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# **Economic and Sector Study Series**

## **SURINAME**

### **EDUCATION SECTOR STUDY**

February 1998

BAHAMAS  
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**REGION 3**

**Inter-American Development Bank**



# **SURINAME**

## **EDUCATION SECTOR STUDY**

**February 1998**

This study gives a broad overview of the structure of Suriname's education sector and analyzes its performance and efficiency. In particular, the study contrasts the enormous quantity of resources devoted to education with the meager benefits obtained. It also presents the most comprehensive array of data on Suriname's education sector currently available, to our knowledge. The study disputes the widely-held notion that the severe problems in the sector result from a lack of resources. Instead, it argues that the underlying problem is that resources are not used well because of fundamental deficiencies in the institutional and incentive structure in the education system. This implies that until those deficiencies are addressed, additional resources for the sector will largely be wasted. Conversely, even without additional resources, undertaking the sort of reforms proposed by the study could lead to a vastly enhanced education sector performance.

The study was prepared by Dougal Martin, Country Economist for Suriname in RE3/OD6, and Claudia Piras, social sector consultant in OCE, on the basis of a background study prepared by David Chapman (consultant - Academy for Educational Development) and Marie Levens (consultant). Dougal Martin and Beverly Jones, Senior Vice-President at the Academy for Educational Development, supervised the background study. Michelle Fryer, Education Specialist in RE3/SO3, assisted with the terms of reference and commented on the background study. The authors kindly acknowledge the assistance of numerous government officials, of the Country Office staff, and especially of Mr. Carlo Badal, Lecturer in Statistics at the University of Suriname and, until May 1995, Director of the Statistics Office of the MOECD; Mr. Goedschalk, formerly the Director of Budget at the MOECD (retired); Mr. I. Sno, Director of the General Bureau of Statistics; Mrs. L. Monsels, Director of the National Planning Office; and Mrs. Mohamedradja, Director of the Office of Examinations and Test Development in the MOECD. Ivania Rivas (RE3) and Dolly Alvarez (RE3/OD6) contributed to the production of the final document.

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**Regional Operations Department 3**  
**Country Division 6**



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## Acronyms

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EBO	Elementary Vocational
HAVO	Senior Secondary Vocational Stream (translated as Pre-University College II)
HBO	Higher Vocational Education
LBGO	Junior Secondary General Vocational
LNO	Vocational Home Economics
LTO	Junior Secondary Technical
MEAO	Commercial College
MOECD	Ministry of Education and Community Development
MPW	Ministry of Public Works
MULO	General Junior Secondary Education
NATIN	Technical College
NPO	National Planning Office
OAS	Organization of American States
PA	Teacher Training College
PTA	Parent-Teacher Associations
TTC	Teacher Training Colleges
VBO	Special Education
VWO	Senior Secondary Academic Stream (translated as Pre-University College I)

# Executive Summary

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This report is part of the Inter-American Development Bank's economic and sector work program and is designed to support the Bank's operational program in Suriname and to contribute to the debate on important development issues facing Suriname.

The education sector in Suriname is facing severe challenges and, in general, its performance is weak. There is a general perception that the education sector's problems result from a lack of resources, and that simply increasing the level of resources directed at the sector will solve the problems. This study disputes both of those notions. Suriname already devotes a greater share of national resources to education than any other country in the Latin American and Caribbean Region. Education absorbs 5 percent of GDP and 30 percent of the government's workforce.

The education system of Suriname comprises pre-school, primary, junior secondary, senior secondary, vocational and tertiary schooling. Upon entry into junior secondary education, students are assigned to one of six streams depending on their sixth grade examination results. Students in the most prestigious stream, general junior secondary, take an examination at the end of grade 10, which determines their assignment into six more streams at the senior secondary level. Tertiary education comprises the University of Suriname and a higher vocational education program, which offers advanced programs in 21 areas.

The education system is highly centralized and is coordinated, managed and regulated by the Ministry of Education and Community Development (MOECD). The MOECD rather than district governments is responsible for the provision of education throughout the country. The MOECD is also the dominant financier of education services. There is little tradition of parental involvement in schools.

The education sector absorbs a considerable share of national resources. Between 1993 and 1996, government expenditure on education amounted to 5 percent of GDP. The sector's absorption of human resources is even greater. Total direct and indirect employment by the MOECD is equivalent to 30 percent of total government employment and 12.5 percent of the country's workforce.

