with general academic courses (approximately 10 hours).

Instruction is oral and generally given in both Creole and French to ensure comprehension. There are no books. Teachers use the blackboards, dictate, or occasionally distribute mimeographed materials that they have paid for out of their pockets.

There are 50 teachers for 457 students, but only 11 are full-time vocational instructors. The other 39 teach academic courses and work part-time. The academic instructors all hold another part-time teaching job at a general secondary school (lycée or college) and sometimes at more than one. The technical instructors are graduates of first-degree (occasionally second-degree) technical schools with some practical work experience, though not necessarily any teacher training. All supplement their salary by taking orders for material to be made or repaired at the school. There is relatively little teacher turnover. The school has very little equipment, and less that works. The carpentry shop has one old band saw in working order, plus an assortment of other power tools in various states of repair.

More students apply to St. Martin than can be admitted. This year 245 boys and 48 girls took the entrance exam; 159 boys and 27 girls were admitted as first-year students, or approximately 60% of the applicants. Over half of the students are from areas other than the capital and have to arrange boarding in Port-au-Prince if they cannot stay with relatives. The school has free boarding facilities (including food from the monthly allotment of the adjoining primary school) for the 40 or 45 students who are most needy.

Only 25-30% of this initial group complete 4 years and receive their diplomas. A third or more drop out before the second year. A few students are allowed to repeat the second or third years, but none may repeat the first or last year. According to the director, there are three principal reasons for this high degree of wastage:

1. Many students apply mainly because they are not able to enter public secondary schools (lycées), where tuition is low but available space is very limited, and they cannot afford private secondary schools (colleges). Because of their partly academic curriculum, St. Martin and the first-degree professional schools in general are considered as

TABLE 10.11

Teaching Program of St. Martin Apprenticeship Center, 1984/85 School Year

| Day and Year | Time and Subject | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 8:00-9:00 | 9:00-10:00 | 10:00-11:00 | 11:15-12:00 | 12:00-1:00 |
| Monday | | | | | |
| First | Natural Science | Math. | Math. | Workshop | Workshop |
| Second | Math. | English | Workshop | Workshop | Workshop |
| Third | Workshop | Workshop | English | Math. | French |
| Fourth | Workshop | Workshop | Workshop | English | Math. |
| Tuesday | | | | | |
| First | English | Workshop | Workshop | Workshop | French |
| Second | Workshop | Mechanical Drawing | Mechanical Drawing | French | Workshop |
| Third | Workshop | Geography | Workshop | Workshop | Workshop |
| Fourth | Geography | Workshop | Workshop | Workshop | French |
| Wednesday | | | | | |
| First | Workshop | Workshop | Workshop | Gen. Inf. | French |
| Second | Workshop | Workshop | Workshop | French | Geography |
| Third | Physics | Chemistry | Workshop | Mechanical Drawing | Mechanicaal Drawing |
| Fourth | Bookkeeping | Gen. inf. | Physics | Chemistry | Gen. Inf. |
| Thursday | | | | | |
| First | Mechanical Drawing | Mechanical Drawing | Workshop | Workshop | Agriculture |
| Second | Workshop | Workshop | Math. | Workshop | Agriculture |
| Third | World History | Math. | Workshop | Workshop | Workshop |
| Fourth | Math. | History of Haiti | Workshop | Mechanical Drawing | Mechanical Drawing |
| Friday | | | | | |
| First | Workshop | World History | Workshop | History of Haiti | Geography |
| Second | Workshop | Workshop | World History | Workshop | History of Haiti |
| Third | French | Workshop | Workshop | Workshop | |
| Fourth | Workshop | French | Workshop | Workshop | |

minimally adequate junior high schools. In other words, 1 year at St. Martin is accepted as the equivalent of seventh grade in a secondary school, 2 years as the equivalent of eighth grade, and so forth. Thus, students who are principally interested in continuing their academic training may transfer from the technical school as soon as they are able to enter a lycée. Since competition to enter the lycées is less at the eighth grade than at the seventh grade level, a group of students leave St. Martin every year after 1 year of technical studies to reenter the regular academic stream.

The likelihood of this wastage in first-degree professional schools is probably increased by their admissions procedures, which are based on a general academic aptitude examination and therefore tend to select in favor of the best candidates for readmission to classical schooling. On the other hand, it would be difficult--and perhaps undesirable--to identify the craft- or trades-bound child accurately at this early stage.

2. The academic content of the curriculum contributes to wastage in another way as well: some students are not able to keep up with the required pace of academic learning, perhaps because of inadequate preparation in primary school, and they are flunked out.
3. The final wastage factor is financial. Tuition in the first-degree professional schools is very low at $2.50 a year (the same fee as in public primary school). However, the school does ask $20 per student for workshop materials. Opportunity cost may in fact be as large a factor as direct fees in pressuring students from low-income families to dropout. The average age of the student body is approximately 15 years, and young people of this age and level of education can hope to earn something on the urban job market.

The Director of the St. Martin Center estimates that half of the male graduates continue their education elsewhere--meaning principally in lycées or colleges--since, as will be discussed, they have little hope of getting into a second-degree technical school. The rest have a difficult time finding work. The industries of the capital do not like to employ them at anything other than minimum wage and have few jobs for skilled workers or junior "technicians." The graduates of St. Martin Center seldom have the capital to start a business of their own and, the Director adds, the craftwork market is fairly well saturated with people who have learned their skills on the job.

The second-degree technical schools generally recruit their students from applicants who have completed at least the 10th grade. The exact levels

required for the different programs of the three principal second-degree schools are presented in Table 10.12. In fact, because of the intense competition for a limited number of higher education opportunities, the upper secondary technical schools generally have an "overqualified" student body. Last year, 1,500 people took the entrance examination at the Pilot Center for Professional Training (Centre Pilote Formation Professionnelle - CPFP), many of them students who already had the first or second baccalauréat but feared they might not be admitted to the University. The school can admit only 105 students a year. Naturally, those with more formal education did better on the admissions examination. As a result, the classes were filled with high school graduates rather than the 10th grade completers for whom they were designed. Of the 11 students in electrical studies at the CPFP this year, for example, 10 have the second baccalauréat degree. In the automobile mechanics section, 9 of 14 have this degree and three others have the first baccalauréat. Of the 105 students admitted, just one has only the minimum 10th grade education required.

Two of the four second-degree schools--the CPFP and the Haitian Professional Training Center (Centre de Formation Professionnelle d'Haïti - CFPH)--are quite well-equipped and relatively well-staffed, as they have been established and sustained mainly by foreign donor assistance. The CPFP, built and supported with French assistance, was originally conceived of as an experimental training center directly attached to the INFP, but it has since operated as a largely independent institution. The CFPH was built starting in 1973 with Canadian aid, and it is adjacent to a well-known general secondary school also supported by Canada, Canado classique. It is, in fact, a semipublic institution and charges tuition fees. Both CPFP and CFPH have well-appointed buildings and a series of well-equipped workshops.

The other two second-degree institutions are much less well provided for. The J.B. Damier School, the oldest upper level secondary institute for technical training in the country and the one where the directors of all other technical schools were trained, is in a situation similar to that of the St. Martin Center: dilapadated facilities, little equipment, an inadequate operating budget, and generally underqualified teachers. Some heavy equipment was recently donated to the school by Canada, but is not used because no one is able to install it. The Elie Dubois School is only for girls and teaches only dressmaking.

The curriculum at the second-degree schools is more heavily weighted toward technical work than at the first-degree level, doubtless due partly to their better equipment. The instructional program at two of the four schools is presented in Table 10.13.



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TABLE 10.12

Entrance Requirements for Public Second-Degree Technical Training Programs

| School | Minimum Entrance Level | Duration (years) |
|---|---|---|
| J. B. Damier | 3eme secondary completed | 4 |
| Haitian Professional Training Center (CFPH) | | |
| Auto mechanics | 3eme secondary completed | 3 |
| Maintenance and repair of equipment | 3eme secondary completed | 3 |
| Electricity | 3eme secondary completed | 3 |
| Diesel mechanics | Baccalaureat Philosophie | 2 |
| Mechanical drawing | Baccalaureat Philosophie | 2 |
| Electronics | Baccalaureat Philosophie C | 2 |
| Refrigeration and air conditioning | Baccalaureat Philosophie C | 2 |
| Pilot Center for Professional Training (CPFP) | 3eme secondary completed | 3[a] |

[a]Includes 3-6 months internship.

TABLE 10.13

Breakdown of Instructional Program at Two Public Second-Degree Technical Training Schools

| J. B. Damier School | | | Pilot Center for Professional Training (CPFP) | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Subject | Allocation of Time | | Subject | Allocation of Time | |
| | Hours | % | | Hours | % |
| General education (French, English, legislation, sociology) | 953 | 21.0 | General education (French, English, legislation) | 343 | 9.8 |
| Science and mathematics | 840 | 18.5 | Science and mathematics | 550 | 15.7 |
| Mechanical drawing, workshop methods, and practical work | 2,747 | 60.5 | Mechanical drawing, workshop methods, and practical work | 2,607[a] | 74.5 |
| Total | 4,540 | 100.0 | Total | 3,500 | 100.0 |

[a]Plus term of internship.

The teachers at all four institutions are drawn mostly from their own graduates, some of whom have received scholarships for an additional year or two of study abroad. A common problem for all schools is that well-qualified teachers often can earn significantly more elsewhere. Even the best paid teachers at the CFPH earn only $250-$350 a month, compared to $400 or better for supervisors in industry.

Tuition is free at all schools except the CFPH, which charges $100 for enrollment and $30 a month for tuition. Most schools ask for some initial deposit or fee to cover material costs--one payment of $50 at the CPFP and $30 a year at the CFPH. A few half-tuition scholarships are available at the CFPH.

Dropout rates are about 10-15% a year at the CFPH. Approximately 60% of starting students obtain their diplomas or certificates. Reasons for leaving are financial in 67% of the cases, emigration in another 16%, followed by sickness (9%), and job opportunities (4%). Overall dropout for the last two cohorts to graduate from the CPFP has been lower: 74% of the class of 1979 finished in 1982, whereas 78% of the class of 1980 succeeded. In general, the third year of training at both CPFP and CFPH is largely used for apprenticeships.

At the J. B. Damier School, which is the least-equipped of the male second-degree technical training institutes, the program lasts 4 years rather than 3. Dropout rates are somewhat higher than at the other two male schools. On the average, only one third or less of the starting students receive diplomas.

This kind of training is expensive compared to other forms of education in Haiti--a fact demonstrated both by the grave problems which a school like J. B. Damier encounters due to a lack of equipment and funds and by the financial difficulties that the CFPH experience, despite tuition fees and subsidies from the Ministry of Planning and the Ministry of Education. Costs per student-year at the CFPH in 1982/83 were $1,762. Given the dropout rates cited earlier, it takes 2.15 years ($3,788) to produce a 2-year graduate and 3.5 years ($6,167) to produce a 3-year graduate.

Another technical training facility under the supervision of the INFP and the Ministry of Education is of considerable interest, though it is experimental in scope and has been principally supported to date by foreign assistance: the Auto Mechanics Center (Centre Mécanique Auto - CMA) in Port-au-Prince. Established in 1979 with United Nations support, the CMA trains groups of 15 apprentices in a 2-year course (2,760 contact hours) at the Center's garage, where they get hands-on experience repairing and maintaining government and international agency vehicles. With fees for this repair work,



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plus proceeds from the rental of secondhand or cast-off vehicles that the students have helped to renovate, the CMA covers 90% of its operating costs. Approximately two thirds of the graduates find jobs immediately in the field of auto mechanics, another 10% have to change specialty to locate work, and the remainder experience more prolonged unemployment.

The CMA also offers some nonformal training--principally practical workshop experience for students of private technical institutes in the capital which do not have adequate equipment and facilities of their own. This kind of service is in great demand, but the CMA is not well enough equipped to respond to many of the requests. The CMA is currently at the end of its pilot phase, and plans for its possible extension or replication are being studied by the INFP and the World Bank.

The Ministry of Social Affairs also has a technical education program in the secondary (i.e., processing and transformation) sector concerned with training local craftsmen. It is under the National Office of Artisanry (Office National de l'Artisanat - ONART). Nine craft training centers existed in the 1970s when the program was supervised by the Ministry of Commerce, but these were closed in 1977 when the program was transferred to the Ministry of Social Affairs. ONART now oversees four kinds of programs:

1. A major artisans' training center was started in Petit Goave several years ago with funding by the International Labor Organization. It has trained about 250 craftswomen, or about 30 a year. The women learn to produce small rugs, belts, and other woven items which ONART then helps the center to sell. Some of the first cohort of women trained now serve there as teachers and coordinators.
2. Five "provincial training centers" now exist in principal Haitian cities outside the capital: St. Marc, Cap-Haitien, Port-de-Paix, Gonaives, and Jacmel. They are in the midst of a 3-year U.N.-funded reorganization. Each center trains 10 artisans a year in ceramics, bamboo design, wickerwork, seashell design, and embroidery. The trainees must be literate and are chosen from applicants on the basis of demonstrated artistic potential.
3. Three workshops are being held during 1984/85 in Cap-Haitien, Jacmel, and Gonaives to train Haitian painters in improved use of raw materials, design, and basic management and accounting practices. Funding is provided by the U.N. Simultaneously, ONART is carrying out a nationwide survey of artists and artisans to determine their location, their skills, and the type, quantity, and quality of their production.



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4. The rural workshop and training center established at Camp Perrin (Southern Department) in 1980 by U.N. volunteers is being helped to undertake an extensive effort to train regional craftsmen in carpentry, metalwork, painting, leatherwork, and other small industries that either complement local agriculture or have an outside market. The center is of particular interest because it defrays some of its operating costs by sale of its own products.

Private Sector. Industry, private voluntary organizations, and proprietary educational institutes are much more active in training in the secondary sector of the economy than in the area of agriculture and rural production, though their efforts are very different and are difficult to summarize or quantify. The limiting factor in the establishment of private technical training institutes is the high cost of equipment and materials. In fact, because of the high proportion of these relatively fixed expenditures in the budget, total costs of quality technical training in Haiti cannot be significantly lower than elsewhere. A lathe is a lathe is a lathe, so to speak. Technical and professional education in general, and training for industrial sector jobs in particular, is one of the few branches of the educational system where salaries do not and cannot constitute the bulk of the operating budget--unless, as in a number of public first-degree centers, the technical component of training is mostly ignored.

The Annuaire Protestant of 1983 lists 14 Protestant missionary groups that have technical schools. Among Catholic orders, the Salesian Fathers maintain schools in Cap-Haitien and Port-au-Prince. The Oblate Fathers have a carpentry school in Les Cayes. The Salesian Sisters have a school in Port-au-Prince, and the Sisters of the Sacred Heart, in collaboration with the Haitian-Arab Community Center, operate an industrial training program in the Cite Simone, one of the most economically depressed districts of the capital. Private voluntary organizations generally handle the high costs of equipment and materials by seeking contributions, either of cash or materials. A member of the Salesian organization indicated that it was, in fact, easier to persuade individuals and groups to contribute machinery for vocational and technical training (or to give funds toward the cost of such equipment) than to get them to contribute to the more diffuse needs involved in upgrading primary education.

There are fewer purely proprietary institutions of technical and industrial education. These are mainly limited to the Port-au-Prince area, though their number is steadily increasing. A recent INFP survey identifies seven. Others exist but are not recognized by the Ministry of Education. INFP



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and Ministry personnel regard most of these private institutions as a fringe sector that exploits the current high demand for education without having adequate equipment or staff. In theory, no institution can deliver a valid diploma unless the institution is approved by the Ministry of Education and the diploma is signed by the Minister or his delegate. In fact, non-recognized institutes continue to award certificates of their own.

Theoretically, manufacturing firms are best equipped to provide specific industrial training because they have their own machinery. A survey by the Haitian Statistical Institute (Institut Haïtien de Statistique - IHS) in 1982 identified 457 industrial enterprises in the capital area and 112 elsewhere. About 40% of those in and around the capital were classified as "medium or large" (i.e., more than 50 workers). Surveys by USAID show that only a minority of these firms have any funds for training (42% in a Capital Consult survey, the sums varying from $1,000 to $3,000 a year) and very few (3 of 24 in the Capital Consult sample and 2 of 12 in the group interviewed by Lindenberg) conduct their own training programs. From all indications, considerable training takes place on the job, especially in the case of semiskilled or unskilled workers with very little education who are taken on as production operatives. However, there is very little organized instruction or skill upgrading. Several reasons why employers are relatively uninterested in organizing training programs or subcontracting them to others were suggested in Chapter 2. Two other relevant factors may be noted here:

1. Smaller and Haitian-owned firms, for a variety of reasons, show a tendency to want to keep positions of responsibility "in the family," rather than hire trained outsiders or upgrade non-family staff.
2. The structure of the assembly industries in particular does not require a sizeable trained staff. In the firms Lindenberg surveyed, he found the ratio of top management to supervisors to technical-clerical staff to production workers to be 1 to .068 to 1.6 to 30. In short, these industries seem to be characterized by a relative scarcity of intermediate skilled positions. Assembly operations are organized so that they can be handled by low-wage, minimally qualified workers. While this may in part reflect an adaptation to labor availability in Haiti, it also is a relatively entrenched pattern that has a definite influence on manpower demand and on employer attitudes and behavior relative to training.



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### 10.1.4.4 Training for the Services Sector: Commerce, Social Service, and Government

Public Sector. Government plays a major role in professional training for the services sector of the economy in the sense that, given the nature of primary and secondary school programs, almost all formal education--insofar as it prepares for anything practical--is incremental training toward the goal of holding some kind of salaried administrative position. In this sense, as Philip Foster has pointed out, classical education is vocational training, though it is a form of vocational education not closely related to development needs.

Government sponsors two other types of training programs for service workers: instruction for workers in the tourist industry and health training for medical personnel. Training for the tourist industry is the responsibility of the National Office of Tourism and Public Relations (Office National du Tourisme et des Relations Publiques - ONTRP). Two types of training institutes exist. The Tourist Guides' Training School (Ecole de Formation des Guides) was established in the capital in 1979 and currently enrolls about 20 apprentices for a 1-year course of studies focusing on languages and national culture. To enter, students must have at least a 12th grade (seconde) education. The Hotel School of Haiti (Ecole Hôtelière d'Haïti), provides a 2-year course to students having the same entry level, who concentrate in one of three areas: cuisine, restaurant/bar service, or hotel management. The school has an enrollment of 120 students and graduates around 50 each year. The tourist industry has been depressed for several years but still constitutes a potential sources of income and foreign exchange. This sector could benefit from improvements in both quality and quantity.

Most medical training is carried on at higher levels and is considered elsewhere in this sector assessment. There are, however, three schools for nurses' aides, (aides soignantes)--in the the capital, in Les Cayes, and in Cap-Haitien. Applicants must have 3 years of secondary education and the training lasts 9 months. The three schools enroll about 200 students. Haiti has a serious shortage of nurse's aides who are only slightly more numerous than nurses. Yet, as Ministry of Health personnel told World Bank representatives, there are in effect no real staffing "needs" in the medical area since there are no funds to pay for additional staff.

Proprietary training institutions for occupations in the service sector are more numerous than any other type of for-profit schools. Two categories predominate: business/secretarial schools and home economics centers.



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Until recently, business and secretarial training was virtually monopolized by the private sector. The Government did nothing in this area of professional type training. A secretarial and computer section will soon open at CPFH, however, and the possible transformation of the Elie Dubois School into a center specializing in this training is under study.

Business and secretarial training is an easier area for private schools to enter than professional and industrial training, because the equipment (typewriters, dictaphones, filing cabinets, and even mini-computers) is much less complex, bulky, and costly than crafts or industrial machinery. This is one reason why there are three times as many private business schools in Port-au-Prince as private technical schools (22 versus 7). Not all of these are run for profit. The Methodist Church, for example, operates a secretarial school in conjunction with its classical secondary school, the Nouveau College Bird. A considerable fringe of unchartered institutes absorbs the overflow demand for some form of secondary education. On the labor market, the name of the institution attended may carry considerable weight. The better-endowed institutions are beginning to introduce basic computer skills into their training programs.

The numerous home economics centers (centres ménagers) are in this category of commerce- or service-oriented training institutions, though in most cases they do not prepare for specific careers (other than establishment of more centers of the same variety). In fact, from a purely economic point of view, the large number of these centers is puzzling, since participants (almost exclusively girls) who pay tuition have little prospect of improving their chances of employment. (Textile and assembly industries hire more women than men, but a certificate from a centre menager does not provide a qualification for this kind of job).

The centres ménagers are apparently as much a social and cultural phenomenon as an economic one. They constitute a finishing school and promise access to a slightly higher social status for girls not able to continue beyond primary school (or, in some cases, beyond the early years of primary school) in any other way. Remedial literacy is taught, as well as homemaking and craft skills. Parents are reassured that their daughters are doing something respectable with their time. Some girls learn marketable skills of sewing, embroidery, and dressmaking. Perhaps the biggest payoff is that the students are considered to be much more "marriageable" upon completion of this training. Whatever the case, the sheer number of students and of hours of work involved is impressive.

## 10.2 ANALYSIS

The above section provided an overview of the current status vocational and technical education. The second portion of this chapter will be diagnostic rather than descriptive in character. Its objective is to formulate some preliminary judgments about how well the system of vocational and technical education is working, to examine the principal needs for improvement or change, to consider the plans of this nature that have already been made, and to suggest further initiatives that might be taken.

### 10.2.1 Issues

In the initial evaluative part of this section, the operation of the system will be examined from five perspectives: internal efficiency, external efficiency, access and equity, management and administration, and costs and financing. Because of the heterogeneous nature of vocational and technical education in Haiti, and because of the lack of information about many of its parts, a comprehensive evaluation of the system is difficult to make. However, some summary remarks about its operation will help to focus what has been presented to this point and to lay the foundation for recommendations.

#### 10.2.1.1 Internal Efficiency

The "internal efficiency" of an educational program refers to the effectiveness with which it uses available resources to accomplish its basic instructional objectives. Internal efficiency, therefore, can be represented as a ratio between learning outcomes and the amount of resources devoted to attaining them. Haiti has no standardized examinations for technical and professional skills against which to judge what and how much is learned by graduates. The nearest quantitative indicator of learning outcomes is a measure of the numbers of graduates and the degree of wastage in enrollments--and that only for certain branches of the training system. The best available indicator of the quality of learning is some information on the inputs to the training process.

Government aspires to make vocational and technical studies a major option within the reformed educational system. In general, however, technical and professional schools are too few and usually too poorly equipped and staffed to effectively handle any substantial proportion of primary and junior secondary school graduates. More than 50,000 students graduated from primary school in 1984, but there were fewer than 2,000 places available in public first-degree professional training schools (compared to around 35,000 places available in the first year of general secondary school). In 1983/84, there were more than 120,000 students in general secondary schools (22,000 of them in public



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secondary schools) and only 12,000 students in secondary-level technical schools, public and private combined (excluding home economics centers). Only around 3,500 of these students were in public or semipublic institutions. They, therefore, represented about 14% of overall public secondary school enrollments and less than 3% of total secondary enrollments.

Competition is intense for entry into upper secondary-level technical schools. At the beginning of the 1984/85 school year, 2,800 persons applied for 440 places in the three principal second-degree schools. Only one of six or seven applicants could be admitted and, since admission examinations are generally academic in nature, applicants with the highest level of prior formal education tend to be accepted. At the first-degree level, the demand is apparently less strong: ratio of applicants to places was approximately 3:2 in the school visited during the sector assessment. In all cases, however, there is a predominance of students whose real objective is to complete general secondary education or to gain access to the University, and for whom professional training is a second choice or an alternate way to return to the academic mainstream.

Vocational and technical education has long suffered from a negative bias in Haitian society, reinforced by the generally poor state of the few existing technical schools and the lack of job opportunities. This atmosphere is beginning to change, particularly at the higher level where a few, well-funded schools and good job opportunities exist. Also, the public seems to have begun to realize that technical credentials may be more valuable on the international market and, thus, provide a better opportunity for emigration, than general secondary diplomas--and certainly better than no secondary diploma. But most students in all schools are academically overqualified or primarily interested in returning to classical education.

Dropout rates from public or semipublic institutions of technical training are high: 70% in first-degree schools and from 25% to 60% in second-degree schools. Financial pressures, the academic nature of the curriculum, and shortcomings in previous schooling are the principal causes of this wastage. Many schools, aware of the few jobs available, seem intent on filtering their enrollments and graduating only those who may expect to be employed. In 1982, public and private technical schools and business/secretarial schools together produced only 1,500 graduates.

The only readily available way to evaluate the quality of learning in technical schools is by examining the inputs. Students have just been mentioned. Teachers are in reasonable supply (the student/teacher ratio is 23:1) but are generally quite underqualified, though there has been improvement

in the second-degree schools and the INFP is making an effort to retrain some vocational/technical instructors. The principal problem is that well-qualified instructors--that is, instructors having both sufficient training and some practical experience--can earn considerably higher salaries elsewhere.

Except for the 2 second-degree institutions supported by foreign assistance and the first-degree centers under the supervision of religious orders, technical training schools are poorly housed and equipped and have virtually no operating budgets. The CPFP and the CFPH are much better equipped, but their facilities are not put to maximum use.

Curriculum and instruction in first-degree technical training centers remains academic in nature for a variety of reasons, including the lack of technical equipment and the lack of clear job descriptions and labor market linkages. The four-year course is too long to serve immediate job-oriented training needs and this contributes to the high attrition rates of these schools. Many of the same problems are present, to a slightly lesser extent, at the second-degree centers. Course content is generally not closely tied to marketable skills because of the lack of information about the job market and the absence of personnel who can design competency-based instructional materials.

These factors jointly suggest that the quality of technical and professional skill acquisition in public training institutes, except as noted, is quite low. The two institutions supported by foreign assistance offer better training, though some employers suggests that, despite the time spent in job internships, graduates of these institutes have an orientation that is still too specialized and academic.

Estimating the quality of instruction in private institutions of technical training is even more difficult, both because of their diversity and because of lack of information. INFP personnel have a low opinion of the value of proprietary training institutes, believing that they promise much and deliver very little (because of a lack of trained staff and adequate equipment) and they are financially exploiting the high social demand for education of any kind. In 1981, 63% of the students enrolled in private professional training institutes were in the first year of study, compared to 53% of those enrolled in public technical institutes. This suggests that their dropout rates are at least as high, and probably for many of the same reasons.

There are no secondary-level public training institutes for business and secretarial skills, and very little is known about the relatively numerous private institutes (40 in 1981). In 1981, 63% of their enrollment was likewise concentrated in the first year, though this may indicate less about dropout



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rates than in the case of technical schools because a number of business programs last only 1 year. Business schools represented more than 60% of the professional diplomas and certificates granted in 1981.

Technical and business training centers organized by PVOs and missions or religious orders seem to have a higher level of internal efficiency than the other private institutes. Many have better equipment and pay their teachers more than the proprietary schools. The ICTA described earlier is an example.

10.2.1.2 External Efficiency

The "external efficiency" of an educational program concerns the degree to which the knowledge, skills, and attitudes it conveys are relevant to the job market, the lives of its graduates, and society as a whole. Though the question of the personal and social usefulness of training is considerably broader than the employment and self-employment record of recent graduates, information on job market performance provides a strong indicator of external efficiency--and one that is very important to the people involved.

Training for the primary sector of the economy suffers from a real crisis of external efficiency. Students graduating from the Middle Schools of Agriculture and Veterinary Science and of Geology in the past could expect jobs as Government extension agents or technicians, while those completing the CFA program were supposed to be employed as local agricultural monitors. Now, however, these Government structures are not able to hire any more staff. Little other employment is available in the primary sector, and the students are neither equipped nor inclined to go into primary production on an individual commercial basis.

