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EDUCATION  
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## HONDURAS PRIMARY EDUCATION SUBSECTOR ASSESSMENT

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**HONDURAS PRIMARY EDUCATION SUBSECTOR ASSESSMENT**

December 1989

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## HONDURAS EDUCATION SYSTEM

### BASIC STATISTICS — 1988

<u>PRESENT STATUS</u>	<u>PRIMARY</u>	<u>SECONDARY</u>	<u>HIGHER</u>	
1. No. of Students	862,803	188,191	40,176	(1987)
2. No. of Teachers	23,438	8,100	2,998	(1987)
3. No. of Schools	7,335	474	8	(1987)
<u>Millions of Lempiras</u>				
4. Budgetary Allocation (5+6)	233.3	91.9	84.4	<u>1/</u>
5. Recurrent	230.3	84.3	84.4	
6. Capital	3.0	7.6	—	
7. Per Pupil Recurrent Government Expenditures (5 divided by 1)	Ls. 285.09	Ls. 447.95		<u>2/</u>

### ANNUAL INCREMENTS

	<u>1984</u>	<u>1985</u>	<u>1986</u>	<u>1987</u>	<u>1988</u>
No. of Primary Schools	6,304	6,549	6,813	7,063	7,335
No. of Primary Teachers	19,787	20,328	20,886	22,291	23,438
No. of Primary Students	736,902	774,078	810,412	840,390	862,803
No. of Secondary Schools	340	328 *	365	444	474
No. of Secondary Teachers	6,313	6,496	6,984	7,901	8,110
No. of Secondary Students	164,453	158,789 *	179,444	183,916	188,191

1/ Includes transfer to the National Autonomous University of Honduras (UNAH) and the Higher Teacher Training School.

2/ This calculation was not made because costs are not available for the private universities, Panamerican Agricultural School, the National School of Agriculture (ENA), etc.

1988 — Information (from) most recent registrations — subject to adjustment.

1984 to 1987 — Information taken from annual statistics.

\* The figures are lower. Possibly information was not sent or entered for some schools.

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## **Introduction**

The Primary Education Subsector Assessment for Honduras analyzes education from the perspective of cost, access of students to the system and its efficiency, instructional practices, multigrade schools, teacher training, educational facilities, and administration. It provides information about current educational issues and offers recommendations for further study and dialogue with the Government of Honduras. It will serve as the basis for decisions about investment in Honduran education by the U.S. Agency for International Development.

The assessment is a synthesis of extensive reports prepared in Honduras by a team of education specialists, from February to May 1989, under the direction of Nadine Dutcher of USAID. The team included the following specialists and areas of responsibility:

Ray San Giovanni	Team Leader
Jorge Sanguinety	Costs and Financing
Kurt Moses	Access and Efficiency
Martha Montero-Sieburth	Instructional Processes and Practices
Hernando Gelvez	Multigrade Primary Schools
Howard Lusk	Teacher Training
Clemencia Chiappe	Educational Administration

Readers interested in reviewing the extended reports on which this assessment is based may request them from Nadine Dutcher, HRD/E, USAID/Honduras.

## **SUMMARY: ISSUES AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **A. ISSUES**

#### **1. Costs and Financing**

Primary education in Honduras is financed in three ways: through funds allocated in the public budget, through funds provided by external donors, and through private funds for non-public school students. All three ways present problems.

Public budget. The public budget for education is limited. Although educational expenditures have increased dramatically over the past seven years, the public funds allocated for them have not kept pace. Public education receives over 20 percent of the national budget. Of that amount, primary education receives 55 percent, a decline since 1981 despite the growing enrollments. In 1988, primary school enrollments totalled 879,000. That figure reflects average annual increases of 4.6 percent, a trend that is continuing. Funding increases, therefore, will be necessary to accommodate the growing student population, even without an increase in coverage, and to finance improvements in educational quality. Only two sources of increased funding appear likely: (1) savings from within the system itself, and (2) contributions from the private sector.

Allocations within the public budget are skewed. Salaries for teachers and other personnel receive 96 percent of the budget for primary education.

External donors. The Ministry of Public Education (MOE) is dependent on external funding, particularly by the U.S. Agency for International Development, since 96 percent of the primary education budget is devoted to teacher salaries, leaving little for textbooks and other instructional materials that contribute significantly to educational quality. In 1988, about 4 percent of the expended budget came from the U.S. Agency for International Development and the World Bank.

Private funds. Private funds support only a small portion of primary education since only 5 percent of the primary schools are private. The burden for financing 95 percent of primary school education rests on the public sector. The Honduran Constitution stipulates that education is a function and responsibility of the state, thus limiting private-sector involvement usually to donations of land, construction of schools, and provision of equipment, furniture, and school supplies.

#### **2. Management and Administration**

In many cases, effective management of finances, educational personnel, and educational "outputs" is lacking. Inadequate mid- and long-term fiscal planning by the Ministry often results in erratic capital expenditures in school facilities and equipment. Dramatic rises and falls in capital investments have been the norm for at least the past six years.

Implementation of investment plans, including requests for proposals and contracting, occurs outside the Ministry: Authority rests with either the National Purchasing Administration or the National Executive Branch, that is, the President himself. Needs assessments are conducted to determine investments, but there is a lack of centralized coordination by the Planning Administration and, therefore, lack of centralized information about the needs. Assessments are conducted by units of the Ministry such as the General Construction Administration and the Center for Teacher Training (CAM) in coordination with the Textbook Unit. In addition, the Foreign

Cooperation Coordination Unit, an agency of the Ministry, attempts to coordinate activities of foreign agencies.

Personnel administration is often ineffective. In terms of pedagogical direction, teacher supervision is weak since supervisors focus on administrative matters. Administrative supervision falls to the departmental and regional (auxiliary) supervisors who are responsible for an average of 35 schools but have a budget for travel of only two weeks a year. Supervision is especially difficult in remote rural areas, where the schools are not concentrated within a manageable distance.

The procedures for personnel actions resulting from administrative supervision are cumbersome. Supervisors do not have full power over the personnel supervised since personnel actions -- including hiring, dismissing, transferring, licensing -- are highly centralized. The procedure for action extends from the school director to the President of the Republic. In between are the levels of Auxiliary Supervisor, Departmental Supervisor, General Administration for Primary Education, Teaching Personnel and Payroll Office, Chief Clerk, and Minister of Education. The President has sole authority to appoint teaching personnel.

In relation to a more abstract aspect of educational management, no set of clearly defined educational "outputs" exists, nor does a system exist for measuring academic achievement. There is no indication that education authorities are planning to define educational objectives more specifically.

In most cases, schools have not drawn on community interest and support as fully as possible in the educational administration process. Community investment is encouraged for school construction and furnishing but for little else. Parent associations, mandated by law, meet infrequently. Schools often do little to encourage a close relationship between themselves and the community either academically or administratively.

### 3. Access and Efficiency

Access to primary education is high, in fact, with the gross enrollment ratio (GER) at 106 percent, it is the highest in Central America except for Panama. (The Ministry, using a different population base, calculates the GER to be 90 percent.) Many students, however, sit in classrooms in serious disrepair. Approximately half of the 18,000 classrooms need repairs ranging from windows and desks to walls and roofs. Communities play almost no role in school maintenance; that responsibility falls to school staff and students.

Not only do classrooms need repair, they are also in short supply. The Ministry has been constructing only about 250 classrooms a year, a deficit of 550. At present, the deficit is approximately 5,000 classrooms. As internal efficiency measures increase, more children are expected to remain in school longer and thereby increase the urgency for new and renovated facilities.

At present, however, internal educational efficiency is low. In 1987, for example, only 46 percent of the students who entered first grade graduated from sixth grade. The Central American average is 55 percent. Efficiency is especially low in the rural areas. Of the same group of sixth-grade children in 1987, 49 percent of the urban students who had entered first grade were still in school; only 23 percent of the rural students remained. Estimates indicate that rural children are only half as likely to complete sixth grade as urban children. The greatest loss of children to the primary school system

occurs in the first three years of schooling. For the same group, statistics show that by the third grade, 66 percent of the urban children were in school; only 45 percent of the rural children were still enrolled.

External efficiency is also low in some areas, particularly in preservice teacher training. More teachers graduate every year than the primary school system can absorb. Only slightly over one-third of the 1989 graduates, for example, will go into the teaching service. Even if the system could absorb them, a high percentage of graduates do not wish to enter the teaching ranks.

#### 4. Quality

Improvements in educational quality are essential in order to improve efficiency. At present, quality is poor, as indicated by poor classroom instruction, ineffective multigrade organization, and limited teacher training and supervision. Within the classroom, teacher-directed instruction frequently limits opportunities for learning. Teachers rely on traditional methodologies, thus creating a teacher-centered, rather than a child-centered, atmosphere. They direct approximately 80 percent of class activities and talk approximately 70 percent of the class time. Children are passive learners and do not initiate educational activities.

Although from 70-80 percent of the schools are multigrade, the systems for administration and support, curriculum, and teacher training are set up as if the norm were one teacher to one grade. Bound by the same regulations as single-grade teachers, multigrade instructors are burdened by the requirements for 40-minute class periods, bimonthly examinations, and, in some cases, administrative and community responsibilities. Classroom practices in multigrade classrooms tend to include repetitious instruction, unwarranted promotions to higher grades, and inadequate attention to the social-affective development of the children. Curriculum requirements are too extensive for multigrade teachers to comply with, and textbooks are developed almost exclusively for single-grade teachers. With only a few exceptions, teacher-training is geared toward single-grade instruction.

As mentioned above under Management, no adequate system exists for measuring educational output. At the time of this writing, no tests had been developed to evaluate what students should know when they leave school nor have school officials begun to think in these terms.

As inservice teacher training programs are now set up, they may not be either sustainable or effective in terms of measurable impact on teacher behavior and student learning. At present, because of insufficient documentation, there is little scientific proof that inservice training has improved the quality of classroom instruction. The approach to training is "top down"; teacher participation in planning the program is minimal.

Since there is no effective pedagogical supervision from supervisors who are preoccupied with administrative duties, teachers receive little support in analyzing their teaching practices, in managing their classrooms, or in solving problems. Pedagogical direction is available through the CAM training program, which has been oriented only toward the use of the new textbooks. Such training appears to be replacing the supervisor as the provider of pedagogical support.

## **B. CONSTRAINTS**

### **1. Costs and Financing**

Constraints to financing primary education include limited financial resources, teacher pressures to increase salaries, ineffective use of available resources, and governmental restrictions on private-sector assistance. Honduras is the poorest nation in Central America. Its per capita gross national product (GNP) is \$740 in contrast to \$820 for El Salvador and \$1420 for Costa Rica (1986 figures). Despite the fact that over 20 percent of public expenditures are for education, the amount is still too low to cover all the necessary educational services. Primary education costs continue to increase because of growing enrollments and construction and equipment costs, although their proportionate share of total educational expenditures has decreased. Approximately 96 percent of the primary education budget is devoted to teacher salaries; only 4 percent remain for other educational needs such as instructional materials. Only two sources of additional funding appear to be possible: savings as a result of internal efficiency and private-sector assistance (should constitutional limitations be lifted or reinterpreted).

The financial resources available are not used effectively because of managerial, instructional, and other constraints. Lack of fiscal planning often results in erratic capital expenditures, preventing the government from spreading out expenditures evenly over time and thereby managing resources more efficiently. Necessary capital investments at times are postponed for political or fiscal expediency. Appropriate asset management is also lacking. No plan exists for efficient investment in new physical facilities or for efficient management of existing ones.

Inefficiencies in teacher training and in classroom instructional practices also take their toll on available resources. Wasted training -- on normal school graduates who do not enter the teaching service, for example -- or incomplete inservice training -- that is geared toward new textbooks alone, for example -- strain financial resources. Poor instructional practices that adversely affect educational quality and may contribute to student dropout and repetition also drain the budget.

The private sector can assist financially, but the Constitution discourages relief of the public-sector financial burden by the private sector. It decrees that primary education is the responsibility of the public sector, that is, the state. Hence, private sector assistance has been limited, for the most part, to school construction and equipment. (Other sections of the Constitution, however, seem to suggest less strict interpretation of the private-sector role and may, therefore, offer possibilities for increased community assistance.)

### **2. Management and Administration**

Constraints to management of educational investments, school construction, and educational "outputs" stem primarily from a lack of effective planning, a situation over which the MOE does not always have control. Legal requirements have resulted in fragmentation of responsibilities for implementing investment plans and have removed the MOE from areas in which it should be involved. The Ministry of Education lacks a central agency for managing and monitoring implementation of the investment budget. The Purchasing Administration manages all acquisitions, not the MOE. For the most part, planning activities for investment have been managed in an almost ad hoc manner by external donor agencies which provide most of the funds. Many bureaucratic activities such as personnel actions and contracting are handled by the president himself. No systematic school-construction plan exists except for projects funded by USAID and

the World Bank. In the absence of current school-mapping studies, the exact nature and magnitude of construction needs are not known. Updated census data on school-age children, necessary for determining school-construction needs, are also lacking. By congressional decree, the land for schools falls under national, not municipal, law relating to ownership of land. As a result, paralysis in construction of schools for the present Primary Education Efficiency project has resulted.

A lack of clearly defined objectives for "outputs" of the educational system has resulted in lack of direction for primary education. Although basic competencies have now been developed, no tests have been designed to measure what students know when they leave school. With no effective system for measuring achievement of objectives, public education will not be held accountable for delivery of "outputs" even when they are determined.

In short, the lack of planning seems to result from an unawareness of the need for planning. There appears to be no sense of the need for a strong planning process to conserve an institutional memory of activities or to avoid the impression of crisis management.

### **3. Access and Efficiency**

The constraints to addressing issues of access and efficiency are those that apply to educational financing and management and also include inequitable resource allocation. Resources are limited and ineffectively managed despite the government mandate over the past 10 years to make major investments resulting in universal access. If access rates continue to increase, as projections indicate they will, the capital and recurring costs to the system will be enormous. In addition, underage and overage students are common, swelling the student population even further.

The urban focus of the centralized educational system has resulted in discrimination against rural schools in resource allocation. Fewer teachers for more students in rural areas are the norm: The rural student-teacher ratio of 42:1 contrasts unfavorably with the urban ratio of 32:1. Similar disadvantages exist in the ratio of students to classrooms which may be as high as 83:1 in some rural areas. The system, in effect, demands that rural teachers be 50-75 percent more efficient than urban teachers, an action that is not occurring.

### **4. Quality**

Similar financial, managerial, and resource-allocation constraints, as well as lack of agreed-upon objectives for educational "outputs," apply to educational quality. Additional constraints exist in the areas of instructional processes, multigrade classes, teacher training, and supervision.

Traditional instructional methods continue to prevail, with the teacher as the source of most of the educational activity. The tradition of passive learning for children will not change easily. Exposure of teachers to other methods encouraging active learning is limited. The training available through the Center for Teacher Training has a limited purview since its focus is textbooks. Outside of that, little opportunity exists for teachers to meet as a group to discuss mutual pedagogical concerns.

The emphasis on single-grade instruction in teacher-training programs and textbook production indicates a lack of awareness of the extent of multigrade classes. Even when there is some awareness of the problem, there is a lack of knowledge about

how to address the situation. As a result, there is a lack of assistance to teachers: They are not provided with classroom materials for self-learning or with training for facilitating independent group work among the children.

Further constraints to educational quality exist within the teacher-training system. At the preservice level, opportunities for secondary-school training are scarce because too few secondary schools exist to justify training. At present, there are only 474 secondary schools in Honduras. Based on present trends, 75,000 primary students are expected to complete primary school in 1989; and additional secondary schools will be required to accommodate them. Between now and 1995, internal efficiency interventions will increase the number of primary school graduates from 5,000-13,000, further increasing the need for construction of secondary schools and programs to train the teachers.

Other constraints exist at the preservice level. First, there are political constraints to disbanding normal schools in favor of more efficient alternative systems since many of the schools arose as a result of political initiatives. Second, structural links do not exist among normal schools, primary schools, and inservice training. For normal schools, contact with neighboring primary schools is usually limited to practice teaching and in-class observation, and budget constraints may thwart efforts of the revised teacher-training curriculum to provide normal school students with primary classroom experience earlier in their training. Little interaction occurs between inservice trainers and classroom teachers. In short, there is limited awareness of the daily realities of the classroom. At the inservice level, a lack of information exists about long-term cost implications of the CAM inservice program on the MOE budget.

Finally, in the area of teacher supervision the major constraints are lack of financial resources and ineffective supervision. Because of financial constraints, only two weeks a year are budgeted for supervisors to visit teachers. Supervisors, who ideally should provide instructional direction to teachers, have not been chosen for their creative teaching skills but for their administrative abilities. Thus, teachers see supervisors too infrequently for the visits to be effective and receive little or no advice about instruction, class management, and problem-solving.

### C. RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the four major educational issues and the constraints to addressing them that emerge from this educational sector assessment -- costs and financing, management, access and efficiency, and quality -- the following recommendations are made for USAID and Government of Honduras dialogue and investment.

Conduct a series of preliminary studies in aspects of the four major issues that call for further information, assessment, or scientific documentation, as follows:

- Costs and Financing

Role and constraints of the private sector in primary education.<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1/</sup> One of the mission reviewers commented: "Private sector involvement should be analyzed in depth since it means a constitutional amendment. A strong case should be

Assessment of feasibility of local taxes with proportion going for school use.

- Management

Legal constraints to efficient management and administration

Strengthening planning capacity

Feasibility of delegating some personnel functions to the mayors or to departmental supervisors

Feasibility of using the community to monitor certain aspects of schools, for example, school attendance and school-completion

Feasibility of keeping some implementation processes within the MOE, for example, approval for personnel actions, and purchasing

- Access and Efficiency

Differences in urban and rural schools

Low-cost construction methods

Impact of efficiency gains at the primary level on the demand for lower secondary education

- Quality

Constraints to implementation of 1984 curriculum reform

Extent and activities of multigrade schools. (Some studies are now underway through the current Primary Education Efficiency project. They were largely stimulated by investigation carried out during this subsector assessment.)

Feasibility of radio instruction for students in grades 4-6, as well as a combination of independent student work combined with teacher-monitoring and tests to certify achievement

Feasibility of making normal schools more general-purpose institutions

Sustainability of CAM as an overlay to the present supervision system

made for the role of the private sector and expected alleviation of the present burden of primary education costs on the public sector. Besides, an explanation should be made that the constitutional endeavor to conserve, develop and spread culture in order to project, without discrimination, the benefits of education throughout the society is not diminished by private sector participation. The constitutional statement for a public universal, compulsory, and free (my underlining) primary education should be analyzed in view of the increased private sector involvement."

Enter into a policy dialogue about the feasibility of the following activities in the four major issue areas:

- Costs and Financing

Increase allocations for non-salary items of the educational budget

Remove constraints to private-sector participation

- Management

Define "outputs" of the system as management and instructional goals and as a base for measurement of achievement

Strengthen planning mechanisms and controls within the MOE

Implement school-mapping

- Access and Efficiency

Continue to redress the imbalance between rural and urban schools

- Quality

Make a priority the recognition of the scope and strengths of multigrade teaching

Follow through on curriculum reforms at both the primary-school and normal-school levels

Develop programs for teaching grades 4-6 by radio

Develop normal schools as multi-purpose secondary-level institutions

**Note:** Additional items may be suggested by the series of preliminary studies cited above.

**Implement the following actions:**

1. Construct new classrooms, repair existing classrooms, and provide needed equipment.

2. Provide technical assistance for the following areas:

- Management

Definition of "outputs" of the system

Development of manuals for school-community relations

**Improvement of the planning and implementation capacity of MOE personnel**

- **Access and Efficiency**

**Improvement of data-collection processes (now in process through current project)**

**Adjustments in school statistics with updated census information**

**School-mapping and school census collection (may be underway within current project)**

- **Quality**

**Development of baseline data to evaluate impact of CAM on changes in teacher practices and student learning**

**Development of radio learning programs for grades 4-6**

**Assistance to teachers in evaluating students for grade-promotion purposes (in process through current project)**

**Development of self-learning materials for multigrade schools (in process through current project)**

**Note:** Additional actions will be suggested from the studies and policy considerations cited above.

**STATUS AND TRENDS**

**CHAPTER 1**

## Introduction

This chapter discusses the educational system in general in Honduras in regard to educational goals, regulations, and administration. In particular, it considers the characteristics of the primary school system, focusing on access rates, efficiency, teacher supervision, and educational facilities. It concludes with a discussion of current projects in Honduras funded by external donors.

### A. PUBLIC EDUCATION

Education, particularly primary education, is a high priority of the Government of Honduras. This high priority is clearly stated in the constitution and other official documents as well as in public pronouncements. It is also evidenced by the relative size of the Ministry of Public Education (MOE), when compared with other ministries, and by the extent of the national budget devoted to education. The constitution of Honduras decrees that primary education will be public, universal, compulsory, and free; it will also be of high quality. Its goal is to provide a foundation for continuation to the middle grades and for the formation of an educated, socially responsible person. (See Annex 1 for the Organizational Chart of the Ministry of Education.)

Educational goals are clearly set out in basic documents with which teachers are very familiar: the Constitution; the Educational Laws of the State (Leyes Educativas del Estado), including the Organic Law of Education (Ley Organica de Educacion) and the Teacher Law (Ley del Escalafon del Magisterio); and the Program of Studies at the Primary Level (Programa de Estudios a Nivel de Primaria). (See Annex 2 for additional discussion of the documents and Annex 3 for the study plan for primary education.) In addition to academic goals, these official documents, through accompanying regulations, articulate specific attributes for teachers, supervisors, and school directors, and their duties and rights.

The Government of Honduras implements the educational policies and programs through a highly centralized system with some decentralized features. At the centralized level, major responsibility for primary education is vested through the Ministry of Public Education in the General Division of Primary Education (Direccion General de Educacion Primaria), the director of which reports directly to the Sub-Secretary of Public Education for Technical Services. In addition, seven national supervisors, 18 departmental supervisors -- one for each state (departamento) -- and approximately 200 auxiliary supervisors are responsible for monitoring the legal, administrative, and instructional aspects of primary education.

Public education is a high priority for resource allocation: It receives over 20 percent of the national budget out of which 55 percent is reserved for primary education.

Officially, the government insists that primary education be public, and, in fact, 95 percent of all schools are public. However, it encourages private-sector assistance -- in the form of donations for land, school construction, equipment, furniture, and supplies -- through individuals and the community. The government also encourages community participation in the educational system through parent associations.

The educational system in Honduras consists of six years of primary education, six years of secondary education, and two to five years of higher education. Enrollment in primary education is almost universal, with about 95 percent of the children enrolling in first grade.

Access to secondary education has been growing, from 16 percent in 1973 to 33 percent in 1986, according to UNESCO data. Higher education is offered in five institutions to about 40,000 students.

## **B. PRIMARY EDUCATION**

Access to primary education in Honduras is the highest in Central America, excluding Panama. According to estimates from the present study, the gross enrollment ratio<sup>2</sup> for 1988 was 106 percent (Belize was 92 percent, for example, and Guatemala, 75 percent.) The high access rate is the result of a large school-construction campaign throughout the country and the addition of approximately 800 new teaching positions each year for the last five years. There are now 7,300 primary schools, 88 percent of which are in rural areas. Approximately 900,000 pupils are enrolled in grades one to six.

Despite the high access rate, the efficiency of the educational system is below that of any other Central American country. In 1987, for example, only 46 percent of entering primary school students graduated from sixth grade, compared with the Central American average of 55 percent. Because of high repeater and dropout rates, on average, it takes 10.3 years for the system to produce a sixth-grade graduate. At that rate, the average cost of educating a student is U.S. \$1,465. In a fully efficient system, the cost would be approximately \$855.