Nevertheless, the apparent strength of inputs to the sector is nullified by an unbalanced allocation between inputs and several factors that reduce the ostensibly strong teacher input: absenteeism, the poor quality and training of many teachers, and low motivation. It is estimated that around 50 percent of teachers are "ghosts" who do not attend work.

The education sector has achieved notable success in ensuring widespread access to basic education. However, the number of well qualified graduates produced by the education system is low. This under-achievement is linked to extremely high drop out and repetition rates, poor quality instruction, lack of educational materials and deteriorated school buildings. Among the students who do graduate, some, particularly those with technical-vocational training, have skills that are only

marginally useful to employers. The system, therefore, poorly equips students with skills with which they can earn a living. Nor does the system provide employers with a skilled, highly productive workforce.

The government is in the process of formulating a full plan for educational development. A committee has been appointed to review the education portion of the national multi-year development plan (1993-98) and prepare a new plan.

The major international donors to education in Suriname are the Governments of the Netherlands and Belgium. The major focus of Dutch support has been instructional materials and supplies at the primary level -- particularly in the interior, the development of apprenticeship programs in vocational/technical education, and support for higher education, both for strengthening the University of Suriname and for scholarships for students to study abroad.

The deficiencies in the education system exist despite the generous amount of financial and human resources devoted to the system. The contradiction between resource inputs stems from three immediate problems: misallocation of resources, inefficiencies and waste, and weak teaching capacity. However, these problems are symptoms of more fundamental deficiencies in the institutional structure of the education sector, which are common to many countries in the Latin American and Caribbean region. The combination of so many roles -- financier, purchaser, provider, employer and regulator -- in one large ministry has created a structure which lacks the appropriate mechanisms to make the system perform efficiently and equitably.

Under the current system the budget is determined by inputs and only very indirectly linked to output or outcomes. Schools, therefore, face very little financial incentive to improve the quality of education services or ensure that inputs are used efficiently. In addition, the current system of funding is highly centralized and providers have no discretion or control over what inputs they can use. The existing institutional structure also diminishes and disperses accountability for performance in the education sector. School principals and officials are not accountable to their major clients, parents of students, for the services they are providing. The concentration of so many functions in the MOECD also hampers its ability to carry out certain tasks such as strategic planning, regulation, monitoring and setting of standards.

Improving the system boils down to giving schools the means to improve performance, giving them incentives to improve performance and holding them accountable for it. Budgeting should be decentralized to let providers have discretion and control over the inputs they use. In addition, resources should be allocated on the basis of outcomes rather than inputs. Putting greater emphasis on performance as a criterion for receiving funds can transform budgets into an instrument for putting pressure on public providers to be efficient. It would also be necessary to ensure that in the process of reallocating responsibilities those that receive decision-making power have the right structure of governance, incentives and ownership to be held accountable for their actions. This would require:

- (i) a governance structure at the school level, preferably with parent and community participation;
- (ii) a budgeting process based on outcomes; and (iii) a standardized examination system.

If the reforms recommended above seem to be too radical for broad implementation, they could be tested or introduced on a pilot basis. A small number of schools could be selected to undergo reforms and then, once success is demonstrated on a small basis, the reforms could be broadened to other schools.

The above changes would allow the MOECD's role to shift from a focus on the provision of education to that of overseer of the education system, strategic planner, regulator and setter of standards. In sum, it would focus on the higher functions which only the Ministry is in a position to do and which, hitherto, have been crowded out by the day-to-day management and operation of the education system.

In addition, it may be beneficial to: review procedures for recruiting student teachers; consider introducing a modest fee for vocational and professional training courses; and thoroughly review the technical-vocational part of the education system. It will also be important to focus on school maintenance and refurbishment of existing buildings rather than embarking on a large program of new school construction.



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## A NOTE ON DATA AVAILABILITY, SOURCES, AND ACCURACY

This study presents the most comprehensive data array on Suriname's education sector currently available, to our knowledge. Through the generous help of current and former Ministry officials, this study draws on data (and reports) that are not widely available, even within the MOECD. These include working papers and trend studies that were prepared as part of Ministry work but not formally published by the Ministry. The Statistics Office of the MOECD did not have a Director at the time this study was conducted and, for all practical purposes, was not operational. Much of the data attributed to the Statistics Office of the MOECD for 1993 onward was developed prior to recent staff turnover and were made available to this study by former staff of that Office.