In the processing sector of the economy, students from public technical training institutes have had more success. Graduates of second-degree training schools (CPFP, CFPH, J. B. Damier) have generally been able to find jobs or, in some cases, to establish their own business. It is noteworthy that many of the graduates sooner or later emigrate, particularly those in the technical trades where demand is highest.

The Director of J.B. Damier estimates that 60% of his graduates find jobs in industry, 10% set up a business of their own, and 25% emigrate. The Director of CFPH speaks of roughly similar proportions, with fewer emigrees and more self-employed, partly because the Royal Bank of Canada grants preferential terms to CFPH graduates who want loans to begin their own business.

For the CPFP, a tracer study in 1984 by the Planning Division of the Ministry of Education provides more precise information on what becomes of the school's graduates. The situation of the school's 244 graduates as of June 1984 was as follows:



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| Employed in their specialty area or a related one | 53% |
| Self-employed | 4% |
| Emigrated | 22% |
| Unemployed | 17% |
| Pursuing further studies | 2% |
| Working in an unrelated area | 2% |

Of the graduates remaining in Haiti, 95% were in the Port-au-Prince area.

Two further breakdowns of this overall picture provide other valuable information. First, if lone compares recent graduates with those who have been out of school 3 years or more, it appears that the tendency to emigrate increases over time. Forty-two percent (64) of the class of 1979 are now abroad, compared to 15% (70) of the class of 1982 and 3% (79) of the class of 1983. This could indicate either that opportunities in Haiti have been improving or, as the report suggests, that a number of graduates try jobs on the local market, find them unsatisfying or poorly paid, and go abroad when the opportunity is available.

Second, if one compares the graduates of the different technical sectors of CPFP, another pattern emerges. In general, the highest rates of emigration are found among graduates of the technical specialties that are currently in highest demand (electronics and industrial mechanics). Fully 50% of the graduates of these branches who have been out of school 3 years or more are now working abroad. (These figures may somewhat overstate the emigration phenomenon in that a certain number of the graduates who leave the country already have family abroad and probably begin school with that destination in mind.)

Graduates of first-degree professional schools apparently do not fare as well, though the mission-run institutes may be an exception (e.g., Salesian Fathers' Trade and Industrial Arts School in Port-au-Prince). In general, few opportunities on the job market correspond to their modest level of skill, and they do not have the funds to start a business of their own. According to the Director of the St. Martin Center, at this level, the few female graduates in fact do better than the boys because they find employment more readily, generally in the hotel industry.

As for business and secretarial schools, their very proliferation seems to testify to the potential market, but there are no data on their external efficiency.

External efficiency is not just a question of the private benefits of schooling, but depends as well on the value of current investments in vocational/technical education of Haitian society as a whole. Are the nation's



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technical manpower needs being met? Data in Chapter 2 throw some light on this question but require further commentary.

1. In general, projections of supply and demand for technical secondary school graduates over the 1985-90 period suggest that quantitative needs are being met and will continue to be met at current or slightly increased rates of production. This matches fairly well with an attitude prevalent among teaching and administrative personnel concerned with vocational and technical education--namely, that the absorptive capacity of the technical labor market is not very great and that there is some danger of oversupply. For reasons of this type, the CPFP has maintained a policy of enrolling students 2 years out of every three rather than annually.

   The situation seems paradoxical, given the considerable growth of the industrial sector over the last decade and the possibilities associated with the Caribbean Basin Initiative. In fact, it appears that many of the new industries--the assembly and subcontracting enterprises in particular--are not structured in such a way as to require much skilled labor or mid-level technical staff. They employ principally unskilled or semiskilled workers who can be trained on-the-job in the manual assembly tasks required. Vocational educators complain that even in the positions where technical skills would be useful to ensure better maintenance and repair of machinery, industrialists prefer to use low-paid labor, amortize their equipment quickly, and write it off to profit and loss. It is difficult to separate fact from impression in this area without studying the internal structure of Haitian industries from a manpower utilization point of view, and no studies of this nature are currently available. It is certain, however, that industrial growth in Haiti does not necessarily imply a parallel growth of the demand for skilled labor.

2. As noted in Chapter 2, manpower demand projections are very sensitive to assumptions about the structure of the labor force in different sectors of the economy. If job qualifications in different branches of economic activity were upgraded (as is assumed for the sake of argument in "Projection III" of that chapter), the view of manpower demand could change considerably. Upgrading could come about for one or more of three reasons: (1) credential inflation, (2) government regulation, and/or (3) employer response to the higher productivity of better trained workers. The three are not mutually exclusive. By traditional economic logic, the third reason is the only one that



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would prove socially beneficial. It is not certain, however, that such upgrading would happen spontaneously, even if better trained workers were potentially more productive. Such considerations lead to a third general point (already covered in Chapter 2).

3. Supply and demand in traditional manpower projections are treated as independent and relatively inelastic. In actuality, they are always interrelated and somewhat elastic. Production processes may be organized in more than one way and people with a given level of vocational education may perform more than one type of task, especially when they are provided with some on-the-job training. Both supply and demand may need to adjust to ensure maximum social benefit from a given set of economic circumstances. The external efficiency of vocational and technical education is in part a measure of the internal efficiency of the sectors of the economy to which it applies--that is, of how well they are using available manpower.

Overall, therefore, it appears that the supply of technically skilled manpower is currently covering effective demand, with some left over "for export." But, as pointed out in Chapter 2, manpower demand is not directly equivalent to manpower "need." (Demand refers simply to what those who have resources are willing and able to buy. If the population of a region suffers from ill health but has no money to pay for hospital care, there is no demand for a hospital in the pure economic sense.)

The nation may "need" more skilled manpower than it is presently able to employ, given current economic structures, wages levels, and fiscal capacity. This need may exist in two senses of the word. First, from a technical point of view, it may be impossible to achieve some important social goals (e.g., higher agricultural production, improved health, better urban sanitation and housing) without these trained people. Second, the nation may need more skilled workers in the sense that cohorts of young people with the general education necessary to acquire technical skills are currently underemployed, and human resources are being wasted. The latter is clearly the present case in Haiti. The issue of vocational and technical education is not only a problem of meeting current needs in the labor market, but also a problem of giving some direction and socially useful skills to the growing numbers of primary school and junior secondary school graduates (or graduates of the second and third cycles of fundamental education in the reformed system).

The system of vocational/technical education is therefore necessarily both demand- and supply-driven. One of its tasks, which is one of the most

important tasks of the state and the economy at large, is to favor the adjustment or mutual adaptation of supply and demand. The system is a dynamic one, and there is never stable equilibrium, partly because the production and utilization cycle for trained manpower is generally longer than the duration of economic cycles that affect demand. Efforts can and should be made to render the vocational and technical education system more flexible, better attuned to manpower demands in the economy, and more capable of adjusting rapidly--by means of retraining, short-cycle modular courses, and so forth--to changes in the job market. What is often forgotten is that it is also important to make the employment system more flexible, better attuned to manpower supply, and more capable of adjusting to and benefiting from currently available human resources--through incentives, regulation, support for on-the-job or mid-career training, and so forth.

One way to develop employment and increase the demand for, and the productive utilization of, skilled labor is to support the creation of small enterprises that link the industrial sector to the rest of the economy and provide the services needed by the industrial work force. A 1980 ILO study identified and analyzed more than 150 opportunities for small business development in Haiti and concluded that support should be oriented primarily toward "activities that create employment and service several specific markets: effective consumer demand, construction of low-cost housing and needed infrastructures, metal manufacture and repair and subcontracting for existing industry or foreign firms." (Biry and Mellgren, Rapport sur le Projet HAI/82/009 Création et développement des pilotes entreprises, 1982).

At present, however, there is great unbalance between supply and demand in the labor market. Hai i presents the picture of a country with great domestic needs which exports some of its most highly developed human resources because of inability to employ them locally. The conclusion must, therefore, be that the system of vocational and technical education is not very externally efficient from a social point of view, even though its production covers most of the effective demand for trained manpower at the present time. There are some shortages, as revealed by reports of prospective industrial investors who decide not to establish a business in Haiti because they cannot find a reliable source of technicians (though this may be due as much to low labor mobility as to an actual lack of trained Haitians). A considerable reserve of Haitian manpower is located abroad and is potentially available if real job opportunities appeared at home. One consequence of the relatively "open" nature of the economy is that to date it has been difficult to create a reserve pool of trained local manpower. Technicians and skilled workers operate in a



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regional job market and, whenever possible, move abroad to areas where living conditions are easier and where their training brings a better return. Reverse flow has so far been minimal.

The low "social efficiency" of the vocational/technical education system is as much a result of a problem of internal inefficiency in the economy at large as of the lack of relevance of vocational/technical programs and curricula themselves. In other words, trained human resources are not presently being utilized. The reasons for this underutilization of a major factor of production are too complex to analyze in the course of a sector assessment, but this aspect of the "external efficiency" problem must be borne in mind.

This discussion adds one new aspect to remarks made earlier about the internal efficiency of the vocational/technical training system. Given the relatively shallow and rigid nature of current domestic demand for skilled manpower, the high wastage that characterizes training in public sector technical schools may be viewed as, in a sense, an "efficient" adaptation to market realities. It enables the system to accept relatively large numbers of people (large relative to the investments) and select out the few who can be employed domestically or who are qualified enough to compete in regional labor markets. Export of relatively high-grade human resources has been a tradition in Haiti; on its own small scale, the vocational/technical system reproduces this pattern.

10.2.1.3 Access and Equity

Access to the limited supply of vocational and technical education is strongly gender-biased. As shown above in Table 10.2, women composed only 8.7% of the enrollment of technical schools in 1981, though they accounted for nearly three quarters of the enrollment of business/secretarial schools. Yet, the majority of factory workers in Haiti--and nearly 60% of those in assembly industries--are women (Ministry of Social Affairs, Résultats de l'Enquête sur l'Emploi Industriel Réalisé sur Port-au-Prince et l'Aire Métropolitaine, 1980). Women are largely restricted to training in a specific set of skills (Table 10.3). Those women in technical schools are all in handicrafts. In the business schools, the most technical of the skills taught--accounting--is still predominantly (68%) restricted to male students.

Training opportunities are also regionally biased, as shown in Table 10.2. The ratio of business and technical enrollments to population in the Western Department (3.43) is more than three times the weighted average for the rest of the country (1.06). Moreover, except for the nearly defunct CFAs, public and proprietary training institutions are concentrated in urban areas and serve

almost exclusively the manufacturing and service section of the economy. Only PVO and mission schools deal with rural agricultural training in any functional manner.

10.2.1.4 Administration and Supervision

Vocational and technical education is highly dispersed and uncoordinated. No central public institution has so far been able to coordinate the wide range of technical training sponsored by Government, or even accurately inventory private sector efforts. The INFP has been formally vested with this responsibility for the last 10 years, but has had neither the authority nor the means to do it. Consequently, there is no uniform system of institutional accreditation or trade skill testing and certification, and no reliable mechanism for involving employers in decisions affecting manpower supply or demand. Little capacity for manpower planning, job analysis, and vocational curriculum design has been developed within the Ministry of Education, though the INFP has begun work on these tasks.

Until recently, there has been little effective social legislation establishing salary scales, even in the civil service, or defining labor rights. There are a few company unions in the industrial sector, but they have little influence on disputes with employers. It is hoped that the new National Federation of Labor Unions will bring improvements in this area.

10.2.1.5 Costs and Financing

Vocational and technical education of good quality is expensive compared to other kinds of education. Unit operating costs of over $1,500 per student-year were calculated in Chapter 2 for some types of technical training. The current dropout rate in vocational and technical education makes per-graduate costs even higher, sometimes exceeding $7,000.

There is obviously room for improved internal efficiency, reduced dropout rates, and better utilization of facilities--all of which would help reduce costs. At the same time, however, the current low teacher salaries represent false savings, because they are below the opportunity wage that competent instructors can earn elsewhere, and this makes it difficult to retain good staff.

Despite its costs, vocational and technical education can have high private and social returns, because it directly services productive sectors of the economy and performs a series of important secondary functions like retraining of mid-career workers, nonformal training for the self-employed, career orientation for general secondary students, etc. In short, vocational/technical education can constitute a critical hinge between the educational system and the principle branches of the economy.

For it to do so, better supervision and coordination are necessary, but budgetary constraints make this difficult to realize. By statute, the INFP is financed from the proceeds of an "apprenticeship tax" on all private businesses (including the professions). This tax is not strictly collected; furthermore, the proceeds go into the Treasury rather than to the INFP, which instead receives a lesser allotment from the Ministry of Education. Financing problems of this type must be solved for vocational and technical education to be effective.

10.2.2 Needs

A number of critical needs emerge from the foregoing discussion:

1. Better equipment and staffing for existing public technical training facilities.
2. A better system of incentives for hiring, retaining, and retraining competent vocational/technical instructors.
3. Better coordination of vocational/technical planning with manpower needs, including improved capacities for manpower analysis and appropriate curriculum design and a more flexible approach to training. Greater emphasis should be given to the acquisition of multiple basic technical skills (polyvalence), rapid adaptation to specific job opportunities through modular courses, and continuing education/retraining (recyclage).
4. Enlargement of capacity through expansion and upgrading of existing facilities and/or creation of new ones. This enlargement should be carefully coordinated with the programs to generate employment suggested in the following item.
5. Programs to generate employment, particularly support for creation of micro and small enterprises that link the industrial sector more effectively to the rest of the economy and reinforce agro-industry.
6. More equitable regional deployment of facilities and broadened opportunities for girls and working women.
7. More attention to vocational training needs in the primary sector of the economy, particularly agriculture. Significantly, employers and vocational educators commented that there will be no durable solution for the industrial training problem until the problems of Haitian agriculture are better addressed and means are found to design and disseminate technologies and policies to increase its productivity and holding power.
8. Better coordination of private and public institutes of vocational/technical training, and development and application of standards for

institutional accreditation and competency certification.

9. Improved coordination and division of labor between the vocational/technical system and employer groups, particularly in industry. Employers need to participate in planning manpower training and to take greater responsibility for on-to-job training, upgrading of employee skills, and suitable incentive structures.

10.2.3 Constraints

Any effort to address these needs must deal with a set of major constraints:

1. A dualistic economy with a modern sector highly centralized in the capital and a labor market not able to absorb a major increase in technically qualified workers.
2. A Government that does not tax national product very efficiently or equitable, and a budget unable to support additional recurrent costs.
3. The lack of an effective institutional framework to coordinate the different branches of Government involved, the diverse forms of privately sponsored training, and the interests of employers.
4. A lack of qualified personnel for manpower analysis, vocational/technical curriculum design, or supervision.
5. A private sector that is wary of Government interference and prefers to operate independently.
6. A shortage of information about the labor market, career histories of graduates and dropouts, and private training efforts.

10.2.4 Plans

A number of efforts to meet the needs expressed earlier are now being planned or implemented. Theses may modify the situation in some fundamental ways. They will be presented here under three headings: (a) Government plans (including those supported by multilateral and bilateral donors other than USAID), (b) USAID plans, and (c) private sector initiatives.

10.2.4.1 Government Plans

Government is giving renewed attention to vocational and technical education, partly because the Education Reform will soon reach its seventh year when decisions must be made about the respective roles of general and technical curricula. Assistance to Government efforts in this field is a major component (25%) of the World Bank-sponsored Fourth Education Project, scheduled to start in mid-1985, and may represent a larger portion of a possible fifth project. Not all government efforts are subsumed with in the Bank-financed project,

however. Overall Government plans for vocational/technical education may be discussed in four subareas: renovation and development of public techncial training instututes, improved coordination and administration of the system, development of handicrafts training, and transformation of agricultural education.

1. Renovation of Public Technical Traning Institutes. With World Bank support, government plans a major effort to reorganize and revitalize the existing public and semipublic technicla training institutes. The project has been scaled down from its original size to allow implementation by stages and modificaiton of plans based on initial results, but the underlying orientation is unchanged. The basic idea is to transform the exisitng first- and second-degree instutes into a nationwide three-tiered sytem to complement the structure of the Education Reform. The three tiers comprise Satellite Training Centers (Centres Satellites - CSs) in small, mostly rural localities; Polyvalent Training Centers (Centres Polyvalents de Formation - CPFs) in major regional centers; and Technical Training Centers (Centres de Formation Technique - CFTs) in the capital. These institutions will have the following characteristics:
2. Satellite Centers (CSs). At the base of the structure, the Satellite Centers are to offer elementary programs of formal and nonformal technical training to meet the particular needs of a given locality. Their program will reflect that of the regional Polyvalent Training Centers (see below) and they are to be staffed principally by CPF graduates. The program in the CSs will be devoted particularly to rural young people who have completed only the first cycle of fundamental education (fourth grade). Nonformal programs to be developed in collaboration with the National Organization for Literacy and Community Action (ONAAC), will concern basic literacy plus skill upgrading or initial trade training for young people and adults with no educational qualifications.
3. Polyvalent Training Centers (CPFs). The CPFs are to be located in major regional centers and in the capital. They will take over the functions of most of the existing first-degree technical schools, but will have a more flexible training program that is closely tied to the development needs of their area. They will sponsor both formal and nonformal types of training. The types of formal training and the entry-level prerequisites will be established on the basis of the types of skilled workers and technicians needed in each region.

Formal training will generally last a maximum of 3 years, with opportunities for exiting to the labor market with full certification at intermediate points. The first year will be for general technical training and remedial academic education. The second year will be one of specialization with a large amount of practical experience and will lead to a certificate and entry to the job market (or self-employment) for most participants. Those who continue further technical education and who have the necessary aptitudes will receive a third year of training to prepare them for higher studies.

The CPF will also offer nonformal courses, both initial trade training for the unemployed or those obliged to start a new career and skill upgrading for mid-career workers. CPF facilities are to be used to their maximum, and working space and equipment may be rented to local craftsmen for their production needs when not being used for instruction.

4. Technical Training Centers (CFTs). The CFTs are the top echelon of the system. They will be comprised of the four existing second-degree public training institutes in Port-au-Prince: the CPFP, the CFPH, the J.B. Damier School, and the Elie Dubois School. These institutes will be reinforced, re-equipped, and (where necessary) rebuilt. It has been suggested that to avoid duplication of effort, they should specialize in the following branches:

   CPFP: Mechanical trades

   CFPH: Electricity/electronics skill

   J. B. Damier: Cabinetmaking, wood and metal furniture production

   Elie Dubois: Business and secretarial skills, computers

The CFTs would accept students who have completed 10 years of general education (third-cycle) or who have completed the third year in a CPF. The Ministry of Education wishes to introduce a full technical secondary degree (baccalauréat technique) as the diploma granted in the CFTs. This degree would have equivalent status with the existing academic baccalauréat and would make higher education available to some of those who pursue the technical track of studies. Both the principle and the details of this innovation, however, are still a subject of discussion. Implementation has been postponed until the end of the Fourth Education Project. Until then, CFT students will continue to receive a diploma or certificate of technical studies, which does not have the same status as the baccalauréat.



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The new system is a compromise between views of the World Bank and those of the Ministry of Education. The World Bank wanted to emphasize training directly relevant to employment, whereas personnel of the Ministry of Education wanted the centers to have a formal technical education component so some of their students could continue their studies. Plans are not final, but the relationship presently expected between this system and the structure of the Education Reform is illustrated in Figure 10.3.

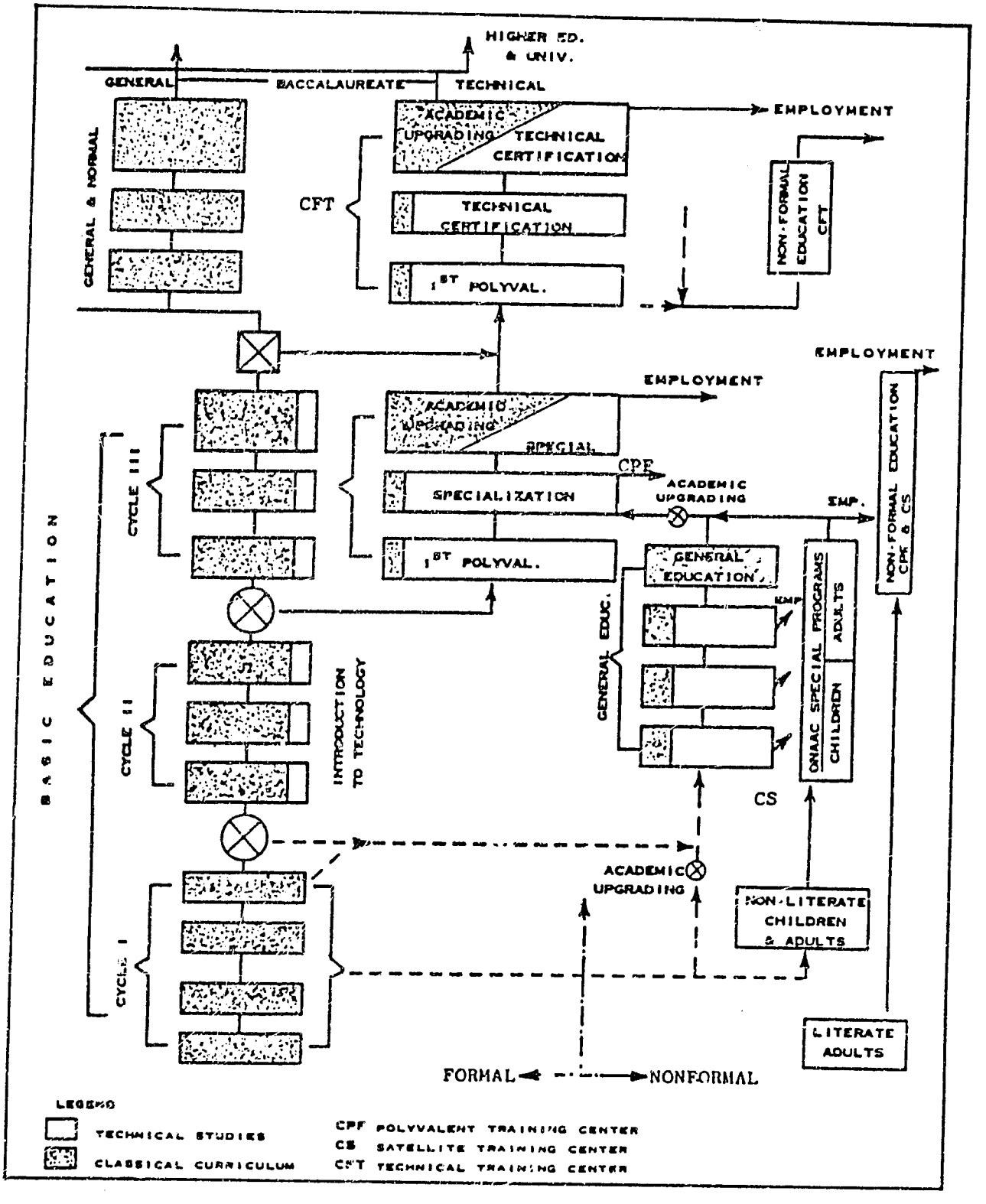
Initially, the creation of eight CPTs around the country was contemplated for the period of the Fourth Education Project--two new ones, two already built under the Third Education Project, and four to be installed in existing training institutes with appropriate renovations and upgrading of equipment. In addition, five Satellite Training Centers were to be created--one to be built and four to be placed in existing facilities. However, it was decided to proceed more slowly, because the implementation of the Reform was behind schedule and because of doubts about the exact methodology to use in the new centers and about the absorptive capacities of the market. As things now stand, two CPFs--one in an urban area (Carrefour/Port-au-Prince) and one in a more rural setting (Hinche)--will be created in 1985, along with two CSs (Bergereau and Cotes de Fer). A third CPF in Gonaives may be added in 1986. The idea is to try out the new training methods in these localities before proceeding further. Any extension would be provided under a Fifth Education Project to begin in 1988.

Coordination of the Vocational/Technical Training System. A second area in which important plans have been laid is the coordination and administration of the vocational/technical training system. In the recent reorganization of the Ministry of Education, the Directorate of Professional and Technical Education (Direction de l'Enseignement Technique et Professionnel) was eliminated. These responsibilities were placed in the National Institute of Professional Training (INFP), which itself plans to reorganize its internal structure as shown in Figure 10.2.

The INFP has proposed to Government a new national legislative measure, the "fundamental law of professional training" (Loi Fondamentale de la Formation Professionnelle), which would institute a "national system of professional training" (Système National de Formation Professionnelle - SNFP) including the programs of all ministries in this area and providing regulation and coordination of private initiatives. The INFP would be responsible for organizing and coordinating this system, though many of the participants would retain a significant amount of autonomy. Although the law will probably not be passed

FIGURE 10.3

Proposed Vocational/Technical System Under the Reform



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in its present form, due in part to the resistance of other ministries, it is likely that some version of this measure will be adopted over the next year, giving a little more coherence to the SNFP. The law also will govern how the apprenticeship tax will be spent.

Under the terms of its Fourth Education Project, the World Bank will support INFP with several kinds of resources: resident advisors and short-term consultants, a new center for the training of vocational/technical instructors, and a number of special programs to be carried out under INFP auspices. As presently planned, these special programs include:

- A 1-year survey of manpower needs.
- A 4-year program to upgrade the skills of vocational/technical education teachers (20 per year).
- A pilot project for training small entrepreneurs.
- A program to upgrade training center directors and INFP personnel.
- A program to train bricklayers for a project to renovate the Citadelle, funded by Unesco and the government of Spain.

Developments of Handicrafts Training. The foregoing programs will operate directly or indirectly under the Ministry of Education. The Ministry of Social Affairs also has plans for future activities relevant to vocational and technical training. The first four of these programs, detailed below, are supported by the World Bank and the fifth by other donors.

- The Ministry will sponsor afternoon trade training programs in the new Carrefour CPF.
- A pilot training center will be completed in the Drouillard district of the capital in connection with the low-cost housing project which Government's National Housing Office (Bureau National de Logement) is carrying out. Courses will be given to train residents to produce the wood and metal furnishings to be used in the new quarters.
- Ministry staff will undertake a special year-long study to identify specific training and service needs of women living in the poorest neighborhoods of the capital (zones marginales).
- A liaison officer within the Ministry will maintain communications with the INFP, and the World Bank will sponsor the training of a number of Ministry personnel at the INFP.
- Finally, the United Nations will continue to fund five pilot centers for handicrafts training in provincial cities.

Transformation of the Agricultural Training System. The Ministry of Agriculture, National Resources, and Rural Development (MARNDR) plans to



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undertake a major reform of the agricultural training system. The objective is to decentralize agricultural middle schools and reorient them toward training local technicians and model farmers (agriculteurs d'élite) rather than educating national agricultural extension officers, since the Ministry can hire no more of the latter. The new system, under the Agricultural College of the University of Haiti (FAMV), will also serve as a regional center for applied research by the students and faculty of the College. The following sites have been selected for these new Middle Schools of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine (Ecoles Moyennes d'Agriculture et de Médecine Vétérinaire):

- Hinche - Center already built with World Bank support, to open in January 1985.
- Dondon - Construction funded by France and tentatively to open in 1985/86.
- Limbe/ODVA - Center to be funded by Canada. It will concentrate on rice cultivation and irrigated farming.
- Petit Goave - Center for the Southern Department, funding not yet secured.
- Jeremie - Center for the Department of Grand-Anse, funding not yet secured.
- Foret des Pins - An agro-forestry school still at the conceptual stage.