Maintaining access to keep up with population growth and increasing quality and efficiency are main goals for the government and for external donors.

Most of the classrooms are multigrade, that is, teachers teach more than one grade level simultaneously. Curriculum policies have remained intact since 1950, although the study plans were revised in 1967. Instructional materials, other than the new textbooks being introduced through a program of the U.S. Agency for International Development and now in first and second grade classrooms, are scarce and frequently irrelevant or of poor quality.

The educational system employs approximately 24,000 teachers, 62 percent of whom teach in rural areas where the student population is 61 percent of the total enrollment and the ratio of teachers to schools is 2.3 to 1. Most of the 24,000 primary school teachers are graduates of 12 normal schools in Honduras which each year graduate more teachers than the system can absorb. In 1937, the MOE revised the normal-school curriculum in order to introduce more current teaching methodologies and course content. The first graduates of the new teacher education curriculum will be the class of 1990.

The responsibility for supervision falls to the MOE Office of the Director General of Primary Education, specifically to the supervisors. The supervisory system consists of seven national supervisors, 18 department supervisors, and 205 district-level auxiliary supervisors. The Center for Teacher Training (Centro de Actualización del Magisterio - CAM), created in 1982 to provide inservice training, functions as the pedagogical implementation unit of the supervisory system.

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<sup>2</sup> Gross enrollment ratio: number of children in school divided by number of school-age children in the population. It is higher than 100 because of overage children in school. (See chapter III, section A.1. for additional discussion of the GER.)

## **C. FACILITIES**

Responsibility for school construction and furnishing rests with the MOE Division of School Construction. Because of insufficient data, the exact number, precise location, and condition of schools are unavailable. (The MOE is planning a detailed school mapping study and school census.) Present information indicates that there are approximately 18,000 classrooms, a deficit of about 5,000. To accommodate the increases in students, approximately 800 new classrooms a year are needed; the MOE has been constructing an average of 250. At present, the cost of constructing and furnishing a new classroom is \$7,650; in 1995, it will be \$15,000. External donors now bear the cost of new construction.

Primary education facilities tend to be in disrepair. According to the MOE, approximately half of the present classrooms require repairs ranging from window security to roofs and walls. Broken desks, neglected school grounds and play areas, inadequate sanitary facilities, and lack of water are common. Although communities often play a role in school construction, they do not contribute to school maintenance. That falls to the school staff and students. Most classrooms have blackboards but little other equipment such as charts and globes.

## **D. CURRENT INTERVENTIONS**

The government's high priority on primary education is being implemented through a number of efforts, many of which are financed through external donors. The coordination of funding for these projects is the responsibility of the Ministry of Planning (Secretaria de Planificacion - SECPLAN). Grants are managed by SECPLAN's Division of International Technical Cooperation (Direccion de Cooperacion Tecnica Internacional); loans are managed by the Division of Projects (Direccion de Proyectos). Within the Ministry of Education, coordination of technical projects with external donors rests with the Vice Minister for Technical Affairs (Vice Ministro para Asuntos Tecnicos). The major donors are A.I.D. and Japan followed by the World Bank. Minor donors are the Government of Holland, the United Nations Fund for Population Assistance, and the Organization of American States.

### **I. USAID/Honduras**

The Primary Education Efficiency Project (GOH-AID-522-0273), begun in late 1986 and scheduled to end in 1994, is a comprehensive attempt to improve access, internal efficiency, and quality of the public primary school system. Total cost is estimated at \$32 million, with \$27 million coming from USAID, and \$5 million in counterpart funds from the government. Seven major components guide project activities:

- **School Construction, Renovation, and Furnishings**

Unlike other components of this project, the school construction activities are under the direct control of the Ministry of Education and are funded entirely under the ESF counterpart budget. AID is not directly involved in the construction, renovation, or maintenance. AID accepted an MOE plan to use a somewhat decentralized approach that was intended to be low-cost and community-based and agreed to provide \$1.5 million annually for three years to support this component. Project targets include the construction of 450-900 classrooms, renovation of 300-600 classrooms, and maintenance of 300-600 classrooms over the three-year period.

- Instructional Materials

Four million textbooks are being written, produced, and distributed in the four major subjects (Spanish, mathematics, social studies, and natural sciences) for the six years of primary school. A total of 200,000 teachers' guides and student workbooks will also be produced, and 20,000 "Reading Readiness" guides will be developed for first-grade pupils.

An integral part of the project is to develop the capability of the Ministry to write, print, and distribute necessary revisions of these materials and other instructional materials.

- Inservice Teacher Training

Through technical assistance to the Center for Teacher Training, short-term inservice workshops are being provided to departmental and auxiliary supervisors, school directors, and classroom teachers in the use of textbooks and teachers' guides. In the future, this component is also to include a permanent inservice training system that will use radio, print media, semi-programmed texts, and seminars for supervisors, directors, and classroom teachers in a program of distance learning.

- Educational Research

A permanent educational policy study unit (composed of two Honduran researchers) has been established within the MOE Office of the Vice Minister for Technical Affairs. In addition to designing, conducting, and analyzing approximately 20 studies over the life of the project, it is supposed to conduct approximately 10 policy research conferences and workshops. Among the studies either undertaken or proposed are the following:

- Impact on student achievement of primary education supervision.
- Causes of failure and repetition among primary school pupils.
- Philosophical and theoretical background of the system for evaluation and controlled promotion.
- Effects of the school lunch program.
- Assessment of the vocational, agricultural, and health areas of the primary school curriculum.
- Costs of certain personnel policies, for example, transfers, leaves of absences.
- Effect of the single-session school day on student achievement and school administration.
- Economic impact of inservice training of teachers.
- Evaluation of technical guide schools, application schools, and pilot schools.

- Management Information System

This component is providing technical assistance and commodities to expand and improve the MOE management information system. New data-collection techniques are being developed in order to provide timely, reliable data for educational planners. Training in the development and use of these techniques will be provided to users.

- **Testing and Evaluation**

This component involves the development of minimum learning objectives for all subject areas by grade level. The learning objectives and standardized tests based on the objectives will be introduced to teachers through the inservice training workshops and the new teachers' guides. A national sample of primary school students will also be tested to track changes in overall academic achievement resulting from the project.

- **Educational Media**

This component is managed by AVANCE, a Honduran private voluntary organization. Two important activities are involved:

1. Interactive radio providing supplementary radio lessons in primary school classrooms, starting in mathematics and Spanish, and covering grades one through three. Teachers will voluntarily purchase a radio at a reduced cost, a self-instructional teachers' guide, and wall charts.
2. A national weekly newspaper, El Agricultor, providing supplementary sections, for use by both teachers and pupils.

## **2. Government of Japan**

This project is providing a modern building and technical assistance for inservice teacher training at the primary, secondary, and university levels, emphasizing mathematics, science, technology, esthetics, physical education, and sports. The period of activity is 1988 and 1989. Funding consists of a GOJ grant of \$12 million (L. 24 million) and a GOH contribution of \$399,000 (L. 798,000). The amount of money allocated to primary education is not specified.

## **3. World Bank**

The World Bank is providing a loan of \$4.4 million (L.8.8 million) over four years (the GOH counterpart contribution is L.5 million) to the Ministry of Education to develop an administrative system and operation for a pilot rural education project. A secondary objective is to assist the Ministry of Public Education in improving its internal organizational and administrative policies and procedures. Six departments in the Northern Region of Honduras (Atlantida, Colon, Cortes, Gracias a Dios, Islas de la Bahia, and Yoro) are involved in comprehensive activities, including:

- Creating a project coordination committee and a regional coordinating committee.
- Conducting needs analyses of rural education in the six departments.
- Developing a pilot project in two school districts to include construction and equipping of classrooms, inservice training of the staff, provision of learning materials, and establishment of an evaluation system.
- Developing a permanent system to plan and manage rural regional education activities. To date, four seminars and workshops have been conducted to plan and begin project activities.

#### **4. Government of Holland**

This pilot project is designed to provide modest grants to adults to develop small businesses or "cottage industries" but includes basic education activities dealing with literacy and work-related skill acquisition. Funding is via a Government-of-Holland grant of \$3.4 million (L. 6.8 million).

#### **5. United Nations Fund for Population Assistance (UNFPA)**

A modest grant of \$74,000 (L. 148,000) was provided in 1987 and 1988 to fund preparatory technical assistance to include population-related materials in the Honduran primary education curriculum. The GOH counterpart contribution was \$53,000 (L. 106,000).

#### **6. Organization of American States (OAS)**

The OAS currently has two projects with the Ministry of Public Education. The first is an innovative effort to transform the traditional national libraries into comprehensive learning resources centers for primary and secondary education. This project, scheduled to run during 1988 and 1989, is funded by an OAS grant of \$41,000 (L.82,000), with a GOH contribution of \$70,000 (L. 190,000). The second project involves the creation of a pedagogical center to develop instructional materials for pre-school education and to train teachers in modern teaching techniques. Scheduled to run between 1988 and 1989, the project is financed by an OAS grant of \$21,000 (L. 42,000), with a GOH contribution of \$177,500 (L. 335,000).

**PRIMARY EDUCATION COSTS AND FINANCING**

**CHAPTER II**

## **Introduction**

This chapter addresses the level of financial resources allocated to primary education, their share of total government expenditures, the unit costs of education and the recent evolution of these indicators. From a strictly financial standpoint, the main problems to be examined are the inadequacy of current government funding to cover primary school needs and the inability of the public sector to provide all of the necessary funds.

### **A. PRIMARY EDUCATION AND THE NATIONAL ECONOMY**

To appreciate the economics of Honduran primary education, one must view educational costs and financing as part of the overall economic picture. Between 1981 and 1988, population growth in Honduras exceeded economic growth: While the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) real growth increased by 15 percent, the GDP per capita decreased by 8 percent. One can reasonably assume, therefore, that the standard of living during the same period decreased for the majority of the population (Exhibit II-1, lines 1-4).

Between 1981 and 1988, educational expenditures increased at a faster rate than either the economy or the population. Total government expenditures increased by 28 percent and the population by 25. The proportion of the GDP allocated to the expenditures increased slowly from 15 to 17 percent. During this period, the proportion of total educational expenditures relative to central government expenditures increased from 23 to 29 percent (Exhibit II-1, lines 5-8).

The absolute level of increase of these expenditures was even more dramatic -- 61 percent increase in seven years for all educational levels: Primary education expenditures increased by 51 percent; secondary and higher education expenses increased by even more than that -- more than 61 percent, in fact, which is the mean rate of growth for the entire sector. While primary education expenses increased, the proportionate share of primary education expenditures to total education expenditures decreased over the seven years from 58 percent to 55 percent (Exhibit II-1, line 11).

### **B. PROBLEMS**

#### **1. Unbalanced Resource Allocations**

During this period, the per capita primary education expenditures increased from 22 to 26 lempiras, or an increase from 2.0 to 2.64 percent of the GDP per capita. Unit costs for primary education also increased from 121 lempiras per child per year in 1982 to 144 in 1988, using costs adjusted for inflation. Although numerous factors might contribute to the increases, the chief factor is escalating teacher salaries, a major problem for educational financing. Whereas in most developed countries teacher salaries absorb 80 percent of the total educational expenditures, in Honduras the figure is 96 percent. Only four percent, therefore, is expended on other goods and services, such as school construction and maintenance, and instructional materials. The level of teacher salaries, then, is the driving variable in determining the total level of expenditures.

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\* Based on actual budget execution figures.

**EXHIBIT II-I**

**HONDURAS: GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT, CURRENT CENTRAL GOVERNMENT,  
AND TOTAL AND PRIMARY EDUCATION EXPENDITURES, 1981-1988**  
(In Millions of Constant Lempiras, Per Capita Figures in Lempiras,  
Enrollment in Thousands)

	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988
1. GDP	4,153	4,072	4,061	4,174	4,308	4,427	4,612	4,787
2. Growth Rate %	1.5	-2.0	-0.3	2.8	3.2	2.8	4.2	3.8
3. GDP Per Cap	1,087	1,029	992	986	985	982	993	1,001
4. Growth Rate %	-1.9	-5.3	-3.6	-0.6	-0.1	-0.3	1.1	0.8
5. Cent Gov Exp	619	609	658	683	742	687	769	793
6. CGE/GDP	0.15	0.15	0.16	0.16	0.17	0.16	0.17	0.17
7. Total Ed Exp	142	155	157	166	182	195	225	228
8. TEE/CGE	0.23	0.26	0.24	0.24	0.25	0.28	0.29	0.29
9. Prim Ed Exp	83	81	83	91	97	103	117	126
10. Growth Rate %	--	-2.1	1.8	10.0	6.4	6.4	13.9	7.4
11. PEE/TEE	0.58	0.52	0.53	0.55	0.53	0.53	0.52	0.55
12. PEE Per Cap	22	21	20	22	22	23	25	26
13. Growth Rate %	--	-5.5	-1.6	6.4	3.0	3.2	10.6	4.3
14. PEE/GDP	2.00	2.00	2.04	2.18	2.25	2.33	2.55	2.64
15. Primary Enrol	--	672	704	740	774	810	840	879
16. Growth Rate %	--	--	4.8	5.1	4.6	4.7	3.7	4.6
17. Unit Costs	--	121	118	124	125	127	140	144
18. Growth Rate %	--	--	-2.8	4.7	1.8	1.6	9.9	2.5
19. Imp. Deflator	1.34	1.42	1.49	1.55	1.62	1.72	1.75	1.52

**Abbreviations**

GDP: Gross Domestic Product  
CGE: Central Government Expenditures  
TEE: Total Educational Expenditures  
PEE: Primary Education Expenditures

This problem of unbalanced resource allocation is one over which educational authorities have exercised little control. Much of the problem results from a built-in mechanism for automatic salary increases, a system in which the base salary multiplies continuously because of certain adjustment factors applied to it (See Annex 4). Since 1981, base salaries for teachers have increased at a rate that is six percentage points above the inflation rate. The adjustments consist of compensation for hardship posts, as well as for service — a 15 percent increase is offered every five years — for merit, and for increased responsibility, for example, for serving as principal of a model, pilot, or experimental school. Teachers working in Gracias a Dios and Islas de la Bahia receive a base salary of L.515 per month, before adjustments, compared to L.425 paid to other teachers. (The base salaries for each group have increased 32 and 42 percent, respectively, since 1981.) Only merit adjustments, given three times during one's teaching career, relate to activities loosely assumed to influence learning: punctuality, attendance, fulfillment of duties. Evaluations of teacher performance have little scientific basis; they depend on a supervisor's perception of how well a teacher is performing.<sup>3/</sup>

## 2. Lack of Planning

The major problem, however, is not with the evaluation system — or even with the adjustments themselves — but with the lack of planning by the Ministry of Education, for both recurrent costs and capital expenditures. In terms of recurrent costs (largely salaries), even when some adjustments are virtually automatic and, therefore, could be planned for or, when not automatic, could be anticipated with a simple management information system, this necessary planning does not take place. In terms of capital expenditures, figures in Exhibit II-2 show erratic planning for physical assets such as school buildings, installations, equipment, furnishings, and instructional aids. In 1982, capital expenditures increased by 144 percent over 1981. Between 1982 and 1986, educational investments were considerable, although fluctuating. In 1987, however, investment fell off seriously, showing an 83 percent decline from the preceding year. The decline continued in 1988, although by only 6.5 percent. Such erratic rises and falls could be avoided; adequate mid- or long-term planning would allow the government to spread out its expenditures evenly over time and thereby manage resources more efficiently.

### EXHIBIT II-2

**HONDURAS: CAPITAL EXPENDITURES IN PRIMARY EDUCATION, 1981-1988**  
(Both domestically and externally funded)  
(In thousands of lempiras)

	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988
Capital Exp.	3,705	9,041	6,972	6,759	11,026	10,256	1,738	1,625
Growth Rate %	—	144.0	-22.9	-3.1	63.1	-7.0	-83.1	-6.5

<sup>3/</sup> In October 1989, a Congressional committee discussed proposals for a new Teacher Law (Estatuto del Docente) which would replace the present Teacher Law (Ley del Escalafon). This proposed law would raise the base teacher salary and restrict operations of private schools. The President took the decision to postpone voting on the proposals until the end of the following year.

The problem of erratic investment is further compounded by the fact that the government can -- and does -- postpone capital investments for political or fiscal expediency, knowing that it can do so without the repercussions that cutbacks in teacher salaries, for example, would cause. Irregular contributions by international donor agencies are also part of the problem (See Exhibit II-3). Not only have the donors contributed to the erratic element by mobilizing large amounts of funds from time to time, they also have helped create a long-term dependency for Honduras. The government has come to expect foreign donors to finance capital expenditures in education, thus freeing the government to continue investing its resources almost exclusively in teacher salaries.

### EXHIBIT II-3

#### HONDURAS: EXTERNAL RESOURCES INVESTED IN ALL LEVELS OF EDUCATION, 1981-1988

(In thousands of lempiras)

	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988
Expenditures	1,492	3,772	4,773	10,085	18,299	15,188	10,409	6,411
Growth Rate %	--	152	26	111	81	-17	-31	-38

### 3. Poor Asset Management

Lack of investment planning is not the only problem; asset management, that is, care of physical facilities, is also problematic because it has both long-term and short-term implications for the budget. A plan is essential not only for efficient investments in new assets but also for efficient management of existing ones. Budget allocations are necessary for both maintenance and replacement. When maintenance and replacement are postponed in lieu of personnel expenditures or other budget needs, as is often the case, the long-range effects take their toll. Neglected physical facilities deteriorate more rapidly than those cared for and usually require major and, therefore, costly repairs or entire replacements.

Effective asset planning would serve a number of ends. It would allow the government to anticipate costs, spread them over a period of time, and reduce its dependency on foreign resources. It would send a message to the teachers' unions and the general public that capital and non-personnel investments are as important to the education process as salaries. It would help dissipate the pervasive atmosphere of crisis management resulting from government response to investment needs only when they reach the crisis level. Crisis management eliminates careful preparation for expenditures and activities and later evaluation of them as well as analysis of recurrent costs associated with them. And it completely eliminates the possibility of considering a wider set of alternatives to resource allocation, for example, investment in teacher

training, educational management, or instructional aids.

### **C. ISSUES AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS**

What is the solution to escalating teacher salaries, the resultant unbalanced allocation of financial resources, and poor asset management? It is unrealistic to expect large budget increases for the government, in general, and for primary education in particular. The solution, it seems, will result from two things: (1) increased efficiency in the use of resources, which will require changes in educational policies and management; and (2) private-sector contributions.

#### **1. Educational Policies and Management**

To be effective, educational policies must establish objectives to be achieved in terms of both education coverage and quality. Without specific objectives -- and a timetable and system for measuring achievement of the objectives -- public education will not be accountable for delivery of educational "outputs." And without accountability, the system will serve only the teachers, who are guaranteed both tenure and salary. Setting appropriate educational objectives would involve asking -- and then answering -- questions such as the following:

- What proportion of sixth-grade graduates must know how to solve two-step mathematical problems?
- What proportion must read at a given level of understanding according to a certain test?
- By what percentage should the repeater rate be reduced within a set timeframe?
- What should be the long-range goals for achievement scores in different topics? the intermediate goals?

Establishing policies and goals, however, is not sufficient. An effective management system must be in place to implement and monitor them. A decentralized management structure is ideal and should involve the community in administering resources. However, even when these measures are taken, the fiscal base will still be insufficient for increased coverage and improved quality of educational "outputs." The private sector at this point can play a role, both substantively and financially, at three levels: the community, the business sector, and the private-school system.

#### **2. Private-Sector Contributions**

At the first level, the community can be called on to raise funds to meet critical school needs, although doing so at the expense of being excluded from more substantive roles will alienate them eventually. The community, however, can also serve the school system in a more substantive way, for example, by providing an evaluation function. Its members could supervise activities in areas to which they are particularly sensitive -- teacher attendance, punctuality, and dedication to the school, for example -- and their evaluations could feed into the larger system that determines teacher promotions. Perhaps the most important contribution the community could make would be to serve as

a tempering agent in the issue of teacher salaries. If communities were organized, they might influence the resource-allocation process by lessening the continuous pressure to increase teacher salaries to the detriment of non-personnel needs. As a organized group, they could lobby instead for more instructional aids and better maintenance of facilities.

At the second level, the business sector can likewise play a role and complement the efforts of the community. Prominent business figures can provide national leadership to influence top government levels in regard to better resource allocation. Their efforts would influence not only the education sector but also the economic development of the country since education and the economy are related. Parents would realize that, with a better education, their children will face better employment prospects and an improved standard of living. Thus, the business sector and the community will be encouraged to support the other's activities in the fight for better educational resource allocation. Both, however, must be instructed about working closely with the public sector and the teachers' unions in order to exercise their influence most constructively.

At the third level is the private-school system itself. To alleviate the financial burden on the public-school system, the government should determine the feasibility of enhancing the private-school system. Government officials should determine the market ability to pay for private education, the conditions under which the present system operates, and the potential for subsidizing private schools.

#### **D. RECOMMENDATIONS**

The foregoing section analyzes the economic situation in Honduras and its relationship to educational costs and financing. The following recommendations flow from that analysis. They suggest policy changes and improvements in planning and management of investments that should be conditions for AID investment in Honduras.

##### **1. Conduct policy-related research as follows:**

- In order to view Honduran teacher salaries in a wider context, analyze domestic and international teacher salaries and their proportional relationship to total recurrent educational costs. Consider purchasing power, academic background, costs of education, as well as the current policy of exemption of teachers from the payment of income tax.
- In order to assist the government in planning future investments in primary education, analyze its present dependence on external funding sources, particularly USAID, the World Bank, the Interamerican Development Bank, and the Government of Japan.
- Assess the potential for community involvement at the school level in administration and supervision as a means of redressing unbalanced resource allocation and improving planning and management.
- Examine the possibility of enhancing the sources of public funds.
- Assess the potential for private-sector involvement at the national level to provide leadership and assistance in improving

the quality of education.

- Determine the feasibility of expanding private primary schooling as a means of offsetting the limited public resources for education. Assess feasibility of passing enabling legislation.

**2. Encourage the Ministry of Education to:**

- Plan for recurrent costs and capital investment so that a range of allocation alternatives can be considered.
- Improve asset management in order to anticipate maintenance and replacement needs for school buildings and equipment.
- Formulate educational policies that will result in establishing specific educational objectives tied to concrete schedules.

**3. Recommend that A.I.D.:**

- Condition its assistance on improved resource allocation that would increase the share of funds available for non-salary expenditures.
- Condition its assistance on MOE policy changes in terms of educational objectives in order to improve accountability and alleviate pressures from teachers' unions.

**ACCESS, EFFICIENCY, AND PROJECTED COSTS**

**CHAPTER III**

12a

## Introduction

This chapter considers major problems and constraints to improvement in the Honduran primary education subsector. It analyzes the effect of USAID interventions on the primary education system by presenting three possible scenarios, two of which describe the system without additional USAID efforts.

### A. PROBLEMS AND CONSTRAINTS

This section outlines the major problems and contributing constraints to improvements in the Honduran primary education subsector.