Notwithstanding the above, education data in Suriname is of uneven quality and much data in this report should be interpreted with caution. Data from different sources across ministries and across departments of the same ministry may not agree, though differences tend to be small and of little policy significance. More importantly, some of the most important problems of the education sector are not reflected in the national education data. Most notably, the high incidence of ghost teachers, counting part-time teachers as full time, and failing to adjust for teachers who are legitimately assigned to non-instructional tasks results in an overestimate of teachers providing instruction in the classrooms. Another is that the teacher count may overestimate the number of qualified teachers in the schools.

Prior to 1994, the MOECD Statistics Office provided analysis of school data collected by district inspectors. Effective operation of the Statistics Office ended in 1995 as a result of three factors: (a) loss of key personnel in May 1995; (b) the decision of the MOECD not to replace lost staff in the Statistics Office; and (c) lack of demand for data in the decision making process. Status data (number of students, teachers, and classes) are still collected by district inspectors, who forward those data to the Central Statistics Office which does the summary analysis. The Central Statistics Office reports annual enrollments but does not conduct any further data or policy analysis with this information. For example, it does not compute progression, repetition, and dropout rates, teacher to student or student to class ratios. Consequently, the MOECD has no effective way of monitoring quantitative indicators of the education system performance (beyond basic enrollment statistics).

Nonetheless, the issues and trends outlined in this report are of such a magnitude that even moderate levels of error in the data will not change the policy implications.

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# 1. Introduction

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This report is part of the Inter-American Development Bank's economic and sector work program and is designed to support the Bank's operational program in Suriname and to contribute to the debate on important development issues facing Suriname.

The developmental importance of investment in human capital, in general, and education, in particular, is rarely disputed now. Empirical research has demonstrated that initial levels of education strongly influence the GDP growth rate of countries (Barro 1993) and widespread access to basic education has been shown to foster broad based and more egalitarian growth.

Despite these sound theoretical underpinnings for public investment in education, and a widespread consensus in Suriname that education is important, the education sector in Suriname faces severe challenges. The allocation of inputs into the sector is gravely unbalanced, thereby undermining the efficiency of those inputs. From 1993-1996, 88.5 percent of the education budget was spent on personnel expenses. By contrast, less than 4 percent of the budget was spent on supplies, causing severe shortages of furniture, textbooks and instructional materials. Less than 2 percent of the budget is spent on maintenance and repair. As a consequence, the Technical Services Directorate of the Ministry of Education and Community Development (MOECD) estimates that 60 percent of the government schools need repair. Many facilities are without water, working toilets or blackboards.

Nor does the generous allocation to personnel expenditures result in high quality teaching. First, much of the expenditure on personnel is not spent on teachers partly because the MOECD employs approximately one non-instructional staff member for every 2.5 teachers. Second, it has been estimated that as many as 50 percent of teachers do not come to work. Third, those teachers who do come to work are recruited from the weakest academic students, receive weak teacher training and often have little interest in the job. One-third of primary school teachers do not have adequate teacher preparation. Teacher training officials estimate that less than one percent of incoming students have any interest in teaching as a career.

Given these problems, it is not surprising that the performance of the education system is, in general, weak. The system is plagued by extremely high dropout and repetition rates. About nine of every 10 children begin school, but less than four in a thousand can expect to finish senior secondary school 12 years later. Many of the students who do eventually graduate lack the skills to contribute fully to the national economy and require training by employers. Against these deficiencies, must be set the education sector's success in ensuring widespread access to basic education. Suriname's enrollment ratios at the pre-primary and primary levels are high relative to the rest of Latin America and the Caribbean.

There is a general perception that the education sector's problems result from a lack of resources, and that simply increasing the level of resources directed at the education sector will solve the problems. This study disputes both of those notions. Suriname devotes a greater share of national resources to education than any other country in the Latin America and Caribbean Region. Education absorbs 5 percent of GDP and 30 percent of the government workforce. The underlying problem is that these resources are not used well because of fundamental deficiencies in the institutional and incentives structure in education. Until those deficiencies are addressed, additional resources for the sector will largely be wasted. Conversely, even without additional resources, undertaking the reforms proposed in this study could lead to a vastly enhanced education sector performance.