What will be done with the next lower echelon of formal agricultural training, the CFAs (Agricultural Training Centers), is not yet certain. They may be changed into nonformal training facilities for peasants or closed altogether.

At present, the only geographical connection between the plans of the Ministry of Agriculture and the technical training centers that the Ministry of Education is attempting to renovate is in the center of Hinche, built with World Bank support for both purposes. Three branches of training are to be offered: agricultural science under MARNDR/FAMV auspices, rural technology under INFP/Ministry of Education auspices, and community development under the auspices of ONAAC. Elsewhere, the Ministry of Agriculture plans do not match those of the Ministry of Education.

10.2.4.2 USAID Plans

USAID is currently planning or reviewing the possibility of several activities relevant to vocational and technical training:

Management and Productivity Center. The MPC is a projected $2.3 million endeavor, presently at the planning stage, which would establish a center to provide multilevel management training and management services, predominantly



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to the Port-au-Prince market. It would offer nonacademic, short-duration workshops and seminars on practical topics for the business community. It would also have a micro-business component to provide basic business skills training and assistance for small entrepreneurs who request loans to start or extend their businesses. The Center itself would be a privately operated entity.

Medical-Social Complex of Cite Simone. USAID is also preparing plans for a project to help the Complexe Médico-Social de la Cite Simone, a community development endeavor undertaken by two PVOs in one of Port-au-Prince's most depressed neighborhoods, to build up its programs of health service delivery and of vocational skills training.

The Rural Training Center Project. The Rural Training Center (Centre d'Appui aux Formations), described earlier in this chapter, is changing form and begin functioning again as a self-financing PVO.

Possible Factory Women Support Project. USAID is exploring the idea of a project to provide services and possibly further training to women working in the industries of the capital.

#### 10.2.4.3 Private Sector Plans

Private sector involvement in vocational and technical education over the next 5-year period is uncertain, because the sector is so diverse and has so far been subject to little central coordination or licensing. There will very likely be a gradual upgrading and expansion of proprietary institutions for technical training in urban areas. PVOs and religious bodies will become more active in vocational and technical education as their basic education efforts begin to address productive employment for large numbers of primary school graduates and secondary school leavers.

The ICTA (described earlier) and a new rural technical school sponsored by missionaries in Bohoc are examples of the form these efforts may take.

As for industry-sponsored programs, new firms continue to appear. Managers mention the possible utility of jointly sponsored inservice training programs, but nothing specific has developed.

## 10.3 CONCLUSIONS

Eight general conclusions about the status and needs of vocational/technical education may be drawn on the basis of the foregoing information.

### Conclusion 1 - Underdevelopment

Vocational and technical education is relatively little developed in Haiti, both because manual and technical occupations have traditionally had low status in Haitian society and because economic demand for these skills was very

weak until recently. Public programs are few, restricted in size, and scattered among a variety of ministries. There is little coordination among them.

Conclusion 2 - Low Efficiency

The existing public system is characterized by low internal efficiency. There are places for only a small number of students relative to overall secondary school enrollments and dropout rates are high. Except for three centers largely created and supported by foreign assistance, public institutions are poorly equipped and have virtually no operating budgets. Staffing is a problem in all centers because of the extreme difficulty of attracting and retaining competent instructors, who have distinctly better career and promotion possibilities in industry or commerce.

Conclusion 3 - Relevance

From the individual point of view, the external efficiency of the public system is relatively good at the second-degree level of training but poor at the first-degree level. Most graduates of the CPFP, the CFPH, and the J. B. Damier School find employment, though a considerable number emigrate for better wages and better living conditions.

From the social point of view, the system is satisfying most of the current effective demand for skilled manpower. However, it is not meeting two other closely related and urgent socials needs: (a) orienting the growing secondary school students toward productive technical employment, and (b) facilitating the creation of skilled jobs. The latter objective obviously depends on more than the vocational/technical training system, but education has a role to play. The former objective is essentially a question of integrating vocational and technical education into the Education Reform.

Conclusion 4 - Access

Girls and women are distinctly underserved by the present system. It confines them primarily to home economics and secretarial training and their associated job markets--this despite the fact that women comprise the majority of the industrial work force. There are likewise strong regional disparities in access to technical training. Like industry itself, vocational education is heavily concentrated in the Port-au-Prince area.

Conclusion 5 - Agriculture

Agriculture and the primary sector in general are the areas of the economy least served by vocational and technical education.



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Conclusion 6 - Private Sector

The private sector has been much less active in vocational and technical education than in general secondary education, partly because of low public demand and partly because of the high entry costs in this branch of education. Commercial or proprietary institutes have increased in number only in the last few years. Private sector industry and the PVOs have not done very much as yet. Certain PVOs (e.g., the Salesian Fathers) were among the first to take an interest in vocational and technical education, but professional education until recently was one of the areas least touched by nongovernmental organizations. Changes now seem to have begun.

Conclusion 7 - Information

Government institutions are not presently able to gather much of the data necessary for manpower planning and the organization of vocational and technical education, nor to ensure guidance, accreditation, and quality control among private training centers. Information on demand and supply in the area of technical training is very scarce.

Conclusion 8 - Costs

Vocational and technical training is currently the most expensive branch of education in terms of costs per student-year and per graduate. Private and social returns, however, are relatively good, and some cost-saving measures seem feasible (e.g., double shifts, diversification of the use of facilities, and income-generation within the training institutes).

## 10.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the above conclusions, five recommendations for the public and private sectors can be formulated:

Recommendation 1 - Renovation. Renovate the public vocational and technical training system.

The current Government and World Bank effort to renovate the public vocational and technical training system and to integrate it into the Education Reform, deserves strong support. Complementary efforts from the private sector could be very useful. (See in particular Recommendation 4 below).

Recommendation 2 - Public Role. Strengthen the role of the private sector.

The role of the public sector, and of the INFP in particular, needs to be strengthened in the following areas:

1. Collection, analysis, and dissemination of information on manpower supply and demand.
2. Establishment of a system of accreditation for private training



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institutes, definition of standards for trade qualifications, and establishment of wage scales linked to qualifications and productivity. These are complex and extended tasks that will require coordination of several ministries, principally Social Affairs, Planning, Education, and Industry and Commerce. The relation of the INFP with the other concerned agencies should be clarified.

3. Job analysis and design of compentency-based instruction for vocational/technical education.
4. Experimentation with new methods for defraying instructional expenses and integrating productive activities into the training program.
5. Experimentation with new methods for developing employment and increasing the absorptive capacity of the market for technical skills, particularly the creation of small enterprises providing backward and forward linkages with new industry.

To make these measures possible, systems for the collection of the apprenticeship tax and the disbursement of its proceeds need to be consistently applied.

Recommendation 3 - Implementation. Modify the methodology of vocational/technical education in the new centers.

Renovation of existing programs and facilities should follow several basic principles:

1. Maximum utilization of workshops and facilities through double shifts, introduction of nonformal training programs, retraining/skill upgrading activities for mid-career workers, other community usage of space and material, etc.
2. Partial recovery of training costs through equipment and space rentals to local small businesses and/or production and sale of marketable items and services. Methods already proven in existing centers can be of significant help with these efforts.
3. Adoption of modular instructional programs to fit regional manpower needs and to train students in minimum time.
4. Close coordination of training with programs of employment generation and credit and material support to small businesses.
5. Correction of the current regional and gender bias in access to vocational/technical training programs.



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Recommendation 4 - Private Sector. Encourage the private sector to undertake complementary efforts.

The private sector should be encouraged to make complementary efforts to improve the supply of vocational and technical education:

1. Industry should be encouraged to develop, in liaison with INFP and private training institutions, training programs for upgrading workers' skills and increasing the value added by the industrial work force.

2. Bilateral donors should consider aiding PVOs that have the necessary means to establish two new vocational/technical institutes or renovate two existing ones, in conformity with the principles proposed above. It would be desirable for one to be situated in an urban center and the other in a rural setting. Equal and simultaneous attention needs to be given to:
   - Establishing training facilities and designing appropriate instructional programs.
   - Studying manpower needs and potential in the area served by the center.
   - Generating employment and creating the credit, equipment, and investment facilities necessary to support productive self-employment.

Recommendation 5 - Training. Organize staff training.

Training should be provided for selected Government and PVO planning and technical staff in manpower analysis, vocational curriculum design, and project management.

*Chapitre*

# 11

Chapter

# *Education Non Formelle*

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# Nonformal Education

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## AVANT PROPOS

Le chapitre 11, "Education Non formelle," a été revu et corrigé à Port-au-Prince le 6 avril 1986 par Mr. J. Bernard, Directeur de l'Office National de la Participation et de l'Education Populaire (ONPEP, ci-devant ONAAC) et par Mr. T. Petit, Chef de la Section de l'Alphabétisation de l'ONPEP, avec la collaboration de Mr. Stephen Anzalone, AMESED/Institute of International Research.

La première partie de la séance fut consacrée à des corrections de détail et de présentation statistique. Celles-ci ont été incorporées au texte du document.

Les participants jugeait que le chapitre présentait une bonne synthèse de la situation et fournissait un cadre de référence utile pour la prévision d'une meilleure coordination entre les programmes d'éducation non-formelle des deux secteurs public et privé. Les observations suivantes ont été faites au cours de la séance :

(i) En plus de l'accent mis dans le document sur les programmes d'alphabétisation, de développement communautaire, de santé publique et de développement rural, il aurait fallu accorder une plus grande attention aux formations dans le domaine de l'artisanat et des technologies intermédiaires.

(ii) Les programmes de formation en économie domestique et arts ménagers ne se sont pas encore développés au point où ils font un usage optimum des ressources locales.

(iii) Contrairement aux affirmations faites dans le document, il existe un programme de formation pour l'encadrement de terrain. Ce programme a été élaboré conjointement par l'ONPEP, le DARNDR et la DSPP est dispensé par l'Ecole Moyenne de Développement de Hinche.

(iv) Les participants estiment qu'on emploie parfois des critères trop rigoreux en évaluant les programmes de l'ONAAC. En dépit des résultats amplement démontrés de ces programmes, ils sont souvent critiquésalors que d'autres programmes ne sont pas soumis au même type d'examen.

(v) Les participants ont voulu insisté sur la nécessité absolue d'une meilleure coordination entre les activités des secteurs public et privé à l'avenir si l'on veut faire bon usage des ressources disponibles pour l'éducation non formelle.

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# 11.0 EDUCATION NON FORMELLE

Ce chapitre analyse l'accessibilité et l'efficacité des principales activités d'éducation non formelle (l'ENF) mises en place par le gouvernement, notamment dans les zones rurales. L'éducation non formelle peut être définie comme toute activité d'apprentissage organisée en dehors du système d'éducation formelle ayant pour finalité de répondre aux besoins de formation spécifiques d'un sous-groupe donné, qu'il s'agisse d'enfants ou d'adultes. Ce chapitre mettra particulièrement l'accent sur les programmes d'éducation non formelle qui ont été entrepris dans trois domaines précis :

1. alphabétisation et développement communautaire,
2. santé, et
3. développement rural.

Dans chacun de ces domaines, le gouvernement s'est fixé d'importants objectifs visant à accroître la participation de la population au développement. Bien qu'une part importante des programmes d'éducation non formelle soit prise en charge par le secteur privé, nous ne pourrons examiner que partiellement quelques-uns de ces programmes dans le cadre de la présente étude.

## 11.1 SITUATION ACTUELLE

Le développement socio-économique à l'échelle nationale constitue un véritable défi pour la nation haïtienne, particulièrement dans les zones rurales. Une population sans cesse croissante se dispute une superficie cultivable en voie de déperdition et de dégradation ; la malnutrition et les maladies endémiques affectent une couche importante de la population et les possibilités d'accès à l'éducation - même au niveau le plus élémentaire - sont très limitées. En 1982 le revenu moyen par habitant était de 300 dollars, ce qui est très bas, même dans le cadre des pays les moins avancés.

Il a été largement démontré que l'éducation non formelle constitue une composante essentielle d'une stratégie de développement capable de résoudre les types de problèmes auxquels Haïti se trouve confrontée. Elle peut contribuer à modifier les comportements dans des domaines clés du développement local telles la nutrition, la planification familiale, la pratique de l'hygiène ou l'adoption de techniques agricoles plus modernes. Là où la création de coopératives de production ou de commercialisation semble constituer une stratégie de choix pour promouvoir le bien-être de la population, l'éducation non formelle peut contribuer à générer au sein du groupe la confiance et la cohésion nécessaires. En même temps, elle constitue une autre voie d'accès à l'éducation pour ceux qui n'ont aucune possibilité d'intégrer le système



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d'éducation formelle.

11.1.1 Historique

Auparavant, les programmes d'éducation non formelle en Haïti se sont limités à quatre domaines généraux : alphabétisation, développement communautaire, santé, et dévelopement rural. Des campagnes d'alphabétisation pour adultes ont débuté en 1943, et au cours des années 1960 on a estimé à 70.000 environ le nombre de personnes ayant atteint un niveau d'alphabétisation fonctionnelle. En partie pour répondre au mouvement mondial lancé par l'UNESCO, on créa en 1969 l'Office National d'Alphabétisation et d'Action Communautaire (ONAAC) en tant qu'unité autonome au sein du Département de l'Education Nationale (DEN). En 1979, à la suite de deux campagnes d'alphabétisation de grande envergure organisées avec le soutien de l'UNESCO, on pouvait dénombrer 7.180 centres d'alphabétisation en activité et un total de 96.000 personnes alphabétisées cette même année. Cependant, l'année suivante qui est l'année la plus récente pour laquelle on dispose de données, seulement 5.000 personnes parmi les participants ont pu acquérir un niveau d'alphabétisation satisfaisant.

Aucune information n'est disponible sur les activités de l'Office National d'Alphabétisation et d'Action Communautaire pour la période allant de 1981 à 1984 et il semble que très peu ait été réalisé. Depuis lors, un nouveau directeur a été installé et l'ONAAC se propose d'organiser avec l'assistance du FISE et de l'UNESCO une nouvelle campagne d'alphabétisation qui débutera en janvier 1985 par un cycle expérimental. On se propose de procéder simultanément à une évaluation globale des actions menées par le passé et d'analyser les nouvelles tendances en matière d'alphabétisation.

En matière de santé, la plupart des programmes d'éducation non formelle exécutés par le secteur public relèvent du Département de la Santé Publique et de la Population (DSPP). Trois sections relativement autonomes du Département ont organisé des activités d'éducation non formelle. En 1978, la Division de l'Hygiène Familiale dont les activités de vulgarisation étaient menées auparavant uniquement à partir des dispensaires, s'est orientée davantage vers des actions centrées sur la communauté, mettant l'accent principalement sur la planification familiale et la distribution de contraceptifs. La Division de Nutrition par contre a centré ses activités sur la formation des parents. Depuis 1964, le Service National des Endémies Majeures (SNEM) s'est principalement occupé de la lutte anti-paludéenne par l'intermédiaire d'un vaste réseau de volontaires qui distribuent des médicaments et donnent des conseils.

En raison de l'adoption en 1983 d'une orientation plus préventive que

curative, une Division d'Enseignement Sanitaire et d'Entraînement a été mise en place pour coordonner les activités éducatives des différentes divisions du DSPP. Des campagnes de masse ont été menées sur les thèmes de la surpopulation, de l'hygiène, de la planification familiale, et sur les méthodes de réhydratation orale.

La formation agricole des paysans a été placée sous la responsabilité du Département de l'Agriculture, des Ressources Naturelles, et du Développement Rural (DARNDR), mais il n'y a pas eu d'action soutenue dans ce domaine. Un projet pour renforcer l'action du Service de Vulgarisation Agricole du DARNDR avait été entrepris, mais il a été abandonné en 1983. L'échec de ce projet a été attribué au fait qu'il ne contenait pratiquement pas d'activités intéressant directement les paysans, à la faiblesse des services techniques du DARNDR, et à l'inadéquation du personnel, de l'équipement, et des moyens logistiques du système de vulgarisation. Selon des vues optimistes, le DARNDR pourrait être désormais en mesure d'atteindre ses objectifs grâce à la récente nomination d'un nouveau ministre. La division la plus impliquée dans des activités d'éducation non formelle, la Division du Développement Rural (DDR), a elle aussi une nouvelle direction et est en train de se restructurer et de planifier de nouvelles activités.

Un certain nombre d'organismes non gouvernementaux (ONG) participe activement à l'éducation non formelle en Haïti depuis plusieurs années, notamment à des programmes d'alphabétisation, de développement communautaire, de santé, et d'agriculture. Parmi ceux-ci on peut citer la Mission Baptiste d'Haïti, le Fonds Canadien pour l'Enfance (Save the Children), Caritas, le Secours Catholique, l'Eglise Catholique, le Comité Central Mennonite, la Fondation Panaméricaine de Développement, le Service Mondial des Adventistes du Septième Jour, l'UNESCO, le FISE, et Vision sur le Monde.

### II.1.2 Structure et Programmes

L'éducation non formelle est sous la responsabilité de trois départements ministériels : le Département de l'Education Nationale (DEN) au sein duquel l'ONAAC constitue une unité autonome ; le Département de la Santé Publique et de la Population (DSPP) à l'intérieur duquel fonctionne le DESE ; et le Département de l'Agriculture, des Ressources Naturelles, et du Développement Rural (DARNDR) où fonctionne le DDR. En outre, plusieurs ONG fournissent un large éventail de programmes.

Une des fonctions principales de l'ONAAC, en plus des programmes d'alphabétisation, est de promouvoir une coopération plus étroite parmi les organisations publiques, religieuses, et philanthropiques qui s'occupent de

l'éducation non formelle. Au niveau national, l'ONAAC s'efforce de développer des programmes de coopération avec d'autres départements, les ONG, et l'Association Haïtienne des Organismes Bénévoles (Haitian Association of Voluntary Agencies ou HAVA).

La HAVA a été fondée en 1981. Elle contribue à promouvoir la coopération entre les ONG et sert de liaison entre les organismes membres et d'autres institutions gouvernementales et internationales. Avec un nombre croissant de membres comprenant plus de 70 organismes haïtiens et étrangers, la HAVA est en voie de devenir un moyen privilégié de coordination entre les nombreux organismes de développement dont les buts et les programmes se chevauchent souvent. Son objectif principal est d'encourager l'utilisation optimale des ressources que ces organismes peuvent mettre en oeuvre en favorisant l'échange d'expériences, d'idées, et d'information.

A l'échelon régional et local, la coordination se fait de manière informelle. Au niveau local, les activités de formation en matière de santé, d'agriculture, de développement communautaire et d'alphabétisation sont organisées autour des "conseils d'action communautaire" (CAC), qui constituent l'unité administrative de base dans la plupart des zones rurales. Cependant, il semble y avoir relativement peu de communication entre les différents cadres travaillant au niveau local--moniteurs d'alphabétisation, agents de santé et de vulgarisation agricole. Chacun soumet son rapport par la voie hiérarchique à un bureau régional distinct relevant du département correspondant.

Les programmes de développement communautaires constituent la responsabilité principale de l'ONAAC, ceux de santé et de nutrition sont du ressort de la Division d'Education Sanitaire et d'Entraînement (DESE) du DSPP, tandis que les programmes de développement rural relèvent de la Division de Développement Rural (DDR) du DARNDR.

Programmes de développement communautaire. Les programmes de l'ONAAC sont conçus pour favoriser la création d'organisations communautaires capables de se charger de la mise en oeuvre de projets de développement et pour fournir à toute la population un outil essentiel à son développement : l'alphabétisation. Les trois principaux volets de son programme sont l'alphabétisation, l'éducation familiale, et l'action communautaire.

Au niveau national, la Division d'Alphabétisation de l'ONAAC comprend deux services--le premier chargé de la formation initiale et continue et le second de l'élaboration du matériel didactique. La Division de l'Action Communautaire comprend trois services, s'occupant respectivement de l'éducation familiale, du génie rural, et des activités récréatives. L'ONAAC a décentralisé ses activités, pour accorder une plus grande autonomie à ses bureaux régionaux.



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Les structures parallèles des sections administratives de l'ONAAC, des organisations communautaires, et des unités administratives gouvernementales sont présentées dans le Tableau 11.1, qui montre également les trois niveaux de personnel technique ou de terrain qui interviennent dans les activités d'éducation non formelle.

L'ONAAC ne reçoit que 5,7% du budget de fonctionnement du Département de l'Education (qui à son tour ne représente que 12% du budget national). L'ONAAC a recours à deux stratégies pour résoudre le problème du faible niveau de ses ressources financières. La première, appelée "l'alphabétisation sectorielle", consiste en des accords formels avec les organismes régionaux de développement leur demandant de prendre en charge les efforts d'alphabétisation dans le cadre de leurs propres programmes et projets. La seconde stratégie--dénommée "alphabétisation progressive"--est axée en principe sur un processus de rétro-information permanente sur la mise en oeuvre des programmes d'alphabétisation. Elle consiste à établir dans chaque région du pays quelques programmes pilotes et de les contrôler de très près afin de se servir des leçons de cette expérience pour mettre progressivement au point des formes mieux adaptées du programme.

| ONAAC | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Unités Administratives | Personnel Administratif | Personnel de Terrain | Organisations Communautaires | Unités Administratives Gouvernementales |
| Région (4) | Directeur | Equipes de Formation | | Région |
| Département (9) | Coordinateur-- | | Confédération de CACs | Département |
| Zone | Coordinateur- | | | Arrondissement |
| District | Agents de Vulgarisation | | Fédération de CACs | Commune (133) |
| Centres d'Education Familiale | Agents de Vie Familiale | | Conseil d'Action Communautaire (CAC) | Section (555) |
| Groupe de Centres d'Alphabétisation | Moniteurs d'Alphabétisation | | Action Communautaire | Quartier |

Schéma 11.1

Structures parallèles : ONAAC, organisations communautaires, et unités gouvernementales

L'Alphabétisation. Depuis la nomination d'un nouveau directeur au début de 1984, le programme d'alphabétisation de l'ONAAC est en train d'être évalué et

réorganisé. On se propose de lancer une campagne nationale d'alphabétisation en janvier 1985. La campagne vise trois objectifs essentiels :

1. rendre les cours d'alphabétisation accessibles à toute la population,
2. concourir à l'amélioration de l'état de santé de la population, et
3. élaborer et mettre à l'essai une nouvelle méthode d'alphabétisation.

L'ONAAC commencera la campagne sur une petite échelle et l'étendra par la suite. Plusieurs organismes de développement ont accepté de collaborer avec l'ONAAC qui continue à rechercher d'autres sources de financement.

L'ONAAC estime que 100.000 personnes par an prendront part aux programmes d'alphabétisation, et prévoit un taux d'abandon de 10% à 15%. La seule condition pour s'inscrire est que les participants soient âgés de 12 à 45 ans. Les enseignants devront être titulaires au moins du Certificat d'Etudes Primaires (CEP) ; ceux des zones rurales seront payés "en nature" avec des produits alimentaires provenant du Programme Alimentaire Mondial, tandis que ceux des plus grandes villes, 300 en tout, toucheront 20 dollars par mois. L'ONAAC prévoit de former ces agents d'alphabétisation de façon à les rendre plus autonomes face au matériel didactique afin d'éviter les erreurs passées dues à l'utilisation trop mécanique des guides et brochures. Le programme d'enseignement sera basé sur 31 phrases clés concernant pour la plupart des thèmes d'éducation sanitaire ou de vulgarisation agricole. Il a été décidé de mettre l'accent sur le thème de la santé pour des raisons d'efficacité financière. Les principaux problèmes de santé en Haïti touchent toute la population, et il est donc possible d'utiliser le même matériel pédagogique partout et d'éviter les dépenses supplémentaires qui seraient entraînées par l'adaptation des documents aux besoins spécifiques de chaque localité.

L'ONAAC estime que pour mener la campagne d'alphabétisation à bon terme il lui faudra un budget de sept million de dollars et il est donc à la recherche de financements supplémentaires. L'ONAAC sollicite actuellement une aide financière auprès des organismes donateurs.

Avec l'aide du FISE, l'ONAAC a imprimé une nouvelle orientation à son Programme d'Education Familiale en 1983. L'accent n'est plus mis sur l'enseignement ménager domestique mais sur des activités ayant un impact direct sur la survie des enfants. L'objectif du nouveau programme est d'augmenter les connaissances et les compétences des femmes afin de les aider à mieux s'acquitter de leurs responsabilités familiales et à participer plus activement et efficacement au développement communautaire.

L'un des principaux objectifs de l'ONAAC, dans ses Programmes d'Action Communautaire, est de motiver, organiser, et "conscientiser" des



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groupements communautaires et de les encourager à entamer un processus de développement autonome. Dans ce but, l'ONAAC a concentré ses activités sur la formation de l'encadrement des CAC qui sont officiellement reconnus. Cette formation est réalisée au moyen de stages tenus au niveau régional.

Programmes d'hygiène et de nutrition. Les activités du DESE sont fondées sur l'hypothèse que les problèmes de santé sont étroitement associés à de mauvaises pratiques d'hygiène, et que l'éducation est le meilleur catalyseur pour un changement positif. A travers ces programmes, on cherche à augmenter les connaissances et les compétences des participants en matière de santé et à les amener à prendre en charge eux même leur bien-être personnel.

On prévoit une stratégie en trois phases. La première phase consiste à diffuser auprès des communautés et des individus des informations sur les problèmes de santé, les pratiques d'hygiène et les services sanitaires disponibles. Dans une seconde phase, l'accent est mis sur les problèmes sanitaires spécifiques de différentes localités et sur la formation appropriée de représentants de la communauté. Dans une troisième phase, avec l'assistance technique d'agents sanitaires locaux, il s'agit de transférer toutes les responsabilités de planification et de mise en oeuvre des programmes ainsi que les projets sanitaires entre les mains de la communauté elle-même.

Education sanitaire. Dans ce programme, l'objectif de la DESE est d'étendre l'éducation sanitaire à toute la population, mais faute d'un nombre suffisant de personnel, son action est limitée. Une campagne de vulgarisation de la méthode thérapeutique de réhydratation par voie orale en tant que traitement de la diarrhée a été lancée en 1983. On estime à 12.000 le nombre de personnes sensibilisées par cette campagne, mais le nombre de nouveaux-nés et d'enfants qui en ont bénéficié est en toute probabilité bien plus important.

Les agents de santé, les auxiliaires et les infirmières remplissent tous un rôle d'éducateur. La formation a lieu soit directement au sein de groupes ou auprès de chaque individu, soit indirectement par la radio, les affiches et d'autres moyens de communication. Le gouvernement italien, le FISE et l'Organisation Mondiale de la Santé ont accordé une somme de 1.550.000 dollars pour la période 1983-1986 afin de soutenir les campagnes d'éducation de masse.

Formation des agents de santé. Dans un autre programme important, la DESE a formé 600 agents de santé. La formation consiste en 11 modules qui traitent de thèmes se rapportant aux fonctions d'un agent de santé : organisation communautaire, hygiène du milieu, nutrition, santé maternelle et infantile, planning familial, diarrhée, tuberculose, paludisme, précautions sanitaires de base, recensement de la population, et visites à domicile. Cette formation insiste beaucoup sur l'importance de compter d'abord sur les moyens dont la



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communauté elle-même dispose pour commencer à répondre aux problèmes de santé.

Programmes du développement rural. De nombreuses activités de terrain dépendant du DARDNR ont apparemment été suspendues de 1983 à 1984 faute de budget de fonctionnement. Les employés du DARDNR qui travaillent dans les zones rurales, même dans les meilleures conditions, ont dû faire face à une pénurie de fournitures, de moyens de transport, et de bureaux, ainsi qu'à des ruptures dans la perception de leur salaire. La Division du Développement Rural (DDR) est chargée de la vulgarisation agricole et d'autres formes d'éducation non formelle.