#### 1. Access

Access to Honduran primary education, as of 1987, is quite high. In fact, as noted in the attached Exhibit III-1, measured by the Gross Enrollment Ratio (GER), it is the highest in Central America excluding Panama -- 106 percent. Gross Enrollment Ratio, which measures the total enrollment in primary school versus the estimated population aged 7-12 years, shows Honduran school access improving every year since 1980 -- 93 percent to 106 percent. Exhibit III-2 shows the percent of each estimated age range enrolled since 1982. As can be seen, the percentage of nine-year-olds enrolled in primary school increased from 81.9 percent in 1982 to 91.1 percent in 1987.

As will be noted later, these substantial improvements in access are the result of a significant school construction campaign throughout the country and the result of steadily increasing levels of support to primary education since 1980.

The Ministry of Education uses a slightly different population base to calculate GER. For the MOE, access to primary school extends from ages 6.5 to age 13 -- a total of 7.5 years. In effect, students are allowed to enroll one half a year earlier in first grade than most of the rest of Central America. By this expanded measure of access, the Honduran GER is only 78.4 percent, but it too has been climbing each year since 1980.

These measures of access depend upon an accurate assessment of the population by age in Honduras. Consistent with the figures used by the Ministry of Education, we have used population estimates first done in 1974 and updated in 1983. The most recent census (completed in late 1988) indicates that the actual population is approximately 500,000 persons smaller than estimated. When final age-specific census figures are available, all measured access ratios for Honduras (GER and NER) should improve, since for each year there will be the same absolute numbers for school enrollment, but divided by or compared to less population.

#### 2. Efficiency

By almost any measure, the efficiency of the Honduran primary education system is substandard. As noted in Exhibit III-1, Honduras ranks consistently below the Central American average for efficiency; and on one indicator -- Primary Completion Rates, the lowest in Central America -- i.e., showing in 1987 only 46 percent of entering students ever graduating from 6th grade compared to the Central American average of 55 percent.

The problem is much worse in the rural areas than in urban ones. Although

consistent statistics for rural rates of completion are not as readily available, estimates show that rural children are only half as likely to complete sixth grade as an urban child. Using statistics on urban and rural enrollments, for the class entering in 1982, by third grade 66 percent of the urban children were still in school, only 45 percent of the rural children. By the sixth grade (1987), 49 percent of the urban children were still in school, only 23 percent of the rural children.

The loss of rural children to the primary school system is greatest in the first three years of schooling. As noted below, approximately 72 percent of urban children transit from the first to second grades, only 60 percent of rural children. Just over 92 percent of urban children transit from the second to third grade, only about 78 percent of rural children. By the third grade, almost 90 percent of urban children are transitting to the 4th grade, only 76 percent of the rural children.

**Percent of Students Transitting to Next Grade  
1986/1987**

	Grade Levels				
	<u>1/2</u>	<u>2/3</u>	<u>3/4</u>	<u>4/5</u>	<u>5/6</u>
Urban	71.8%	92.4%	89.7%	90.2%	88.6%
Rural	60.0%	77.8%	76.1%	80.5%	82.4%

Later sections detail the effect of migration, higher student/teacher ratios, and larger classrooms (often single room, multigrade classrooms) on the poorer rural schooling performance.

National repetition rates and dropout rates are comparatively high in Honduras primary schooling, as noted in Exhibit III-3. They are noticeably higher in the first three grades of primary schooling -- first grade repetition rates in 1987 are over 26 percent (having improved only slightly from the 27.3 percent in 1982), in second grade they are 15.6 percent -- also only slightly improved from the 16.2 percent of 1982. Dropout rates in first grade are just under 16 percent (down from 19.3 percent in 1982) and are 10.8 percent in second grade in 1987.

In part based upon different definitions of repeaters and dropouts used by the Honduran MOE for reporting purposes (i.e., different from UNESCO definitions), there is reason to believe that repetition rates are underreported -- and therefore worse than stated here by up to seven percentage points.

Another key measure of educational efficiency for Honduras, years to produce a sixth grade graduate, is also substandard. In 1986, Honduras ranked second from the bottom in Central America with 10.3 student years from the system required to produce a sixth grade graduate.<sup>4</sup> This compares with a Central American average of 10.0 years,

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<sup>4/</sup> This 10.3 years average refers to all the years of schooling taken by all students (both those who graduate and those who drop out) divided by the number of students who

and a good performance on this measure of 7.7 years (Costa Rica). While the Honduran rate has improved over time (from 10.8 years in 1982), the effect of poor efficiency means that Honduras pays substantially more for each sixth grade graduate.

At an estimated cost (in current, 1988 Lempira) of L285/student/year for a primary school student, 10.3 student years per graduate means that the average Honduran sixth grade graduate costs the system L 2,930 in current Lempira. If the system were fully efficient, that graduate should cost only L 1,710. The low levels of efficiency in the system means that the government must devote an additional L 1,225/graduate (USD 613), measured in current funds, in resources to give students a primary education.

## **B. THREE SCENARIOS FOR INTERVENTION**

To understand better the effect of USAID intervention on the Honduran primary education system, we constructed a three scenario program for intervention. The first two scenarios describe the Honduran primary education system without additional USAID efforts.

### **1. Scenario Profile**

RUN 1 (Stable System) shows the Honduran primary school system with no additional improvements in efficiency. In effect, the repetition, dropout, and completion rates for the system are the same as they were for 1986. This run would assume that present interventions such as teacher training, additional textbooks, and focus on system improvements stopped.

RUN 2 (Dynamic System) shows the Honduran primary school system improving at the rate it has since about 1982. During this time, repetition, dropout, and completion rates (as a result of various efforts involving teacher training, textbooks, and national attention) have steadily improved (each about two percentage points in five years) — we are projecting that improvement forward. This run assumes that current levels of intervention expenditures are continued, but that no new efforts are made.

RUN 3 (Large Intervention, grades 1-3) simulates the effect of additional USAID intervention, over and above what has been done in RUN 2. The interventions, e.g., radio mathematics instruction, are assumed to be targeted on grades one to three. Grades four to six are assumed to continue on a development path described in RUN 2.

For all the runs, as noted in Exhibit III-4, we assume that entrance rates (for seven-year-olds) remain the same as in 1987, and that present standards established for student/teacher (38/1) and students/classroom (47/1), on a national basis, are maintained. These assumptions alone mandate a continuing large investment in education for the immediate future.

### **2. Scenario Outcomes — Results to 1995**

As indicated in Exhibit III-4, the results to 1995 show some real effects of investment in intervention. As with many investments in primary school intervention, the full effect of early investments do not appear for a number of years -- eight to 10.

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actually graduate. It represents an average measure of school resources (in student-years) necessary to produce a group of graduates.

This long lead time is dramatically shown in Exhibit III-5 where, with improved efficiency, more students stay in school, thereby increasing the enrollments in later grades which in turn boost total school enrollment.<sup>5</sup> For Runs 2 and 3, as will be seen, 1993 is the year when enrollments in the more efficient (Run 3) system are less than the less efficient (Run 2) system. Only when the "inefficiencies" are allowed to work through the system does total spending drop. This process typically takes 8 to ten years.

**Enrollments.** As noted, a stable system, with no further improvements (RUN 1) also has the lowest enrollment by 1995, 1,008 million students. The dynamic system has 1,062.3 million. Improved efficiency through intervention in grades one to three, RUN 3 results in 1,055.9 million students -- fewer students in the system because of a reduction in repetitions.

**Gross Enrollment Ratios.** For all but the Stable, RUN 1, GER increases slightly to 1995, almost all to 110 percent -- which means the system maintains its gross access rates for all primary schools.

**Completion Rates.** The percent who graduate from sixth grade (over any time period, i.e., six years to 20 years) increases with each level of intervention. Intervention in grades one to three can be expected to increase the percent completing from 53.7 percent (straight dynamic system -- RUN 2) to 55.1 percent by 1995.

**Graduate on Time.** Similar effects can be seen to those on completion rates, in terms of graduation on time. In a stable system, only 20.4 percent appear to graduate from sixth grade in six years; with efficiency intervention, the percentage increases to above 30 percent.

**Student Years for a Sixth Grade Graduate.** Efficiency interventions -- RUN 3 -- have a dramatic effect on the number of student years required to generate one sixth grade graduate. Whereas the stable system requires 10.33 years per graduate, RUN 3 shows a requirement of 8.98 years.

**Lower Secondary Places.** Higher rates of graduation from primary school place increasing pressure on secondary schools. Efficiency intervention increases the number of secondary places required by 8-13,000 places.

**Budget Effects.** All simulations show a need for increased budget expenditures. The increase arises because of the increasing school-age population in Honduras, and because, if current standards (levels of access and stabilized efficiency) are to be maintained, the system will need to "keep up." The simulations clearly show that by 1995, intervention in grades one to three (RUN 3) will cost the system less overall than a dynamic system RUN 2. The simulations, summarized in Exhibit III-6 and detailed in Exhibits III-7, III-8, and III-9, show that by 1995, RUN 3 saves approximately USD 3.8 million total (over current levels of intervention RUN 2). By the year 2000, RUN 3 intervention creates gross savings of over USD 36.8 million in total.

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<sup>5/</sup> Enrollment for the total system increases typically in the years immediately following the introduction of the efficiency improvements. This is because students who previously dropped out are now remaining in the system, and students who previously repeated are now being promoted to higher grades.

## C. CONCLUSIONS FROM SCENARIOS

The scenarios presented indicate several conclusions:

1. To maintain present access standards, all scenarios imply budget increases in excess of inflationary increases for the base MOE budget. The increases range from USD 100.9 million to USD 135.2 million for recurrent costs and USD 18.4 million to USD 25.9 million for capital costs over and above the costs of funding existing expenditures. These are summarized in Exhibit III-6.

A recap of the budget scenario until 1995 suggests the following:

Estimated Budget Adjusted for 12%/Year Inflation:  
USD 238.0 million

Budget for Current Access--Run 1:  
USD 357.3 million

Budget with Current Efficiency--Run 2:  
USD 399.0 million

Budget with Substantial Efficiency--Run 3:  
USD 395.2 million

Efficiency improvements cost more initially, because more students are graduating and therefore staying in the system longer. By the year 2000, however, the efficiency improvements begin to show reduced overall costs as follows:

Estimated Budget Adjusted for 12%/Year Inflation:  
USD 419.0 million

Budget for Current Access--Run 1:  
USD 812.4 million

Budget with Current Efficiency--Run 2:  
USD 981.6 million

Budget with Substantial Efficiency--Run 3:  
USD 944.8 million

Run 3 costs are over USD 35 million lower than those of Run 2. Over one-third of the students are graduating on time, and over 60 percent are graduating from the sixth grade.

2. To maintain the current standards in the system, school construction must continue to take place. The number of new classrooms needed through 1995 varies from 2,962 to 4,059 -- depending upon what efficiency interventions are adopted.
3. In a 10-year time period, efficiency intervention in grades one to three clearly shows a gross savings over simply letting the system operate as is. Exhibit III-5 shows the difference in annual costs

between RUN 2 and RUN 3. The gross savings per year reach USD 2.2 million by 1995. By the year 2000, the effect of more massive intervention results in an estimated savings of USD 10.5 million per year. Even including the intervention costs (which are typically supported by donors), the net savings total over USD 12.8 million. As long as the cost of intervention is less than the savings, efficiency interventions provide an immediate advantage to the primary school system.

4. Efficiency intervention strategies all have consequences on the places needed in lower secondary education. Even a dynamic system requires 102,000 places (versus the existing 66,300) by 1995. Intervention in later grades four to six increases the demand for secondary education places more rapidly.
5. Investments in intervention at early grades do not begin to show real and dramatic results in overall enrollments until eight to 10 years have elapsed. Hence, programs need to use indicators that focus on the grade levels where intervention is taking place, in order to see more immediate impact. As an example, efficiency indicators should focus on grades one to three if these are the grades at which intervention is taking place.

#### **D. ISSUES AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS**

The above investigation has certain policy implications that are familiar to those involved in primary education efficiency.

##### **1. Can the system maintain access and quality simultaneously?**

The basic policy issue is one of quantity (largely defined as intake to the school system) versus quality. Should a central government invest in schools and, to some extent, teachers in order to provide easily accessible schooling to all parts of its population and not worry excessively about the quality of instruction and the efficacy of teaching? Alternatively, should the government focus on providing schooling to students that it knows can succeed and will be motivated and provide excellent materials and environment — thereby creating an efficient school system, with minimal access. Each government has answered this dilemma somewhat differently.

In Honduras, the government has clearly opted, over the last 10 years, to make major investments in access for all segments of its primary school population. This has clearly been both a political and a budgetary mandate. The government has also clearly (as evidenced by improving efficiency rates in most areas) made some investments in efficiency improvement. The process of investing for access has been assisted by donor interest in aiding school construction, and by additional support for programs like teacher training.

Hence, for Honduras, the answer about access and efficiency is that, at certain levels, both can be supported. In fact, clearly both must be supported, since the present access levels, by 1995, barring improvements in efficiency, become uneconomical (comparing for example RUN 2 and

**RUN 3). Honduras is clearly at the stage where it must focus strongly on efficiency issues in order to keep investments in access alone from becoming uneconomical.**

**2. Can the system provide an equitable allocation of resources between urban and rural areas?**

At present, by various measures like student:teacher ratio, rural schools, with a 42:1 ratio, are at a disadvantage compared to urban schools with a 32:1 ratio. Similar measures like students:classroom (which for some rural schools may be as high as 83:1) show rural schools at considerable disadvantage. In effect, rural teachers are expected to be 50-75 percent more efficient than urban teachers in a more demanding setting. The statistics on relative efficiency suggest that this does not happen.

Two possibilities exist for improving rural advantages -- actually use techniques that are more cost-effective in rural areas (e.g., radio learning techniques, improved instructional material), or simply extend further resources to the rural areas. Teachers, for example, can be offered supplemental benefits for working in rural areas or assured of rotation to better assignments following a rural assignment of two to three years. Multigrade teaching techniques (multigrade teaching predominates in rural areas) can be fostered. The MOE could set a target of a 5 percent improvement per year in the rural student:teacher ratio (causing it to become 40:1 and then 38:1 in a three-year period).

Because of the comparatively low starting points, for a number of years the returns to investments in rural education will actually exceed those of urban schools. To be able to know when a such a point has been reached, close monitoring of indicators such as indicated here will be necessary.

**E. RECOMMENDATIONS**

The following recommendations follow from this analysis of access and efficiency issues in Honduras.

1. Additional school construction is clearly justified in Honduras. As noted in the exhibits, a minimum of 2,900 and a maximum of 4,000 new classrooms will be necessary in Honduras to maintain existing standards. Preference should be given to rural areas.
2. Additional investment in efficiency improvement is also clearly justified for Honduran primary education. As the simulation runs indicate, interventions to improve efficiency in grades one to three over and above present investments, can reduce the necessary expenditures over a six-year period by approximately USD 3.8 million -- capital and recurring costs combined. The long-term cost savings, i.e., by the year 2000, is almost eight times as much. For the immediate future, preference should be given to rural areas.
3. Previous investments to improve efficiency, including textbooks, radio mathematics, inservice teacher training, and national attention on education, have clearly had a positive effect on efficiency (the exact proportionate effect of each is not known). The overall

improvement in efficiency levels, at a time when access was also increasing, suggests that "more of the same" in carefully monitored proportion is a reasonable strategy.

4. Honduras needs a nation-wide testing system for primary schools to (1) measure, in proxy form, changes in the amount of learning taking place particularly in Spanish and mathematics; (2) establish more nationally based criteria for promotion, particularly in earlier grades. Our present understanding of the "quality" of education in Honduras is based entirely on secondary indicators, not on direct measurement of educational outcomes. Primary indicators are one of the few ways of really assessing the proportionate contribution of each type of intervention.

Related to this, policy makers need to be aware of the interrelated criteria for promotion in primary education. Teachers presently require "passing level" skills in both Spanish and mathematics for their students. Hence, even though an intervention like radio mathematics may dramatically improve mathematics skills, teachers will still not pass a student deficient in Spanish. As a result, the linked requirements may lead to no appreciable change in promotions despite a very effective intervention.

5. Data gathering and definitional problems continue to create difficulties in the MOE. Four areas need considerably more attention:
  - a. Evaluation of the relative efficiencies of the urban and rural systems; more refined focus on the different dynamics in each.
  - b. Comparison of definitions by district and region for repeating and dropout (desertores) students throughout the primary school system.
  - c. Updated age distribution from the new population census. The new census will primarily affect estimates on the rate of growth of the primary school system.
  - d. Consolidation of data collection, or at least mechanisms for more effective interchange between various statistical units (e.g., Informatica and the Direccion General de Primerio). The present MOE computer system is a "statistical support system" designed primarily to produce a statistical yearbook; it is not a management information system designed to aid month-to-month or year-to-year decision-making.

25-Jan-89 TABLE III.1 Version 1  
 02:03 PM CAT EDUCATION INDICATORS--HISTORICAL TIME SERIES AND PROJECTIONS THROUGH 1992  
 OCTOBER 1988

COMPONENT	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992
<b>1. PRIMARY ENROLLMENT RATIOS (GROSS):</b>													
Belize	8621	8521	8421	8421	8611	8611	8921	9121	9221	9221	9121	9021	89211
Costa Rica	10421	10321	9921	9721	9021	10121	10321	10321	10321	10421	10421	10521	106211
El Salvador	9021	7421	8321	8621	8721	9121	9121	9221	9321	9421	9521	9621	96211
Guatemala	7121	7511	7011	7511	7611	7511	7611	7511	7521	7621	7621	7721	78211
Honduras	9521	9421	9921	10021	10221	10321	10521	10521	10621	10621	10721	10821	109211
Panama	821	821	821	821	821	821	821	821	821	821	821	821	8211
Average POPULATION (7-12)	8521	8221	8321	8621	8721	8821	9021	8921	9021	9121	9121	9221	93211
Average PRIMARY ENROLLMENT	8721	8321	8521	8721	8921	9021	9121	9121	9221	9221	9321	9421	95211
<b>2. PRIMARY COMPLETION (RETENTION) RATES:</b>													
Belize	7721	7221	7021	8921	7021	8321	8621	8621	8721	8721	8721	8721	87211
Costa Rica	7421	7121	821	2721	7021	8021	7521	7021	7021	7021	7921	7921	79211
El Salvador	5021	6721	6021	5621	5921	4421	5921	6021	6221	6321	6521	6621	68211
Guatemala	4921	3321	5321	5221	5321	5021	5021	5021	5121	5221	5321	5421	54211
Honduras	3221	5021	4221	4221	4921	4521	4521	4621	4721	4921	5021	5221	53211
Panama	821	821	821	821	821	821	821	821	821	821	821	821	8211
Average POPULATION (7-12)	5121	5121	4721	4921	5721	5121	5521	5521	5721	5021	5921	6021	61211
Average PRIMARY ENROLLMENT	5121	5321	4521	4821	5721	5221	5521	5621	5721	5021	6021	6121	62211
<b>3. YEARS TO PRODUCE A SIXTH GRADE GRADUATE:</b>													
Belize	7.9	7.9	7.6	7.1	8.0	7.6	7.2	7.2	7.1	7.1	7.0	7.0	7.0
Costa Rica	8.0	8.2	8.0	14.0	7.7	7.6	7.8	7.7	7.7	7.6	7.6	7.5	7.5
El Salvador	10.2	8.7	10.2	11.1	9.9	12.9	10.1	10.0	9.9	9.7	9.5	9.4	9.2
Guatemala	11.2	11.4	10.5	10.4	10.3	10.9	10.4	10.3	10.1	9.9	9.8	9.6	9.5
Honduras	12.5	9.6	10.8	10.6	10.3	10.4	9.3	10.1	9.9	9.8	9.6	9.4	9.3
Panama	8.0	8.0	8.0	8.0	8.0	8.0	8.0	8.0	8.0	8.0	8.0	8.0	8.0
Average POPULATION (7-12)	10.8	9.9	9.2	11.0	9.9	10.7	10.0	9.8	9.7	9.5	9.4	9.2	9.1
Average PRIMARY ENROLLMENT	10.7	9.7	9.0	11.1	9.8	10.7	9.9	9.8	9.6	9.5	9.3	9.2	9.0

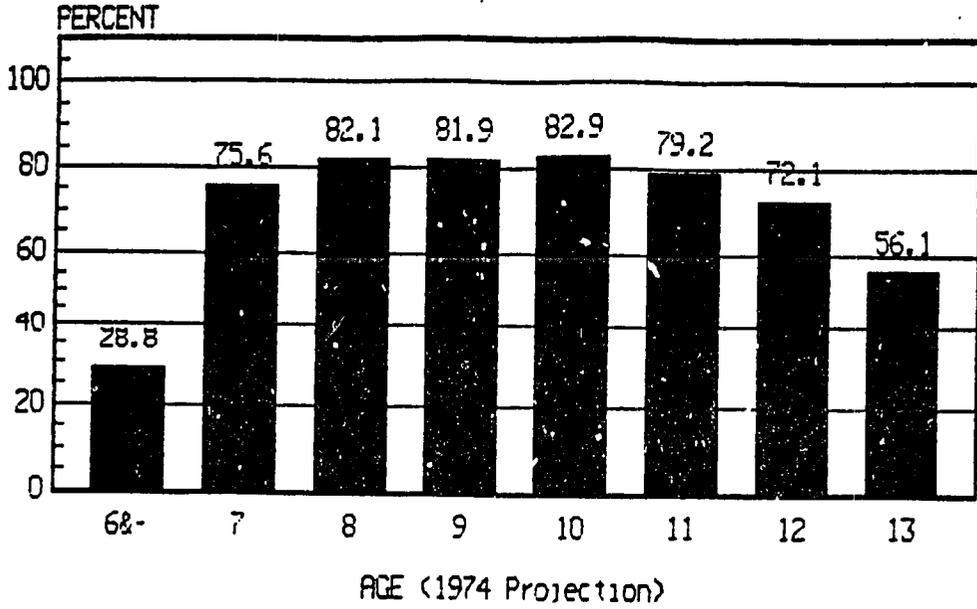
FILE: D:\XUR\TABLE80

NOTE: Excludes Panama, includes August 1988 updates for El Salvador and Guatemala.  
 Values for all other countries based on 1987.