## 2. Structure of the Education Sector

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### 2.1 The Education System

The education system of Suriname comprises preschool, primary, junior secondary, senior secondary, vocational, and tertiary schooling. Figure 1 presents a chart describing the program of study within the formal education system and the options available to students as they move through the system.

The school year begins October 1 and ends August 17. The school day runs from 8:00 am to 1:00 pm for primary students; 7:30 am to 1:00 pm for junior secondary students; and 7:00 am to 1:00 pm for senior secondary students.

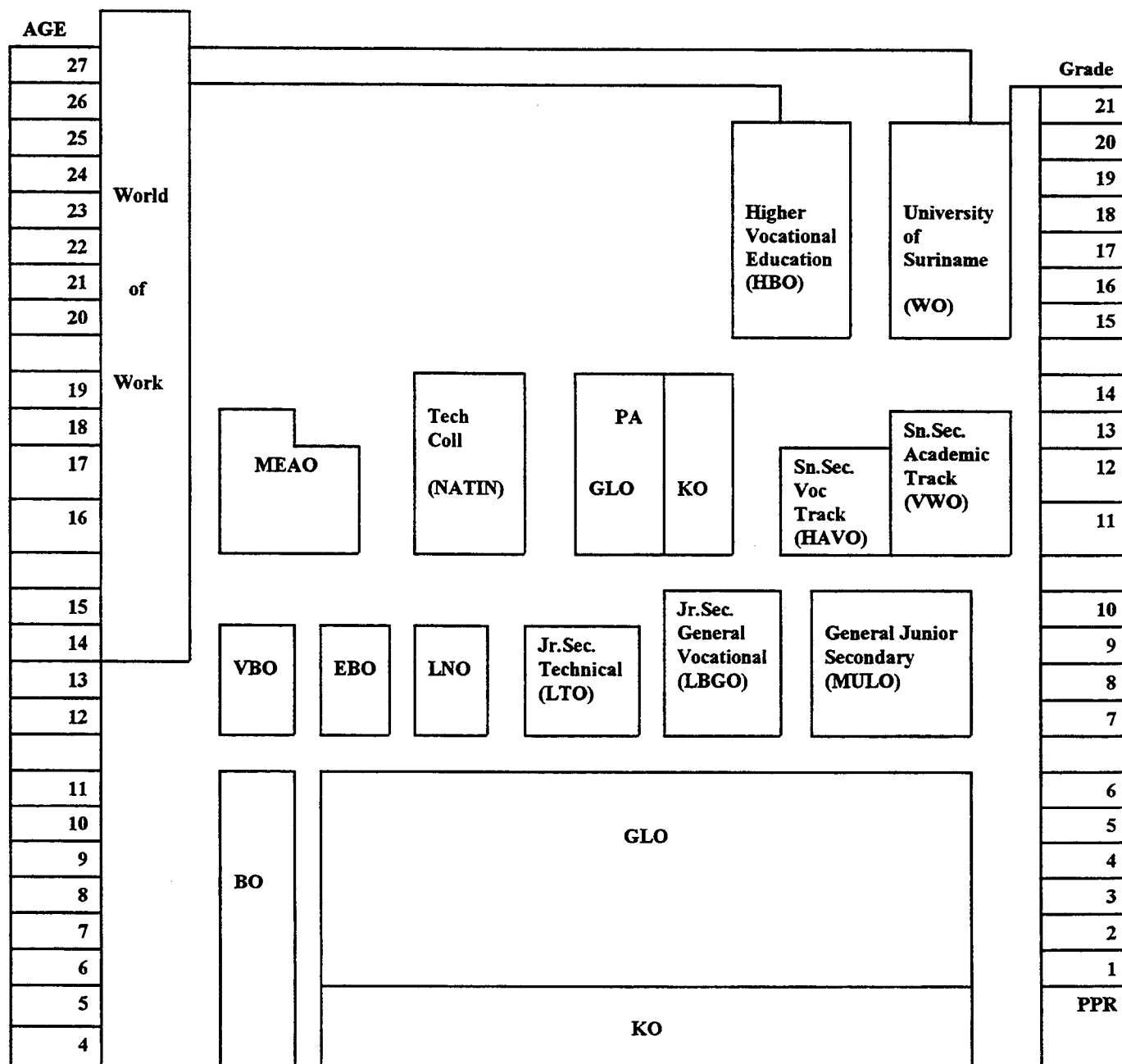
#### 2.1.1 Pre-school

*Pre-school* is a two-year program for four and five year old children. Approximately 90 percent of all four and five year old children are enrolled in pre-school programs (see Appendix 1). The 20,979 children enrolled in pre-primary in 1993 were taught by about 672 teachers (Annex Tables 1 and 2). This resulted in an average class size of 28 students, though there is wide variation across schools. Pre-school programs typically are housed in primary school buildings, though they have their own teachers, who take a special training program to prepare as a pre-primary teacher. There is no set national curriculum for the pre-primary level; each teacher develops her own (virtually all the teachers are women). As a result, teachers draw heavily from the pre-primary curriculum taught at the Teacher Training College for their inspiration and lesson plans. Student promotion from first to second year and from second year to primary school grade 1 is automatic and virtually all pre-school children continue on to *primary school*.

#### 2.1.2 Primary school

Primary school consists of grades 1-6 (ages 6-11). Suriname has not experienced the explosive growth that has characterized student enrollments in many other developing countries over the last ten years. In 1993, approximately 79,162 students were enrolled in primary school, an overall increase of only 7.7 percent (5,513 students) over the previous ten years (see Annex Table A-3). About half of those students were enrolled in religious schools. Successful completion of primary school is based on an examination administered nationwide at the end of grade 6 in combination with sixth grade school performance. Those awarded a Primary School Leavers' Certificate may continue to *Junior Secondary School*, with their choice of junior secondary options based on their examination scores.

**Figure 1**  
**Structure of the Suriname Education System**



### 2.1.3 Junior secondary education

Secondary education in Suriname is divided into two levels: *junior secondary education*, which generally lasts for three to four years, and *senior secondary education*, which lasts for two to three years. Upon entry into *junior secondary education*, students are assigned to one of six streams depending on their sixth grade examination results.