Centres d'enseignement ménager. Les centres d'enseignement ménager constituent un programme de la DDR qui s'est poursuivi pendant la période de changement de direction. Ces centres sont partiellement financés par le PNUD et la FAO depuis 1983. Leur objectif d'ensemble est de promouvoir la participation des femmes au processus de développement. On espère y parvenir en organisant et en orientant des groupes de femmes vers l'auto-suffisance en matière de production alimentaire et en les habilitant à former et à gérer des actions coopératives génératrices de revenus. La majorité des participants aux programmes de ces centres sont des jeunes filles. Quelques-unes d'entre elles ont bénéficié de quelques années d'enseignement primaire, mais la plupart sont analphabètes.

L'encadrement de la DDR offre à leur intention une formation qui dure trois jours par semaine et s'étend sur trois ans. Le programme d'enseignement traite en principe de la production alimentaire, de l'élevage du petit bétail, de la nutrition, de la préparation, de la conservation et du stockage des aliments, de la santé maternelle et infantile, de l'hygiène de l'environnement, de la couture, de la broderie, de l'artisanat, des premiers soins, du forage des puits, de la construction de latrines et de la réfection de l'habitat. Le contenu exact des programmes varie beaucoup en fonction des compétences de l'encadrement chargé de la formation.

Un programme expérimental a été lancé dans deux centres. Les cadres des centres d'enseignement ménager, en collaboration avec un consultant de la FAO, ont mis en place plusieurs groupes de femmes. Chaque groupe a conçu un petit projet - tel que le stockage des céréales, l'élevage de lapins et de poulets, ou la production de fruits et légumes - et a soumis une proposition d'une page à la FAO. Pour les projets qui ont été approuvés, l'agent responsable du centre a reçu un chèque pour une somme modeste (généralement entre 200 et 300 dollars) considérée comme un prêt à utiliser pour la mise en oeuvre du projet en question. D'après des sources officieuses il semble que les fonds aient été utilisés de la façon prévue et que les groupes réinvestissent leur capital

et envisagent une expansion de leurs activités. En conséquence, la FAO a établi un fonds de financement de 10.000 dollars pour fournir de petits prêts qui serviront de capital de départ aux projets des groupes. Cette stratégie est fondée sur l'hypothèse que les fonds distribués directement aux groupements ont de fortes chances de produire un impact plus grand et d'atteindre les couches les plus nécessiteuses.

11.1.3 Organismes Non Gouvernementaux

Plus de 350 ONG participent aux efforts de développement en Haïti. Ils exécutent, pour la plupart, des projets intégrés permettant aux adultes d'acquérir une formation pratique en participant à divers types d'activités. Dans le cadre du développement certaines activités de plusieurs ONG peuvent être considérées comme des activités d'éducation non formelle indépendamment de ce qu'en pensent les ONG en question. Selon une enquête préliminaire portant sur 126 ONG, menée par l'USAID, 56 d'entre eux ont indiqué qu'ils s'occupaient d'éducation non formelle, 51 d'alphabétisation des adultes, 35 de formation technique, 40 de vulgarisation agricole, et 39 de formation agricole. On préparait en décembre 1984 un questionnaire complémentaire qui devait fournir de plus amples détails concernant les activités de développement et d'éducation des ONG.

Bien qu'il n'ait pas été possible d'envisager une enquête portant sur l'ensemble des programmes d'éducation non formelle des ONG au cours de la présente évaluation, la documentation sur plusieurs projets de développement communautaire du secteur privé a été passée en revue afin d'en déduire les facteurs qui ont contribué à leur réussite. Quatre projets en cours qui ont donné des preuves de réussite ont été retenus à cet effet :

1. Le Projet Gros Morne, lancé par le Secours Catholique (SC) en 1976, fournit une formation et une assistance technique et financière à des centaines de groupes d'action communautaire autogérés et indépendants qui poursuivent des activités génératrices de revenus tels la transformation de produits agricoles et l'élevage d'animaux.
2. Le Projet Papaye, géré par un centre de formation diocésain offre un enseignement intensif en matière de formation et de sensibilisation des groupes.
3. Le Projet Pilote Groupement (PPG), dirigé par le SC s'appuie sur les deux projets précédents afin de provoquer le lancement de groupements communautaires, de promouvoir le développement autogéré et d'établir un centre de documentation sur le développement rural.
4. L'Institut Diocésain d'Education des Adultes (IDEA), un institut de

formation de cadres paysans fondé en 1973, financé en partie par la Fondation Inter-Américaine et situé au Collège Notre Dame à Cap-Haïtien, organise des programmes de formation de cadres paysans et cherche à promouvoir la création de coopératives de commercialisation et de crédit.

Les centres d'intérêt varient, mais tous les projets se concentrent sur le développement de groupes autonomes, la constitution d'un pouvoir économique par l'investissement dans des projets qui procurent des revenus et par le réinvestissement de l'épargne des groupes. Les efforts en matière d'éducation portent essentiellement sur la création de groupements coopératifs, l'acquisition de nouvelles compétences permettant de monter et de gérer des activités économiques rentables et le développement de capacités d'analyse et de résolution de problèmes.

11.1.4 Remarques

Les programmes d'éducation non formelle du secteur public semblent avoir été, pour la plupart, des efforts de courte durée et peu efficaces. En géneral ils ont été mal gérés, mal dotés en personnel et en fonds, et ils sont souvent passés à côté des vrais problèmes de la population au niveau local. Parmi les raisons spécifiques qui expliquent leur inefficacité, on peut citer les suivantes :

- Plusieurs programmes d'éducation non formelle visant des objectifs très limités ont peu de rapport avec les besoins et les problèmes prioritaires des participants.
- Certains programmes sous-estiment la valeur du participant en tant que "ressource humaine" essentielle à la réussite de l'activité. Les auditeurs ont peu d'occasions de participer à la planification et à l'évaluation des activités du programme d'éducation non formelle auquel ils sont inscrits.
- La participation et le contrôle des auditeurs dépendent beaucoup trop de l'activité des CAC qui recrutent les participants, organisent les groupes et se chargent de la livraison du matériel de soutien.
- Une bonne partie de l'enseignement non formel met l'accent sur le contenu et se fait de façon magistrale négligeant les méthodes participatives et la pédagogie active.
- Peu de gens ont les connaissances nécessaires en gestion pour assurer la mise en oeuvre efficace de programmes d'éducation non formelle.
- L'absence quasi-totale d'une évaluation systématique des programmes d'éducation non formelle en Haïti fait que les responsables chargés de

lancer de nombreux efforts manquent de données concernant les échecs et réussites du passé qui pourraient les guider dans leur travail.

## 11.2 CONTRAINTES

Contraintes politiques. La plus sérieuse des contraintes auxquelles l'éducation non formelle se trouve confrontée est de nature politique. En dépit des discours éloquents sur l'importance de l'ENF dont les documents sont remplis, les maigres ressources mises à la disposition des organismes gouvernementaux chargés de l'éducation non formelle reflètent le peu d'importance accordée au développement humain. De plus, les nominations faites par le gouvernement s'avèrent ne pas tenir compte de la compétence des candidats ou de leurs intérêt pour les programmes de développement. En conséquence le changement de personnel est fréquent. Ce manque de continuité entrave sérieusement le développement des institutions.

Contraintes financières. La seconde de ces contraintes est d'ordre financier. Même si l'engagement politique de développer les ressources humaines était tenu, l'absence de moyens financiers fait que les planificateurs ne peuvent raisonnablement pas s'attendre à une augmentation de la participation du gouvernement. En fait, l'expérience porte à croire que même les fonds alloués ne seront pas entièrement disponibles. L'Etat a souvent été incapable de remplir ses obligations quant à la prise en charge des coûts périodiques des projets de développement une fois ceux-ci achevés. L'une des principales stratégies de l'ENF, qui est de compter avant tout sur les ressources locales est cependant incertaine du fait de l'extrême pauvreté de la population.

Contraintes sur le plan des ressources humaines. Très peu de cadres de terrain, de formateurs ou d'agents de contrôle, ont les compétences et la formation nécessaires en matière d'andragogie, de méthodologie participative, de recherche, d'évaluation et d'élaboration du matériel didactique. Le faible niveau d'alphabétisation rend la communication difficile sauf quand elle est directe et orale ou transmise par l'intermédiaire de la radio. De plus, peu de gens ont les compétences en gestion nécessaires à la mise en oeuvre des programmes de l'ENF.

Contraintes d'ordre organisationnel. La coordination de l'éducation non formelle est rendue difficile par la diversité des programmes et le nombre élevé des organisations responsables de leur exécution. Malgré le fait que l'ONAAC essaie de jouer un rôle de coordonnateur, spécialement entre les organismes gouvernementaux, il existe peu de coopération interministérielle en deçà du niveau régional. La coordination gouvernementale est handicapée par un changement trop fréquent de personnel au niveau des cadres supérieurs et un

manque de continuité. On a besoin d'un système de collecte et d'analyse de données, d'un groupe dirigeant compétent et d'un système de vulgarisation intégré. L'Association Haïtienne des Organismes Non Gouvernementaux (HAVA) encourage la coopération entre ceux-ci et les organismes gouvernementaux d'éducation non formelle, mais beaucoup reste à faire.

Contraintes physiques. Le manque de moyens de communication et de transport dans la plupart des zones rurales représente un obstacle majeur à la direction et à la coordination des interventions en matière de développement. Les efforts déployés pour promouvoir l'auto-suffisance et la génération de revenus sont entravés par l'usure des terres et le manque de capitaux au niveau local.

## 11.3 PROBLEMES

Efficacité externe. Une recherche importante entreprise dans plusieurs pays en voie de développement a clairement démontré que les gens prennent part aux programmes d'éducation non formelle parce qu'ils s'attendent à en tirer des avantages tangibles. L'efficacité externe dépend de la force et de la pertinence des relations existant entre les programmes d'éducation non formelle et les activités ultérieures des participants. En Haïti, on ne peut pas répondre facilement aux questions que l'on pourrait se poser concernant la pertinence et la réussite des efforts entrepris dans les programmes de l'ENF, à cause du manque d'information sur ce qui a été fait ou la manière dont les comportements peuvent avoir changé.

Comment peut-on justifier le fait de consacrer des fonds à l'éducation non formelle ? L'ONAAC, la DESE, et la DDR répondraient qu'elle est la principale voie à travers laquelle l'information sur la santé, l'agriculture, et le développement communautaire parvient à ceux qui en ont le plus besoin.

L'information est un besoin vital. D'autre part, la mauvaise santé, la malnutrition, et une faible productivité sont aussi partiellement les résultats de la pauvreté. La santé et la productivité ne peuvent être améliorées de façon significative sans que la situation économique des pauvres soit elle-même modifiée. Même si les gens apprennent à changer leur comportement et leurs habitudes, ils ont besoin de services d'appui pour que ces changements soient durables. L'information est nettement plus efficace lorsqu'elle est associée à des programmes d'amélioration de la situation économique et sociale. Les projets d'ONG ayant réussi et qui ont été présentés sommairement dans la section 11.1.3. n'offrent pas seulement de l'information mais mettent aussi l'accent sur la formation de groupes et la production de revenus.

Faut-il en conclure que l'alphabétisation est égalemement nécessaire ? Il a



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été démontré que la radio constitue un moyen nettement plus efficace et moins coûteux que le matériel écrit pour diffuser à la population l'information pertinente. La recherche montre que les gens modifient leur comportement en fonction des modèles établis par leurs leaders, à cause de la pression sociale, et sur la base de résultats tangibles et prouvés. Les méthodes d'enseignement et les techniques de communication nécessaires à provoquer des changements de comportement comprennent notamment des méthodes actives, visuelles, et participatives. Aucune de ces approches n'exige de savoir lire et écrire.

Cependant, savoir lire, écrire et compter peut être essentiel pour planifier, mettre en oeuvre, et évaluer des activités génératrices de revenus, ou pour gérer des activités commerciales. Sans l'alphabétisation, l'accès à l'information et la capacité de s'en servir sont limités. Pour motiver des adultes à s'alphabétiser, on doit les persuader que ces connaissances peuvent avoir des applications immédiates et tangibles. L'alphabétisation doit être conçue dès le départ en fonction des projets de post-alphabétisation. Les participants doivent comprendre pourquoi et comment ils vont utiliser leurs nouvelles compétences, dans le cadre d'une méthode où se mêlent développement et application de celles-ci. Afin d'augmenter l'adaptation et l'efficacité des programmes de l'ENF, les planificateurs doivent soigneusement examiner les conditions économiques et sociales dans lesquelles vivent les participants afin de mieux comprendre leurs besoins.

Les petits projets produisant des revenus contribuent au développement local de plusieurs manières. Les participants s'initient à des techniques de production ainsi qu'à des techniques administratives tels la gestion, le management, la communication, la résolution de problèmes. L'intérêt pour la lecture, l'écriture et le calcul augmente au fur et à mesure que les participants se rendent compte de leur importance en tant qu'outils de travail. Cependant, de tels projets se développent très lentement et ont besoin d'un soutien constant. La participation active des bénéficiaires est importante car les personnes étrangères au milieu ne peuvent pas comprendre pleinement leurs besoins. Beaucoup de projets de l'ENF ont échoué parce que des planificateurs bien-intentionnés ont négligé d'associer les participants aux décisions concernant la conception du projet.

Efficacité interne. Des jugements concernant "l'efficacité interne" de l'ENF--c'est à dire, la mesure dans laquelle les ressources consacrées à ces programmes sont utilisées de façon à obtenir un maximum de résultats--sont difficiles à formuler à cause du manque d'informations sur le fonctionnement des programmes. Le nombre de participants n'est généralement pas disponible. L'évaluation de l'utilisation des ressources reste pour la plupart subjective,

quoique des recherches menées dans d'autres pays fournissent quelques indications.

Une méthode a beau être parfaitement conçue, son efficacité réelle dépend des compétences et du degré d'engagement de la personne qui l'utilise. Les animateurs étant recrutés par les CAC, leur sélection dépend autant des rapports personnels que des critères de compétence et d'engagement envers l'amélioration du bien-être de la population. D'ailleurs, il n'existe pas de programme généralisé de formation pour les agents en zone rurale. Il est essentiel de commencer à inventorier les compétences et connaissances nécessaires pour travailler efficacement en milieu rural ; celles-ci pourraient constituer les éléments de base d'un tel programme de formation.

Un matériel didactique bien conçu et contenant des directives spécifiques à l'intention des agents peut fournir une aide cruciale. L'ONAAC et le FISE diffusent de bons manuels pour les agents d'alphabétisation, ainsi qu'un matériel visuel intéressant en couleurs. Il serait nécessaire de diffuser plus largement ce type de matériel et d'en tester l'efficacité. Il faut noter également la quasi-inexistence de liens entre les programmes d'éducation formelle et non formelle. On pourrait accroître l'efficacité des deux systèmes s'ils étaient plus étroitement liés.

Accessibilité et équité. L'un des objectifs à la fois de l'alphabétisation et de la santé est de donner à toute la population la possibilité d'accéder à une forme d'éducation ou à une autre. La stratégie de la DESE porte essentiellement sur la formation d'agents sanitaires ruraux, sur la formation du personnel administratif et sur le lancement de campagnes radiophoniques, malgré l'absence d'un budget de fonctionnement suffisant destiné à payer les salaires des agents en milieu rural.

L'ONAAC a suivi une stratégie basée sur la coopération avec les ONG, en même temps qu'il cherchait à renforcer sa position en tant qu'unité de coordination capable d'offrir une assistance technique. La coordination parmi les agents des différents services intervenant en zones rurales pourrait contribuer à agrandir leur champ d'action. Cependant les populations des zones isolées, difficilement accessibles, continueraient à n'avoir qu'un accès réduit à ces services. Les moyens de communication à distance, tels que la radio, constituent peut-être la seule façon d'atteindre certaines populations isolées.

La plupart des programmes d'éducation non formelle en Haïti attirent les jeunes et les femmes, surtout les célibataires. Quelles qu'en soient les raisons, on devrait étudier ces flux de participation afin d'organiser des programmes plus adaptés aux préoccupations des populations et accessibles à un éventail plus grand de participants.



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La radio est un moyen de communication peu cher qui a été utilisé pour étendre et aider les programmes d'éducation non formelle dans beaucoup de pays en voie de développement et ceci à des degrés divers de réussite. Rechercher si son utilisation en Haïti serait possible devrait constituer l'une des premières préocupations du projet.

Administration et inspection. Les programmes d'éducation non formelle sont en eux-mêmes difficiles à coordonner. Ils sont éparpillés, multiformes et présents dans chaque activité de développement. En principe, l'ENF doit être flexible, et pouvoir s'adapter aux besoins locaux et s'organiser à partir de la base. Cependant, une certaine centralisation a des avantages évidents. Les stratégies, les expériences et le matériel peuvent être partagés, les points forts et les ressources combinées permettant ainsi d'éviter tout double emploi. Les deux organisations qui ont obtenu les meilleurs résultats dans la coordination des efforts de l'ENF sont l'ONAAC et la HAVA.

L'absence d'un système d'inspection constitue un obstacle majeur au contrôle de qualité et à la coordination locale des activités de l'ENF. Pour qu'un système d'inspection soit efficace, les inspecteurs doivent recevoir une formation spécifique, disposer de moyens de transport, et être soumis eux-mêmes à un contrôle régulier.

Coûts et financement. On dispose de très peu de données concernant les coûts des programmes d'éducation non formelle en Haïti et les taux de participation. Même si on disposait de ces informations, il serait difficile d'établir un rapport coûts/bénéfices pour les programmes, car ils visent des objectifs qualitatifs autant que quantitatifs. Puisque l'ENF doit disputer à l'enseignement scolaire et aux projets de développement des ressources financières limitées, il est important de recueillir et d'analyser les données sur les coûts et les résultats des programmes. En Haïti, il est de plus en plus évident que la vulgarisation de groupe est caractérisée par un rapport coût-efficacité encore plus favorable que la vulgarisation individuelle, et que l'éducation non formelle peut y contribuer. La radio constitue une autre méthode de vulgarisation peu onéreuse dont l'ENF peut s'inspirer. Elle permet de surmonter des obstacles tels l'analphabétisme, les mauvaises routes de montagne ou de forêt, et la dispersion de la population.

Compter en priorité sur les ressources locales est une autre stratégie pour réduire les coûts des programmes. Les programmes de l'ENF devraient associer les participants à la recherche et à la mise en valeur des ressources matérielles et humaines locales. Les participants pourraient accepter, par exemple, de côtiser pour payer un petit "salaire" à leur animateur. De façon générale, les haïtiens sont prêts à faire face à des coûts très importants en

matière d'éducation pourvu qu'ils s'accompagnent de résultats positifs.

Canaliser plus efficacement les fonds provenant de l'extérieur destinés à l'éducation non formelle est un problème complexe. Il existe deux raisons qui devraient inciter les donateurs à coopérer avec le secteur public : (a) la première est que cette coopération permettrait de renforcer les capacités de travail des institutions publiques qui s'occupent de l'ENF, et (b) la seconde est que les cadres supérieurs actuellement en place à l'ONAAC, à la DESE, et à la DDR sont très compétents et engagés. Cependant, l'utilisation du secteur public comporte en même temps des inconvénients. L'absence de continuité, d'organisation, et le manque de personnel complique l'institutionalisation du changement. A ceci s'ajoute le fait que le gouvernement n'est pas toujours en mesure d'honorer tous les accords concernant les fonds de contrepartie.

Par contraste, le secteur privé est généralement considéré comme efficace, bien organisé, plus engagé et plus à même d'assurer la formation de façon continue. Bien souvent, les projets d'éducation non formelle des ONG se font à plus petite échelle ; ils sont ainsi moins envahis par la bureaucracie, ce qui permet de toucher plus rapidement la population visée.

La meilleure stratégie d'aide pourrait donc comporter deux volets à poursuivre simultanément : d'une part, le financement à court terme de projets gérés par des ONG compétents, et d'autre part, le renforcement des capacités institutionnelles du secteur public pour l'aider à s'acquitter de mieux en mieux de ses propres responsabilités en matière d'éducation non formelle.

## 11.4 CONCLUSIONS

Conclusion 1 - Secteur public. Les programmes d'éducation non formelle du secteur public ont très peu de chances de réussir à l'heure actuelle. Trois principaux facteurs conduisent à une telle conclusion. Premièrement, le manque d'engagement politique, traduit par l'absence d'un support budgétaire, constitue un obstacle majeur à la réussite des programmes. Deuxièmement, le manque de continuité dans l'administration et la gestion des programmes a empêché le développement des capacités institutionnelles nécessaires à l'organisation, à la mise en oeuvre, au contrôle et à l'évaluation des projets à grande-échelle. Troisièmement, l'expérience et les erreurs découlant des projets passés n'ont apparemment pas été pris en considération dans l'élaboration des activités actuellement en cours, ni dans la conception des projets futurs.

Conclusion 2 - Secteur privé. Les programmes d'éducation non formelle du secteur privé ont de meilleures potentialités de réussite. Un examen préliminaire de quelques programmes du secteur privé montre qu'en comparaison



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avec le secteur pubic, ils sont moins limités par des obstacles d'ordre politique, bureaucratique, et financier. Ils peuvent ainsi être plus sensibles aux besoins des participants et plus ouverts à leur participation et à leur contrôle.

Conclusion 3 - Développement institutionnel. L'affectation des fonds destinés à l'éducation non formelle en Haïti aux organismes du secteur privé peut être le moyen le plus efficace à court-terme pour permettre d'atteindre les populations visées, mais à long-terme il semble essentiel de favoriser le développement des capacités d'action du gouvernement en matière d'éducation non formelle. Etant donné les contraintes inhérentes au système gouvernemental, le fait de s'appuyer sur les programmes des ONG peut être la meilleure stratégie dans l'immédiat pour toucher les classes sociales les plus défavorisées. Cependant, pour qu'un changement durable ait lieu, des efforts dans les deux sens sont nécessaires dans le but de favoriser la formation et la mise en valeur--dans les institutions publiques comme privées--de cadres et gestionnaires haïtiens compétents et responsables.

Conclusion 4 - Documentation. Bien que l'on parle beaucoup de programmes innovateurs d'éducation non formelle dans le secteur privé, il n'en existe cependant que peu de traces écrites. La documentation qui existe concernant le plan, la description, le rapport d'activité et l'évaluation de ces projets innovateurs est éparpillée à travers les archives de nombreuses organisations. Ce genre de matériel serait plus facilement accessible s'il était rassemblé dans des archives centralisées. Un bureau de coordinstion pourrait encourager de façon plus systématique la collecte des données et la rédaction de comptes rendus des travaux.

Conclusion 5 - Radio. Le potentiel que constitue la radio en tant que soutien efficace et peu cher aux activités d'éducation non formelle n'a pas encore été sérieusement examiné en Haïti. Aucune étude concernant l'utilisation de la radio ou des résultats obtenus avec elle pour toucher les zones rurales et améliorer les compétences des agents de terrain de l'ENF, n'a été réalisée.

## 11.5 RECOMMANDATIONS

Recommandation 1 - Directives. Développer une politique d'investissement en éducation non formelle, basée sur des critères issus d'une analyse des programmes des ONG qui ont donné les meilleurs résultats.

L'information fournie par l'enquête de l'USAID sur les ONG qui est actuellement en cours devrait permettre d'identifier une série de programmes de



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l'ENF qui pourraient faire l'objet d'enquêtes et d'études de cas. A titre d'exemple, on peut citer quatre critères de réussite qui ressortent d'un examen rapide des projets décrits plus haut dans la section 11.1.3 de ce chapitre :

- constitution de groupements communautaires et développement de nouvelles capacités en matière de planification, prise de décisions, gestion, coopération, et communication ;
- production de revenus, en mettant l'accent sur le réinvestissement des bénéfices ;
- intégration effective des activités de formation aux activités pratiques de développement ; et
- alphabétisation envisagée comme un instrument, et non comme une fin en soi.

Recommandation 2 - Sélection. Dans l'intérêt d'obtenir des résultats à court-terme, affecter la plupart des fonds disponibles pour l'éducation non formelle aux programmes organisés par les ONG, conformément aux orientations proposées ci-dessus (Recommandation 1).

Une fois que les données d'une enquête sur les activités des ONG sur le terrain auront été analysées, il devrait être possible de choisir les programmes qui ont connu le plus grand succès afin de les soutenir et de les généraliser.

Recommandation 3 - Formation. Renforcer les capacités institutionnelles du gouvernement et des ONG en matière d'éducation non formelle en prévoyant la formation de leur encadrement moyen et des formateurs de l'encadrement de terrain.

L'accent devrait être mis sur la formation dans les domaines de l'éducation des adultes et de la gestion des projets. De petits projets pilotes avec leurs propres systèmes de contrôle et d'évaluation pourraient être mis sur pied pour servir de banc d'essai et de terrain de formation pour le personnel du gouvernement et des ONG.

Recommandation 4 - Information centrale. Etablir une banque centrale de données sur l'éducation non formelle, ou une série de centres de documentation au niveau régional.

De tels centres pourraient constituer le noyau d'un véritable réseau de communication et d'échange d'information en matière de l'ENF parmi les organismes régionaux et locaux engagés dans ce travail à travers les Antilles. Cette initiative pourrait également servir à encourager les organismes participants à établir des compte rendus de leur travail, à rassembler leurs



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documents et rapports, et à les mettre à la disposition du public. La HAVA pourrait jouer un important rôle de coordination à l'appui de cette activité.

Recommandation 5 - Radio. Etudier le potentiel de la radio pour l'éducation non formelle en Haïti.

La radio est un moyen efficace et peu cher pour atteindre les populations isolées par la distance, la topographie, ou l'analphabétisme. Il peut constituer un instrument pour diffuser l'information sur le développement et pour proposer des changements de comportement. On devrait, pour découvrir ce que pourront être les différentes utilisations de la radio, commencer par étudier la façon dont la population s'en sert déjà ainsi que ses besoins les plus pressants en matière d'information.

## CHAPTER PREFACE

Chapter 11, "Nonformal Education," was reviewed in Port-au-Prince on April 6, 1986 by Mr. J. Bernard, Director of the Office for Participation and Popular Education (Office de la Participation et de l'Education Populaire, ONPEP, formally ONAAC) and by Mr. T. Petit, Head of the Literary Section of ONPEP, with the collaboration of Mr. Stephen Anzalone, IEES/Institute for International Research. Corrections of factual detail and statistical presentation were made at the outset of the session.

The reviewers felt in general that the chapter covered the topic well and provided a useful frame of reference for studying the issue of coordinating public and private sector programs of nonformal education. The following specific remarks and suggestions were made in the course of the review sessions:

(i) In addition to the emphasis on literacy, community development, health, and rural development contained in the chapter, greater attention should have been paid to the importance of handicrafts and intermediate technology.

(ii) Home economics programs have not yet been developed to the stage where they make optimum use of the resources available in rural communities.

(iii) Contrary to assertions made in the chapter, a program for training agency field workers does exist. The program is prepared jointly by ONPEP, DARNDR and DSPP and is offered by the Ecole Moyenne de Development de Hinche.

(iv) Reviewers felt that a disproportinately rigorous criterion is employed in evaluating ONAAC programs. Despite their clearly demonstrated results, they undergo repeated criticism, whereas other programs are not submitted to the same scrutiny.

(v) Reviewers emphasized that in the future public and private sectors will need to work more closely together in order to develop and offer programs that make optimum use of existing resources.