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EXHIBIT III-2

ENROLLMENT RATES BY AGE  
(1982)



ENROLLMENT RATES BY AGE  
(1987)

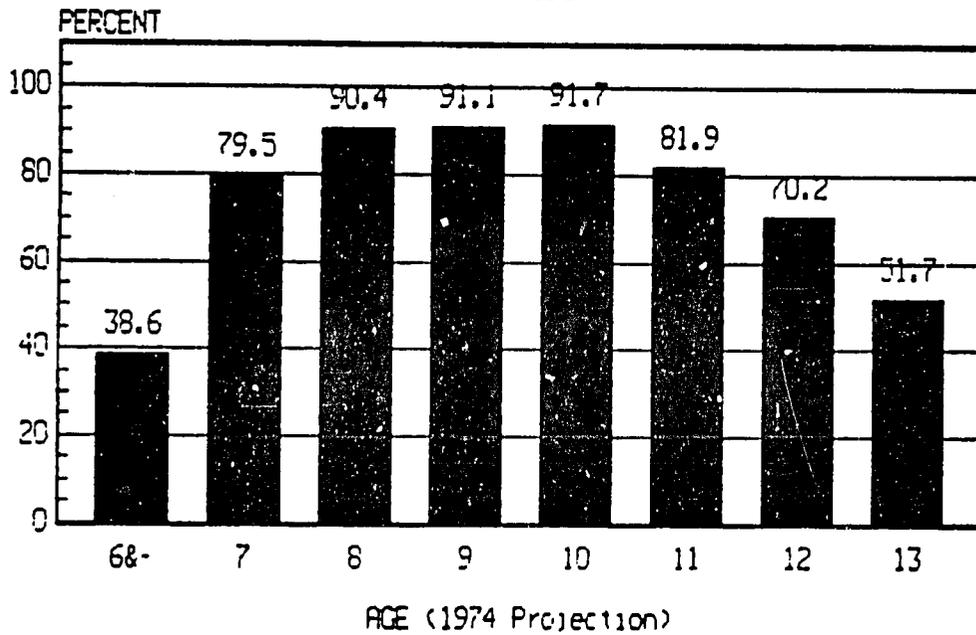
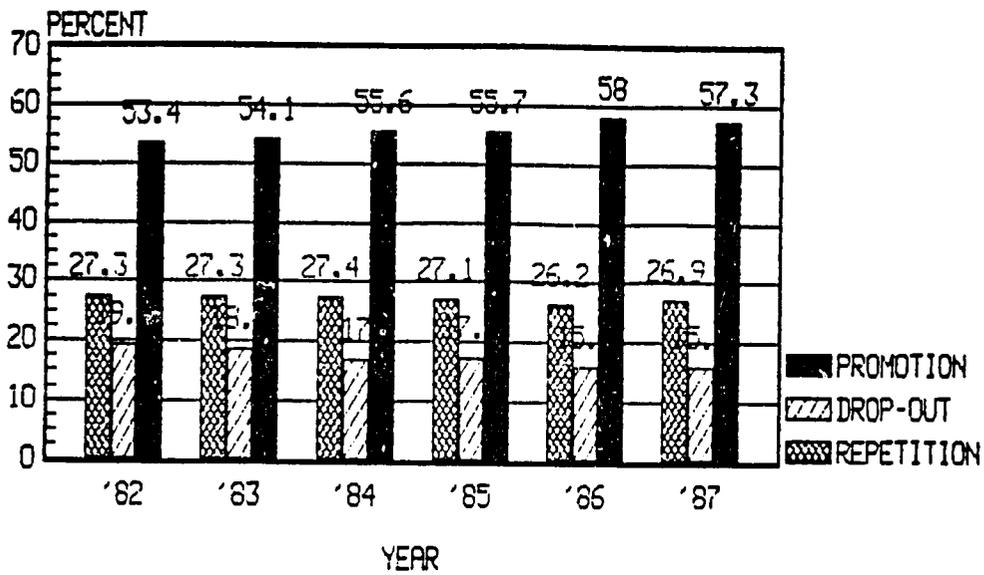


Exhibit III-3  
 REPETITION/DESERTION  
 PROMOTION RATES  
 FIRST GRADE



REPETITION/DROP-OUT/  
 PROMOTION RATES  
 SECOND GRADE

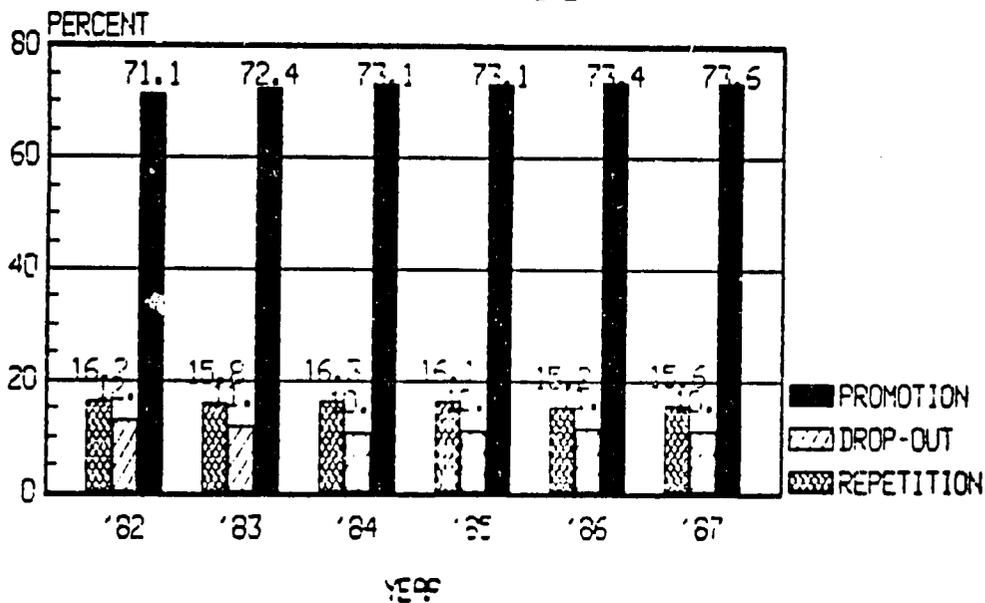


EXHIBIT III-4

SUMMARY SCENARIOS FOR IMPROVING PRIMARY EFFICIENCY

Item	BASE VALUE (1986)	RUN 1 (STABLE)	RUN 2 (DYNAMIC)	RUN 3 INTERV. GRD.1-3
------	----------------------	-------------------	--------------------	-----------------------------

ASSUMPTIONS

DATA

Age Range	-----7-12 years-----			
Source	-----1974 population, updated 1983-----			
Inflation Rate	-----12%-----			
Operating Ratios				
o Students/Teacher	-----38/1-----			
o Students/Classroom	-----47/1-----			

PROJECTION

Entrance Rate (of 7yrs.old)	1.34%	1.34%	1.34%	1.34%
Repetition Rate	--	Same as 1986	Downward on aver. 10 yrs. 26.7%	Downward faster than R.2 18.0%
Grade 1	26.2%	26.2%		
Drop-out Rate	--	Similar to 1986	Downward on aver. 10 yrs. 11.0%	Downward same as R.2 11.0%
Grade 1	15.8%	17.3%		
Promotion Rates	--	Similar to 1986	Upward on aver. 10 yrs. 62.3%	Upward faster than R.2 71.0%
Grade 1	58.0%	55.7%		
Budget Levels		Same	Increase	Increase initial more than R.2

RESULTS to 1995.

Enrollments (000s)	810.4	1,008.6	1,062.3	1,055.9
Grade 1	259.6	306.3	302.1	274.5
GER	105%	105%	110%	110%

EXHIBIT III-4 (Cont.)

Completion Rates (% who graduate 6th grade)	45.6%	45.1%	53.7%	55.1%
Graduate on Time (% who graduate 6th grd.in 6 yrs.)	21.5%	20.4%	27.7%	34.1%
Student Years for a 6th Grade Graduate	10.3	10.33	9.45	8.98
Lower Secondary Places Needed (000s)	66.3	93.9	102.2	106.8
<b>BUDGET REQUIREMENTS</b>				
Additional Teachers (Total for 1988-1995)		3,480	4,839	4,671
Additional Classrooms (Total for 1988-1995)		2,962	4,059	3,925
Additional Recurrent Costs USD 000s (in excess of 1988 base)		\$100,911	\$135,206	\$132,525
Additional Capital Costs USD 000s		\$ 18,389	\$ 25,854	\$ 24,739

Above costs, exclusive of cost of intervention. Also, costs do not include additional costs to MOE to cover inflation on existing personnel.

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EXHIBIT III-5

ESTIMATED SAVINGS FROM EFFICIENCY INTERVENTION  
(USD millions)

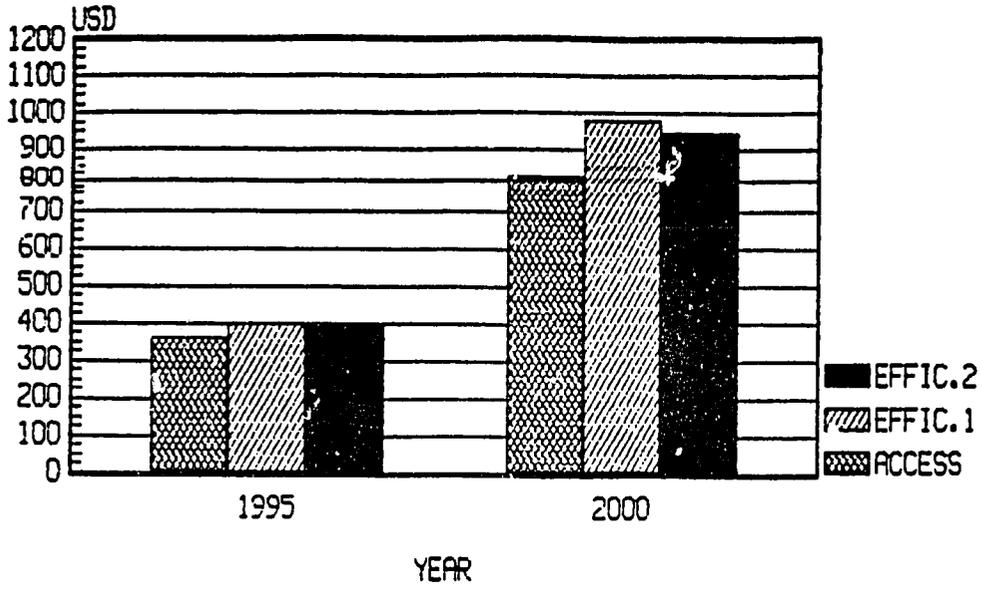
<u>Year</u>	<u>Gross Savings (Run 3-Run 2)</u>	<u>Est. Intervention Cost</u>	<u>Net Savings</u>
1989	-.026	-2.0	-2.026
1990	-.073	-2.0	-2.073
1991	-.001	-2.0	-2.001
1992	-.002	-2.0	-2.002
1993	.479	-2.0	-1.521
1994	1.226	-2.0	-.774
1995	2.168	-2.0	.168
1996	3.317	-2.0	1.317
1997	4.690	-2.0	2.690
1998	6.311	-2.0	4.311
1999	8.231	-2.0	6.231
2000	<u>10.533</u>	<u>-2.0</u>	<u>8.533</u>
CUM.SAVINGS	36.853	-24.0	12.853

NOTE:

1. Assumes constant cost of intervention--such as Radio Mathematics Instruction at USD 2.0 million per year. This implies constant increases in the efficiency of intervention at least at the same rate as inflation.
2. Gross savings compares "Total Project Cost/Yr." for RUN 2 and RUN 3. See Appendices to Chapter III.
3. The "Break Even" point for an intervention will occur at a different year depending upon the a) rate of inflation, b) the actual cost of the intervention.

EXHIBIT III-6

BUDGET ESTIMATES  
RUNS 1-3  
(USD Millions)



RUN 1

ESTIMATED COSTS  
PRIMARY GRADES (1-6)

	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
<b>ENROLLMENTS</b>	810,412	840,966	869,408	896,105	919,676	941,155	958,434	975,692	992,172	1,008,596	1,025,639	1,043,809	1,063,780	1,086,683	1,112,260
<b>TEACHERS</b>															
Ratio (Stud./Tch.)	39	37.7	37.7	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38
Cost/Mo. (L Curr.)	639	692	718	804	901	1,009	1,130	1,265	1,417	1,587	1,778	1,991	2,230	2,498	2,797
Inflation				12%	12%	12%	12%	12%	12%	12%	12%	12%	12%	12%	12%
Net Additional Teachers		1,405	770	520	620	565	455	454	434	432	449	478	526	603	673
NUMBER	20,886	22,291	23,061	23,582	24,202	24,767	25,222	25,676	26,110	26,542	26,991	27,469	27,994	28,597	29,270
<b>CLASSROOMS</b>															
Ratio (Stud./Class)	48	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47
Cost/Class (L Curr.)	7,800	7,900	8,000	8,960	10,035	11,239	12,588	14,099	15,791	17,685	19,808	22,185	24,847	27,828	31,168
Inflation				12%	12%	12%	12%	12%	12%	12%	12%	12%	12%	12%	12%
Net Additional Classrooms		774	667	568	502	457	368	367	351	349	363	387	425	487	544
NUMBER	17,057	17,831	18,498	19,066	19,568	20,025	20,392	20,759	21,110	21,459	21,822	22,209	22,634	23,121	23,665
<b>ADMINISTRATION</b>															
Ratio (Sup./Tch.)	1%	1%	1%	1%	1%	1%	1%	1%	1%	1%	1%	1%	1%	1%	1%
Cost/Mo. (L Curr.)	639	692	718	804	901	1,009	1,130	1,265	1,417	1,587	1,778	1,991	2,230	2,498	2,797
Net Additional Supervisors		14	8	5	6	6	5	5	4	4	4	5	5	6	7
NUMBER	209	223	231	236	242	248	252	257	261	265	270	275	280	286	293
<b>OTHER (Maint., etc.)</b>	2%	2%	2%	2%	2%	2%	2%	2%	2%	2%	2%	2%	2%	2%	2%
<b>RECURRENT COSTS</b> (in L 000s)															
	TOTAL			INCREMENTAL											
<b>TEACHERS</b>	173,500	200,530	215,253	5,441	7,263	7,412	6,678	7,471	7,990	8,918	10,365	12,377	15,236	19,569	24,477
<b>CLASSROOMS MAINT.</b>	0	0	0	102	101	103	93	104	111	124	144	172	211	271	339
<b>ADMINISTRATION</b>	133	154	166	54	218	250	285	325	370	421	480	547	624	714	819
<b>OTHER</b>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<b>TOTAL RECURRENT</b>	173,633	200,684	215,419	5,597	7,581	7,765	7,056	7,899	8,471	9,463	10,989	13,095	16,071	20,555	25,635
<b>TOTAL in USD(000s)</b>	\$86,817	\$100,342	\$107,710	\$2,799	\$3,791	\$3,882	\$3,528	\$3,950	\$4,235	\$4,732	\$5,494	\$6,548	\$8,036	\$10,277	\$12,817
<b>CAPITAL COSTS (in L</b>	0	0	0	5,089	5,033	5,136	4,628	5,177	5,537	6,180	7,183	8,576	10,558	13,561	16,961
<b>CAPITAL COSTS (in USD)</b>				\$2,545	\$2,516	\$2,568	\$2,314	\$2,588	\$2,768	\$3,090	\$3,591	\$4,288	\$5,279	\$6,780	\$8,481
<b>TOTAL (in L 000s)</b>	173,633	200,684	215,419	10,687	12,614	12,901	11,684	13,076	14,008	15,643	18,171	21,672	26,629	34,115	42,596
<b>TOTAL (in USD 000s)</b>	\$86,817	\$100,342	\$107,710	\$5,343	\$6,307	\$6,451	\$5,842	\$6,538	\$7,004	\$7,822	\$9,086	\$10,836	\$13,314	\$17,058	\$21,298
<b>PROJECT COST/YR.</b>															
Recurrent				\$2,799	\$6,509	\$10,472	\$14,000	\$17,949	\$22,185	\$26,917	\$32,411	\$38,958	\$46,994	\$57,271	\$70,085
Capital				\$2,545	\$2,516	\$2,568	\$2,314	\$2,588	\$2,768	\$3,090	\$3,591	\$4,288	\$5,279	\$6,780	\$8,481
<b>TOTAL PROJECT COST/YR.</b> (in USD 000s)				\$5,343	\$9,106	\$13,040	\$16,314	\$20,538	\$24,953	\$30,007	\$36,002	\$43,247	\$52,273	\$64,052	\$78,566

RUN 2

ESTIMATED COSTS  
PRIMARY GRADES (1-6)

	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
ENROLLMENTS	810,412	840,966	871,470	902,035	931,277	959,711	985,160	1,010,899	1,036,397	1,062,263	1,089,129	1,117,555	1,148,311	1,182,624	1,220,362
TEACHERS															
Ratio (Stud./Tch.)	39	37.7	37.7	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38
Cost/Mo. (L Curr.)	639	692	718	804	901	1,009	1,130	1,265	1,417	1,587	1,778	1,991	2,230	2,498	2,797
Inflation				12X	12X	12X	12X	12X	12X	12X	12X	12X	12X	12X	12X
Net Additional Teachers		1,405	825	622	770	748	670	677	671	681	707	748	809	903	993
NUMBER	20,886	22,291	23,116	23,738	24,507	25,256	25,925	26,603	27,274	27,954	28,661	29,409	30,219	31,122	32,115
CLASSROOMS															
Ratio (Stud./Sch.)	48	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47
Cost/Class (L Curr.)	7,800	7,900	8,000	8,960	10,035	11,239	12,588	14,099	15,791	17,685	19,808	22,185	24,847	27,828	31,168
Inflation				12X	12X	12X	12X	12X	12X	12X	12X	12X	12X	12X	12X
Net Additional Classrooms		774	711	650	622	605	541	548	543	550	572	605	654	730	803
NUMBER	17,057	17,831	18,542	19,192	19,814	20,419	20,961	21,508	22,051	22,601	23,173	23,778	24,432	25,162	25,965
ADMINISTRATION															
Ratio (Sup./Tch.)	1X	1X	1X	1X	1X	1X	1X	1X	1X	1X	1X	1X	1X	1X	1
Cost/Mo. (L Curr.)	639	692	718	804	901	1,009	1,130	1,265	1,417	1,587	1,778	1,991	2,230	2,498	2,797
Net Additional Supervisors		14	8	6	8	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	8	9	10
NUMBER	209	223	231	237	245	253	259	266	273	280	287	294	302	311	321
OTHER (Maintenance,	2X	2X	2X	2X	2X	2X	2X	2X	2X	2X	2X	2X	2X	2X	2
RECURRENT COSTS (In L 000s)	TOTAL		INCREMENTAL												
TEACHERS	173,500	200,530	215,764	6,501	9,010	9,812	9,836	11,142	12,362	14,046	16,339	19,363	23,464	29,318	36,114
CLASSROOMS MAINT.	0	0	0	117	125	136	136	154	171	195	226	268	325	406	501
ADMINISTRATION	133	154	166	65	221	255	293	337	387	444	510	586	676	777	898
OTHER	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
TOTAL RECURRENT	173,633	200,684	215,930	6,682	9,356	10,203	10,265	11,633	12,920	14,684	17,075	20,216	24,463	30,502	37,513
TOTAL In U(000s)	\$86,817	\$100,342	\$107,965	\$3,341	\$4,678	\$5,102	\$5,133	\$5,817	\$6,460	\$7,342	\$8,538	\$10,108	\$12,231	\$15,251	\$18,757
CAPITAL COSTS (In L	0	0	0	5,827	6,244	6,800	6,816	7,721	8,567	9,733	11,322	13,417	16,259	20,317	25,026
CAPITAL COSTS (In USD)				\$2,913	\$3,122	\$3,400	\$3,408	\$3,861	\$4,283	\$4,867	\$5,661	\$6,709	\$8,130	\$10,158	\$12,513
TOTAL (In L 000s)	173,633	200,684	215,930	12,509	15,599	17,003	17,082	19,354	21,487	24,417	28,398	33,634	40,722	50,819	62,539
TOTAL (In USD 000s)	\$86,817	\$100,342	\$107,965	\$6,255	\$7,800	\$8,501	\$8,541	\$9,677	\$10,743	\$12,208	\$14,199	\$16,817	\$20,361	\$25,409	\$31,269
PROJECT COST/YR.															
Recurrent				\$3,341	\$8,019	\$13,121	\$18,253	\$24,070	\$30,530	\$37,872	\$46,410	\$56,518	\$68,749	\$84,000	\$102,757
Capital				\$2,913	\$3,122	\$3,400	\$3,408	\$3,861	\$4,283	\$4,867	\$5,661	\$6,709	\$8,130	\$10,158	\$12,513
TOTAL PROJECT COST/YR.				\$6,255	\$11,141	\$16,520	\$21,661	\$27,930	\$34,813	\$42,738	\$52,071	\$63,227	\$76,879	\$94,158	\$115,270

RUN 3

ESTIMATED COSTS  
PRIMARY GRADES (1-6)

	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
<b>ENROLLMENTS</b>	810,412	840,966	871,470	902,146	931,605	959,799	985,229	1,009,661	1,032,881	1,055,890	1,079,513	1,104,408	1,131,401	1,161,726	1,195,212
<b>TEACHERS</b>															
Ratio (Stud./Tch.)	39	37.7	37.7	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38
Cost/Mo. (L Curr.)	639	692	718	804	901	1,009	1,130	1,265	1,417	1,587	1,778	1,991	2,230	2,498	2,797
Inflation				12%	12%	12%	12%	12%	12%	12%	12%	12%	12%	12%	12%
Net Additional Teachers		1,405	825	625	775	742	669	643	611	606	622	655	710	798	881
NUMBER	20,886	22,291	23,116	23,741	24,516	25,258	25,927	26,570	27,181	27,787	28,408	29,063	29,774	30,572	31,453
<b>CLASSROOMS</b>															
Ratio (Stud./Sch.)	48	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47
Cost/Class (L Curr.)	7,800	7,900	8,000	8,960	10,035	11,239	12,588	14,099	15,791	17,685	19,808	22,185	24,847	27,828	31,168
Inflation				12%	12%	12%	12%	12%	12%	12%	12%	12%	12%	12%	12%
Net Additional Classrooms		774	711	653	627	600	541	520	494	490	503	530	574	645	712
NUMBER	17,057	17,831	18,542	19,195	19,821	20,421	20,962	21,482	21,976	22,466	22,968	23,498	24,072	24,718	25,430
<b>ADMINISTRATION</b>															
Ratio (Sup./Tch.)	1%	1%	1%	1%	1%	1%	1%	1%	1%	1%	1%	1%	1%	1%	1%
Cost/Mo. (L Curr.)	639	692	718	804	901	1,009	1,130	1,265	1,417	1,587	1,778	1,991	2,230	2,498	2,797
Net Additional Supervisors		14	8	6	8	7	7	6	6	6	6	7	7	8	9
NUMBER	209	223	231	237	245	253	259	266	272	278	284	291	298	306	315
<b>OTHER (Maintenance,</b>	2%	2%	2%	2%	2%	2%	2%	2%	2%	2%	2%	2%	2%	2%	2%
<b>RECURRENT COSTS</b> (In L 000s)	TOTAL			INCREMENTAL											
TEACHERS	173,500	200,530	215,764	6,531	9,077	9,730	9,829	10,576	11,258	12,494	14,367	16,957	20,593	25,911	32,045
CLASSROOMS MAINT.	0	0	0	117	126	135	136	147	156	173	199	235	285	359	444
ADMINISTRATION	133	154	166	65	221	255	293	336	385	441	505	579	664	764	880
OTHER	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<b>TOTAL RECURRENT</b>	173,633	200,684	215,930	6,714	9,424	10,119	10,258	11,059	11,799	13,108	15,071	17,771	21,542	27,034	33,369
<b>TOTAL in U(000s)</b>	886,817	1,000,342	1,079,965	83,357	94,712	95,060	95,129	95,530	95,900	96,554	97,536	98,886	100,771	103,517	106,685
<b>CAPITAL COSTS (In L</b>	0	0	0	5,848	6,290	6,742	6,811	7,329	7,801	8,658	9,956	11,751	14,270	17,955	22,206
<b>CAPITAL COSTS (In USD)</b>				\$2,924	\$3,145	\$3,371	\$3,405	\$3,664	\$3,901	\$4,329	\$4,978	\$5,875	\$7,135	\$8,978	\$11,103
<b>TOTAL (In L 000s)</b>	173,633	200,684	215,930	12,562	15,713	16,861	17,069	18,388	19,600	21,766	25,027	29,522	35,812	44,989	55,575
<b>TOTAL (In USD 000s)</b>	886,817	1,000,342	1,079,965	\$6,281	\$7,857	\$8,431	\$8,535	\$9,194	\$9,800	\$10,883	\$12,513	\$14,761	\$17,906	\$22,494	\$27,788
<b>PROJECT COST/YR.</b>															
Recurrent				\$3,357	\$8,069	\$13,128	\$18,257	\$23,787	\$29,686	\$36,241	\$43,776	\$52,662	\$63,433	\$76,950	\$93,634
Capital				\$2,924	\$3,145	\$3,371	\$3,405	\$3,664	\$3,901	\$4,329	\$4,978	\$5,875	\$7,135	\$8,978	\$11,103
<b>TOTAL PROJECT COST/YR.</b> (In USD 000s)				\$6,281	\$11,214	\$16,499	\$21,663	\$27,451	\$33,587	\$40,570	\$48,754	\$58,537	\$70,568	\$85,927	\$104,737

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**FACILITIES**  
**CHAPTER IV**

## **Introduction**

This chapter discusses the issue of school facilities as it encompasses the present stock and condition of school plants; the availability of school furniture, equipment and supplies; an estimate of future needs for additional construction and renovation of classrooms; and the respective roles of the Government of Honduras, the local communities, and external donors in providing adequate physical facilities to meet the nation's primary education needs.

### **A. PRESENT STATUS OF PRIMARY EDUCATION FACILITIES**

The Ministry of Education estimates that of the current stock of approximately 18,000 primary school classrooms, almost one-half require renovations, ranging from minor repairs of roofs, sanitary facilities, and window security to major repairs of roofs and walls. In many cases, the addition of classrooms is indicated, but in the absence of current school mapping studies, the exact nature, magnitude and location of these construction and renovation needs are not known.

The condition of most schools visited by the assessment team indicates that maintenance is performed at a minimal level. The need for painting of most buildings and classrooms was very evident, even in schools that were constructed within the past five years. Within the classrooms visited, most of the two-student desks showed signs of hard use, and in several schools, broken desks were piled into unused classrooms or other storage areas. It appeared to the team that many of these discarded desks could be salvaged and put back into service after local repairs, but specific questions to this effect by the team drew vague answers from the school directors. Sanitary facilities were barely adequate in most of the schools visited, although regular maintenance was often provided by the students as part of their regular clean-up activities. The lack of water, a common condition, provided additional problems for school maintenance activities. The general school grounds and the play ground areas showed evidence of general neglect on the part of the school director and staff, and in only a few cases did the team see signs of local pride in maintenance. In these cases plants were abundant and the grounds were reasonably clean, usually because students were assigned regular chores in maintenance.

Most classrooms were equipped with large, serviceable blackboards, but little other equipment and furnishings were available. Maps, appropriate charts, globes, and other supplementary materials were in short supply.

Community participation in the maintenance of school facilities was seldom observed. Apparently, the present situation is that local communities play a larger role in the construction of basic facilities through contributions of funds and labor for construction activities, but that periodic maintenance is left to the school staff and students to perform.

A curious phenomenon was observed by the team in several urban and rural areas. Beautification projects involving most of the students seem to be a fairly common occurrence in Honduras, but these activities are directed towards the community itself, and not the schools. Sweeping of the streets and removal of piles of dirt and garbage were done by large numbers of students, who were given released time from school to perform these activities.

## **B. ESTIMATED FUTURE NEEDS FOR CONSTRUCTION**

Determining accurately the needs for future classroom construction and renovation is not possible at this time because essential data are missing. Updated census data to determine the number of eligible school-age children are lacking; the nature and extent of population migration within Honduras are not known; the exact number and conditions of schools, and their precise locations, are not known. Currently planned by the MOE is a detailed school mapping and local school census study, which should contribute significantly to understanding this problem. Available information, however, does provide some idea of the extent of future needs for construction. Exhibit IV-1 describes the recent trends in the number of schools, classrooms, school population, enrollments, non-enrollments, and classroom deficits between 1982 - 1987.

As the exhibit shows, the present deficit is approximately 5,000 primary classrooms. Estimates are that about 800 new classrooms are needed annually to provide for an annual increase of approximately 32,000 students -- and without accounting for the number of replacement classrooms that must be constructed by pupils presently in inadequate classrooms. But the MOE has been constructing only an average of 250 classrooms annually. Moreover, the new internal efficiency measures (e.g., textbooks, inservice teacher training, use of radio, and revised pupil evaluation and promotion policies) are expected to keep more pupils in school longer, by reducing dropout and repetition rates. All of these factors combine to show that the need for significant new construction/renovation activities is urgent and considerable.

The costs related to construction are also a serious problem for the Government of Honduras. Presently, the cost for constructing and furnishing one classroom is \$7,650 (L. 15,300). By 1995, using current methods, the estimated cost could be \$15,000 (L. 30,000), and by 1999, \$22,000 (L. 44,000). Most of the capital costs for new construction over the past five years have been borne by external donors (principally A.I.D.) through Economic Support Funds (ESF). The uncertainty of relying upon external sources of funding adds to the Government's concern for meeting this continuing critical need.

## **C. RESPECTIVE ROLES OF THE GOVERNMENT OF HONDURAS, LOCAL COMMUNITIES, AND EXTERNAL DONORS**

The principal constraints to providing adequate physical facilities in primary education also include the lack of appropriate organizational and operational policies and procedures by the Government of Honduras, the lack of appropriate involvement by the local communities, and the uncertain reliance on external donors for major capital investments in construction.

As has been mentioned earlier in this report, major responsibility for school construction and furnishings rests with the central government, through the MOE's Division of School Construction. Basic school designs, specifications for materials and their acquisition, contracting with builders, and supervising construction all rest with this centralized agency. Stricter control of quality and economies of scale are advanced by the MOE as the principal justification for this policy, but certain aspects of this procedure are being questioned by the local communities and the private construction firms. They cite long bureaucratic delays in approving contracts, changes to work orders, and issuing approvals for final work and payments as reasons for escalating costs and long-time frames for construction. Construction firms have to borrow money from private banks, at high interest rates, for long periods to cover their costs until government reimbursement, costs which they recover by raising contract costs. Local communities believe that the government should authorize contracts directly between

the government and the municipalities, which could then subcontract for labor and materials from local community sources. The shortened time to complete construction and the substantial savings in using local firms, procedures, and materials (estimated at about 30 percent per classroom) are cited by the advocates of this approach as justification for a decentralized approach to school construction. Getting local communities to donate finances, materials, and labor for local school construction has been more successful under this arrangement. An added bonus to this approach is that the local community, by more directly participating in construction activities, would develop pride and concern for the facilities and their continued maintenance. Experience with self-help community construction projects by external donors in other developing countries seems to bear out this rationale.

The appropriate role for external donors in school construction and furnishings has long been debated. Advocates for grants or favorable loans to school construction cite the enormous costs of such activities and the inability of host governments to finance major capital costs for school construction. Critics of this approach argue that excessive reliance on external donors for capital costs contributes to government internal inefficiencies in planning and budget management and leads to inappropriate fiscal decisions (e.g., increasing teacher salaries rather than investing in other qualitative inputs, such as textbooks).

In essence, most educational planners agree that some external donor assistance is justified, but the nature and extent of this assistance has to be carefully considered among other policy options in primary education.

#### **D. RECOMMENDATIONS**

1. A.I.D. should continue to provide grant funds for primary school construction, from ESF sources, at the same or slightly higher levels.
2. A.I.D. grant construction funds should be conditioned on at least the following:
  - The Government of Honduras immediately undertake specific studies aimed at cost-reduction measures in construction, with a due date. The conditions of ESF funding to date included this provision, but the team was unable to produce evidence that this has been done. Among the factors to be studied are an analysis of the current legal, organizational, and operational procedures for construction and furnishings; a comparison of centralized versus local costs of construction; and a study of what local communities can do to improve the construction and maintenance of school facilities.
  - The Government of Honduras immediately undertake a school mapping and facilities survey to determine the number, location, condition, and needs of primary education, with a specific due date indicated.

**EXHIBIT IV-1  
DEFICITS OF THE PRIMARY SYSTEM**

	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
Schools (Escuelas)	5,852	6,205	6,304	6,549	6,813	7,063
Urban	743	722	717	777	809	800
Rural	5,109	5,483	5,587	5,772	6,004	6,263
Classrooms (Aulas)	13,809	14,981	15,406	16,936	17,057	17,831
School Population (Poblacion Escolar)	775,907	802,915	830,333	858,061	886,793	916,584
Enrollments (Matricula)	671,780	703,608	736,902	774,078	810,412	840,390
Children not Enrolled <sup>6/</sup> (Ninos No Atendidos)	104,127	99,307	93,431	83,983	76,381	76,194
Classroom Deficit (Deficit de Aulas)	5,209	4,787	5,008	4,228	4,731	4,722
Accumulated Annual	2,606 2,603	2,305 2,482	2,673 2,335	2,129 2,099	2,822 1,909	2,818 1,904

<sup>6/</sup> These numbers may underestimate the number of children not in school, because the numbers enrolled contain overage children. Thus, the numbers of children not enrolled may be much higher -- between 130,000 and 170,000, not 76,000.

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**INSTRUCTIONAL PROCESSES AND PRACTICES**  
**CHAPTER V**

## Introduction

This chapter analyzes the instructional processes within the primary educational system in Honduras and offers recommendations for the most efficient use of the already present human and material resources in the schools, that is, how to capitalize on them without increasing the cost to the educational system. The chapter focuses in particular on strengths of the instructional process, problems, issues, and recommendations. The information is based on visits to urban and rural schools, interviews with teachers and other school officials, and reading of Ministry of Education documents. School visits included classroom observations, videotaping of classes, and interviews with teachers.

Some children are absent from class today, resulting in only 15 students--nine boys and six girls. The teacher, who earlier had taught for five years in a rural school, had had problems himself getting to school when he had to go to Tegucigalpa for his transfer papers. As a result, he lost several days of teaching. Today's lesson consists of using the syllabus on ma, me, mi, mo, mu to introduce a lesson from the first-year language arts textbook. Students sit in rows facing the blackboard and the teacher. The lesson starts with the teacher's repetition of the letters which he writes on the board. After going through six drills, he asks the students to come to the board to write the syllables. Thirteen children -- more boys than girls -- participate. The teacher acknowledges some of them by asking the class to applaud those who know how to write. The praise appears to be inconsistent, more vocal at some times than at others. Nonetheless, students are eager to participate. The teacher's questions are sequenced, and he attempts to garner information from the children. One barefoot child has trouble making his words large enough for the children to see. As he struggles, the rest of the children watch intently in silence. Some girls break the silence with giggles. The child turns around beaming as the teacher reads, "papa." The homework assignment is made: The children are to write "papa," "papa."

In a rural, multigrade classroom, the teacher, who is also the school's director and has been in service for over 25 years, prepares to cover six grades in language arts. Of the 19 students, ten are in 1st grade, three in 2nd, two each in 3rd and 4th grade, and one each in 5th and 6th. The language arts textbook is on his desk which is to one side of the room filled with long benches. The 1st and 2nd grades are at the front, the rest to the back. The teacher has distributed the seven language art texts only to the back rows even though they are directed at the 1st-grade level. The lesson begins with a review based on a tattered chart with mother and father and the syllables ma, me, mi, mo, mu, and pa, pe, pi, po, pu. The boys stand to answer the teacher's pointed questions; girls tend to be quiet. The teacher mimics the sound of the syllables and has students repeat several times an activity that takes well over 35 minutes. The chart is the teaching device; the book is not referred to at all with the 1st grade. The teacher asks students from 2nd grade to answer in "antiphonal manner," akin to a church gathering. The students in the upper grades, in the back of the room, next read aloud from the text. Although some of the reading is barely audible, the teacher says nothing. The boys read more fluently than the girls. At each turn, the teacher interjects a thought: "Leer es un processo activo, que es gramatica?" All the students respond in chorus so that distinction between grades becomes blurry.

The Honduran primary school system -- a complex picture of rural, urban, marginal-urban, multigrade, experimental, Indian, border schools, and nuclear schools -- is also a complex picture of instructional strengths and weaknesses, the two qualities frequently found within the same classroom. On the one hand, teachers tend to be aware of the curricular programs, are committed to teaching and to their students, and are receptive to new instructional materials. On the other hand, the system is beset with poor and badly situated facilities, poor classroom management and pedagogical practices, inadequate or inappropriate instructional materials, insensitivity to the impact of cultural differences on learning, discontinuity between home and school, and nutritional deficiencies in students, a condition that probably has an adverse effect on learning.

## **A. STRENGTHS**

### **1. Awareness of Curricular Programs**

The Ministry of Education is responsible for directing the country's education. Primary education aims to provide a foundation for continuation to the middle grades and for the formation of an educated, socially responsible person. It is obligatory and free. It is administered by the General Direction of Primary Education (Dirección General de Educación Primaria), a division of the Ministry. Teachers are aware of curriculum and instructional goals which are set out in the Constitution, the education laws (Leyes Educativas del Estado), and the curriculum programs (Programa de Estudios a Nivel de Primaria). In addition to academic goals, these official documents articulate specific attributes for teachers, supervisors, and directors, and their duties and rights. Teachers and educational administrators can readily recite the legal aspects of the curriculum such as salary schedules, categories of teachers, and categories of schools. (See Annex 2 for a brief description of the official documents.)

### **2. Teacher Commitment and Dedication**

Despite the difficult conditions under which teachers frequently work, their commitment and dedication are evident throughout Honduras. They are anxious to receive instructional feedback and complain about isolation and lack of access to information about basic curriculum and teaching methodologies. Teachers currently without textbooks in their classrooms look forward expectantly the arrival of the books and to training sessions on their use, as financed by the current USAID project, the Primary Education Efficiency Project.

Teachers demonstrate genuine concern for the academic well-being of their students in a variety of ways. One rather inexperienced teacher who uses questionable disciplinary tactics -- making children face the sun with their hands up or their texts in hand for over 20 minutes -- does so with parents' permission so that the children will learn. A far more experienced teacher, one with 14 years' experience, is concerned that she has yet to discover what motivates students. She complains about having had no in-service training in more than eight years and has to rely on intuition in creating what she thinks her students need. Many teachers buy supplies for their students because the Ministry does not provide for them and the parents are too poor to purchase them for their children.

### **3. Well-Received Instructional Materials**

The presence of textbooks in the classroom, even at this early date of their dissemination, is having an impact on students and teachers. Texts are actively used by

teachers and students in class discussions or demonstrations and passively by students reading or tracing drawings silently on their own. (The textbooks have been developed through the current USAID project, the Primary Education Efficiency Project. As of this writing, texts have been distributed to first and second grade classrooms.)

For the most part, textbooks are present in all first grades. In two cases where they were not, one teacher explained that students would receive their texts shortly after they had undergone preparation for reading-readiness. In the other case, the teacher explained that the other textbooks in math, science, and social studies would be used once students had finished the reading-readiness exercises.

When students had textbooks, evidence of active engagement was commonplace. They flipped through the pages, shared the drawings of the text with each other, and even hid the textbooks in their desks, peeking at them while the teacher conducted the lesson.

Teachers who had received training in the use of textbooks were aware of their utility, of the need for a sequential order of questions and answers, and of the need for closure for each lesson. Even when the delivery of the lesson based on the textbook tended to be "scripted" (limited to the content presented in the text), particularly with the less experienced teachers, evidence of active engagement was apparent.

## **B. PROBLEMS**

Although the strengths of the Honduran educational system are considerable, so are the problems -- problems that stem from the schools and teachers themselves as well as from the socioeconomic conditions, the culture, and the nutritional status of the children. While it is difficult to measure the effects on learning of poor facilities, absenteeism, ineffective class management, lack of instructional materials, and poor nutrition, it is certain that these conditions have had an adverse effect.

### **I. Poor Physical Facilities**

Any discussion of Honduran school facilities must assess the effect of facilities on children and of children on the facilities. It must also consider the physical relationship of school facilities to the community as well as the relationship of community facilities and functions to the school.

Some Honduran primary classrooms are inoperable: Roofs leak, boards are loose, windows are broken, and walls and floors are cracked, making walking difficult. In some schools, students stand or sit on the floor for lack of desks. Some bring stools from home to sit on. Operable bathrooms are a rarity. Given such conditions, it seems appropriate to consider the impact of physical structures on learning.

Other Honduran classrooms -- often with similar physical problems -- are poorly situated, as the following vignettes of two different schools demonstrate.

The school is located on a windy hill where there are only dirt roads leading to the top. On either side of the building are what appear to be houses, yet two seem more like bars because of their blaring music that disrupts classes. On one side of the double-tiered, three-room school is a grocery store with "futbolito" games in the front. To the back is a strong-smelling outhouse. As the director and I walked past the shop, we saw about 15 students playing "futbolito." The director mildly told them to return to class. None of the students moved, and the director did not repeat the command. When I asked why not, she responded that the shopowner had the nearest latrine to the school -- obviously used by the students and teachers -- and that he provided the school with needed supplies.

The school had been built on top of a hill in the usual rectangular form: blackboard on one wall, posters on another, and two walls with windows directly across from each other. On windy or cold days, the teacher reported, students shivered and were inattentive. Teachers complained of student illnesses brought on by colds, respiratory problems, and flu. In order to shut out the wind, the teacher placed large cardboard sheets on the windows, thereby reducing the only available lighting in the classroom. Food vendors were in the yard awaiting students during recess. During one visit to the school, I noticed that one vendor entered a classroom twice while the class was in progress to see what food was needed.

The two schools had been initiated by parents and constructed by the Ministry of Education, apparently without sufficient thought given to location and the relationship of school and community facilities and functions. In an area in which the school is highly dependent on community finances -- as is the case in these two schools -- functions and physical facilities must be clearly differentiated. While the sale of the vendor's food contributes to the economy of the community, it also interrupts the rhythm of the class and distracts students.

## 2. Excessive Absenteeism

Excessive absenteeism by both students and teachers has an adverse effect on learning. Absenteeism among students, for health or other reasons, is more predominant in rural and urban-marginal schools than in urban schools, according to principals and assistant principals. Absenteeism among teachers is also frequently a problem. Interviews with 12 teachers revealed a variety of reasons for poor attendance: They had to spend one or two days obtaining a license or transfer papers; they had to travel in order to meet family obligations; they were ill. Although this group did not cite distance between their home and school as an excuse, it frequently is a problem also.

Checking teacher attendance is difficult. Many principals rely on traditional methods of signing in. In at least one urban school, teacher attendance is clocked. The general consensus of principals is that they are fortunate to have teachers present in classrooms at all since they must travel such long distances to school. In two rural areas where teachers were not in class, students were waiting outside for the teachers to show up.

Amid the traffic noises in the center of the city, this demonstration (guia tecnica) class meets in an old, dilapidated building. The young, lively teacher is preparing her 26 first-grade students (13 girls and 13 boys) for the introduction of the new textbook by using the reading-readiness manual. She commands the students' attention and announces the activity of the morning: to make a boat from a cut-and-paste exercise like the one she has drawn on the blackboard. The classroom is so congested with desks that there is hardly any aisle space. The teacher removes sheets with boat parts, scissors, glue, and paper from a corner cabinet and personally distributes scissors and paper to all students. She asks students to get their own glue. This process, intended to draw upon students' motor abilities, takes more than 15 minutes. The directions for the activity are fuzzy, nor does the teacher walk the children through them to ensure that they have understood. Two children to the front of the class accomplish their task on their own and by watching their neighbors. Two to the back take longer yet work individually. One child to the front, whom I later learn is somewhat "slow," takes the entire period to cut out the figures. He appears passive, looks out the window for over 20 minutes, is easily distracted, and works totally alone. He finally cuts the figures roughly and looks over his neighbor's shoulder to see how to complete the task. The teacher does not focus on him during the entire lesson: She attends instead primarily to one-half the class. By the time the rest of the children are handing in their assignments, the child is still attempting to figure out how to glue each piece.

### 3. Inadequate Classroom Management

Even when teachers and students are present in the classroom, learning opportunities are often reduced because of teachers' inefficient use of time and space and ineffective teaching methodologies.

Use of Time. Although bells are rung and teachers know they must allocate a specific amount of time to specific subject areas, much latitude exists in adhering to schedules. Inefficient classroom procedures contribute to poor use of time. In a class of 40 minutes, for example, it is not uncommon for a teacher to spend 10-15 minutes distributing textbooks and dealing with interruptions. That leaves 25-30 minutes for academic endeavors.

Use of Space. Observations indicate that teachers are not skilled in using classroom space to advantage, although experienced teachers tend to be more innovative than inexperienced ones. The inexperienced teachers observed -- those with fewer than three years of teaching -- arranged students in straight rows to one side of the room, leaving large sections of the room unused. In some instances, aisles were impassable, given the seating pattern and the size and weight of the desks. The experienced teachers observed tended to use more creative arrangements, small-group clusters, and U-shaped formations, for example.

Opportunity for Learning. A variety of factors appears to affect children's ability to learn, including teaching methodology, opportunities for children to demonstrate knowledge, feedback, homework assignments, and cultural needs. For the most part, instruction in all six schools followed traditional methods: review, development of new theme by teacher, question and answer, recitation, exposition of some sort by students -- oral or blackboard -- written assignment or homework, and roll call. The sequence of

exposition and recitation, followed by copying of questions or taking dictation, minimized opportunities for students to develop critical thinking abilities. More than 80 percent of the class activities were directed by teachers; there were no student-initiated activities. Teachers talked 70 percent of the 40-minute class time. Student demonstration of knowledge was reduced basically to the remaining 30 percent. Students answered the teachers' "riddle" questions in chorus: "This is what we call this...." One teacher used the word "antiphonal" to describe the response he expected. In general, the responses tended to be single words. Teachers often did not allow enough time between questions and answers. In fact, they often answered their own questions.

Feedback by the teacher to individual students tended to be arbitrary and inconsistent. At times, at the teacher's encouragement, students were acknowledged and praised, even applauded by the entire class; at other times, they were totally ignored. In one case, students were punished and chastised publicly by being made to stand and be ridiculed by the teacher.

Teachers corrected student spelling mistakes on the blackboard rather than have the students make the corrections. One teacher misspelled several words and also missed some misspelled ones, which the students then copied as written. Even when copying correctly spelled words from the board, students from first to sixth grade at times misspelled them, did not keep margins, and did not separate words properly. They were not corrected by the teacher.

Teachers gave equal time to whole-group instruction and seatwork, although whole-group instruction is more conducive to academic achievement than routine seatwork. The reason for this is that routine seatwork does not permit the teacher to cover as much material as he or she does in whole-group instruction, does not involve all the children in questions and answers and other active learning, and does not allow the teacher to reinforce learning effectively.

In two cases, homework assignments, which research has indicated correlate with academic achievement, appeared to be too demanding for the lesson given. In one instance, first graders were asked to answer 12 different questions overnight as part of the assignment. In the other case, sixth-grade students were asked to complete homework in five different assignments demanding different levels of competency. Often homework assignments were not clearly explained and lacked direction.

In short, learning tended to be fragmented in scope and memoristic.

#### **4. Scarce and Inappropriate Instructional Materials**

Instructional materials other than the new texts are seldom seen. Display materials — posters, cutouts, photographs — if they exist at all, are outdated or inappropriate. One set of charts was at least 30 years old and irrelevant to the curriculum. In one multigrade school, the image of a blond family — mother, father, and two children — was entirely out of place. In another school, the teacher supplied magazine cutouts of Princess Caroline of Monaco and her husband as the ideal family model for children to aspire to.

Even when textbooks exist, learning is not necessarily enhanced since the texts are often used inappropriately. Certain inconsistencies in their use are apparent:

- First-year texts are used for second, third, and fourth grade students, a result partially of the fact that, as of this writing, only the first

grade texts had been distributed. (In June 1989, second grade texts were also distributed.)