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# 11.0 NONFORMAL EDUCATION*

This chapter examines the major nonformal education (NFE) activities conducted by Haitian governmental agencies. It addresses the availability, efficiency, and effectiveness of NFE services, especially in rural areas. Nonformal education is defined as any organized learning activity outside the structure of the formal education system that addresses specific learning needs of particular subgroups, either children or adults.

Nonformal education is distinguished from vocational/technical education in several ways. Though often occurring outside the formal system, vocational/technical education prepares people for specific professions usually requiring both certification and a specified level of previous education or training for entry, consisting of a relatively formal curriculum, and lasting for a specified period. Thus, a training program to prepare professional artisans is considered vocational/technical, while an income-generating project in which rural people learn a craft is considered nonformal education.

In accordance with Government objectives to increase the participation of all Haitians in development, this assessment concentrates on the delivery of NFE programs in three sectors: community development and literacy, health, and rural development.

Particular attention is given to programs in three ministries: the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Public Health and Population, and the Ministry of Agriculture, Natural Resources, and Rural Development. Although much nonformal education takes place in the private sector, and private programs are treated to some extent in connection with government programs, a complete analysis of private programs is beyond the scope and resources of this sector assessment.

The chapter is divided into three major parts. The first part describes nonformal education programs in the public sector, with a brief overview of private sector efforts. The second part identifies needs and constraints related to nonformal education, describes some program plans, and analyzes the NFE subsector with respect to external efficiency, internal efficiency, access and equity, administration and supervision, and costs and financing. The final part contains recommendations derived from the analysis.

Principal needs identified are: making nonformal education activities more relevant to participants' lives and problems, enabling learners to play a bigger part in designing and evaluating programs, and improving training programs for

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*The draft for this chapter was prepared by Lela L. Vandenberg, Michigan State University.



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NFE field workers. A systematic collection of information on the costs, benefits, and outcomes of nonformal education is essential as a base for continued improvement in the programs. Closer coordination among the public and private organizations that are involved is also critical for increasing the effectiveness and efficiency of nonformal education. Issues identified include: program relevance, participation, income generation, orientation (process versus content), the use of groups as a delivery mechanism, linkages with the formal system, the potential of radio, research and information, and channels for outside funding.

The recommendations focus on ways to make nonformal education in Haiti more efficient and effective. If implemented, these measures will link programs more closely to learners' priority needs and problems, develop a training curriculum for middle-level managers and trainers of field workers, establish a centralized information center on nonformal education, and strengthen coordination among projects, programs, and activities.

## 11.1 STATUS

This section begins with an overview of the development background in Haiti. National goals, with their accompanying strategies, are summarized for community development, health and nutrition, and rural development. Major public sector programs in these three areas are summarized, with brief comments on private programs. The public and private structure of this subsector is described. Concluding observations deal with the relative ineffectiveness of the public sector programs.

### 11.1.1 Background*

Haiti faces a number of related challenges to national social and economic development, especially in rural areas. A growing population is competing for scarce and deteriorating land, malnutrition and endemic disease affect a large proportion of the population, and opportunities for even basic education are very limited. The per capita income was $300 in 1982, low among even the poorest developing countries.

Population density is 183 per square kilometer. The annual population growth rate is 2% with an average family size of 5.5, and only 5% of all women used contraception in 1978. The infant mortality rate in 1979 was 150 per 1,000

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*Data from: World Bank, Haiti: Population, Health and Nutrition Sector Review, 1983; UNICEF, UNICEF in Haiti, 1984; USAID, Agricultural Development in Haiti, 1978; USAID, Food and Agriculture Sector Strategy for Haiti, 1982; McGuire, B., Bottom-Up Development in Haiti, 1979. See list of Background Documents (Annex C).



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births. Seventy-three percent of infants suffer from malnutrition, and 25% of women, mostly in urban areas, do not breastfeed. The percentage of children under six suffering from malnutrition ranges from 25 to 50%, and 27% of all children have second- or third-degree malnutrition. Preschool children are sick 50% of the time. The leading causes of death among children are malnutrition and diarrheal diseases, followed by immunizable diseases, malaria, tuberculosis, and bronchial pneumonia. Only 10% of the population has access to safe drinking water, and latrines are available to only 20% of urban and 1% of rural residents.

Most Haitians are farmers, with an average farm size of 1.3 hectares (3 acres). Although most peasant farmers regard themselves as landowners, few hold clear title to their land; renting and sharecropping are common. This insecure land tenure discourages investment and encourages over-cultivation. Along with deforestation, this contributes to soil erosion and general degradation of the environment. There are no storage facilities, and credit is available only at exorbitant interest rates. Thus, farmers are forced to consume or sell their crops at harvest time when prices are lowest.

All public and private efforts to alleviate these problems and provide development programs are made more difficult by the generally low education levels. Two-thirds (65%) of the population above 10 years of age have had no formal education. On the basis of preliminary data from the 1982 census, the literacy rate has been estimated at 27% (up from 20% in 1974).

Nonformal education has been demonstrated worldwide to be an essential component of solutions to development challenges such as those facing Haiti today. It can be an effective factor in changing behavior where development problems are related to lack of knowledge of nutritional principles, contraceptive methods, hygienic practices, or improved agricultural methods. Where part of the solution calls for developing community organizations and cooperatives for production and marketing, nonformal education can serve as a catalyst and build confidence and group cohesion. As a complement to formal education, it can provide an alternative form of education for those who have not been able to take part in the formal system.

Nonformal education programs in Haiti have concentrated on four general areas: literacy, community development, health, and rural development. Adult literacy campaigns began in 1943 with the establishment of the Haitian Office for Adult Education (Bureau Haïtien de l'Education des Adultes). The National Office of Community Education (Office National de l'Education Communautaire - ONEC) was formed in 1961, and between 1962 and 1968 more than 3,000 literacy centers were created (see Table 11.1). These served 250,000 people, and 70,000



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were reported to have achieved a functional degree of literacy. ONEC also began a continuing process to establish community action organizations (conseils d'action communautaire - CACs) throughout the country.

TABLE 11.1

Achievements In Literacy, 1962-80

| Year | Number of Centers | Number of Participants | Total Literate | Percent Literate |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1962-68 | 3,000 | 250,000 | 70,000 | 28% |
| 1970-71 | 2,018 | 50,787 | --- | |
| 1973-74 | 1,781 | 47,122 | --- | |
| 1974-75 | 3,423 | 83,368 | --- | |
| 1975-76 | 6,987 | 198,209 | 66,068 | 33% |
| 1976-77 | 7,052 | 220,141 | 73,377 | 33% |
| 1978-79 | 7,180 | 255,800 | 96,247 | 38% |
| 1979-80 | --- | 48,000 | 5,000 | 10% |

Source: Belloncle, Guy, Dix-Années d'Alphabétisation en Haïti.

Partially in response to Unesco's worldwide movement to promote functional literacy, the National Organization for Literacy and Community Action (Office National d'Alphabétisation et d'Action Communautaire - ONAAC) was created in 1969 as an autonomous unit within the Ministry of Education to replace ONEC. By 1979, after two major literacy campaigns conducted with Unesco's support, 7,180 centers were functioning with 255,800 regular attendees reported in 1978/79. A total of 96,247 (38%) of the attendees were reported to have become literate that year. The next year, however (the last year for which data were available), only 5,000 (10%) of 48,000 participants were reported to have achieved literacy. In any case, the reliability of this information has been questioned, since there is no clear indication of how the Table 11.1 figures were collected. The numbers of field personnel from 1976 to 1980 are given in Table 11.2.

With the creation in 1975 of the Literacy Research and Experimentation Group (Groupe de Recherche et d'Experimentation en Alphabétisation - GREAL) within the National Pedagogic Institute (Institut Pédagogique National - IPN), an emphasis on literacy for "conscientization"--critical awareness of one's socioeconomic situation--was introduced. In cooperation with ONAAC, GREAL began a 5-year experiment to test the effectiveness of a literacy methodology based on discussing and analyzing shared problems. A 1981 evaluation of the experiment



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TABLE 11.2

Field Personnel of ONAAC, 1976-80

| Year | Extension | | | Coordinators | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Literacy Agents | Agents | Supervisors | Regions | Zones |
| 1976/77 | 6,390 | 81 | 539 | 6 | 22 |
| 1977/78 | 5,340 | 165 | 525 | 9 | 37 |
| 1978/79 | 3,555 | 180 | 375 | 9 | 40 |
| 1979/80 | 1,500 | 180 | 375 | 9 | 43 |

Source: Government of Haiti, Troisième Plan Quinquennal du Développement 1981-86.

concluded that facilitators had not been able to implement the methodology because of insufficient training and had instead employed the semi-functional methodology already in use in the country. From 1981 to early 1984, when GREAL once again began working with ONAAC, GREAL's funds were reduced, interrupting a series of planned research studies. In this interim, IPN supported GREAL so that it could conduct research on the Education Reform which has been described earlier (Chapter 5) in this assessment.

No information is available on ONAAC's activities during the 1981-84 period, and it appears that little was accomplished. In early 1984, the new director made a series of field visits to several of the 2,000 literacy centers then reported to be functioning, and did not find a single literacy class taking place. Under his direction, and with assistance from UNICEF and Unesco, ONAAC is planning a new literacy campaign to begin in January 1985 with an experimental cycle and a comprehensive evaluation of past efforts and current directions.

Most nonformal health education in the public sector is under the jurisdiction of the Department of Public Health and Population (Département de la Santé Publique et de la Population - DSPP). Laws passed in 1971 and 1975 give it responsibility for supervising all activities related to public health. Three somewhat autonomous units of the DSPP have conducted nonformal education as part of their activities. These units are the Division of Family Hygiene (Division d'Hygiène Familiale - DHF), the Division of Nutrition (Division de Nutrition), and the National Service of Major Diseases (Service National des Endémies Majeures - SNEM). The DHF shifted its orientation in 1978 from clinic-based education to outreach and community development with a focus on family planning and contraceptive distribution. The Division of Nutrition has



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emphasized parental education. SNEM has been involved with the control of malaria since 1964, through a widespread network of volunteers who distribute medication and serve as information channels.

A shift in orientation from curative to preventive health care in 1983 led to the formation of the Division of Health Education and Training (Division d'Education Sanitaire et d'Entraînement - DESE), responsible for coordinating the educational activities of the divisions within the DSPP. Mass campaigns have been conducted on overpopulation, sanitation, family planning, and oral rehydration therapy for the treatment of diarrhea. Training materials and programs have been developed to strengthen the cadres working directly with beneficiaries at the local level.

Agricultural education for peasant farmers has been overseen by the Ministry of Agriculture, Natural Resources, and Rural Development (Département de l'Agriculture, des Réssources Naturelles, et du Développement Rural - DARNDR), though little has been done in a sustained and systematic way. Between 1977 and 1983, a project to strengthen the Agricultural Extension Service (Vulgarisation Agricole) of DARNDR was financed by the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) (Programme des Nations Unies pour le Développement - PNUD) and implemented by the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO). This project had four major objectives:

- Establish a national agriculture extension system.
- Establish operational extension structures.
- Train new and inservice extension agents.
- Help implement regional programs of rural development.

A pilot project was conducted in two rural areas, and detailed recommendations were developed for improving the structure and functions of the Agriculture Extension Service. Due to end in 1986, the project was terminated in 1983. Because of various problems and interruptions in implementation, there are virtually no visible results, and the recommendations do not seem to have been followed. The failure of the project has been attributed to a number of factors: the absence of any specific action programs in collaboration with peasants; the weakness of DARNDR's technical services (extension cannot be effective without something to extend); the inadequacy of the extension system's personnel, equipment, and logistic means; and the absence of agriculture extension in the curriculum of the National University's College of Agronomy and Veterinary Medicine (Faculté d'Agronomie et de Médecine Vétérinaire - FAMV).

Some have expressed optimism that, with the new Minister recently appointed, DARNDR may be able to accomplish its goals. The division most responsible for nonformal education, the Division of Rural Development



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(Division du Développement Rural - DDR), is also under new leadership. DDR is now planning and reorganizing its structure and activities.

A number of nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) have been extensively involved in nonformal education in Haiti for many years, including programs in literacy, community development, health, and agriculture. Among those with major involvement are the Baptist Haiti Mission, Canadian Save the Children, Caritas, Catholic Relief Services (CRS), Catholic Church (Conférence Episcopale), Mennonite Central Committee (MCC), Pan American Development Foundation (PADF), Seventh Day Adventist World Service (SAWS), Unesco, UNICEF, and World Vision International (WVI).

### 11.1.2 National Goals and Strategies

In the third 5-year plan (1981-86), a major national goal is to integrate the entire population in the process of development, and to transform the socioeconomic environment through developing local resources and appropriate cost-effective techniques. To support this goal, nonformal education can strengthen participation in development in three areas: community development, health and nutrition, and rural development. A summary of the objectives of several government units in each of these areas follows.

Community Development. ONAAC is the primary government organization responsible for community development. Community organization and literacy programs linked to development themes have been the major strategies. Five objectives guide ONAAC's efforts:

- Eradication of illiteracy through programs that respond to local needs.
- Cooperation among educational efforts in all sectors.
- Provision of basic knowledge and skills to new literates.
- Promotion of community organizations and group formation.
- Mobilization of the rural population for a deeper awareness of and more active participation in the country's development.

Health and Nutrition. The Haitian Government views human resources as a major component in development. Recognizing that poor health and nutrition are a serious constraint to development, the DSPP has accepted the challenge made to 140 countries at a World Health Organization (WHO)/UNICEF conference in 1978: "Health for all by the year 2000." Aiming to reduce the birth rate, decrease the mortality rate, and raise life expectancy, efforts have concentrated on seven priority health problems: diarrhea, malnutrition, pneumonia, immunizable diseases, malaria, tuberculosis, and family planning. The ultimate goal of DESE is to help educate people to take full responsibility for their own health and that of their families.



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Rural Development. The general goal of this subsector is to satisfy national needs and maintain conditions favorable to balanced growth, especially to benefit the lowest socioeconomic layers. To this end, DARNDR aims to increase productivity, reduce food deficits, and ensure a more equitable distribution of food resources. The motivation, mobilization, and organization of peasants in structured groups, such as production or marketing associations, is seen as an effective means to increase peasants' negotiating power and encourage the more efficient use of scarce resources. This is an ambitious goal given that rural development accounts for only 0.8% of DARNDR's small budget.

### 11.1.3 Structure of the NFE Subsector

Nonformal education is the responsibility of three ministries: Education (DEN), in which ONAAC is an autonomous unit; Public Health and Population (DSPP); and Agriculture, Natural Resources, and Rural Development (DARNDR). In addition, many nongovernmental organizations provide a wide range of programs.

National Organization for Literacy and Community Action (ONAAC). One of ONAAC's major functions, in addition to implementing literacy programs, is to encourage cooperation among various public, religious, and philanthropic organizations engaged in nonformal education. At the national level, ONAAC works collaboratively to develop and implement cooperative programs with other ministries (such as the DSPP and DARNDR), with NGOs (such as UNICEF, Unesco, the Haiti Scouts, and others), and with the Haitian Association of Voluntary Agencies (HAVA) described below. ONAAC is also forming a Support Committee to replace the former National Literacy Council, which was not effective. The Support Committee, whose main role is advisory, will consist of representatives from several ministries, the IPN, NGOs, and the Catholic Church, and a linguistic expert.

Coordination below the national level seems to be informal. Community action councils (conseils d'action communautaire - CACs), organized in most rural sections, are the focal point of activities in health, agriculture, community development, and literacy. However, local-level cadres--literacy agents, health agents, agriculture extension agents--seem to work in relative isolation from one another. Each reports through various levels of a hierarchy to a separate district office, under the jurisdiction of the corresponding ministry.

Haitian Association of Voluntary Agencies (HAVA). The Haitian Association of Voluntary Agencies was established in 1981. It promotes cooperation among private voluntary organizations (PVOs) in Haiti and serves as a liaison between member organizations and governmental and intergovernmental organizations.



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Composed of a continually growing membership of more than 70 Haitian and international organizations, HAVA is gradually becoming valued as an important resource and a critical link among the many development organizations with overlapping goals and programs.

HAVA's major goal is to encourage the most efficient and effective use of resources by serving as a forum for the exchange of experiences, ideas, and information among development organizations. This exchange occurs in several ways. Members participate in regular meetings of specialized committees on agriculture, health, education, income generation, disaster relief, water and sanitation, and women in development. In addition to sharing information, committee members plan projects for joint implementation.

HAVA also sponsors topically oriented education and training seminars and workshops. Three of these--on agriculture, on education, and on health and social services--were held in November 1984; others scheduled for 1984-85 include disaster and emergency preparedness, income generation, water and sanitation, and women in development.

A periodic newsletter, HAVA News, is another channel of communication among members. It contains program descriptions of member and nonmember organizations, as well as announcements and other pertinent information. HAVA hopes to establish a documentation center on programs and activities for relief and development and to function as an information clearinghouse. In addition, a registry of experts and organizations working in Haiti is being developed.

Programs. Programs of the three major ministries involved in NFE are described in the following sections. Community development programs are the major responsibility of ONAAC, health and nutrition programs the responsibility of the Division of Health Education and Training (DESE) in DSPP, and rural development programs the responsibility of the Division of Rural Development (DDR) in DARNDR. Nongovernmental organizations also provide similar educational opportunities in a variety of subjects; these are summarized in Section 11.1.7.

### 11.1.4 Community Development Programs

Consistent with Haiti's goal to integrate the entire population in the development process, ONAAC's programs are designed to promote community organizations capable of carrying out development activities, and to provide literacy to all Haitians as a tool for their development efforts. A description of organizational structure and management is followed by a discussion of three major programs: Literacy, Family Life Education, and Community Action.

Organizational Structure and Management. At the national level, the Office of the Director of ONAAC supervises two divisions and two units, in addition to administrative services and a technical cabinet (see Figure 11.1). The



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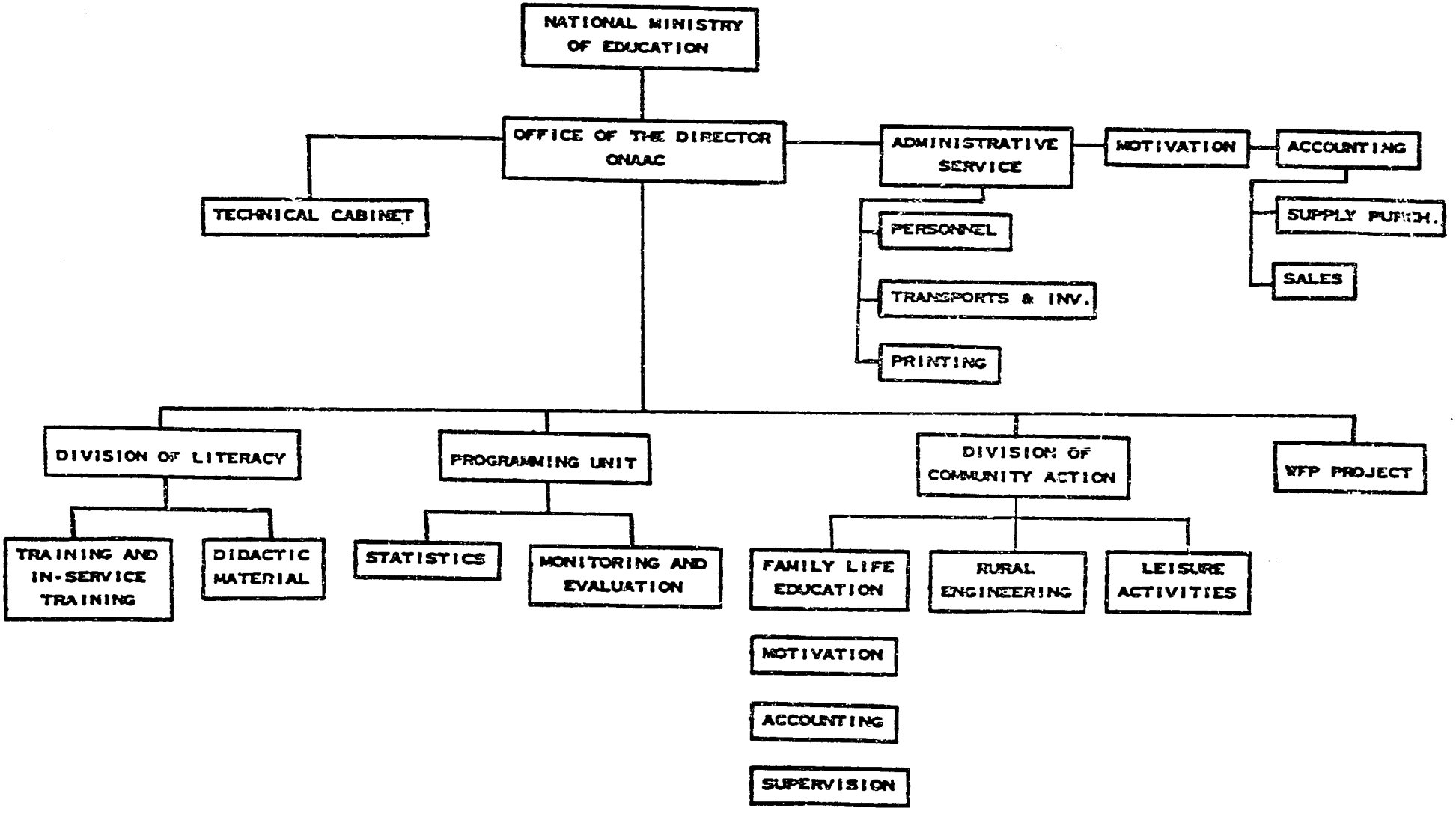
FIGURE 11.1

ONAAC National Organization



technical cabinet is responsible for program planning, curriculum development, and decisionmaking concerning content, methods, and materials for literacy and post-literacy programs. It is also concerned with organizing and strengthening local-level community organizations. The Division of Literacy consists of two services--training and inservice training, and materials preparation. The Division of Community Action contains three services: family education, rural engineering, and recreation. The Programming unit is responsible for collecting statistical data and monitoring and evaluating programs. The World Food Program (WFP) unit (Programme d'Alimentation Mondiale - PAM) oversees the distribution of food as payment to the literacy teachers.

Also at the national level, GREAL, administered jointly by ONAAC and the National Pedagogical Institute (IPN), is currently working with ONAAC and UNICEF to develop, test, and revise literacy materials, and to plan and conduct research studies on various aspects of the literacy campaign.

Conforming to a policy of regionalism, ONAAC has decentralized its operations, giving greater autonomy to regional offices in each of the four large regions of the country: North (Cap-Haïtien), Transversal (Gonaïves), West (Port-au-Prince), and South (Les Cayes) (see Figure 11.2). The major responsibilities of these offices are to conduct a census to identify the target audience, identify potential locations for literacy centers, recruit and train literacy teachers, and retrain former teachers. Regional committees composed of representatives from other public services, private organizations, and leading citizens provide advisory support to the regional offices.

Directly under the regional offices are nine coordinating offices, one in each of the country's departments. Thus, in the North Region there are two departmental coordinating offices--North and North-East; in the Transversal Region there are three--North-West, Artibonite, and Center; in the West Region there are West and South-West; and in the South Region there are South and Grande-Anse. Each of these departments contains a number of zones (54 in total) with coordinating offices, and each zone is divided into districts (130 in total).

The parallel pyramidal structures of ONAAC's administrative units, community organizations, and governmental administrative units is shown in Figure 11.3, indicating the personnel who work at each level. There are three levels of technical or field personnel. First, each of the four regions has a 10-member training brigade, responsible for training the literacy agents. Second, all-purpose extension agents (animateurs polyvalents) are primarily involved in community development and work closely with community groups at the three levels where they are most active: community action groups (groupements



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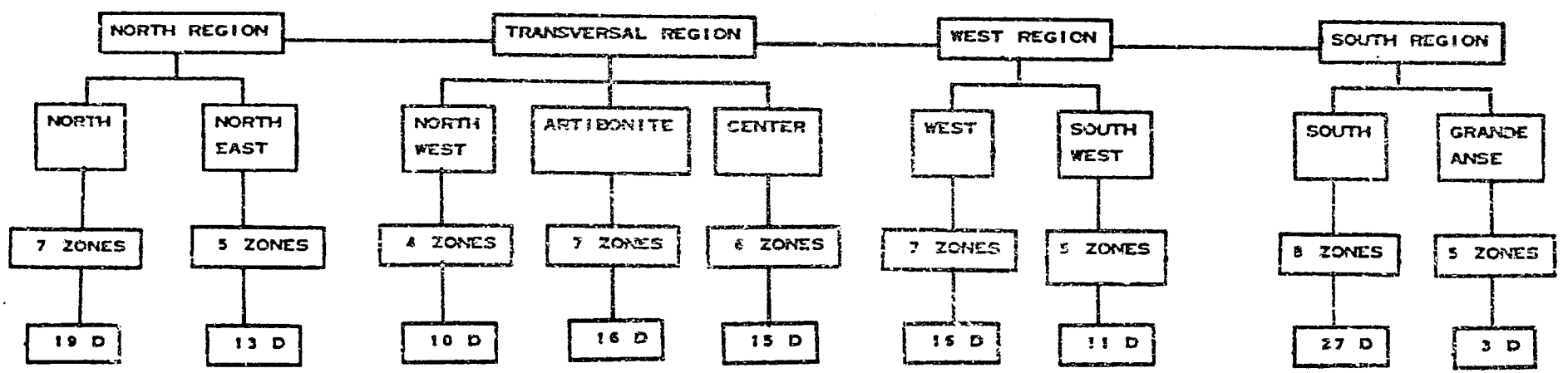
FIGURE 11.2

ONAAC Regional Organization




Source: National Organization for Literacy and Community Action (ONAAC)

FIGURE 11.3

Parallel Structures: ONAAC, Community Organizations, and Governmental Units

| ONAAC | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Administrative Units | Administrative Personnel | Field Personnel | Community Organizations | Governmental Administrative Units |
| Region (4) | Director | Training Teams | | Region |
| Department (9) | Coordinator-- | | Confederation of CACs | Department |
| Zone | Coordinator-- | --- | | Arrondissement |
| District | | Extension -- Agents | Federation of CACs | Commune (133) |
| Family Life Education Centers | | Family Life- Agents | Community Action Council (CAC) | Section (555) |
| Literacy Centers Group (GAC) | | Literacy --- Agents | Community Action | Neighbor-hood |

Source: Compiled from various sources.

d'action communautaires - GACs) at the neighborhood level; community action councils (conseils d'action communautaire - CACs) at the section level; and federations of CACs at the communal level. Confederations of CACs are still somewhat theoretical, and CACs seem to be the major vehicle through which ONAAC and other sectors attempt to implement their programs. According to Haiti's third 5-year development plan (1981-86), 1,653 CACs and 6,000 GACs are officially recognized by ONAAC. However, many of these groups are believed to be relatively inactive.

The CACs will have a direct role in the new literacy campaign scheduled to begin in February 1985. They will be encouraged to sponsor literacy centers where none exist, recruit literacy agents or teachers (moniteurs), provide a local channel through which these agents can be paid, and monitor the progress of the program.

The third level of field personnel consists of literacy agents and family life education agents. Both types of agents work in literacy or family life education centers located throughout the districts, and are supervised by animateurs polyvalents, who report to either departmental or zonal coordinating offices. The family life education agents, however, are usually better educated, receive more specialized training, and are often animateurs polyvalents and literacy agents as well.



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ONAAC receives only 5.7% of the Ministry of Education's budget (which is only 12% of the national budget). See Table 11.3 for ONAAC's current budget. ONAAC has devised two strategies to overcome the problem of limited financial resources.