- Language arts texts are used more frequently than other texts.
- In some cases, teachers use the language text with the students throughout the lesson; in other cases, the texts remain on the teacher's desk until the latter part of the lesson, when they are distributed.

Despite the inconsistencies, all teachers agreed that they needed the support provided by the books, although they felt that the textbook alone was insufficient. More experienced teachers indicated that they used texts in addition to other materials and activities they had created. Obviously, textbooks are needed but further thought must continue to be given to their most effective use. Such an impressive set of books may overwhelm teachers or frighten them about departing from the text material. Ministry officials and trainers must continue to seek feedback from teachers about how they use and apply the knowledge gained from the books. Such feedback will continue to provide valuable information about how to introduce texts into the classroom and how to design future texts.

#### 5. Insensitivity to Non-school Influences

In addition to school factors discussed above, the teaching-learning context is also influenced by non-school factors, including cultural background, home influences and nutritional status. The national curriculum and teaching methodologies do not necessarily take children's cultural needs into consideration. Dividing schools into categories of rural or urban and treating students as members of a homogeneous group who all learn the same way and at the same speed do not reflect reality. For instance, there are urban schools that have marginal populations, rural schools that share urban characteristics in their proximity to the capital, rural schools near the border, demonstration schools supposedly experimental in nature, but in fact like other schools, multigrade schools that are unique in themselves, and nuclear schools which are clusters of schools within one community. Unless these many factors are taken into consideration, learning opportunities for the children involved will be diminished. Reflection of their culture, especially for children of a different color, was not evident in the textbooks and in the expressions and attitudes reflected by some of the teachers. One textbook, for example, approved by the Ministry of Education, has questionable cultural implications. Ten little Black boys disappear one by one. When questioned about the story, the teacher indicated little awareness of its ethnic implications and pointed out that the two Black children in the school are fairly treated.

Students from rural areas are considered "disadvantaged" and poor students thought to have learning "deficits." Such perceptions lead teachers to assume that some students cannot learn, transfer a sense of lowered expectations to the children, and set in motion a self-fulfilling prophecy of failure. Similar misperceptions are applied to parents. The belief that parents are not involved in education and therefore do not support their children's learning is widespread. Poverty, single parenthood, and two working-parent homes were offered as explanations for poor student performance in school. While some teachers help "disadvantaged" students by being more empathetic and caring, others take the opposite approach, believing that the school is not responsible for solving such problems.

Teachers frequently do not build on the educational base children bring from

home. They do not capitalize on skills acquired before children come to school -- knowing how to count beans, for example -- or values they acquired within the home. They often do not see the importance of continuity between the two environments and the role it can play in the learning process. In Honduras, it is believed that teachers who live in the community and know its members can have a positive effect on student learning by enlisting parental support and thereby involving parents directly in their children's education and continuing the link between home and school.

Basic nutrition and health can be a forceful determinate of achievement. In Honduras, well over 65 percent of pre-school children five years of age and younger are seriously malnourished and are 40 percent below their ideal weight. Many have brain damage. Among the school-age population, many first graders are closer in size to pre-school children than to those in their age group elsewhere. The poor nutrition that results in low weight also contributes to inattentiveness in class and absences due to illness. Low energy levels in poorly nourished children may be one factor contributing to the lack of discipline problems in Honduran schools. (The good classroom discipline may also result from the planned recess and exercises that allow children to vent their energy positively. Fear of public chastisement may be another factor.)

### C. ISSUES

The major issues within the area of instructional processes in Honduran education are these:

1. The norm is "directed" teaching, that is, instruction directed by a national curriculum that is teacher-centered not child-centered, and that assumes that there is one teacher per grade. In this setting, children become passive learners and initiate few, if any, learning activities. The assumption is that since learning is the same for all children, instruction, therefore, should be dictated by a national curriculum and textbooks, and that what is done in a multi-level schoolroom is like what is done when there is one teacher per class.
2. Curriculum reforms are not being implemented. Curriculum policies are not being implemented as instructional practices. For example, in the classrooms observed, there was little evidence of an "active and creative education" as stipulated in the curriculum program. (See Annex 2.) The cause of this problem may be, in part, the lack of coordination between training programs for supervisors on the one hand and curriculum implementation on the other. It may also be due, in part, to the length of time and type of effort necessary to "institutionalize" curriculum reform from pilot phase, to presidential approval, and finally to changes in the instructional behavior of teachers. It could also result from the lack of resources available to teachers; in most classes they do not have even the curriculum guides.
3. No adequate system exists for measuring educational outputs. Educators need to know with what knowledge students enter school and with what knowledge they leave. A set of basic competencies is necessary for such educational measurement and has been developed through the Primary Education Efficiency Project. However, at the time of this writing, no tests had been developed to evaluate what students should know when they leave school nor had the officials

begun to think in terms of the specific outputs desired from the primary school program.

#### D. RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are made, capitalizing upon the Honduran government's present commitments to coverage -- including the building and maintenance of schools -- quality of education, curriculum development, and research, and its concomitant emphasis on the first three grades of primary education where retention, repetition and dropouts are high. If implemented, these recommendations would address, in an interdependent way, the three issues identified above.

1. Introduce multigrade teaching practices by providing adequate self-instruction materials for children, by training teachers in multigrade practices, and by providing necessary furniture and other equipment to organize multigrade classrooms. These actions will result in students being more active in the class, spending more time engaged on a task, and in learning at a pace that is right for them.
2. Revitalize teacher education and expand inservice training (in accordance with government policy toward teacher training):
  - Complement the training by pairing experienced teachers with inexperienced teachers. Use the experience to adjust materials used in the teacher-training sessions.
  - Train teachers, administrators, and parents to go beyond the materials presented in textbooks, i.e., expand the use of distance education, radio education, newsprint efforts such as the newspaper published by AVANCE (an A.I.D.-supported private voluntary organization), El Agricultor, and the teacher training materials, Accion Educativa.
  - Train teachers in classroom management -- in the improved use of space and time. When teachers manage time and space efficiently, they can maintain order and attend to learning. This is particularly true for multigrade schools where space and timing are critical for serving the different levels.
  - Train teachers to use appropriate levels of questions, whole-group versus seatwork groupings, and pacing and sequencing of activities.
  - Ensure that policies are clear and inform the teacher about what is to be learned within the classroom. Much of the training should be in field settings with pre- and post-reflection sessions about what was observed and learned.
  - Introduce cultural-awareness courses within the teacher education programs in order to sensitize teachers to urban/rural and ethnic differences so that they will adjust their teaching to classroom and community realities.
  - Focus on teacher evaluation -- How are new teachers evaluated?

With what frequency? There need to be links between evaluation, merit pay, promotion, and the development of teacher-made instructional materials.

3. **Enhance instructional materials:**

- Develop workbooks for student use at home in order to create a bridge between the school and home. If workbooks can replace the copying from blackboards with student-initiated work, and parents are also aware of the need to participate, a greater understanding of family responsibility for learning can be developed.
- Restructure texts for multigrade teaching. Develop self-learning modules appropriate to student developmental levels. Train older students to teach others. Peer-teaching and pairing are cost-effective ways to use student knowledge.
- Elicit feedback from teachers about textbooks. Incorporate their recommendations in future texts.
- Create manuals preparing teachers for the introduction of textbooks similar to the reading-readiness manual.

4. **Develop with teachers the minimum learning objectives for graduates from primary school:**

- Use a wide range of schools and students to validate these objectives.
- Once validated, provide every teacher in every school with a set of these objectives so that they will know to what their efforts must be directed.
- Develop tests to measure the attainment of these objectives, and publish the results by departments.

5. **Revitalize the nuclearization programs for rural and marginal areas:**

The concept of clustering schools to build supportive school networks is useful particularly where schools are at great distances from one another. In these programs, communities study educational issues relating to them and provide solutions to problems. Since the outlying areas receive little or no direct support for their schools from the centralized government and since supervisors are overtaxed in providing assistance, engendering community participation is one way to guarantee that teaching-learning is occurring. Programs that focus on gathering data about the community ethnic and linguistic traditions can generate much helpful community interest.

6. **Conduct research on teacher absenteeism, student absenteeism, especially for health-related reasons, nutritional status of children and its relationship to learning, the impact of inservice teacher**

training, relationships of curriculum to actual evaluation measures such as the minimum learning objective (rendimientos basicos), and the grade-level tests based on current operations of the multigrade school.

**MULTIGRADE PRIMARY SCHOOLS AND  
SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS**

**CHAPTER VI**

## Introduction

This chapter assesses multigrade schools in relation to the finding that although most of the primary teachers teach multigrade classes the system has been geared to the needs of single grade teachers. It analyzes many aspects of the problems of multigrade classes and makes recommendations which involve not only changes in the school itself but in the relationships between school and community. Data for the chapter came from observations of rural and urban schools; interviews with teachers, parents, and Ministry of Education officials; and review of Ministry of Education and USAID documents.

### A. PROBLEMS

#### I. Administrative Insensitivity

The system neglects the needs of multigrade teachers (87 percent) and caters to the needs of single-grade teachers (13 percent). Because so little assistance is given to multigrade teachers, their teaching burden is considerable. The double-session system imposed on them is one example of the problem they face at the administrative level.

The Organic Education Law (Ley Organica de Educacion) is conceived for schools with single-grade teachers. It prescribes a three-period morning session and a two-period afternoon session of 40 minutes per period, from Monday to Friday. On Saturday, a single session of two periods is to be offered in the morning. Double sessions allow single-grade teachers to devote greater attention to students and subjects during the expanded teaching day because class size is reduced. This, however, is not the case for multigrade teachers. In a one-teacher school, for example, one instructor teaches six grades, if the school is complete. Whereas single-grade teachers devote 40 minutes to each subject, multigrade teachers have only 6.7 minutes available per course if they wish to teach all six grades the required material. Their option is to neglect some subjects entirely or to teach all of them very superficially.

The requirements for student evaluation are also designed for single-grade schools and thus present another problem at the administrative level. Rather than facilitating the work of multigrade teachers, the regulations impose additional burdens on them. A case in point is the set of requirements for bimonthly grades under the system of Controlled Evaluation and Promotion. For every child a teacher must obtain a minimum of six grades in each achievement area. If, during the first bimonthly period, there are 10 achievement areas -- each area requiring six grades -- each child will have 60 grades. A teacher with 50 students, therefore, must obtain 3,000 grades every two months. When additional grades for personality are added, student evaluation becomes a quantitative rather than a qualitative exercise for the teacher.

The poor condition of school buildings and furniture, particularly of multigrade schools in rural areas, further demoralizes teachers. The situation is compounded by insufficient space or poor use of it. It is not uncommon, for example, to see children of different grades in one classroom crowded together around a blackboard where the "teaching" occurs while other available classroom space goes unused.

In a single-teacher school, not only must the teacher attend to the classroom, he or she must also serve as school director. To these responsibilities are also added the responsibility for interacting with the community. When these responsibilities combine with all the others and when teaching conditions are unfavorable, both teachers and children suffer.

**EXHIBIT VI-I  
PRIMARY SCHOOL DEMOGRAPHICS  
HONDURAS**

<u>AREA</u>	<u>TEACHERS</u>	<u>% OF TOTAL TCIRS</u>	<u>NO. OF SCHOOLS</u>	<u>% of SCHOOLS</u>	<u>TCHRS:SCHOOL</u>	<u>CHILDREN</u>	<u>% of TOTAL CHILDREN</u>
Rural	14,880	62	6,424	88	2.3:1	550,560	61.2
Urban	4,170	38	876	12	10.4:1	349,440	38.8
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>24,000</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>7,300</b>	<b>100</b>		<b>900,000</b>	<b>100.0</b>
					(1989 Projection)		

(From 1988 Memorandum, General Administration for Primary Education)

50.

## **2. Ineffective Classroom Practices**

The problems of multigrade schools are apparent when one considers classroom practices. The problems are demonstrated chiefly through repetitious instruction, unwarranted promotion to a higher grade, inadequate attention to the social-affective development of the child, and insufficient time for remediation.

Although the average student-teacher ratio is 37 or 38:1, in rural schools it can be as high as 60:1, with the 60 students at several grade levels within the same classroom. Under the circumstances, there is no assurance that the teacher will offer continuous, focused attention to each grade. On the contrary, multigrade teachers tend to teach the same materials to all their students, oblivious to their grade levels. Thus third grade children in a multigrade classroom containing the first three grades receive the same instruction as the first and second grade children -- and are most likely hearing the instruction for the third time, having heard it the preceding two years in the same classroom. A similar situation exists for the second grade children. In effect, then, children in second and third grade become "repeaters" who have progressed to a higher grade numerically but not academically, that is, they are not being exposed to the academic content and activities appropriate to their levels. They are grouped in a room with entering first graders, with those repeating first grade, and with those repeating second. The situation is even worse in multigrade classes containing upper grades as well, where the detrimental effects of such a system on educational quality and student motivation to remain in school are apparent. According to 1982 statistics, of 1,000 students who enter first grade in rural areas, only 190 complete sixth grade, or approximately 19 percent. In an attempt to avoid exposing upper-grade students to repetitious instruction, some multigrade teachers assign the students independent activities, but they tend to be little more than penmanship exercises in which the children transfer sections of the textbook to their notebooks, with little intellectual activity involved.

Given the situation, the traditional concept of grade repetition in Honduras must be revised when multigrade classrooms are involved. In such classrooms, all children become repeaters -- those who fail as well as those who progress to the next grade.

The promotion system is problematic for additional reasons. Teachers, working under serious pedagogical constraints, know they must show favorable retention and pass rates. They thus promote children who have not mastered the subject matter and do not have the prerequisites necessary for the higher grade. As a result, the primary school system runs the risk of promoting children who will evidence low academic achievement in subsequent grades or functionally illiterate children in the sixth grade.

In other cases, on the recommendation of parents and even teachers themselves, children who have attained the minimum qualifications are made to repeat the grade. Although in 1987 the Ministry of Education established a system of controlled evaluation and promotion for the primary level, its practical application requires further review lest promotion and evaluation be controlled by forces other than those intended.

The multigrade school also adversely affects the social-affective development of the child and exacerbates the lack of similar development outside of school caused by large distances between families. Because of the burdens placed on teachers in multigrade classrooms, little opportunity is available for them to foster working relationships with their students whether individually or through group projects. Such relationships are necessary if the learning process is to be most effective.

The remediation period provided for students under the system of controlled evaluation and promotion is also problematic. It is very difficult for a student to recover in 15 days, the remedial period allowed, what he or she has not learned during the year. It is more difficult still if this remediation is provided at the beginning of the following year, when teachers and students alike are adjusting to the new school year. Teachers, particularly, have too many other issues competing for their attention at this time: enrollment, classroom arrangement, class preparation, and community organization.

### 3. Inadequate Curriculum Materials

At the curriculum level, not only are the problems of multigrade schools apparent in classroom practices, they are also apparent in curriculum materials, particularly in teachers' guides, basic achievement lists, and textbooks. The primary curriculum was designed with little attention to multigrade teachers whose chief focus must necessarily be instruction in reading, writing, and basic mathematics. They have little time to devote to other subject areas, which progressively tend to disappear from the classroom. The areas neglected are considerable, as a look at the 1967 curriculum plan, still in effect, demonstrates. It consists of the following major areas:

- Health education
- Intellectual education, including Spanish, mathematics, natural science, and social studies
- Aesthetic education
- Technical education
- Guidance

In addition to problems such an extensive curriculum presents for multigrade teachers, teaching guides also pose difficulties. Some teachers use them; more do not because supplies were exhausted in certain areas years ago. Those who do not have guides must rely on notebooks of colleagues or of prior students, or on guides provided commercially. When guides are available, they are over 20 years old, although some more recent editions are being used unofficially. Their assistance, however, is limited: the target audience again is the single-grade teacher.

Textbooks, too, appear to be produced exclusively for single-grade teachers and neglect the needs of multigrade teachers, though the textbook production being implemented by the current USAID project is the best decision yet for primary schools. As part of the plan, texts are being produced which correspond to a set of basic competencies that the Center for Teacher Training established in 1988. These competencies for all six primary grades in Spanish, mathematics, social studies, and natural sciences allow teachers to focus attention on each grade and subject, and indicate what children must master in the process. Accompanying teachers' guides are being developed. (At present, this procedure is being followed for the first three grades. Texts have been published for first and second grades; third-grade texts are in production.) There is no problem with the basic competencies themselves; the problem is once again the burden imposed on teachers trying to teach to the competencies in multigrade classrooms.

If the texts and basic competencies are to benefit multigrade teachers, that is, those working in 88 percent of the schools, those training teachers in textbook use must consider textbook content and function as well as the proposed teaching methodologies. If 10 subjects, some requiring multiple texts, must be taught to each grade, and teachers have one guide for each subject and grade, the task of teaching becomes difficult, if not impossible, for multigrade teachers. The solution would be to design books for children's

self-paced instruction as has been done successfully in Mexico, Colombia, and Argentina.

No matter how good the texts and how active the teachers, unless the texts are accompanied by an appropriate multigrade teaching manual and self-instructional materials for the children, a problem will still remain, particularly in multigrade classrooms containing all six grades. Some strides are being made in this area. A draft version of a multigrade teaching manual now exists (although it was not available for review). It emphasizes the importance of independent work by the children and the teaching of related, complementary, and common topics.

#### 4. Inadequate Inservice Training

Despite the fact that 95 percent of the teaching force hold degrees from professional schools or programs, most have had little or no inservice training -- some for as long as 15 or 20 years. The need for upgrading in content and methodology, therefore, is great. Training is available now through the Center for Teacher Training in the use of the new texts. Through the "multiplier-effect," or "trickle-down," model, training is provided at three levels: national/MOE, district/supervisory, and local/school.

Unless sufficient attention is given to training all teachers -- multigrade, single-grade, substitutes -- in the use of textbooks, problems will continue to be widespread. Although one example is not proof that problems in the use of texts are common to all substitute teachers, or that all substitute teachers are inadequately prepared, the following anecdote is probably more the norm than the exception. In one school, a substitute teacher who was being licensed was using only one textbook, transcribing it onto the blackboard so the children could copy it into their notebooks. The exercise was pointless: The children had texts available to them in the classroom.

### B. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN COMMUNITY AND SCHOOL

The world of the school cannot be removed from the world of the community. It is fundamental for any teacher, multigrade or single-grade, especially in the rural areas, to have solid community support. In this way, the community is supportive of the teacher, and the school becomes the cultural center of the community. Compared to urban communities, rural communities tend to know their teachers better and know more about what is happening in the schools. Although there is a positive attitude toward the school and the teacher in rural communities, more needs to be done to foster the relationship. Parents' associations meet, but infrequently and often probably only because the meetings are mandated by law. According to Honduran law, the parents' association is to be organized at the beginning of the school year and should meet at least every two months to determine the activities to be conducted jointly by the community and the school. In many cases, the meetings go no further than establishing the board and passing resolutions in order to comply with the minimum legal requirements. One particular example demonstrates the problem -- as well as part of the solution. On a Thursday morning, 30 parents met in the community of Escuela Rural Mixta Jose Trinidad Rujes, El Cerro Aldea, Yamaranquina municipality, to elect the board of directors for the parents' association. According to the minutes, the last meeting had been held in August of the previous year, not a month or two earlier. The parents, it seems, were meeting simply to comply with part of the law. But 30 parents were a good representation on a weekday, and they were part of the community that had built the school, repaired it when repairs were necessary, and donated a large piece of land for the schoolyard. These positive qualities could be drawn upon to make the participation of parents more effective and impressive.

In addition to the community, the school itself is often part of the problem. Many times the school engages the community only to donate land, construct or repair the school, fix the furniture, provide funds, or deliver certificates or grades. At one time, "Civic Saturdays," an activity established by the Organic Education Law, helped to bridge the gap between school and community by promoting civil activities that link children, community, and school. However, for one reason or another, Saturday sessions have lost their impetus, and many schools no longer implement them. The November 2, 1987, issue of Accion Educativa, a pamphlet used for teacher training, acknowledged the problems existing between school and community in an article entitled "The School-Community Relationship," and suggested some solutions. The solutions were directed at teachers and cited ways they could foster good relations between the community and the school. The suggestions included living in the community; visiting homes frequently; participating in patron saint festivals; organizing sports teams, housewives' clubs, and youth organizations; organizing fund-raising activities; assisting parents in vaccination campaigns; organizing literacy centers. Recommendations relating to the classroom included remaining in school during working hours; planning daily tasks; maintaining good relations with other teachers and students; and fulfilling the general regulations for primary education.

Although teachers cannot be community organizers, they can help strengthen relationships between community and school. A teacher's most important activity, however, occurs in the classroom. The most significant service a school can offer the community is to produce a good product, that is, to produce educated students. The relationship, therefore, of teachers to students, and their approach to pedagogical resources, school organization, and methodology are of paramount importance. These factors relate to production of good students. When the community sees that its children are being well-educated, it will be inclined to trust the school and become involved in its activities beyond providing labor.

### **C. RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **1. General**

Allow multigrade teachers and classroom schedules to be flexible.

Encourage teachers to use all areas possible in the learning process -- the classroom, the schoolyard, the community, the home.

#### **2. Administration**

Establish a supervisory council composed of representatives from the departmental and school-district levels to provide technical assistance to every multigrade school.

Organize a network of multigrade demonstration schools, at least one school per department, to serve as the locus for teacher training in the multigrade strategy and to allow other schools to observe multigrade teaching techniques. Ensure that demonstration schools have adequate physical space and one to three instructors who teach the six grades.

At the demonstration schools, organize pedagogical orientation workshops of 10 to 15 teachers each on the subject of multigrade schools.

At each demonstration school, organize a school council ("Self-governing

council," "school government," "student council," etc. are equally appropriate names) composed of all the children of the school who will participate in its administration. Encourage children to collaborate with the teachers in activities such as decorating, cleaning, organizing the library; organizing the school yard; practicing care in handling and organizing textbooks; arranging recreation; and organizing competitions.

### 3. Curriculum

Determine parental expectations of the school, the teacher, and the program. Adapt curriculum to the characteristics and needs of the community. Include curricular topics such as health, nutrition, cultural development, and community organization.

Use the present curriculum programs; devising new ones is not recommended since earlier attempts to do so have not succeeded.

Reprint current curriculum programs since many teachers are unclear about which program they are working with. As an alternative to reprinting the programs, publish a pamphlet that covers the basic achievements required for the instructional materials being produced by the Center for Teacher Training.

Produce modules for teachers that will focus on the content of the curriculum programs. As an alternative, modify the focus of the teachers' guide to stress content rather than classroom process.