The first strategy, "sectoral literacy," entails securing formal agreements with regional development organizations to sponsor literacy efforts in connection with their own programs and projects. These organizations would thus be responsible for literacy in the sectors or areas in which they work. Some of the organizations now working with ONAAC include the Development Organization of the Artibonite Valley (Organisme de Développement de la Vallée de l'Artibonite - ODVA), the Development Organization of the North (Organisme de Développement du Nord - ODN), the Development Organization of the North-West (Organisme de Développement du Nord-Ouest - ODNO), and the Haitian-German Development Fund (Fonds Haitiano-Allemand pour le Développement - FONDEV). Other organizations will conduct literacy programs in other areas, with technical support from ONAAC. For example, the Scouts (Scouts d'Haïti) are currently planning a nationwide literacy program for youths in collaboration with ONAAC, and the Catholic Church has developed a detailed plan of its own for a nationwide literacy campaign administered by the National Episcopal Literacy Council (Conseil Episcopal National d'Alphabétisation - CENA). This project will be described in Section 11.2.3 which addresses plans relevant to the NFE subsector.

The second strategy to conserve resources is also designed to provide continuous feedback on the implementation of the campaign. Termed "progressive literacy," the strategy aims to establish a limited number of literacy programs in each department, monitor several of these closely, and use the results to improve the next cycle of literacy programs. Every area of the country will progressively be reached, and each cycle is planned to become progressively more effective.

Literacy. Since the arrival of a new director in early 1984, ONAAC's literacy program has been carefully studied and is being evaluated and reorganized. A nationwide literacy campaign, scheduled to begin in January 1985, is being planned. This campaign will be described in Section 11.2.3 (Plans).

In its current state of transition, ONAAC is engaged in a number of activities. The regional directors, in conjunction with the departmental and zonal coordinators, are conducting a census to determine the numbers of illiterates, potential literacy agents, and functioning or potentially functioning literacy centers. This information was to be compiled early in December 1984. In collaboration with UNICEF and GREAL, ONAAC is preparing



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TABLE 11.3

ONAAC's Budget for FY 1984/85(a)

| Purpose | Source: Public Treasury | Source: External Assistance | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| Operations | $1,101,000 | --- | $1,101,000 |
| Development | 200,000(b) | $111,000 | 311,000 |
| Total | $1,301,000 | $111,000 | $1,412,000 |

(a) October 1, 1984 - September 30, 1985

(b) Not yet allocated

Source: National Organization for Literacy and Community Action (ONAAC)

visual materials, a teacher's guide, and learners' booklets. ONAAC is also working closely with several development organizations (e.g., FONDEV, ODVA) which are now conducting experimental literacy programs and will use the results of these programs to adapt the planned campaign. With Unesco, ONAAC is planning an evaluation of current and previous literacy efforts, and a field test of the materials is now being developed. Finally, ONAAC is preparing a training seminar/workshop for regional directors and departmental coordinators to explain their roles and responsibilities in the upcoming campaign, and to obtain their suggestions in planning and their cooperation in implementing the campaign.

The most recent data available on previous literacy programs were gathered in 1981, when a 5-year experimental program in the South Region was analyzed. The results of this program are described below. No documentation was found for literacy efforts from 1981 to 1984, and it appears that little or nothing was done. Reasons cited for this gap include lack of operating and development funds, and irregularity of distribution of food from the World Food Program as payment to literacy agents.

Learners. Although each of approximately 290 centers in the South Region was projected to have 50 participants, only from 10 to 20 were found in attendance at any one session, and the dropout rate was 25%. Thus, out of approximately 4,350 participants, fewer than 1,100 actually completed the program. A large majority of participants were female and 78% were adolescents or young adults between the ages of 15 and 25 years.

Facilitators and Trainers. Literacy personnel in the region consisted of 538 literacy agents (approximately two per center), 108 supervisors (*sous-inspecteurs*), 23 *animateurs polyvalents*, six zonal coordinators, and one

regional coordinator. Most of the literacy agents were nominated by the CACs, whose membership usually consists of people from the upper strata of rural society. They were trained by animateurs polyvalents located in each zone or region, and supervision was theoretically provided by sous-inspecteurs responsible to regional or zonal coordinators, though no records were kept. The length and type of their training are not described (but were found to be insufficient), and their abilities to use the proposed methodology were extremely weak. They were paid in food from WFP, but distribution was sporadic, which had a very negative effect on motivation.

Method and Content. A three-stage educational process was planned. In the initial discussion-animation phase, the literacy agent was to engage people in an analysis of shared problems. Through discussions of alternative solutions, participants would come to see the need for literacy, which would lead to the second stage, literacy and numeracy. The third stage, post-literacy, would allow participants to apply their newly gained skills in solving problems.

The literacy method was termed Kle Developman (key to development), each lesson centering on 1 of 31 "key" phrases consisting of recommendations or generalities related to health, nutrition, agriculture, community development, and environmental preservation. Each phrase was illustrated by a large, colorful poster. In addition, each phrase illustrated 1 of 31 Creole sounds, which participants learned to read and write. These were intended to stimulate collective reflection on community problems and the motivation for literacy. Learner brochures contained the key phrases and writing exercises.

However, according to the 1981 evaluation, the discussion-animation phase did not occur, and the literacy lessons were instructor-administered, mechanical presentations to silent adults in a teacher-child atmosphere.

Evaluation. Evaluation consisted of a final examination to measure the level of literacy, and 35% of the participants were judged literate. No participatory evaluation was done to obtain learners' perceptions of the method, the agents, or their own progress.

Facilities and Support Services. Agents were provided with a set of posters and a teacher's guide explaining each lesson and listing the steps to follow in the lesson, including the questions to stimulate discussion. Participants were asked to buy the brochures that accompanied each lesson.

Costs and Financing. One of the major problems of ONAAC's literacy program in general--not only in this experimental program--was lack of payment to field personnel. In addition, although the literacy agents were supposed to be paid in food through WFP, food distribution was irregular and eventually stopped.

Family Life Education. Education of women is one of ONAAC's priorities for two major reasons. First, the significant positive effect of mothers' education on children's health, on children's success in education, and on family size has been extensively documented by studies in numerous developing countries. Second, the large proportion of female-headed households in Haiti makes women's education especially important. The preliminary 1982 census, for example, indicates that 30% of Haitian households are headed by women. Major reasons given for this high percentage are male migration to towns or other countries in search of work, and informal marriages which often leave women alone to care for children.

ONAAC reoriented its family life education program in 1983 with the help of UNICEF, changing its emphasis from traditional home economics to activities with a more direct effect on the survival of children. The goal of the new program is to increase knowledge and skills that enable women to better handle family responsibilities and to participate more fully and effectively in community development.

Learners. There were approximately 4,300 regular participants in the family life education programs in 1983/84, and more than 8,000 children up to three years of age were directly affected. The participants were divided into two groups: young single women between the ages of 16 and 24, who attended classes 4 days each week (the majority), and married women, who attended one day each week.

Facilitators and Trainers. A total of 132 family life agents were trained and assigned to the Family Life Education Centers (Centres d'Education Familiale). Agents must have finished the equivalent of eighth grade to be selected. They receive $70 per month, and their work is monitored by 16 supervisors who receive $150 per month. Training is provided by ONAAC's staff in cooperation with UNICEF and is based on principles of participation and action. Trainers set an example themselves for the desired behavior in the training sessions. For example, trainers do not intervene in discussions and this encourages trainees to plan and make decisions about their own training and subsequent actions. Trainees are encouraged to use the same methods in working with women in the centers.

Method and Content. The method employed for training the agents and for the agents' subsequent relations with the learners emphasizes discussion and participation. It stresses the importance of respecting and building on the background, experiences, knowledge, and options of each participant. Three major types of content are covered: literacy, health, and income generation. Single women receive literacy training for 2 hours daily, 3 days each



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week, in four-month cycles; married women receive 2 hours daily, 1 day each week, in nine-month cycles. Health education, developed in collaboration with DESE, focuses on oral rehydration therapy (ORT) for treating infant diarrhea, breastfeeding, family planning, nutrition, family hygiene, and early childhood development. The program also involves monitoring children's growth, administering immunizations, distributing contraceptives, and selling food supplements. Productive income-generating groups have been formed in a number of centers. Successful projects have involved crafts, food production and processing, and tilapia fish ponds. The use of appropriate technology has been emphasized. The program is currently developing a marketing network to retain profits often lost to middlemen and plans to incorporate job-oriented vocational training.

Facilities and Support Services. There are 125 Family Life Education Centers throughout the country. Participants and their communities either rent a house and help repair it or donate land and materials to construct a building. Learning materials include visual aids and guides for the agents. These are provided by UNICEF, and they are in the process of being improved. Locations for income-generating activities are provided by the participants, who also contribute capital which is matched by UNICEF. Sixteen supervisors are assigned to the nine departmental offices. Each prepares a schedule of visits to Centers, and zonal coordinators periodically check to see that the schedule is followed.

Evaluation. No evaluation information is available, though a computerized data collection system is being prepared for all of ONAAC's literacy programs.

Costs and Financing. From 1983 through 1986, UNICEF has allocated $414,000 for equipment, materials production, training seminars, monitoring and evaluation, and income-generating activities. ONAAC pays salaries, supervisory costs, and operating expenses.

Community Action. One of ONAAC's principal goals is to motivate, organize, and "conscientize" community groups in order to promote self-determined development. To do this, ONAAC has concentrated on leadership training at the regional level for members of officially recognized CACs.

Learners. CACs choose one or several members to receive training.

Facilitators and Trainers. Training is provided at the regional level by specialists from the Training and Inservice Training Service under the Division of Literacy (see Figure 11.1).

Method and Content. The training consists of five parts. Participants are taught to analyze their situation, assess their needs, develop community organizations, plan a program of activities, and evaluate their efforts. In



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order to promote the activities of other community education efforts, such as those organized by the DSPP or DARNDR, participants also receive basic education in such subjects as oral rehydration therapy, family planning, and installing water and sanitation systems.

Facilities and Support Services. Animateurs polyvalents provide the primary source of support to the trained CAC leaders. These animateurs work with CACs, help organize community action projects, and supervise literacy centers and agents. They have completed at least the third year of secondary school, and undergo an 18-month training course at the Secondary School of Papaye (Ecole Moyenne de Papayé) in the College of Agronomy and Veterinary Medicine. Their salary has recently been raised to $90 per month.

Evaluation. It is difficult to determine the effects of training, as no information is available on community action projects. Several sources report, however, that most CACs are relatively inactive, with their major function being to enforce government policies.

Costs and Financing. No information was obtained on the costs or financing of this leadership training.

### 11.1.5 Health and Nutrition Programs

All of DESE's activities are based on the premise that health problems are closely associated with poor health practices and habits and that education is a major force for positive change. The planned change involves increasing health-related knowledge and skills and encouraging a sense of responsibility for personal well-being among the entire population. To achieve this goal, a three-phase overall strategy is planned. The first phase involves spreading information about health services, health problems, and good health practices to other sectors, to communities, and to individuals. The second phase focuses on solving specific local health problems by building knowledge and skills at the community level. The third phase involves community-controlled planning and implementation of health programs and projects, with technical assistance from local health workers.

The three-phase strategy involves two broad communication approaches: indirect and direct. The indirect approach encompasses a number of channels: radio, newspapers, booklets and brochures, educational cinema, and cars with loudspeakers. Direct, face-to-face communication is initiated by doctors, nurses, and auxiliary nurses, as well as health agents, traditional birth attendants, agents from other sectors, and community health volunteers called "collaborating volunteers" in the SNEH program. It can take place in group meetings, home visits, or interaction during visits to the clinic or hospital.



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Building a solid health education infrastructure at all administrative levels is a major objective of DESE's activities for 1984/85. This entails organizing a strong health education program in each of the 15 health districts and providing inservice training for those responsible for health education at all levels. Training in recent years has concentrated on forming a solid base of field-level personnel, but it has not included those in coordinating and supervisory positions. For this reason, more training seminars are being planned for regional and district directors, educational program officers, and supervisors.

Organizational Structure and Management. DESE's major objectives are to:

- Design the overall educational program and establish guidelines for project-specific strategies.
- Coordinate all health-related educational activities.
- Provide training and orientation for all concerned with health education.
- Integrate the teaching of health education into the curriculum of all schools which train health professionals.
- Prepare and distribute educational materials.
- Develop participatory, community-oriented approaches to health education.

At the national level, DESE consists of four services: Training; Health Education; Audio-Visual Production and Documentation; and Strategy, Research, and Evaluation. Each service contains a number of sections (see Figure 11.4). The Training Service is responsible for designing, distributing, and evaluating educational materials. The Health Education Service is responsible for the coordination, supervision, and training of all field-level health personnel. Its work is based on a careful analysis of the target population's needs and problems and the integration of local human and technical resources. The two sections of the Health Education Service are Audio-Visual Communication and Interpersonal Communication. The Audio-Visual Production and Documentation Service prints and produces all of the materials designed by the other services. Finally, the Strategy, Research, and Evaluation Service designs and conducts the monitoring and evaluation of all programs and materials, and it conducts psychosocial and pedagogical research to assist with program design; its two sections are Strategy and Research, and Evaluation.

Another major emphasis of DESE's 1984/85 activities is the organization of a Multisectoral Health Education Program. This program calls for developing and strengthening relationships with other Government sectors involved in field-level education and with NGOs interested in health-related nonformal education.



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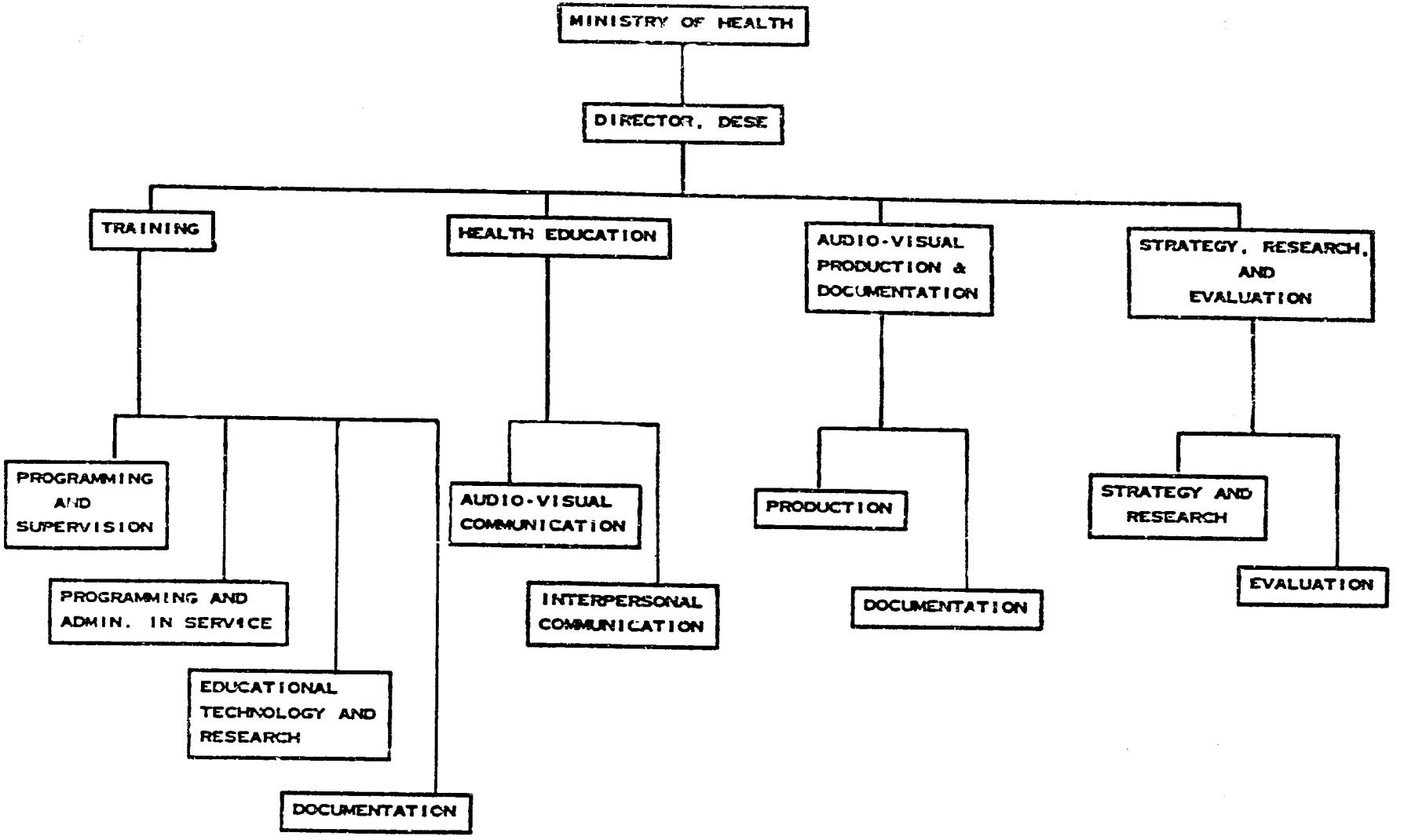
FIGURE 11.4

Organization of the Division of

Health Education and Training (DESE)



DESE provides technical assistance or engages in joint planning and implementation of projects and programs. DESE currently has close ties with ONAAC in the context of the latter's literacy and family life education programs. It also works closely with the Seventh Day Adventist World Service (SAWS) with women's education in the Community Integrated Nutrition Education Centers (Centres Integrés de Nutrition et d'Education Communautaire - CINECs), with DARNDR, and with the Scouts of Haiti. A serious constraint to DESE's activities is the lack of a budget from internal Government sources, and funding from external sources is still under discussion.

Like other Government units, the DSPP has established a policy of decentralization in administering its programs and services. For DESE this has meant recruiting and training health education program officers for the four regional offices to coordinate, supervise, and evaluate all the educational activities at the district level. In January 1985, Health Education Committees will be formed in each district to help plan activities. These units will be composed of health officials, community leaders, and experts in agriculture, radio, and other relevant areas.

Each of the 15 district offices, and the few subdistrict offices, also has an educational officer, usually a nurse, who leads a team composed of one sanitation officer, one educator from SNEM, one nutritionist, and one supervisor of health agents. This team organizes all health education activities. Communal Health Centers (52), with or without beds, located in commune-level public health districts (Sections Sanitaires Communales), comprise the next level (lower) of the system. Ideally, they are staffed with one doctor, one nurse, and several auxiliaries, though in practice most do not have doctors or nurses. Under these are rural Dispensaries (212) usually headed by auxiliaries, each of whom supervises several health agents working in rural communities. Voluntary collaborators, who are distributors of malaria medication for SNEM, also play an educational role. Traditional birth attendants (TBAs, matrones) and traditional healers (guérisseurs) are the next level of health service providers, though they are paid by their clients and not by the DSPP. At the lower end of the health structure, folk medicine is still widely practiced in many homes. This system is diagrammed in Figure 11.5, which shows the structure and numbers of service providers at each level.

Two of DESE's major efforts, health education and training of health agents, will be described below.

1. Health Education - Learners. DESE's goal is to extend health education to the entire population, but its scope is limited by the number of field personnel. A campaign promoting the use of oral rehydration



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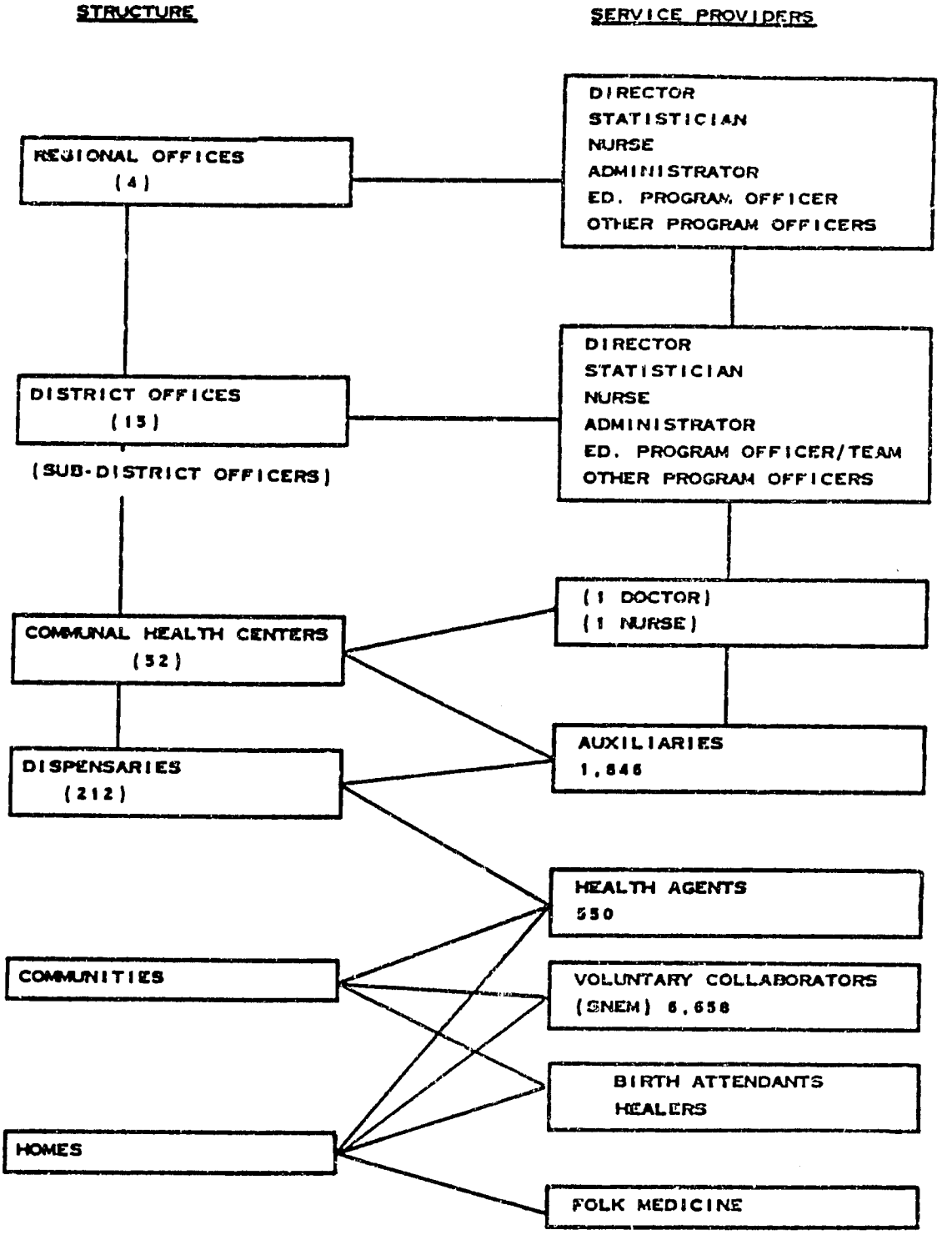
Figure 11.5

Health Education Delivery System



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therapy (ORT) to treat diarrhea in infants and children, which was begun in 1983, is estimated to have reached 12,000 people, with an impact on the lives of even more children.

Facilitators and Trainers. Health agents, auxiliaries, and nurses all perform educational roles.

Method and Content. Education is carried out directly in groups, on an individual basis, or indirectly by radio, posters, and other means. In groups, which are called reflection groups, a three-step question/listen/supplement method is supposed to be used, employing large, colorful posters to illustrate the lesson's theme. Theoretically, the facilitator asks "What do you see?," listens while participants discuss the picture, and then supplements the discussion with any relevant information. Thirteen major themes cover topics related to mother-child health, nutrition, family planning, environmental hygiene, and others. Unfortunately, health agents have not been trained in the method and these materials have not been distributed. This situation has been attributed to the lack of capacity of middle-level managers and trainers and the lack of support policy on the part of upper-level health officials.

Indirect communication is used to support and reinforce face-to-face communication. The long-standing malaria campaign has used posters, trucks with loudspeakers, and radio. The ORT campaign mentioned previously made extensive use of radio, posters, booklets, and a video documentary; all designed by an advertising agency headed by a woman. One study of the campaign found that most of the respondents who had heard of ORT had heard through direct means, however, and only 26% had heard of it indirectly by radio. Three new campaigns are now being planned on breastfeeding, immunization, and family planning.

Evaluation. Little information on monitoring or evaluation is available. No evaluation of the materials has been done, health agents have not been monitored to determine the numbers of persons participating in education, and no feedback has been requested from participants. As one step toward data collection, certificates will be given to those who complete the educational sessions, in order to determine the number of participants.

Facilities and Support Services. Health agents are encouraged to hold meetings in available places such as an auditorium, church, school, clinic, community room, hospital, or even under a tree. Materials



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include large, colorful posters and small booklets for participants (though only two of these have been produced--one on diarrhea and one on breastfeeding). A series of Memory Aids for health agents, in Creole and French, contains detailed descriptions of a health agent's tasks, and the knowledge and skills required for each task.

In theory, nurses or auxiliaries supervise the work of health agents, though many have no training in supervision and are unable to carry out their responsibilities systematically.

Costs and Financing. The government of Italy, with UNICEF and the World Health Organization, has provided funds for the mass education campaigns, amounting to $1,550,000 for 1983-86.

2. Training of Health Agents - Learners. Six hundred health agents have been trained. Since most of them are young, and many are unmarried, they face a problem of integration with and acceptance by older people. There are conflicting reports of the prevailing gender in this group; one source reported that the majority are women, while another claimed that 90% are men. Recruitment is done through the CACs, which select five or six candidates from whom the district office chooses one.

Facilitators and Trainers. Training is done by four district teams. Each team is headed by a nurse and consists of four members with technical assistance from DESE.

Method and Content. Training consists of 11 modules covering topics directly relevant to a health agent's responsibilities. These include: census taking, community organization, environmental hygiene, nutrition, mother-child health, family planning, diarrhea, tuberculosis, malaria, primary health care, and home visits. The method emphasizes active learning through the use of discussion, role playing, practice, and demonstration, with short informational presentations having a minor role. There is a strong emphasis on identifying and recognizing community resources that can be used to alleviate health problems; thus, trainees are taught to solicit the assistance of respected community leaders to help endorse and spread health messages. For example, priests may be asked to make announcements, the section chief who registers births may be asked to encourage people to vaccinate their children, and agriculture and literacy agents may be asked to incorporate health messages in their educational efforts.

The plan was to conduct training intermittently; that is, 2 weeks of training covering two modules would be followed by 4 weeks of field work, and so on until all the modules were covered. In



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reality, training was conducted all at once, and the active learning encouraged by the materials was not used during training. Some agents were subsequently observed dictating materials to learners.

Evaluation. No information on the effectiveness of the training is available.

Facilities and Support Services. In addition to the Memory Aids for the health agents, a manual for trainers provides a detailed guide on teaching the 11 modules. For each module the guide explains problems related to the theme of the module, how to ask questions that stimulate discussion, the relevant tasks of the health agent, learning objectives, essential points to be covered, and alternative methods of presenting and extending the information provided in the module.

Costs and Financing. The U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID) provided funds for training and health agent salaries ($40 per month), under an agreement that the DSPP would integrate the salaries into its operating budget. This has not yet happened, and health agents are currently not being paid. The project was a component of the $35 million Rural Health Delivery Systems (RHDS) project. Fourteen million dollars were allocated for training and materials development.

### 11.1.6 Rural Development Programs

Information from several sources indicates that many field-level activities within DARNDR were suspended from 1983 to 1984 because of lack of operating funds. Historically, even under the best of circumstances, DARNDR employees working in rural areas (a low proportion of all employees) have been severely handicapped by lack of supplies, inadequate transportation, a shortage of office space, and irregular receipt of their salaries. Since the appointment of a new Minister and a new Secretary General in 1984, there is some hope for increasing DARNDR's efficiency and effectiveness. DARNDR's new structure consists of five Divisions: Administration, Crop Production, Animal Production, Natural Resources, and Rural Development.