Pursue pedagogical strategies that will complement curricular activities in multigrade schools. Develop the strategies in a self-instructional manual for teachers that would become the basis for training multigrade teachers. The manual might cover the following topics:

- The active school
- The community and the school
- Adaptation of self-instructional texts and others to the needs of children and the community
- Organization of school boards and student councils
- Didactic materials and media resources useful for class development
- Group dynamics and useful instructional methods in the classroom
- Better use of classroom space and furniture
- Use of flexible schedules adapted to the progress of the children and the needs of the community
- Controlled evaluation and promotion
- Organization of a reference library

**A suggested process for the development of this manual is as follows:**

- **Select a group of experts: four curriculum experts, four teacher training experts, four supervision experts, and four multigrade teachers.**
- **Observe in multigrade schools, and record all characteristics observed.**
- **Send four to six experts from the group to other countries for one or two weeks to observe multigrade systems, the experiences of which have been analyzed and codified.**
- **Convene a workshop of 16 experts who, guided by a special consultant, design and program the training manual for multigrade teachers.**
- **Evaluate the manual in one or two workshops with groups of teachers. Revise it as necessary.**
- **Begin training based on the manual, as described in the training section below.**
- **Analyze the new texts for effectiveness in relation to multigrade schools since what works for single-grade teachers is not necessarily what works for multigrade teachers.**
- **Produce self-paced and self-instructional texts for grades four, five, and six (since texts have already been developed for the first three grades) to relieve the instructional burden of multigrade teachers.**
- **When the present texts are due to be reprinted, develop self-instructional texts for grades two and three.**
- **Consider the following alternatives for the production of new texts or instructional materials:**
  - **Develop guides for the present texts.**
  - **Develop guides and support them with workbooks.**
  - **Develop self-instructional cards, supported by workbooks, that guide the child in the learning process.**
- **Consider broadening the use of interactive radio to include additional content areas and an increased target audience, including upper primary students and teachers. Consider radio for motivational and community-action programs.**

#### **4. Training**

**To conduct training in multigrade techniques by means of the self-instructional manual, use the training strategy employed by the Center for**

**Teacher Training for use of the new textbooks. A suggested process is as follows:**

- Employ representatives of the Center for Teacher Training who collaborated on development of the manual to train 18 departmental supervisors.
- Use the trained supervisors to conduct workshops for teachers at 18 schools of one to three instructors who teach the six grades in a rural area near the headquarters of the department.
- Once the training has been completed, schedule an intensive implementation period for these schools.
- Train auxiliary supervisory personnel in the multigrade strategy. At the same time, observe the demonstration school implementing the multigrade strategy.
- Train teachers in rural multigrade schools, beginning with those schools with one to three instructors teaching several grades.
- Unify the treatment of rural schools in general, ensuring that the training, manuals, and materials produced for multigrade schools are used in all rural schools.

**Training in multigrade techniques may include the following types of workshops:**

- A five-day workshop in school organization techniques. Cover such topics as the active school, the school and the community, didactic materials, and the organization of school and student councils.
- Three months later, convene a five-day workshop on adaptation of multigrade texts. Cover such topics as the adaptation of self-instructional and other texts to the needs of the child and the community; use of various instructional methods and group dynamics in the classroom; use of flexible schedules adapted to the progress of the children and the needs of the community.

After attending each of these workshops, teachers will return to their schools and apply what they have learned. Supervision experts and representatives of the Center for Teacher Training will provide advice and assistance.

#### **5. Community**

It is not feasible or appropriate to assign sole responsibility for community development to the school. The process of developing a productive relationship between school and community is more complicated than that. The following recommendations suggest ways in which the school may help stimulate the process of community development in relation to the school.

- Gather information about subjects of interest to the community -- health, housing, finances, culture, recreation, population. Have them

serve as research subjects for teachers and students.

- Encourage parents to become agents for change and development in the schools through active parents' associations.
- Encourage formation of committees that serve the mutual needs of the school and community, committees such as health, education, or sports, to cite only a few.
- Assign extracurricular activities that allow children to apply in the community what they have learned in school.
- Include topics related to the community in the textbooks.
- Assist children in developing a sense of social/community responsibility through the use of classroom techniques that contribute to social-affective development. Encourage active teaching methods, small-group work, and independent and one-on-one work to help children associate with and relate to their classmates and to the community.
- Complement school work with civic activities, especially Civic Saturdays. Reinstitute Civic Saturdays in communities that have abandoned the observance.
- Establish school organizations such as the Student Council (or "School Council" or "School Government") that will carry out community projects in order to prepare children for later participating in community organizations.
- Set aside a room, preferably in the school or, if not, in a place close to it, for use by the student council. If a room is not available, encourage the student council to build one.
- Establish at the school an archives, or center of information, in which important community data are collected and preserved. Include areas such as population, production, cultural and recreational information, sketches of the community, agricultural calendars, family cards, and monographs.

**TEACHER TRAINING AND STAFF DEVELOPMENT**  
**CHAPTER VII**

## **Introduction**

This chapter analyzes preservice and inservice teacher training in Honduras. It reviews the institutions that produce primary school teachers, the policies and programs that guide the institutions, the issues and problems surrounding teacher training, and the constraints to achieving teacher training objectives. Finally, it offers recommendations for improving the system.

### **A. PRESERVICE TEACHER TRAINING**

#### **I. Present Situation**

All but a few of the 24,000 primary school teachers in service are graduates of the 12 normal schools in Honduras. Normal school education, which follows six years of primary school and three years of secondary school (ciclo comun), consists of three years of training, thereby producing graduates with a 12-year education. The Ministry of Education, through its Department of Normal and Artistic Schools, defines program norms and curriculum for the normal schools, based on the precepts of the Organic Law of Education and other educational laws and policies. The program is further defined by the government "profile" of the ideal teacher: He or she should demonstrate good human relations, judgment, creativity, intellectual development, organization, professional ethics, good mental and physical health, and awareness of national identity. A review of available literature and discussion with normal school officials confirm that program policy guidelines are clearly articulated and responsibilities are generally understood.

The curriculum, or study plan (plan de estudios), in use in normal schools was first put into practice in 1973. Recognizing a need to incorporate more current teaching practice, methodology, and course content into it, the MOE Department of Normal Schools began to revise the curriculum in 1985. The revision was conducted by work groups including MOE personnel, school supervisors, normal school teachers and directors, primary school teachers, and representatives of Francisco Morazan, the four-year postsecondary school that prepares high school teachers, school administrators, and school supervisors.

Completed in 1987, the revised curriculum has two general objectives: (1) prepare normal school graduates (new primary-school teachers) for productive work; and (2) improve efficiency in the classroom. It is substantially different from the previous curriculum: It emphasizes practice rather than theory and provides normal school students with experience in primary classrooms at an earlier stage of training than it did previously.

Implementation of the revised study plan began with the class entering the program in 1988 which is now following the revised second-year curriculum. The revision for the third and final year will be introduced in 1990. Therefore, the first graduates of the new revised curriculum will be the graduating class of 1990. To prepare normal school teachers and staff for transition to the revised curriculum, the Department of Normal Schools planned a series of workshops, three of which were conducted in 1987. Of the three planned for 1988, only one was conducted because of budget constraints. Three more are planned for 1989, but the budget required to implement them has not yet been approved.

The 12 normal schools will graduate more than 3,000 students in 1989; only slightly more than 1,100 of them (500 new positions and 600 replacement positions) will

be absorbed into the present system. (Between 1983 and 1988, there were 18,817 normal school graduates and only 9,900 teaching positions available.) Although not all the graduates from 1983-1988 who have not entered the teaching force wish to do so, many do. Thus, a cursory review indicates that a sizeable reservoir of normal school graduates is available to fill positions resulting from provision for increased access at the primary school level, should that occur.

Normal schools lack close interaction with primary schools within their zones of influence. While in-class observations and practice teaching occur in applied schools and collaborating schools, that seems to be the extent of systematic interaction between normal schools and the neighboring primary schools.

## **2. Problems and Constraints**

### **a. Inadequate budget allocation**

Budget constraints have limited the efforts to modernize the study program at normal schools despite the fact that revision is necessary. Nonetheless, an opportunity now exists for the MOE to make an impact on a major development in preservice education by supporting implementation of the revised curriculum. It appears that no long-term budget implications for the MOE would result from the short-term investment needed to put the revised curriculum in place.

### **b. Low internal efficiency**

It has been suggested that not all the normal schools were established in response to educational objectives; several arose in response to political initiatives. If external financing for normal schools is considered, their number and purpose will most likely become a policy issue. Each year the normal schools graduate a significantly larger number of teachers than the primary school system can absorb. Even if the system could absorb them, a high percentage of students attending normal schools do not intend to enter the teaching profession. At the normal school in Danli, for example, school authorities estimated that only 80-90 of this year's class of 432 graduates, or approximately 20 percent, have strong intentions to seek employment as primary school teachers. Elsewhere, many graduates seem to view the normal school as a source of general education. Although the teacher-student ratio in normal schools is high, the limited demand for graduates erodes the internal efficiency such a favorable ratio implies.

### **c. Unqualified teachers**

Graduates of normal schools complete 12 years of schooling and, therefore, have completed the prerequisites for employment as primary teachers. Although the process for acquiring an appointment is defined and is understood by candidates for employment, it is presumably influenced by political interventions or other considerations that may have little to do with quality. Thus, primary schools may be staffed with unqualified or underqualified teachers while the qualified ones are unemployed.

**d. Inadequate facilities and instructional materials**

There is general agreement, and site visits confirm the fact, that facilities and instructional materials at normal schools range from poor to modest, a situation that inhibits improvement of preservice teacher training. In fact, it calls into question the feasibility of implementing a more relevant curriculum or the impact such a curriculum would have on educational quality. Large financial investments would be necessary to improve the present facilities and instructional materials, but such investment would be difficult to justify since the majority of the graduates of these schools are not employed in the teaching profession. Improvements could be considered under a general secondary school improvement project which would address the problems of normal schools after reviewing the supply/demand and quality issues of all secondary-level institutions.

**e. Inattention to requirements of the teaching environment**

Urban, marginal, rural, and multigrade schools call for different teaching methodologies. Normal school training, however, does not prepare graduates for the different environments in which they may teach. For example, although the majority of rural schools are multigrade, normal schools offer only one course that addresses the multigrade environment. And the course emphasizes theory, not practice.

**f. Lack of instructional quality**

Three areas of preservice teacher training are inadequate and need attention if improved instructional quality is to result: (1) Content background. Stronger background is necessary to prepare future teachers for the paucity of instructional materials and for the challenges of multigrade schools to which they may be assigned. (2) Instructional materials development. Skills in development of instructional materials are needed. Although new textbooks are being developed for primary schools, it will be some time before they are completed and distributed to all the classrooms. Therefore, future teachers need to be able to develop other teaching materials to substitute for textbooks and later to supplement the texts once they have been distributed to all classes. (3) Classroom management. Normal schools do not prepare students adequately to manage their classrooms. At least minimal training in this area is essential.

**B. INSERVICE TEACHER TRAINING**

**1. Present situation**

Improving educational efficiency and quality requires not only a solid preservice training program but also continued training through inservice programs once teachers are on the job. The policies and development strategies established by the Ministry of Education for 1986-1990 make such training all the more essential since, in almost every case, they focus directly or indirectly on teachers. Among the MOE priorities for reducing the problems of primary schooling are the following:

- **Increased attainment by students of their educational level.**
- **Improved quality of educational services through provision of instructional materials and inservice training of teachers.**
- **An improved curriculum that includes basic skills to increase chances for later employment and to improve the quality of life.**
- **Research to ensure that education is scientific and "pedagogical."**

Responsibility for inservice teacher training falls to supervisors within the MOE Office of the Director General of Primary Education. The supervisory system is capable of reaching all departments, districts, and primary schools in Honduras. It consists of seven national supervisors, 18 department supervisors, and 205 district-level auxiliary supervisors who report to the department supervisors.

In 1982, the Government created the Center for Teacher Training (Centro de Actualizacion del Magisterio - CAM) as the implementation unit of the supervisory system to accelerate inservice teacher training. Funding is provided by the U.S. Agency for International Development. The CAM is a technical unit, responsible to the Director General of Primary Education. Its principal objective is to "provide inservice training that contributes to the improvement of the quality of education in primary schools of the country." The CAM is staffed by a director, support administrators, and 33 technical personnel who implement the inservice program, in conjunction with the department- and district-level supervisors. Thus, CAM is a "transparency" laid over a traditional supervisory system, one function of which is teacher training (See Exhibit VII-1).

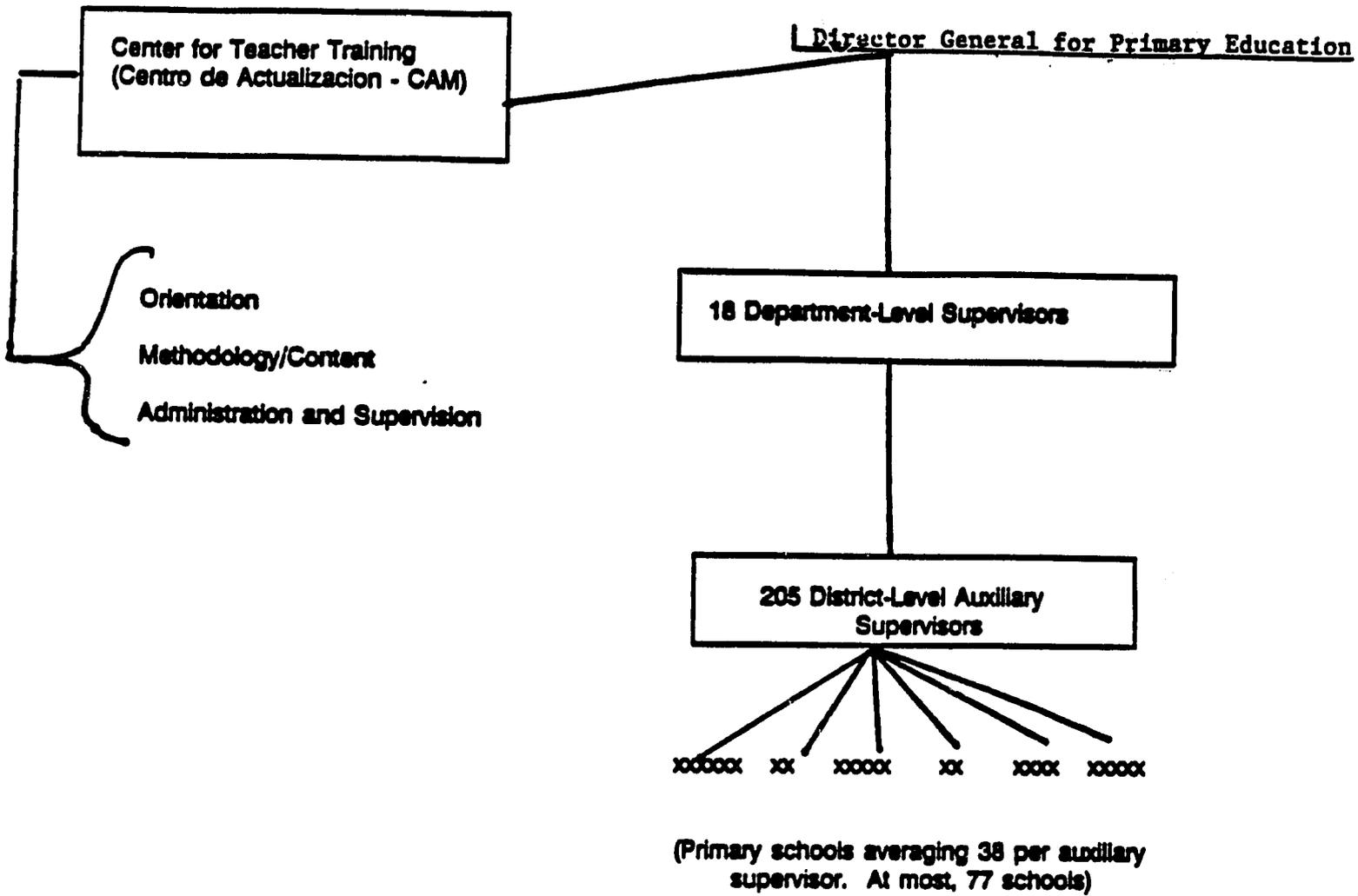
The CAM employs the multiplier-effect, or "trickle-down," model for training as follows:

- Level one - national: 42 trainers, primarily experts from the Ministry of Education.
- Level two - departmental and auxiliary supervisors, outstanding teachers: 702 trainers selected from the members of pedagogical training services in each district, departmental supervisors, normal school professors, and outstanding teachers.
- Level three - teachers: teachers throughout the country (for example, over 8,000 were trained in the use of first grade texts).

The inservice training program under CAM can be thought of as an exceptional intervention because of the extraordinary external funding currently available. Exceptional results and short-term upgrading of instructional quality should, therefore, be expected. The CAM program has well-defined annual and multi-year objectives and strategies that guide its activities. During its seven-year existence, the CAM has carried out an impressive number of inservice activities. Additional resources from A.I.D. in 1987 heightened the priority of inservice training, increased the expected level of its impact, and enlarged the potential range of its annual output. Annex 4 summarizes inservice activities implemented through the CAM from June 1987 through April 1989.

For the remainder of 1989, the CAM will provide inservice training for first-grade teachers in mathematics, Spanish, natural science, and social science. It will provide

EXHIBIT VII-1  
IN-SERVICE TEACHER TRAINING  
ORGANIZATION



training for all second-grade teachers in the use of the new textbooks for the same subjects and will continue the training and follow-up with first- and second-grade teachers on content covered in previous years. Finally, it will sponsor activities to improve the teaching skills of teachers in multigrade classrooms. It is apparent, therefore, that Honduras has the infrastructure in place to implement an inservice training program for the 23,433 primary school teachers currently in service. The staff and technicians of the CAM have received special training both in the United States and locally.

## **2. Problems and Constraints**

### **a. Lack of evaluation**

The impact of the teacher training effort has not been thoroughly documented, and field observations and a review of documents were insufficient to provide scientific proof that the quality of classroom instruction has improved as a result. The inability to demonstrate clearly the results of inservice interventions may result from the methodologies used to establish the objectives and content of the programs.

### **b. Need to focus training program on textbooks**

Because textbooks are the single most important determinant of quality improvements, the content of the training program has been geared toward introducing the new primary school textbooks. As they become available for distribution, inservice training introduces teachers to the books and their accompanying guides. Once this phase is completed, CAM plans to derive the content and methodology of the inservice program from ongoing analyses of the realities, problems, and constraints of classroom instruction. CAM staff are aware that teachers should participate actively in the process and assist trainers in analyzing teacher skills, motivation level, and understanding of the learning process, as well as the constraints that limit classroom productivity. Changing teacher behavior requires that teachers be directly involved in planning the change.

### **c. Little contact with teachers**

Inservice teacher-training personnel interact too infrequently with teachers in the classroom for any meaningful, cumulative effect to result. Increasing the number of contacts in the traditional manner would require additional resources, and the government budget is already inadequate to cover more urgent needs. Auxiliary supervisors are overburdened; some are responsible for as many as 70 schools and for activities other than inservice training. Furthermore, the distance and wide geographical distribution of the schools in rugged terrain make unrealistic the expectation of frequent visits. Given the sporadic contact with teachers in the classroom despite the exceptional external funding currently available, it is difficult to be optimistic that the anticipated instructional quality will result.

### **d. Traditional training programs**

Inservice training relies too heavily on the traditional delivery patterns. The use of new technologies — at least, radio education and distance learning — should be considered. Radio can diminish the topographical constraints that restrict access to teachers.

e. Lack of institutionalization

There is some concern that the CAM inservice program will not be institutionalized as a part of the supervisory-inservice training infrastructure of the MOE. Attention must be given to the long-term cost implications of the CAM program for the MOE budget.

C. RECOMMENDATIONS

1. **Preservice training**

Allocate budget funds for putting the revised normal school curriculum in place. Involve in this activity the normal school directors, relevant staff, and, most importantly, coordinators of the three grade levels of the schools. Also, assist normal schools in providing the general secondary school curriculum to those students who will not become teachers.

Given the current circumstances of greater teacher supply than demand, ensure that the very best normal school graduates are employed.

Link teacher preparation to the realities of the primary school, that is, to the realities of urban, marginal, rural, and multigrade schools. Modify the normal school curriculum to include courses in methodologies appropriate for each type of school.

Determine the interest of the Ministry of Public Education in committing resources and institutional support for the use of radio and other technologies in teacher training.

Include discussions in the preservice programs of the effect of health and nutrition on learning. Ensure that primary schools incorporate such discussions into their courses.

2. **Inservice training**

With teachers and school directors, carefully study the teaching-learning environment to help define the content of the inservice program. Establish the classroom as the laboratory for determining the kind and frequency of primary inservice programs.

Review existing research on the use of radio and distance learning in inservice training programs as a prerequisite to initiating the use of radio for teacher training.

Consider providing inservice training by radio, given its potential for increasing the frequency of contact with teachers and for extending the range of coverage.

**Determine the interest of the MOE in committing resources and institutional support for the use of radio and other technologies in teacher training.**

**Include discussions in the inservice programs of the effect of health and nutrition on learning. Ensure that primary schools incorporate such discussions into their courses.**

**EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION**

**CHAPTER VIII**

## **Introduction**

This chapter analyzes several aspects of the administrative structure of the primary education system in Honduras. These are presented in the order of their priority over the teaching-learning process in the classroom: school and classroom organization; supervision, that is, administration of teaching personnel; current structure of the Ministry of Education; and the goals of nuclearization, that is, decentralizing administration to the local level.

### **A. ADMINISTRATION: CLASSROOMS**

School and classroom organization is directly related to educational improvement. In this regard, one must acknowledge two realities in the Honduran educational system: (1) many children in rural areas attend multigrade schools; and (2) many school-age children cannot enroll in school or must drop out long before completing the six grades of primary education.

#### **1. Multigrade Schools**

Traditionally, it has been assumed that schools of only one or two classrooms and one or two teachers were the result of economic restrictions imposed on the educational system. That may not be the case, however. There may be too few students in certain areas to justify the six-grade, six-teacher school. Further study of school-age populations is needed to determine if that is so. If it is, it could be useful to establish a multigrade curriculum and methodology. (See Chapter IV on multigrade schools.)

#### **2. Low Retention Rate**

For a cohort of students who enroll in grade one at the same time, in urban areas, the number of students who graduate on time is 28 percent; in rural areas, it is 19 percent. The causes of the problem are both internal and external. On the one hand, within the educational system there is a lack of teachers and schools. In many cases, the curriculum is irrelevant to the children's socioeconomic and cultural backgrounds. On the other hand, economic constraints outside of the system -- that is, the poverty of the population -- require that children be at home, assisting the family financially or physically.

In order to reach children who have dropped out of school before reaching the upper grades and to assist teachers who teach those grades, educational authorities should explore the possibility of implementing a distance educational system that uses self-instructional texts and educational radio programs. Four issues relating to such a program must be carefully considered:

1. The feasibility of producing new self-instructional materials and radio programs;
2. The feasibility of establishing a distribution network for the program materials (the present system of supervisors might be tapped);
3. The feasibility of offering tutoring by teachers on Saturdays; and
4. The feasibility of designing an external testing program in order

to certify qualifications for secondary school.

The issues should be addressed by evaluating similar pedagogical and administrative experiences in other countries.

## **B. ADMINISTRATION: TEACHERS**

Three functions relating to teacher supervision are currently assigned to supervisors in Honduras: (1) administration of teaching personnel; (2) control of teacher attendance in schools; and (3) pedagogical supervision.

The Supervision Manual, developed by officials of the Education Secretariat together with a group of supervisors, clearly describes the administrative role of supervisors but it lacks clarity on the other two functions. Little is said about mechanisms for dealing with teacher attendance or about pedagogical support.

### **1. Administration of Teaching Personnel**

In the educational sector in Latin America, the administration of the operating budget usually means the administration of the budget for the payment of teachers, teaching supervisors, and upper-level administrators. In Honduras, personnel administration itself is known as "Personnel Actions," or the procedures for hiring, transferring, and dismissing personnel, and approving licenses, special permissions, and exchanges.

The procedures for personnel actions range from the school director to the President of the Republic in a long and overly centralized and inefficient process. Mayors have no decision-making power over the teachers in their municipalities. Neither do departmental supervisors, who must wait for their initiatives to be approved at the national level. In practice, this means that teachers do not have immediate supervisors who possess all the powers necessary for efficient personnel management.