This subsection outlines the organizational structure and management of the Division of Rural Development (DDR), which is responsible for agriculture extension and other types of rural, nonformal education. This section also describes the single program which seems to have survived the 1983/84 disruption and DARNDR's transition to new leadership. Specific DDR plans will be presented in Section 11.2.3 (Plans).

Organizational Structure and Management. As the DDR is now organized, it comprises five services, each consisting of two or three sections (see Figure 11.6). The five services are:



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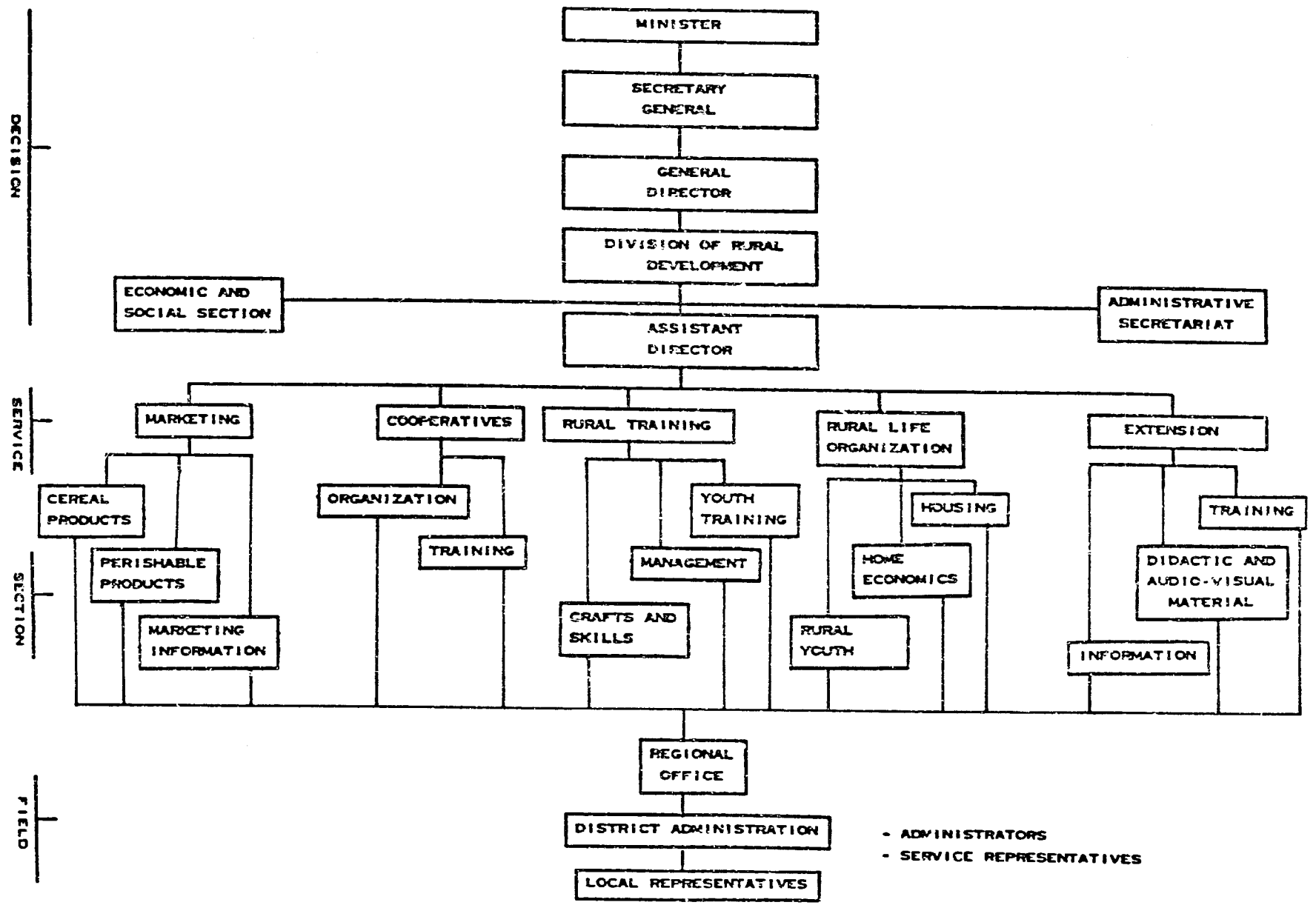
- Agricultural Marketing. The objectives of this service are to help producers obtain better prices for their products, to raise the standards of hygiene for food production and marketing, and to standardize weights and measures.
- Cooperatives. This service will work closely with an autonomous service, the National Council of Cooperatives (Counseil National de Coopératives - CNC), to train farmers in cooperative formation and management.
- Rural Training. This service aims to provide vocational/technical skills training, as well as training in management and marketing.
- Rural Life Organization. This service is seen as the foundation of rural development efforts. Its focus is the organization and strengthening of rural groups capable of managing their own development activities. Its objective is the direct participation of local people, especially women and youths, in self-determined action. It comprises three sections: home economics, rural youth, and habitat--which focuses on the distribution pattern of rural Haitian dwellings. The home economics section, which seems to have the only program that is currently functioning, emphasizes the training of home economics agents to facilitate activities in some 40 Home Economics Centers. Though one report states that less than half of these centers are actually functioning, the program will be described in more detail below. A comprehensive program planned for youths, a special priority, will be summarized in Section 11.2.3 (Plans).

  To promote solidarity and cooperation, the Rural Habitat section will continue with experimental efforts concerning group homes in villages that make it easier to provide services such as water and electricity. Whether this somewhat radical policy can be successful in Haiti, considering land use patterns and Haitians' purported individualism, is a serious question.
- Extension. The main functions of this service will be to promote the adoption of improved practices and appropriate technologies and to provide services (such as seed distribution) and technical assistance. The chief means used will be educational--experimental and demonstration farms, and seminars and workshops for farmers. An audio-visual team will develop materials, including films.

FIGURE 11.6

Organization of the Division of

Rural Development (DDR)



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Below the national level there are four regions. The regions are divided into agricultural districts; formerly there were 20, but some reports indicate that the new number is 12 or 13. Each region has representatives from each of DSPPs five Divisions. Because of the policy of decentralization, there is considerable freedom at the district level, with the Director's bimonthly report being the main communication between the districts and DARNDR.

At this writing (December 1984), the DDR has no funds allocated since the new administration of DARNDR has not yet prepared a budget.

Home Economics Centers. This section describes the activities of the Home Economics Centers (Centre d'Economie Familiale), which have been partially supported by UNDP and FAO since 1983. Their overall goal is to promote the participation of women in the development process. This is to be done by organizing and training women's groups to become relatively self-sufficient in food production and to manage and implement cooperative income-generating schemes.

Learners. The majority of those who attend programs at the centers are young girls. A few have had some primary education, but most are not literate. No records have been kept on the numbers of participants or the number of women contacted by the home economics agents outside of the centers.

Facilitators and Trainers. There are 68 home economics agents working in 12 agricultural districts, though 35% (24) of these are assigned to only two districts: Port-au-Prince North and Port-au-Prince South. Some of the agents have finished primary school, but others have no education beyond training received as part of their jobs. More than one-fourth have worked for DARNDR for more than 10 years in their respective villages.

Under the FAO/UNDP Project, a series of 4 two-week seminars has been planned for 80 participants in two groups--the 68 agents plus several monitrices (whose role is similar to that of the animateurs polyvalents employed by ONAAC) and one supervisor. Two of these seminars have taken place, one was planned for November-December 1984, and the fourth has not yet been approved by Government. The first seminar covered extension methods, group formation, and understanding of the rural milieu. The second dealt with nutrition, crop storage, vegetable production, and rabbit raising. The third was to cover credit and small business management, and the fourth was to focus on the utilization of natural resources, protection of the environment, and population growth.

Method and Content. The agents conduct 3 days of training each week, for the three-year program. Upon completion of the program, participants receive a certificate, though estimates indicate that fewer than 10% ever finish three years, and several centers have never completed the program.

The curriculum theoretically covers the following: food production, small animal raising, nutrition, food preparation and conservation, food storage, mother and child care, environmental sanitation, sewing, embroidery, handicrafts, first aid, well construction, latrine construction, and home repairs. Literacy is not taught. In spite of the curriculum, a case study of one center showed that 62% of the time was spent on sewing and embroidery, 11% on religion, 1% on agriculture, and 26% on all the rest. It is likely that the program varies considerably from center to center depending on the skills and abilities of the agent.

For the 2 days each week that the agent does not conduct the program, the agent is expected to work in the communities, contacting women and organizing cooperative groups to solve shared problems. Agents have complained about the difficulty of such a task, so the first training seminar was specifically oriented to help them understand the skills and tasks associated with organizing communities and mobilizing groups.

After the first and second seminars, an experimental program was begun in two centers. The home economics agents, in collaboration with an outside home economics consultant to FAO, organized several groups of women. Each group planned a small project--such as grain storage, rabbit or chicken raising, or fruit and vegetable production--and submitted a one-page proposal to FAO. The proposals were evaluated by FAO and approved by DARNDR, and the home economics agent was given a check in her name for a small sum of money (usually $200-300), considered a loan, to use for implementing the project. From informal observations, it appears that the funds have been used as planned, and the projects are reinvesting their capital and planning expansion.

As a result of this experiment, FAO has set up a $10,000 small project fund to provide small loans as starting capital for groups' projects. This strategy is based on the belief that money given directly will have a greater impact and greater chance of reaching those in need than if it is filtered through the many layers of government bureaucracy. The only requirement is a one-page proposal. The organization of such groups and the preparation of a proposal are two major items on the agenda of the third seminar.

Evaluation. Observational visits to project sites showed that the small projects were functioning well. No other evaluative data are available.

Facilities and Support Services. Although theoretically there are 40 Home Economics Centers, it is estimated that less than half are functioning. One of FAO's project objectives was to rebuild and equip 10 centers, but Government reduced this number to five. FAO has provided Government with chairs, garden tools, bicycles, and other materials for these five centers, but the equipment has not yet been distributed and is stored at DARNDR.



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FAO also intended to repair and equip a National Center for Rural Home Economics where regular training seminars and workshops could be conducted for field level personnel. However, the single site proposed by Government was regarded as too expensive to repair, and Government has not followed through with its agreement to provide the center with an operating budget. FAO has therefore decided to cancel plans for a national center, and to conduct training in existing rural training centers.

Currently one supervisor and eight monitrices perform supervisory duties. Though they provide assistance to some agents, most agents have little contact with external sources of human or material support.

Costs and Financing. Other than irregular salary payments, Government has provided no operating expenses for the centers. UNDP has financed the training seminars, provided equipment, and created the small project fund a total budget of almost $300,000.

### 11.1.7 Private Voluntary Organizations (PVOs)

More than 350 PVOs are engaged in development work for Haiti. The majority conduct integrated projects which involve adults in various kinds of skill-building learning activities. Thus, though they may not regard it as such, many PVOs are directly involved in activities that development workers generally refer to as nonformal education. A preliminary survey of 126 PVOs, conducted by USAID, illustrates the level of this involvement. Fifty-six PVOs indicated they were involved in nonformal education, 51 in adult literacy, 35 in skills development, 40 in agriculture extension, and 39 in agricultural training.

A follow-up questionnaire to provide [illegible] information about the development and educational activities of PVOs was be[illegible]g prepared for distribution in December 1984. Additional information will be requested, including types of activities and amount and sources of funding. This information will be placed in a computer and made available to organizations, such as HAVA, to facilitate interorganizational cooperation and coordination.

Although a complete survey of NFE programs conducted by PVOs is beyond the scope of this assessment, documentation was reviewed for several private community development projects to abstract factors contributing to their success. Four successful current projects were identified for this purpose:

- Gros Morne Project, begun by Catholic Relief Service (CRS) in 1976, provides training, technical assistance, and financial aid to hundreds of independent, member-directed, community action groups (groupements) which carry on income-generating, productive activities such as processing materials or raising animals.
- Papaye Project, operated by a Catholic diocesan training center,



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provides intensive education in group formation and consciousness raising.

- Groupement Pilot Project (GPP), managed by CRS, is an attempt to build on the strengths of the above two projects through initiating group formation, stimulating self-help efforts, and establishing a rural development resource center.
- Diocesan Institute of Adult Education (Institut Diocésian d'Education des Adultes - IDEA), an institute for peasant leadership training established in 1973, funded in part by the Inter-American Foundation and located in the College of Notre Dame in Cap Haitien, conducts leadership training programs for peasant leaders and promotes cooperative and credit union formation.

Though significant differences distinguish them, all of these successful projects seem to share the following basic assumptions, strategies, and orientation:

Basic Assumptions:

- Significant improvements in the lives of those in the lower socioeconomic classes can occur only if these people take personal responsibility and self-determined action to change the socioeconomic structures in which they live.
- Such mobilization and action can be assisted by an educational process.
- External assistance in the form of community organization, leadership training, educational opportunities, and small grants, loans, or credit schemes can facilitate self-sustained community development.
- External assistance in the form of large capital, infrastructural, and financial inputs can subvert such a community-level process by undermining motivation and creating a dependent expectation that development is equivalent to the delivery of handouts from outside sources.

Basic Strategy. The major emphasis varies from project to project, but all emphasize the development of group autonomy and the building of economic power through investment in income-generating projects and the reinvestment of group savings. Educational efforts center on group formation as well as the maintenance and development of economic and productive skills, along with analytical and problem-solving abilities.

Basic Orientation. All of the projects are based on small groups that learn to make decisions, rely on local resources, plan and carry out activities, and gain tangible benefits. Because of this "bottom-up" orientation, they are able to avoid many of the obstacles inherent in "top-down" bureaucracies through which benefits trickle down very slowly--if at all.

### 11.1.8 Concluding Observations

The preceding descriptions of the public sector programs in nonformal education suggest that they have been short in duration and have demonstrated little effectiveness. This conclusion is not based solely on the scarcity of evaluation data. Virtually all available information about these programs indicates that, in general, they are not well managed, do not address local needs, and are neither well staffed nor adequately financed.

Specific reasons for their ineffectiveness include the following:

- Many nonformal education programs are narrowly focused and are not relevant to learners' priority needs and problems.
- An important human resource, the learner, is being wasted in many programs. Learners have few opportunities to participate in planning and evaluating NFE activities.
- Learner participation and control are limited by reliance on CACs to recruit and organize learning groups and to deliver support materials.
- Much nonformal education is content-oriented and authoritarian, neglecting process skills and participatory methods.
- Few people have the administrative and management skills necessary to implement NFE programs.
- Because there is little systematic evaluation of NFE activities, feedback concerning successful and unsuccessful endeavors is not available for use in planning further activities and new projects.

## 11.2 ANALYSIS

This part of the sector assessment indicates which needs must be addressed for nonformal education to become more effective and efficient and summarizes the constraints under which current programs are operating. It also identifies several important issues related to organization and program content and states basic conclusions about the subsector. This analysis provides the basis, in the final section, for a series of recommendations to improve nonformal education.

### 11.2.1 Needs

To improve the efficiency and effectiveness of nonformal education in Haiti, six major needs must be addressed:

- A data collection system to monitor, evaluate, assess, and analyze costs of NFE programs, methods, materials, and communication.
- Better coordination and cooperation among government and nongovernment organizations.
- Greater relevance of NFE programs to learners' needs and problems.

- Increased participation of learners and facilitators in planning, monitoring, evaluating, and decisionmaking.
- Training for facilitators in principles of adult learning, participatory methods, group processes, communication skills, and data collection for monitoring and evaluation.
- Supervision to provide support for facilitators and to acquire information.

11.2.2 Constraints

Major constraints to the implementation of nonformal education programs in Haiti are an absence of a strong and clear policy commitment to invest in human development, lack of financial resources, shortages of trained human resources, weak organizational structures, and harsh environmental conditions. These constraints are discussed separately below.

Policy Constraints. The most serious constraint to nonformal education is at the policy level. Despite lofty statements in planning documents, emphasizing the importance of developing the capacities of all Haitians to participate in the development process, the meager resources allocated to Government units responsible for nonformal education reflect the low priority given to human development. In addition, appointments to Government positions are often made on the basis of political expediency, rather than on ability and on commitment to development goals. The average length of service for a Minister is reported to be 13 months, and an effective civil servant may serve for a much shorter period. With each change in administration, there is a corresponding turnover in management and support personnel. This lack of continuity seriously impedes attempts at long-range institutional development.

Financial Constraints. The second most serious constraint to nonformal education is financial. Even if the policy commitment to develop human resources were strong, Haiti's general lack of financial resources suggests that planners cannot reasonably expect any increase in current levels of Government funding. In fact, experience suggests that even budgeted funds will not all be allocated, and that field personnel may not be paid for months. As shown by FAO's experience with agriculture extension and USAID's experience with training health agents, Government has often not been able to meet its obligation to assume recurrent costs upon completion of development projects. Furthermore, exclusive reliance on local resources, one of nonformal education's principal strategies, is difficult in view of the extreme poverty of most Haitians.

Human Resource Constraints. The combination of the policy and financial constraints constitutes a serious obstacle to the development of human resources committed to nonformal education. There are very few field-level workers,



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trainers, or supervisors with the necessary skills or appropriate training in principles of adult learning, participatory nonformal education methods, research and evaluation, materials preparation, and basic skills. The low level of literacy makes it difficult to reach people other than through direct spoken instruction or through radio. In addition, few people have the managerial and administrative skills necessary to implement NFE programs, which often require the close coordination of human, material, and organizational resources from different sectors.

Organizational Constraints. Coordination of nonformal education efforts is very difficult because of the great diversity of programs and the many implementing organizations. Although ONAAC is attempting to serve in a coordinating role, especially among Government agencies, there seems to be little planned interministerial cooperation below the regional level. Government coordination is particularly handicapped by the high turnover in upper level positions, the resulting reorganizations, and the lack of continuity. Other organizational problems include the lack of a system for data collection and analysis, the absence of an effective supervisory support structure, the lack of an integrated extension system, and the reliance on elite-controlled community organizations (CACs) for implementing community development.

HAVA has made a significant contribution to the promotion of cooperation among PVOs and Government nonformal education efforts, but it is still in the process of building trust and support. Since it is independent of the Government control that characterizes ONAAC, it may have more potential for serving as a coordinator.

Environmental Constraints. The lack of reliable systems of communication and transportation in most rural areas presents a major obstacle to supervision and coordination. The number of people a field worker can contact is usually limited to those within walking distance, and group work is limited by the distance members can walk to attend meetings. A deteriorating land base, along with a shortage of local capital and resources, hinders efforts at self-help development and income generation.

### 11.2.3 Plans

Specific plans are discussed below for two literacy campaigns, one designed by ONAAC and the other by the National Episcopal Literacy Council (CENA), an organization of the Catholic Church. Also included are brief descriptions of some of DDR's plans and a new project to be implemented by FAO through the DDR. Following the plans is a section that discusses their feasibility.



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1. Planned Literacy Campaign of the National Office for Literacy and Community Action (ONAAC). The objectives of ONAAC's literacy campaign, scheduled to begin in January 1985, are to make literacy accessible to the entire population, to promote better health, and to develop, test, and improve a method of teaching literacy. Although the funds needed to accomplish these goals are not yet available, ONAAC will begin the campaign on a small scale and progressively extend it throughout the country. Several development organizations have agreed to collaborate with ONAAC in this effort, and it is currently seeking the support of others.

Learners. ONAAC estimates that 100,000 people each year will participate in literacy programs, and a 10-15% dropout rate is anticipated. The only requirement for enrollment is that participants be between the ages of 12 and 45.

Facilitators and Trainers. Literacy teachers will be required to have at least the primary education certificate (CEP), will be nominated by local CACs, and will be chosen by the zonal or departmental offices. Rural literacy agents will be paid "in kind" with food from the World Food Program, while 300 of those in a few of the larger cities will be paid $20 each month. If external funds are obtained, more agents will receive this salary.

ONAAC recognizes that training of literacy agents is a crucial element of the process. They are focusing on training these agents to be less dependent on materials and to use the materials to support rather than direct a lesson in order to avoid the previous mistakes of recipe-based materials with step-by-step instructions. Training will also concentrate on promoting an attitude of respect for the learners as adults with valuable knowledge and experience. The importance of the agent's role as a facilitator rather than a teacher will also be emphasized. Training will be conducted by 10-member training brigades from ONAAC's four regional offices and will last 12 days for new agents and 5 days for former agents.

Content and Method. The Kle Developman method described above will again be used, though 31 new phrases have been formulated. The majority of these have health themes and a few have agricultural messages. The choice of health themes was partially based on the contingency of UNICEF's participation, though research by GREAL shows that participants ranked production and health themes as first and second priorities. Another reason for selecting health as a focus was



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cost efficiency. Since many health problems are shared by all Haitians, the expense of adapting materials to local needs will be avoided. Songs, drama, and other cultural communication channels will be used as much as possible. Other plans to use programs on radio and cassette tapes with listening-discussion groups are dependent upon finding sources of funding.

Each year there will be 2 four-month cycles. Each cycle will include 3 months of classes, 2 hours daily, 3 days a week. The fourth month of each cycle will be devoted to evaluation and planning the next cycle. There will be no classes during the harvest season. After completing the first cycle, a participant will be able to join advanced-level classes. These will be followed by post-literacy activities designed to provide constructive opportunities for applying the newly gained skills. ONAAC will work closely with the Ministries of Agriculture, Health, and Social Affairs, with the Catholic Church, and with other donors conducting nonformal education field projects, to integrate post-literacy activities into existing programs and projects.

Facilities and Support Services. Since many areas do not have suitable buildings, literacy centers will be located in whatever facilities are available. A teacher's guide is now being developed. The first section will present the rationale for beginning the lessons with discussion, emphasize the need for reflection and analysis, and explain the use of visual aids. Types of questions to guide discussion will be suggested, steps in a sample lesson will be outlined, and evaluation methods will be described. The second section of the guide will outline the more mechanical process of teaching and learning literacy. Learner materials will include booklets, word cards, and large, colorful posters.

Agents will be supervised by animateurs polyvalents, coordinated by regional and zonal offices. Local committees composed of priests and other community leaders will supervise the distribution of PAM food to the agents to avoid misappropriation of this food, one of the problems encountered in the past.

Evaluation. Information on progress will be collected through periodic reports and examination results submitted by the agents, and will be stored in a computerized data processing system now being developed. However, no direct participation by learners is planned for the evaluation.



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Costs and Financing. The proposed costs for the literacy campaign and possible sources of funds as presented by ONAAC are listed in Table 11.4. To carry out the campaign as planned, at a cost of more than $7 million, it is clear that ONAAC will have to obtain external assistance (see Table 11.3 for ONAAC's current budget) which totals $1.4 million for FY 1984/85. ONAAC is currently seeking funds from donor agencies to support this campaign.

2. Planned Literacy Campaign of the National Episcopal Literacy Council (CENA). The goal of CENA's proposed campaign is to help Haiti's low-income majority participate effectively in the cultural, moral, economic, social, and political development of their country. Literacy is seen as the key to the development of human and material resources. The project is currently pending while ONAAC and the Catholic Church discuss ways in which they can cooperate.

Learners. All rural and urban illiterates between the ages of 15 and 60 throughout the seven dioceses may participate, regardless of their religious affiliation. The project is scheduled to last 5 years, and the entire population (at the rate of 1,000,000 literates per year) is the target.

Facilitators and Trainers. The facilitators will consist of priests, members of various religious orders, lay people, teachers, and students. New literates will also become facilitators after the first year. A total of more than 300,000 facilitators is predicted. All will be volunteers, and all will be trained in participatory, learner-centered methods. Over 1,500 have already been trained and are ready to begin work.

Content and Method. Participants will meet 2 hours daily, 5 days a week, for 6 months. There will be 2 six-month cycles per year, for a five-year period. Each region will establish its own time schedule to accommodate the rains and harvest seasons. Learners will meet in small groups of 10 to 30 persons, and a special system will be developed to serve slower learners and those who might have to drop out for some time.

Focusing on dialogue, participation, and learners' experiences, the method is designed to help learners assume responsibility for their own learning and development. Reading, writing, numeracy, history, and geography will be the main topics. Participants will also gain skills in a number of areas such as agriculture, industry, health,



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TABLE 11.4

ONAAC's Proposed Budget for the Literacy Campaign

| Item | Amount |
|---|---|
| General Expenses | |
| Construction and equipment for 30 post-literacy workshops | $389,128 |
| Grants to CAC for construction of 2,000 community centers @ $200 | 400,000 |
| Community projects | 1,000,000 |
| Salaries for 2,000 monitors @ $20/month for 60 months (5 years) | 2,400,000 |
| Cost of books, pedagogical materials, etc. | 500,000 |
| Transportation (20 vehicles @ $9,000) | 180,000 |
| Examination costs (preparation and administration) | 10,000 |
| Administrative costs (salaries of supervisory personnel) | 30,000 |
| Other costs (field trips for observational visits to post-literacy projects abroad for 6 ONAAC specialists) | 60,000 |
| Subtotal | 4,969,128 |
| Haitian Government Counterpart | |
| Personnel salaries | 1,111,200 |
| Office operations | 200,000 |
| Subtotal | 1,311,200 |
| Grants (External Sources Already Committed) | |
| UNICEF--Program support for literacy and family life education | 415,703 |
| WFP--Estimated value of food | 215,000 |
| OEA--Community project support | 65,000 |
| FONDEV--Literacy project--ONAAC/FONDEV | 29,451 |
| ODNO--Literacy project in the north-west | 15,000 |
| ODVA--Accelerated literacy project | 120,000 |
| Subtotal | 860,154 |
| TOTAL | $7,140,482 |

Source: National Organization for Literacy and Community Action (ONAAC)



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handicrafts, and environmental protection. A special post-literacy cycle to promote small projects will be planned after the campaign gets under way.

Facilities and Support Services. Literacy centers will be established in churches, parish centers, chapels, or houses. In the first 6 months 20 thousand centers will be opened, to increase to 100 thousand and then 150 thousand by the end of 5 years. A national team will develop materials, including pictures, photographs, stories, proverbs, songs, drama, games, roleplays, and comic strips. The use of radio (Radio Soleil) and newspapers (Bon Nouvel) is also planned. Books and teachers' guides have already been developed. Supervision will be carried out by 20,000 volunteers paid a nominal fee.

Evaluation. A national committee of evaluation and research will be formed, and teams of regional evaluators will monitor the campaign's progress.

Costs and Financing. Each participant will be charged $0.20 (one Haitian gourde). Donations of chalk, pencils, paper, blackboards, and meeting places will be solicited, and Government will be asked to give CENA tax-free status. Several organizations have promised financial support to the campaign. The budget for the campaign's first 3 years is presented in Table 11.5.

TABLE 11.5

CENA'S Budget For the First Three Years of the Literacy Campaign

| Item | Year | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Installation costs | $20,000 | --- | --- |
| Personnel and per diem | 244,100 | $224,100 | $224,000 |
| Training of teachers and personnel | 3,970,000 | 1,110,000 | 1,110,000 |
| Overhead | 2,269,500 | 2,269,500 | 24,500 |
| Material and equipment | 1,607,001 | 1,447,001 | 1,446,998 |
| Token payments for volunteers | 3,330,000 | 2,000,000 | 1,300,000 |
| Administration | 19,333 | 19,333 | 19,334 |
| Accounting services | 10,000 | 10,000 | 10,000 |
| Subtotal | 11,449,934 | 7,079,934 | 4,134,332 |
| Miscellaneous costs | 757,327 | 757,327 | 757,326 |
| TOTAL | $12,207,261 | $7,837,261 | $4,892,658 |

Source: National Episcopal Literacy Council (CENA)



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3. Plans of the Division of Rural Development (DDR). The DDR plans to construct nine rural youth centers in each of the nine departments. Their objective will be to promote a spirit of cooperation and solidarity and to encourage the formation of groups to engage in socioeconomic activities, especially those that are productive and income-producing. With materials and land provided by Government, the youths will construct the centers themselves and learn to plan and manage their activities. The centers will thus become the integrating hub for several development activities focusing on agricultural production and animal raising, crafts, and cultural events, with training in productive skills, management, and marketing.

Other plans include expanding a training program for 300,000 market women ("Madam Saras"), in accounting, managing a small business, forming cooperatives and small business associations, and obtaining and using credit.

In spite of the failure of its agriculture extension strengthening project (described in Section 11.1.1), FAO is now seeking funding ($260,000) for a one-year renewable project to support agriculture extension and applied research within DARNDR. In addition to the research objectives, the project aims to provide practical field training to 15 young agronomists who will spend a minimum of 1 year working closely with selected peasant farmers. They will research and develop improved farming practices and select and train 200-300 peasant farmer leaders to serve as extension agents and disseminate research results.

Feasibility of the Plans. How realistic are the plans outlined above, given the constraints under which programs of human development in Haiti must operate? How well do the plans address the needs for greater efficiency and effectiveness in nonformal education programs? Do they reflect institutional growth based on experience?

The answer to these important questions is generally negative. Some motivation exists in each of the three Government units responsible for nonformal education. However, this motivation is restricted by the lack of financial resources and of personnel with proven management capabilities. Furthermore, there is no history of institutional capacity to manage programs, partly because of the lack of continuity in administration. In addition, despite a desire among Government units to conserve resources by coordinating and integrating

NFE efforts in the public and private sectors, many PVOs fear that cooperation with Government can easily lead to their loss of control over their programs.

In terms of method and content, there is little evidence that past failures have been taken into account in the preparation of these plans. Although ONAAC's literacy program and DDR's plans endorse learner-centered participatory methods, they do not indicate how they will avoid past difficulties with training facilitators to use these methods. There are no plans for involving learners in planning, making decisions, or evaluating programs. Moreover, literacy is still being viewed as an end in itself, inherently good, without relevance to the complex problems facing most Haitians. The 31 key phrases contain some important health information, but it is doubtful that literacy classes are the best means to deliver it. Radio, for example, could deliver these same messages farther, with greater frequency, and at much less cost.

The Catholic program has a greater chance for success because its goal is to educate people in many ways by integrating literacy with development activities. However, even this program seems unrealistically ambitious. Expecting to make 1 million people literate each year, relying on thousands of volunteers, seems overly optimistic. In addition, there is no indication how, or whether, learners would participate in planning, making decisions, or evaluating. How literacy would be maintained is not explained either, except by passing reference to a post-literacy program to be planned only after the campaign begins.

### 11.2.4 Issues

Five sets of issues are reflected within the constraints described above. They are discussed under the following thematic topics: external efficiency, internal efficiency, access and equity, administration and supervision, and costs and financing.

External Efficiency. Extensive research in many developing countries has clearly demonstrated that people participate in nonformal education because they expect to receive tangible benefits. External efficiency concerns the foundations upon which these expectations are built, that is, the strength and relevance of the linkages between the nonformal education and participants' later activities. Questions of external efficiency include: Is the program content relevant to participants' socioeconomic realities? Are participants learning what they need to improve their lives? These questions are difficult



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to answer for nonformal education in Haiti, because of the lack of information on how participation is related to subsequent development activities or changed behavior.

Even without such evaluations, the external efficiency of NFE programs in Haiti can be estimated by examining several issues. These are considered below, first by answering two questions--Why nonformal education? Why literacy?--and then by discussing needs, participation, and content versus process.

Why Nonformal Education? The fundamental question of external efficiency is: What is the justification for devoting development resources to nonformal education? The three Government organizations most prominent in this assessment--ONAAC, DESE, and DDR--would answer that it is the major channel through which information on health, agriculture, and community development can reach those who need it most. The answer is based on the assumption that people have poor health and low productivity because they lack relevant information.

There is some justification for this assumption. Many people simply do not know about contraception, oral rehydration therapy, methods for environmental protection, and the like. In this sense, information is a vital need. On the other hand, poor health, malnutrition, and low productivity are also partly the result of poverty. Health and productivity cannot significantly be enhanced without corresponding improvements in the economic status of the poor. In addition, even if people learn to change their behavior and attitudes related to health and agriculture, the lack of support services for these activities can be a formidable obstacle. Although agriculture extension education can deliver valuable information to farmers, the process will be useless if there is no material to extend.

The assumption that lack of information is the major barrier to development is questionable on other grounds. Recent research on Haitian feeding practices and food beliefs, for example, found extensive knowledge of nutritional principles. There are Creole words for the three basic food groups, and Haitians are very aware that eating three meals a day is essential for good health. The research found that Haitians' behavior does not correspond to their knowledge for two major reasons: They do not have enough food, and they lack fuel to prepare more than one meal a day.

Thus, though information is necessary for development, it alone is not sufficient. Its effectiveness can be greatly increased by combining it with programs to improve socioeconomic status. The PVO projects summarized above in Section II.1.7 not only provide information but also emphasize group building and income production. These projects have significant potential for effecting change.

Why Literacy? Given that information-oriented nonformal education is necessary, does it follow that literacy is also required? Is literacy the best way to provide information? For delivery of relevant information to receptive audiences, which need not be literate, radio has been demonstrated to be significantly more efficient and cost effective than printed material.

Research has shown that people change their behavior in response to behavioral examples set by leaders, group pressure, and demonstrated tangible benefits. Such change often depends on an educational process that examines and analyzes attitudes and beliefs. The educational methods and communication techniques needed for this process are active, visual, dialogic, and participatory. None of these require literacy. Thus, the health and nutrition messages promoted by ONAAC and DESE could be transmitted by less complex and less expensive means.

Literacy and numeracy can, however, be very important for planning, managing, and evaluating income-generating activities or for commercial transactions. Without literacy, access to information and the ability to use it are limited. There is also a crucial need for literate people to collect and analyze information at the local level, as a step toward building a local knowledge base for development purposes.

However, to achieve the motivation to acquire and sustain literacy, it must be correctly recognized as having immediate and tangible application for the learners. In the literacy programs and plans described above, post-literacy activities are disregarded until after literacy is to occur. If acquiring literacy is to be more than an academic and meaningless process, it must be linked to post-literacy plans from the beginning. Participants must understand why and how they will use their new skills, in an interwoven process of building the skill and applying it.

Needs. To increase nonformal education's relevance and internal efficiency, planners must carefully examine the socioeconomic environments of potential learners to gain a better understanding of their needs. Such studies have been done in Haiti, and researchers have reached several conclusions. The Haitian's orientation to life tends to be individualistic and relationships are based on the nuclear family. Considering the powerless and impoverished state of the majority of Haitians, learning to trust, communicate, and cooperate in groups may be a fundamental but unrecognized need. Learning to recognize and capitalize on their shared resources may be just as necessary.

To understand learners' needs, one must also ask, "Who are the learners?" In the programs described above, the majority of participants are married and

single women, with young people being the second largest group. Nonformal education programs should be examined for their relevance to the needs of these people. For example, considering market conditions, are sewing and embroidery the best use of time for overburdened and impoverished women? Though health, nutrition, and child care are crucial areas, might they be better addressed in the context of educational income-generating projects?

Small income-generating projects can contribute to local development in several ways. Participants learn valuable productive skills as well as process skills (e.g., management, leadership, communication, problem solving). The motivation for literacy and numeracy increases as participants understand their importance as tools. The income gained allows families to buy more food or medicine, send their children to school, or improve their lives in many other ways. However, such projects grow very slowly and must be patiently nurtured. The monetization of the rural sector cannot take place in only a few years.

Participation. Active participation of learners is important for nonformal education programs, because outsiders can never completely understand their needs. Many NFE projects have failed because well-meaning planners neglected to involve potential participants in decisions about project design. Adults learn what they believe they need to learn and change in ways they believe will benefit them. Many projects, such as the four described above in Section 11.1.7, are successful because participants identify very strongly with the goals and feel a sense of ownership: They control planning, decisionmaking, implementing, and evaluating. Achieving this kind of participation is essential to achieving self-sustaining results after external project support ends.

Some attempts are being made in field agent training programs to encourage a more learner-centered and participatory approach to nonformal education. Fundamentally, however, the Government-sponsored programs described above are mainly designed as delivery systems (though many are inefficient because they lack goods to deliver and personnel). They encourage people to become receivers rather than initiators of development.

Content Versus Process. The delivery system approach just described is content oriented and subject to unproven assumptions about learners' needs. Although the process orientation of the private programs described above has more potential for success, it is slow; progress is not easily measured and results are not quickly visible and tangible. Thus, the approach becomes difficult to justify to funding agencies that are oriented to results.

Process-oriented education, nonetheless, emphasizes the development of such skills as leadership, communication, analysis, planning, and decisionmaking. These skills encourage and facilitate the identification of needs for other



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types of content-oriented NFE programs, usually beginning with income-generating and productive skills. Many of the most successful literacy programs have been directly associated with community groups organized for economic purposes and have focused on the process skills needed for effectively managing and maintaining economic development.

Internal Efficiency. Judgments about internal efficiency--the use of available resources for the maximum desired effects--are difficult because of the shortage of information on program operations. Even information on numbers of participants is in general not available. Therefore, answers to questions concerning the optimal use of resources are usually theoretical and impressionistic, though research from other countries does provide some information.

Questions to guide judgments about the level of internal efficiency include: Which methods work best? What are the characteristics of successful facilitators and what can be done to increase their effectiveness? What types of materials are most effective? Is nonformal education optimally coordinated with other educational systems? These questions will be discussed under four headings: methods, facilitators, materials, and linkages with the formal system.

Methods. Research has firmly established the fact that adults learn best when their knowledge and experience are respected, valued, and placed at the center of a dialogue-type, participatory educational process. Participation in planning and implementing the process, as well as the resulting activities, is the foundation of this method.

Most adults in Haiti who have had any contact with formal education regard learning as a teacher-directed, listen-and-learn, authoritarian event. In spite of their training in participatory methods, NFE field agents find it very difficult to abandon the security of an authoritarian mode of teaching. For example, health workers and literacy agents were observed dictating lessons, foregoing the preliminary step of dialogue and discussion that is crucial to the participatory method.

Learners also may expect the facilitator to be the authority and may be uncomfortable with methods requiring them to engage in the kind of self-disclosure that facilitates participatory groups. It is difficult to obtain their trust and engage them in open group communication. To overcome these barriers, there is an urgent need to identify and analyze nonformal education methods that stimulate a participatory process and to use them more widely in NFE programs. A deeper analysis of projects such as the four discussed above in Section 11.1.7 would substantially contribute to meeting this need.

Facilitators. No matter how good a method may be, its effectiveness is highly dependent on the person using it. Four factors related to facilitators



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affect internal efficiency: recruitment, training, supervision, and coordination. These are discussed below.

- Recruitment. For many Government NFE programs, field agents are nominated by CACs. Their selection generally depends more on personal ties with influential CAC members than on a commitment to improving the welfare of the rural poor. Many agents are young and relatively well-off and, thus, do not fully represent the needs and aspirations of those with whom they must work.
- Training. Training is a crucial element in facilitator effectiveness. Although all NFE field agents require highly similar process skills, there is no generalized training curriculum for field-level agents from all sectors. Identifying skills necessary for field work, to form the basis of such a training curriculum, should be a priority task.

  Some of the programs described above are designed to correct past mistakes by basing training on established principles of adult learning. In many cases, they employ a modeling approach--using the principles during the process of training the agents, emphasizing facilitation rather than teaching. This approach emphasizes learning, dialogue, role playing, and participation. This is an important initial step in improving programs, though supervised field practice to overcome more traditional "top-down" educational attitudes and expectations is still very much needed. There is also a need to evaluate training, both as the trainees view it, and from observation of their later behavior in conducting learning groups.
- Supervision. No matter how valid the method and the training, encouraging participation is a difficult task. Supervision is needed to provide support, especially advice and encouragement. Supervisors need training in methods of facilitation as well as effective supervision. Considering the absence of any organized supervisory system in Haiti, this is a major need.
- Coordination. A close coordination of efforts and shared resources among the various types of field workers could greatly increase internal efficiency. Ways could be developed to encourage literacy agents, family life educators, home economics agents, health agents, and collaborating health volunteers to coordinate their activities to a greater extent.

Materials. If facilitators' skills are weak and funds for additional training are limited, well-designed instructional materials containing specific



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directions to facilitators can provide crucial support. ONAAC and UNICEF are now trying to develop strong guides for literacy agents, as well as colorful and interesting visual materials. More materials should be developed and tested for effectiveness.

One problem relates to the use of standardized Creole orthography. Several versions of Creole are still in use, especially among religious groups using Bibles in older orthographies. Any material using written Creole should be printed according to the standardized orthography designated by Government.

Linkages With the Formal System. There are few linkages between nonformal and formal educational programs. The internal efficiency of both systems could be raised if they were connected more strongly. The CINEC program described in Chapter 4 (Preprimary Education) links the two systems by closely involving mothers in their children's education, while they themselves are engaging in nonformal education. These linkages could be made even stronger by increasing the scope of nonformal education to include education for income generation as well as health and nutrition education.

The National Institute of Professional Training (Institut National de Formation Professionnelle - INFP) has designed a structure with a number of linkages between the new formal system established by the Education Reform and several types and levels of nonformal and vocational/technical education for both children and adults. This proposed structure is diagrammed in Table 10.2 in Chapter 10 of this assessment. Other ways in which formal and nonformal education can share resources can also be identified.

Access and Equity. This part of this chapter is concerned with access to nonformal education and the distribution of NFE program benefits to subgroups. These issues will be discussed under four headings: coverage, community groups, gender and age, and radio.

Coverage. Goals for both literacy and health include an extension of educational services to all Haitians. Even a well-organized system with adequate human and financial resources would have difficulty attaining this goal given the problems with transportation and communication. DESE's strategy has concentrated on training more field-level health agents, training administrative personnel, and conducting radio campaigns, though it has been hindered by the lack of an operating budget to pay field workers' salaries. Recognizing that limited resources are a major constraint, ONAAC has followed a strategy based on collaboration with nongovernmental organizations, while reinforcing its position as a coordinating unit able to supply technical assistance. As mentioned earlier, coordination among field workers of various services would help



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increase coverage, though people in remote, difficult-to-reach areas would still have little access to nonformal education services. Means of distance communication, such as radio, may be the only way to reach these people.

Community Groups. Working through groups, rather than with individuals, is an important way in which one field worker can reach a larger number of people. However, certain types of groups may limit the participation of those most in need of nonformal education. Most Government programs work through CACs, for example, on the assumption that they represent the rural population. Studies have reported, however, that rural society in Haiti is highly stratified, and most CACs are controlled by influential members of the relatively well-off rural hierarchy. It becomes difficult to conduct "bottom-up," learner-controlled programs in the context of such groups, which are often mechanisms for exerting social and economic control and guardians of Government policies and regulations.

The success of the private programs cited earlier can be partly attributed to the organization of small groups based on ties of friendship and geography. It may also derive from the moderate degree of shelter from local political control which a PVO provides.

Gender and Age. Most nonformal education programs in Haiti seem to attract women and young participants, with single women far outnumbering married women. It is not known why more men and married women do not participate. One speculation is that women, given their heavy workload, can afford to participate only in activities that provide obvious and immediate benefits. Income-generating education might prove more successful in attracting them. Men, too, may not participate because the programs do not fit their needs. Some observers have also suggested that the scheduling of NFE activities does not consider men's agricultural responsibilities; others attribute men's lack of participation to both seasonal and long-term migration. Whatever the causes, participation trends should be studied to design programs that are both more relevant to people's concerns and accessible to a greater number and range of participants.

Radio. Radio is a very low cost means of communication that has been widely used to support and extend nonformal education coverage in many developing countries, with varying degrees of success. Exploration of its possible use in Haiti should be a priority consideration.

Radio has been most successful when used as a support to, but not as a substitute for, face-to-face group-oriented education. Listening groups, for example, have been scheduled to meet with trained leaders to listen to programs of specific interest to them. At the end of a program, the leader encourages a discussion of the subject, and participants plan ways to act upon the information received. Such groups are difficult to organize and need well-trained



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leaders skilled in participatory NFE methods. Radio listening groups could be successful in Haiti only if supported by a strong training program for leaders.

DESE has used radio to promote changes in health practices and behaviors specifically in the context of their ORT, family planning, and breastfeeding campaigns. Though this use of radio is not directly associated with face-to-face communication, it has had some success in raising the level of awareness of health practices. In a study of the effectiveness of radio health education in Haiti, 58% of a sample of 205 people who listened to the health programs reported that they had changed some aspect of their behavior as a result.

Radio Soleil, a Catholic-sponsored radio station in Haiti, developed programs addressed to new literates. The station also began developing an accompanying series of readers covering 32 themes relevant to peasant life. These programs are no longer being broadcast, and before new forms of nonformal radio education are planned, there should be an evaluation of these materials to determine why they were discontinued. In addition, a study of the availability and use of radios among peasants would provide essential information for planners. One source reported that men control the use of radios in order to preserve the batteries. If true, this could greatly limit the reach of radio programs.

Administration and Supervision. Issues of administration and supervision concern the appropriateness of the structure and personnel of the system for attaining nonformal education objectives. They will be discussed under three headings: coordination, research and information, and supervision.

Coordination. Nonformal education is inherently difficult to coordinate. It is widespread, diverse, and pervasive in development activities. Many of those engaged in NFE programs have never heard the term "nonformal education" and are sometimes not even aware that they are involved in education.

The nature of nonformal education also makes coordination problematic and even risky. Ideally NFE is flexible, adaptable to local needs, and organized from the bottom up. Too much coordination may change essential characteristics, leading to institutionalization, centralized planning, and ultimately external control, thus eliminating nonformal education. But coordination has obvious benefits. Experiences, materials, and strategies can be shared, resources and strengths can be combined, and duplication of efforts can be avoided.

The two organizations in Haiti that have made the most progress in coordinating NFE efforts are ONAAC and HAVA. ONAAC's newly formed Support Committee, its joint programs and plans with DESE and DDR, and its working relationship with HAVA and other PVOs are some of the mechanisms it is using to promote coordination. However, it is doubtful that ONAAC, as a Government unit,



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will be able to overcome the cautions of PVOs that may be wary of Government surveillance. HAVA, on the other hand, has more potential for encouraging a significant amount of coordination, though building trust and increasing membership are the organization's primary concerns initially.

Research and Information. To strengthen NFE policy and planning more information is urgently needed on what programs have been tried, what has worked, what has not, and why. Explorations are needed before one can have any confidence that new plans for literacy, or any other programs, will be any more effective than such programs have been in the past. Unesco's pending evaluation of ONAAC may partially meet this need.

A centralized information source would be a valuable resource for those working in nonformal education. Such an information center could serve as a repository for project descriptions and evaluations, lists of people and organizations involved in NFE, and collections of teaching materials, including visual aids, films, and tapes. HAVA would be an appropriate organization within which to establish and maintain such an information center, which might also serve to promote research. Successful models for such centers exist in Latin America, Africa, and the United States, and their assistance could be sought in establishing a similar center in Haiti.

Alternatively or additionally, information could be placed in district libraries being established by WHO. The purpose of these libraries will be to encourage research and data collection related to health; to build a collection of health-related documents, films, and their materials; and to serve as a center for conferences, meetings, and training seminars. These libraries could also serve as centers for information on nonformal education.

Supervision. The absence of an effective supervisory system is a major obstacle to quality control and local coordination of nonformal education program activities. For any system of supervision to be effective, supervisors would have to be provided with training and transportation and regularly monitored to ensure that supervision is actually taking place. Without such actions, supervisors have little incentive to do their job well. One source suggested that providing supervisors with small, motorized bicycles would be a cost-efficient way to provide them with transportation.

Costs and Financing. Issues regarding the costs and financing of nonformal education arise in three general areas: measuring unit costs, identifying cost-effective methods, and channeling outside funds.

Unit Cost Measurement. Cost data on NFE programs in Haiti are generally not available. For the few cases where some cost information can be obtained,



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accurate counts of participants are not available, making a unit cost analysis impossible.

Even if both costs and numbers of participants were available, trying to relate unit costs to quantified results raises many questions because important outcomes of nonformal education include many qualitative factors, such as changed attitudes and increased self-confidence. However, decisions about levels of NFE funding require at least estimated basic information on program costs. Since nonformal education must often compete with formal education and development projects for limited financial resources, it is important to collect and analyze appropriate data on program costs and effects.

Cost Effective Methods. Working with groups rather than through one-to-one extension systems is a cost-effective method now in use in Haiti. Radio is another low-cost method that could be used. It is a way to bypass barriers such as illiteracy, poor mountain and forest roads, and a dispersed population. Its potential uses for nonformal education in Haiti should be carefully examined.

Building on local resources is another strategy to reduce program costs. The NFE process should involve participants in identifying local human and material resources and ways they can be used. Additionally, learners might be willing to pay a small "salary" to their facilitator. There is evidence that Haitians are willing to bear significant proportions of educational costs when they perceive the activities as beneficial. For example, the World Bank estimates that families will spend up to 11% of family income per child per year for primary education. Relevant nonformal education might be valued as highly. Small grants or loans, such as FAO is providing to small groups, can be an innovative way to encourage local initiative and promote income-generating projects. The feasibility of these and other means of reducing costs, and using and strengthening local resources should be studied.

Channeling Outside Funds. How to channel funds for nonformal education most efficiently is a complex issue. Building stronger and better organized NFE institutions is one reason for working through the public sector. Another is the current quality of upper-level administrators in ONAAC, DESE, and DDR. The leaders of all three of these units are regarded as competent, committed, and dedicated. A commitment to nation-building and the long-term development of Haiti demands actions that will strengthen Haitian institutions. Leaders in the public sector who show promise and a willingness to make their Government serve its people deserve training and support so they are able to revitalize their programs. Ways of supporting their efforts without jeopardizing the limited funds available to NFE should be explored. These trained and committed individuals are important human resources in a country that has very few.

Working through the public sector may have some disadvantages. First, lack of continuity in programs, organizational structure, and personnel greatly complicates the institutionalization of change. All three of the chief administrators are relatively new in their positions; they face many challenges and do not have the advantage of histories of successful activities. Second, examples such as the FAO efforts to strengthen agriculture extension and home economics, and USAID's attempts to establish a network of health agents, suggest that sometimes Government cannot meet all of its agreements for counterpart funding. Third, many reports suggest that much external assistance does not reach the lower socioeconomic levels which are the targets of most NFE programs.

In contrast, the private sector is generally viewed as efficient, organized, and committed, with a much greater degree of institutional continuity. Because nonformal education projects of PVOs are often small-scale, they are easier to manage and less encumbered with bureaucratic layers. Thus, more of the assistance is able to reach the target audience.

Nevertheless, one must recognize that even PVOs are bureaucracies and that some of their funds also may never reach the NFE target audiences. In addition, some evidence suggests that PVOs have vested interests in certain NFE programs and outcomes and are often territorial rather than collaborative.

Thus, effective financing of nonformal education may require that long- and short-term strategies be carefully assessed. In particular, attention should be given to how short-term assistance might be channeled through effective PVOs while the public sector is simultaneously strengthened, so that it can more effectively assume the activities for which it is responsible.

## 11.3 CONCLUSIONS

Following are five major conclusions derived from the preceding analysis. These conclusions form the basis for the recommendations in the final section of this report.

### Conclusion 1 - Public Sector

Public sector, nonformal education programs have little likelihood of success at this time. Three major factors led to this conclusion. First, the lack of political commitment, as illustrated by the lack of budgetary support, is a major obstacle to program success. Second, the lack of continuity in administration and management has prevented the institutional development of the skills needed to plan, implement, monitor, and evaluate large scale projects. Third, there is little evidence that experience and mistakes with prior projects have been taken into account in present activities and future plans.



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Conclusion 2 - Private Sector.

Private sector nonformal education programs have greater potential for success. Although the scope of work for this assessment specified that attention be focused on public sector programs, interviews and review of documents also yielded information on several successful PVO programs. A preliminary review of a few of these programs suggests that they are less constrained by political, bureaucratic, and financial obstacles than are public programs. Thus they are more responsive to learner needs and more receptive to learner participation and control.

Conclusion 3 - Short-Term vs. Long-Term

Channeling funds for nonformal education through the private sector in Haiti may be the most efficient short-term means for reaching target audiences, though for long-term effectiveness some development of Government capacities in nonformal education may be necessary. Given the constraints inherent in the Government system, working through successful PVO programs may be the best immediate strategy to reach the lowest levels of society. However, unless simultaneous efforts are made to develop the management capacities of responsible and committed Haitian leadership in both public and private institutions, little permanent change can occur, and efforts at initiative from the lower levels may be frustrated.

Conclusion 4 - Documentation

Though there is hearsay evidence of many innovative private sector nonformal education programs, written documentation is scarce. In many cases, information on plans, descriptions, experience, and evaluations for innovative projects is scattered throughout the files of numerous organizations, but little or no formal documentation is available. If a central depository existed, these and other materials could be collected and made more easily available. A coordinating office could encourage more systematic data collection and documentation of efforts.

Conclusion 5 - Radio

The potential of radio as cost-effective support to nonformal education activities has not yet been fully explored in Haiti. No systematic study has been made of how radio has been used, what effects it has had, and what its potential might be for reaching rural areas and upgrading the skills of NFE field workers.



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## 11.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

Five specific recommendations related to nonformal education follow from the above conclusions.

Recommendation 1 - Guidelines. Develop policy guidelines for investment in nonformal education, based ocriteria drawn from an analysis of successful PVO programs.

Information from the questionnaire survey of PVOs now being prepared by USAID could help identify a set of NFE programs to be explored through field studies. Some sample criteria of success based on a limited review of the four projects described above in Section 11.1.7, might include the following:

- Group formation, with attention to the development of process skills such as planning, decisionmaking, management, cooperation, and communication.
- Income generation, with emphasis on reinvestment of earnings.
- Integration of learning and development activities.
- Literacy as a tool, not as an end in itself.

Recommendation 2 - Selection. Channel most nonformal education funds for short-term returns through PVOs according to the guidelines developed under Recommendation 1.

After information gained from field studies of PVOs is analyzed, the most successful programs could be selected for support and expansion.

Recommendation 3 - Training. Help strengthen Government and PVO capacities in nonformal education by providing training opportunities for middle-level managers and the trainers of field workers.

Particular emphasis should be given to training in adult education and project management. Funds could also be provided for small demonstration projects with built-in monitoring and evaluation systems, to be used as training grounds for both Government and PVO personnel.

Recommendation 4 - Central Information. Establish a centralized information bank or center, or several regional centers, for nonformal education.

Such a center could help build an NFE information network among local organizations and other organizations in the Caribbean region. It could also encourage organizations to document their efforts, collect project descriptions and reports, and make these available to the public. HAVA would be an appropriate coordinating organization for such a center.



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Recommendation 5 - Radio. Explore the potential of radio for nonformal education in Haiti.

Radio is a cost-effective means of reaching people isolated by barriers of distance, topography, or illiteracy. It can be a powerful tool for delivering development information and promoting behavior change. Studies of listening patterns, as well as of information needs, should be the first steps in identifying promising uses of radio.