At present, the school director initiates all personnel actions, and brings them to the attention of the auxiliary supervisor who passes them to the departmental supervisor. The departmental supervisor formally processes them with the General Administration for Primary Education, which has the greatest responsibility and decision-making authority over any request. The General Administration for Primary Education sends the personnel action to the Teaching Personnel and Payroll Office, which is responsible for verifying that the requirements and conditions for processing the order are met, pursuant to the Payroll Law and the records or work histories of the teachers. This office sends the personnel action to the attention of the Minister of Education through the Chief Clerk, which is the office responsible for preparing the documents for signature by the Minister of Education. It is also responsible for sending the personnel actions to the Office of the President for the President's signature. These steps include further internal procedures, extending the whole process to a total of 23 steps. Exhibit VIII-1 shows the procedure for processing personnel actions.

Excessive centralization and the lack of responsible delegation in the middle and lower levels reduce the time high-level officials have to perform tasks appropriate to their position and make lesser officials less effective than they could be. The Ministry becomes a giant personnel office, with little time to manage educational policy and programs. Departmental supervision becomes inefficient because supervisors have limited authority. The General Administration for Primary Education must direct most of its efforts to personnel administration, instead of to technical and qualitative

**EXHIBIT VIII-1**  
**PROCEDURE FOR PERSONNEL ACTION**

**National  
Executive  
Level**

President of the Republic



Minister of Education



Chief Clerk



Teaching Personnel  
and Payroll Office



General Administration  
for Primary Education



Departmental  
Supervisor



Auxiliary  
Supervisor



School Director

**Regional  
Level**

management of educational services. And finally, the Minister of Education and the President are directly involved in tasks inappropriate to their rank.

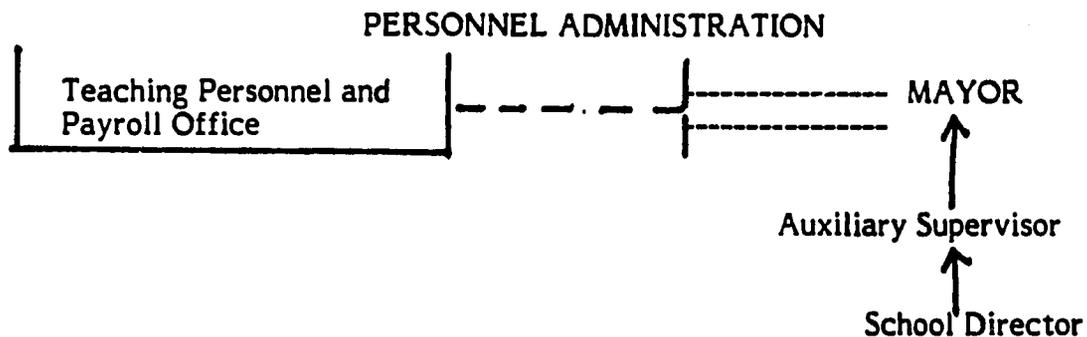
One positive aspect of this centralized procedure is the control it provides over the budget allocated to teacher salaries. It helps prevent hiring teachers that the budget cannot afford and ensures adequate and timely attention to payment of their salaries. Despite this advantage of centralization, personnel administration should be decentralized.

A radical alternative. The budget for teacher salaries would continue to be the responsibility of the national level, but personnel administration would be decentralized to the mayors. They would be responsible for such actions as hiring, transferring, dismissing, and licensing teaching personnel. Legal reform would be required to implement this plan since the President now has the sole authority to appoint teaching personnel. It would also be necessary to authorize annually, by administrative decree, the teaching personnel positions available for each municipality and the budget allocated to it.

Since all personnel actions have an impact on payroll costs, an information system would have to be designed through which each personnel action initiated by the mayor is reported to the Personnel and Payroll office of the Ministry so that the latter can change the payroll.

This plan has the advantage of bringing personnel administration closer to the teachers and the communities. Its disadvantage is the mayors' lack of experience with personnel actions. Therefore, a training program for them would be necessary. In addition, a role for auxiliary supervisors as consultants to the mayors would have to be defined.

This arrangement would look like the following graphic:



Second alternative. As in the preceding alternative, financing of teaching personnel would be centralized at the national level. The functions of departmental supervisors would be strengthened; they would be assigned responsibility for personnel actions that are not appointments or dismissals. Responsibility for appointments and dismissals would be delegated to the Ministry of Education rather than to the President.

Exhibit VIII-2 depicts this arrangement.

**EXHIBIT VIII-2**  
**PROCEDURES FOR PERSONNEL ACTIONS**

**National  
Ministry  
Level**

Minister of Education

Appointments  
and  
Dismissals

Chief Clerk

Teaching Personnel  
and Payroll Office

General Administration  
for Primary Education

**Regional  
Level**

Departmental  
Supervisor

Licenses, Permits  
Exchanges, Transfers

Auxiliary  
Supervisor

School Director

## **2. Control of Teacher Attendance**

Teachers are frequently absent from or late to work. This problem was mentioned in interviews and observed on site visits, although there is no documentation of it. Some documentation would be the beginning of a solution to the problem.

When the school is small, with one or two teachers, it is normally located in a remote rural region. The one or two people responsible for the school find themselves with no daily or visible administrative control. Teachers are thus absent with no consequences and, in addition, they have to make long trips to take care of such needs as purchasing goods, visiting the doctor, or picking up their paychecks, thus augmenting the absenteeism problem.

The control mechanism for teacher attendance is auxiliary supervisors who must visit an average of 35 remote schools, too many to allow them to be effective. There is also no effective action they can take when teachers are absent. All recommendations relating to teachers' work and salaries must be raised to the level of departmental supervision, which in turn sends them to the Ministry of Education and its General Administration for Primary Education in a process which takes much time.

It would perhaps be better to look for control outside the system. External control exercised by those who are directly affected by the absence or irregular hours of the teacher should be established, that is, by parents.

The Parents' Associations provided for in educational legislation could exercise this function if adequately supervised. The problem is that the Parents' Associations would have to be established in reality. They are currently inoperative, possibly for several reasons: First, they are assigned too many functions without a realistic appreciation of the capacities of their members, and without providing them real power in the situations they face; second, members do not receive adequate training, which could be provided through a simple manual; and finally, it is not clear whom they should go to if a problem arises.

A precise definition of what is needed from the associations regarding teacher attendance and punctuality is the first step which should be taken. This responsibility can be given to departmental supervisors and auxiliary mayors in each municipality. (This presupposes the prior training of the auxiliary mayors.) The model would function very efficiently if the administration of personnel actions were the responsibility of the mayor.

The design of the system would be the responsibility of the departmental supervisors, supported by the Supervision Section of the Ministry of Education. The first step would be a meeting of departmental supervisors with the Supervision Section to define training for the Parents' Associations, the role of auxiliary mayors, and responsibilities of regional supervisors in relation to auxiliary mayors. Possibly, some special administrative decree would have to be issued. Training manuals for the associations would have to be produced, explaining how to perform evaluations and to which agencies irregularities should be reported.

The fact that personnel administration continues to be centralized can detract from the motivation for this work, but the suggested procedure would have valuable results for linkage between the community and the school, and for the connection between the mayor's office and the educational system.

### **3. Pedagogical Supervision**

Teachers lack pedagogical supervision because the principal task of departmental and auxiliary supervisors consists of performing administrative duties. In fact, supervisors are chosen for their administrative capabilities. They are responsible for initiating requests to hire, transfer, exchange, or dismiss teachers; for initiating teacher recruitment, and for licenses and special permissions. They also issue efficiency certifications to teachers, organize and maintain current internal efficiency statistics, and maintain contact with the official paymaster of the Treasury Secretariat. Given the number of administrative functions, supervisors have little time for pedagogical advice.

As a result, teachers do not receive as much support as necessary to reflect on the teaching process. Their only support is from the training courses they receive through CAM which address only certain areas in the teaching-learning process in the classroom. In reality, this appears to be the trend: Ongoing training is replacing the concept of the supervisor as the pedagogical evaluator.

To compensate for the lack of support, it is recommended that a system of distance pedagogical evaluation be implemented. Coordination and design of the materials (as well as production and distribution) could be assigned to the Supervision Section and to CAM. These materials should offer a description of real classroom situations, based on input from teachers; stress classroom management; and provide concrete solutions to problems. Practicums based on real classroom situations should be offered. It is important to stress the participatory nature of the process. Teachers must be very much involved, along with school directors and other educational authorities up to the national level. The good experience of the MOE with the UNESCO course and materials for training administrators, planners, and supervisors should be examined.

In order to carry out such a distance supervision project, it is necessary to begin by defining which MOE section should be responsible for implementing it. Once decided upon, the section would receive adequate training in gathering materials suggested by teachers and in the design of self-instructional materials. As part of the design stages, the following questions would be answered: How should the materials be distributed? How often? Who should follow up on the process? What role should the school director play as immediate administrator of the materials? How should teachers' meetings be encouraged for group study of the materials?

### **C. ADMINISTRATION: INVESTMENT PLANNING**

There are three problems associated with investment planning and administration: First, the Ministry of Education lacks a strong planning body to manage the planning process centrally; second, implementation of investment is the responsibility of a national body outside the MOE; and third, the concentration of executive power at the national level totally excludes municipalities.

#### **1. Lack of Central Planning**

Administration of the investment budget entails different agencies which carry out different activities, including needs assessments; budget programming; implementation, including writing proposals and contracts; monitoring; and control of delivery of services. Needs assessments are not coordinated centrally within the MOE Planning Administration nor does the MOE Data Processing Unit manage the information the assessments generate. For example, the Textbook Unit, outside of the MOE, conducts some needs assessments and bases its findings on information reported by the

**Pedagogy Department.** The Center for Teacher Training assesses training needs. (In this case, coordination does occur -- with the Textbook Unit.) The General Construction Administration assesses needs for school construction and repairs of classrooms and furniture. Departmental supervisors do not participate in needs assessments.

The lack of institutionalized procedures for needs assessments results from the lack of a strong national investment budget. The present budget exists only as a result of international cooperation. As a result, budget planning is not coordinated centrally in the Planning Administration; international agencies have assumed the planning functions, to a certain extent. They have strengthened individual units (for example, the General Construction Administration and CAM) but have had no real impact on the Planning Administration or on the local process. Although the Planning Administration receives the annual budgets of other administrations, the budgets have not been compared to needs assessments, and thus the Planning Administration cannot adequately evaluate and control them.

To offset the lack of institutionalized processes in investment planning, the World Bank created a nuclearization model several years ago. The model involves local agencies in assessing and monitoring educational investment processes. The World Bank also created the Foreign Cooperation Coordination Unit, an agency of the MOE, for planning, programming, and monitoring units for international agencies.

### Recommendations

The following recommendations are offered in regard to the present investment planning system:

- Define roles to be played by the Planning Administration (such as coordination and information centralization), the Primary Education Administration, the General Construction Administration, the Learning Resources Department, and the departmental supervisors.
- Define unified formats for the process. Not only should the agencies mentioned above participate, the Data Processing Unit should also participate in managing the information.
- Link information generated by MOE budgetary planning with information generated by international donor agencies.
- Clarify functions of the Planning Administration and the Foreign Cooperation Coordinating Unit. Determine who will be responsible for coordinating needs assessments and monitoring budget programming.
- Determine the feasibility of decentralizing budgetary implementation by analyzing the process now implemented by the National Purchasing Administration. Determine MOE capability to assume the operations.

### **2. Implementation outside of the MOE**

No central agency exists within the MOE to monitor implementation of the investment budget. Activities such as requests for proposals and contracting are the responsibilities of the General Purchasing Administration and the President, respectively. Within the Purchasing Administration, the highly centralized approach to

managing acquisitions for all governmental bodies adversely affects the work pace for those agencies, especially the General Construction Administration. The situation is further exacerbated by the fact that only the President of the Republic can sign purchasing contracts on behalf of the government.

### **3. Exclusion of Municipalities**

Concentration of power at the national level excludes municipalities from the process of investment planning and administration.<sup>7/</sup> This lack of municipal involvement is part of a tradition of centralization of public-sector management common to several Latin American countries. The municipality has had little authority to manage its own budget for large sums. Municipalities, therefore, have had little experience in budget implementation. Under the circumstances, the possibility is limited for transfer of resources from the national budget to the municipal budget to enable municipalities to conduct their own purchasing and contracting. Steps should be taken so that budgetary implementation now carried out by the General Construction Administration should be decentralized to the municipalities. Needs assessments would still be carried out by the School Construction Administration; those assessments and budgetary programming would generate specifications for projects the municipalities would carry out. Training for municipalities would be necessary to enable them to carry out their new functions.

### **D. NUCLEARIZATION AS A METHOD TO IMPROVE ADMINISTRATION**

Nuclearization has five fundamental goals: (1) serve as a decentralization strategy for the schools by locating administrative services and controls closer to them; (2) provide a strategy for six grades of instruction in a tiered form: a central school would be organized as a resource center for 10 to 15 smaller schools; the former would offer the entire six grades, and the latter would offer only several grades; (3) give nucleus directors, who are also the directors of the principal schools, the responsibility for linking the school with the community through specific projects; (4) assign nucleus directors the responsibility of microplanning, training them to perform needs assessments and to design programs; and (5) improve supervision through the use of nucleus directors.

To implement the nuclearization system, World Bank Project 777-Ho designed the nuclearization structure of 40 nuclei schools with 550 rural primary schools in eight departments. The design consisted of a network of nucleus directors who would also be school directors, responsible for developing the central school and satellite school plan, providing services and administrative controls for the teachers, developing projects to link the school with the community, and strengthening the supervision of schools in their areas.

The ultimate goal was to increase the quality of education, improve the real linkage between the school and the community, and improve the administration and organization of the information on supplies requirements (teachers, classrooms,

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<sup>7/</sup> A reader from the mission commented, "Municipalities used to be responsible for the schools, and in fact they have retained some (unclear) responsibility for school grounds and maintenance. But outside of Tegucigalpa and San Pedro Sula, they have not been given the right to raise revenues on a consistent basis, nor the authority to spend without prior approval from central ministries. They are dependent on transfers from the central government awarded according to deficits and political pull."

furniture, etc.) for the provision of educational services. These accomplishments would lead to an improvement in internal efficiency with lower repetition and dropout rates.

However, nuclearization in general is not working. The main reason is that it is expensive, and Honduras does not now have and will not have in the near future additional funding for this purpose. As a case in point, the nuclearization structure provides a 40 percent salary increase for nuclear directors and a 30 percent increase for teachers. Without these additional bonuses it is unlikely that the system could hire the kinds of nucleus directors required and reward teachers for the additional tasks (for example, more contacts with the community).

In addition, nuclearization does not work because the leadership qualities required of nucleus directors are difficult to find within the educational system. When leadership exists, as is the case in the Department of Valle, management improves without requiring a nuclear system.

## ANNEXES

**ANNEX I**  
**ORGANIZATIONAL CHART OF THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION**



**ANNEX 2**  
**EDUCATIONAL LAWS AND PROGRAMS**

## **Educational Laws and Programs**

Four levels of laws, regulations, and programs serve as the basis for primary education in Honduras: the Constitution, the education laws (leyes Educativas del Estado), their accompanying regulations (Reglamentos), and the curriculum program (Programa de Estudios a Nivel de Primaria).

The first level of laws is that of the Constitution (1982). Approved by Congress, the Constitution states that education is a special function of the state to conserve, develop, and spread culture in order to project, without discrimination, the benefits of education throughout the society. The state organizes and supervises free public education at all levels. It also supervises and regulates private education. Primary education is compulsory.

The second level is that of the education laws which, like the Constitution, are approved by Congress. For primary education, there are two major education laws: the organic law of education (Ley Organica de Educacion, 1966) and the teacher law (Ley del Escalafon del Magisterio, 1988). The organic law sets forth the basic democratic, national, scientific, and social principles that guide teaching and learning in Honduras. It states that primary education aims to develop good habits, including those of health and hygiene, stimulate scientific thinking, prepare students to work and to contribute to the economic and social development of the country, promote family and civic values, stimulate the ability to appreciate aesthetic values, and cultivate spiritual and moral feelings.

The teacher law sets forth the legal structure which governs all personnel actions for supervisors, principals, and teachers through their careers. It defines rights and responsibilities, and states basis for salary schedules, the system for promotion, retention, and tenure, as well as transfers and disciplinary measures. It classifies teachers according to five categories relating to their academic preparation, teaching experience, professional improvement, activities, publications, and supervisory activities.

The third level is that of the regulations which provide the structure for implementing the laws. Unlike the Constitution and the education laws, the regulations require approval only of the President, not Congress, in order to be effective. (This difference in the approval process gives the regulations a flexibility that the other documents do not have.)

The regulation for primary education (Reglamento General de Educacion Primaria, 1967) states the goals of primary education, the organization of the Department of Primary Education, the basis for personnel selection, and the responsibilities for officials, supervisors, principals and teachers. The regulations are quite specific. For instance, supervisors' duties include visits to classrooms, interviews, demonstrations classes, teacher meetings, conferences, and information updates through bulletins, circulars, and workshops. Supervisors are responsible for "fighting against absenteeism, dropouts and for the punctuality of teachers." Teachers are prohibited from requesting "expensive uniforms, contributions and school materials which influence dropout, nor can they make distinctions between the students' social classes."

The regulation defines the geographic region, department, municipality, town, and village division in terms of provision of educational services, and specifies four kilometers as the distance at which schools can be built from each other in villages and towns. It classifies schools according to number of grades and number of students as follows:

- 1st class:** Complete schools (all six grades) with more than 350 students
- 2nd class:** Complete schools with more than 150 and fewer than 350 students
- 3rd class:** Complete schools with more than 60 and fewer than 150 students
- 4th class:** Complete schools with fewer than 60 students, and all incomplete schools, including those with more than 60 students.

Other categories of schools are described: demonstration schools (escuelas de guia tecnica y de ensayos), border schools (bordering Guatemala, El Salvador, and Nicaragua), schools in Indian communities, and nuclear school (cluster schools within a supportive educational network, with a strong emphasis on community outreach).

The regulation defines the age for compulsory school attendance (6 1/2 through 13 years), the rights, responsibilities, and disciplinary actions of and for students, a general plan of studies, and a basis for student evaluation. The plan of studies divides the subject matter into four main areas: health education, including sports; intellectual education, including Spanish, mathematics, science, and social studies; arts, including drawing and music; and technical training, including industrial arts for the boys and domestic skills for the girls.

The fourth level of laws and regulations is that of the curriculum program (Programa de Estudios a Nivel de Primaria, 1967). Like the regulations, the program requires the approval of the President to be effective. The program stipulates an active and creative education with global possibilities adaptable to regional areas. It aims to be practical in nature, enabling students to adapt to the local context and to respect individual differences. It spells out the material to be covered in each subject area -- health, Spanish, mathematics, science, social studies, art, music, and the industrial arts.

Approved in 1967, the program has continued to be used as the standardized curriculum for both urban and rural schools despite criticism from both within and without the Ministry that the national program is memoristic, traditional, and irrelevant. In 1982, the Rural Primary Education Project, with USAID financing, proposed a reform curriculum for the first three grades based on areas of study -- work, communication, man and nature -- instead of subject matter. Although it was not officially approved, the reform curriculum has provided valuable ideas for the current programs of inservice teacher training, now financed in part through the Primary Education Efficiency Project, the current USAID project.

**ANNEX 3**  
**STUDY PLAN FOR PRIMARY EDUCATION**

**STUDY PLAN FOR PRIMARY EDUCATION  
1984**

(Weekly Periods)

Grados/Grades	1°	2°	3°	4°	5°	6°	%
<b>Materias/Subject</b>							
1. Health Education (Gymnasium, games, sports, hygiene, athletics, first aid, nutrition)	3	3	3	3	3	3	10,0
2. Intellectual Education							
(a) Spanish (writing, reading, prosody, analogy, syntax, orthography, literary appreciation)	5	5	5	5	5	5	16,8
(b) Mathematics (arithmetic & geometry)	4	4	4	4	4	4	13,3
(c) Natural Sciences (botany, zoology, physics, chemistry, biology, geology, anatomy, physiology, hygiene)	4	4	4	4	4	4	13,3
(d) Special Studies (geography & history, civic education & moral education)	4	4	4	4	4	4	13,3
3. Aesthetic Education (calligraphy, drawing & ornamentation, music & songs)	3	3	3	3	3	3	10,0
4. Technical Education							
(a) industrial arts (boys)	4	4	4	4	4	4	13,3
(b) home economics (girls)	-	-	-	-	-	-	
(c) agricultural activities	3	3	3	3	3	3	10,0
5. Orientation	-	-	-	-	1	1	
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>100,0</b>

(Source: Ministry of Public Education)

**ANNEX 4**

**CATEGORIES OF ADJUSTMENTS TO TEACHERS' BASE SALARIES**

## **Categories of Adjustments to Teachers' Base Salaries**

**Zonaje**, or an adjustment given to compensate teachers for working in less desirable communities. This consists of 35 percent of the base salary for regular teachers and the ones assigned to Islas de la Bahia. The corresponding adjustment for Gracias a Dios is 50 percent. The "Zonaje" adjustment is now given to all teachers, regardless of location. This was decided recently as a way to improve teacher salaries across the board without affecting base salaries. The decision has, therefore, eliminated the corresponding incentive or compensatory mechanism. In 1987, 1988, and 1989 lump-sum increases of L. 55 per month were implemented for all teachers.

**Frontera** is an adjustment for teachers assigned to remote border areas and represents an increase of 25 percent over the base salary. Teachers who work in border areas in Gracias a Dios get their 50 percent of "zonaje" plus this adjustment.

**Quiquenio** consists of a 15 percent increase over the corresponding base salary every five years of working in the system. Rural teachers get the adjustment every three years. The adjustments are not automatic; the teachers must apply at the time they qualify. This seems to add an unnecessary bureaucratic requirement to the system.

**Categoria Escalafonaria** is a series of adjustments that any teacher can receive for merit, especially additional training. There are three merit categories, each representing a 5 percent adjustment on the base.

There is another adjustment factor according to level of responsibility of the teacher. Principals of model, pilot, or experimental schools receive a 50 percent adjustment. Lower levels of responsibility get adjustments ranging between 20 and 40 percent.

**ANNEX 5**

**SELECTED ACCOMPLISHMENTS OF THE  
CENTER FOR TEACHER TRAINING**

**1987 -1989**

**Selected Accomplishments of the  
Center for Teacher Training  
1987 - 1989**

1. Development of tests for measuring first-grade competencies in mathematics, Spanish, natural science, and social science.
2. Training of 24,434 elementary teachers throughout the county through 893 workshops in the following areas:
  - Teaching/Learning Process
  - Educational Evaluation
  - Educational Statistics
  - Student Environment
  - Productive Projects
  - Interactive Radio
  - School-Community Relations
3. Training of 8,748 first-grade teachers in the preparation period through 437 workshops.
4. Training of 8,748 first-grade teachers through 437 workshops on the use of student textbooks (done in two phases).
5. Definition of basic competencies for grades 4-6 in Spanish, natural science, and social science. Provision of them to the textbook component for editing the texts.
6. Supervision and tracking of teachers receiving training in the use of texts and teachers' guides.
7. Investigation of training needs for first-grade teachers.
8. Development of multigrade technical manuals (in first draft).
9. Redevelopment of a manual for the preparation period.
10. Testing of student competencies in grades 1-3.
11. Validation of first- and second-grade texts.
12. Development and production of No. 5 Education Action review, in coordination with second-grade teachers.
13. Development of documents on distance training for inservice teachers.

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