Students with the highest sixth grade examination performance can attend **General Junior Secondary Education (MULO)**, which is a four-year general education stream. Instruction is offered in 11 subjects: Dutch, English, Spanish, accounting, mathematics, physics, biology, geography, history, drawing and physical education. Most subject areas rely on Dutch textbooks. Locally prepared textbooks and instructional materials are available for Spanish, history, physics and for a portion of geography.

Those with a lower score may attend a four year **Junior Secondary General Vocational (LBGO)** stream. **LBGO** is essentially a pre-professional stream leading to further education. Students with scores that are insufficient for the **LBGO** stream may attend "true" vocational streams. Of these, the most prestigious is the three-year **Junior Secondary Technical (LTO)** schools, which are oriented toward technical trade skills (carpentry, automobile mechanics, etc.).

Those with yet lower scores may attend an **Elementary Vocational (EBO)** school, a **Vocational Home Economics (LNO)** school, or a **Special Education (VBO)** school. The **Elementary Vocational** schools are aimed at imparting general handyman skills while **Vocational Home Economics** prepares girls in domestic home-making skills. These vocational programs do not generally lead to further educational options.

Of the 26,157 students enrolled in junior secondary education in 1993/94, **49 percent** were enrolled in the **MULO** stream, **32 percent** in the **LBGO** stream (the two streams that have the possibility of leading to further educational options), and **19 percent** were enrolled in the terminal vocational and technical options.<sup>1</sup>

### 2.1.4 Senior secondary education

Students in the **general junior secondary (MULO)** stream take an examination at the end of grade 10. Those passing the test can continue in *senior secondary education*, but again their options are determined by their examination score. Students with the highest scores can enter a three-year **senior secondary academic stream (VWO)**, translated as Pre-University College I), which offers academic programs leading to university study.

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<sup>1</sup> Consistent data regarding junior secondary enrollments is scarce and the enrollment data should be considered "best estimates".

Those with lower scores may enter a two-year **senior secondary vocational** stream (HAVO, translated as Pre-University College II). HAVO schools are really pre-professional schools intended to lead to further education in areas such as law, journalism, etc., and are not vocational schools in the more general sense.

The pre-university and pre-professional streams are offered in different schools, though in one case they share a building. Both types of school offer instruction in Dutch, English, Spanish, mathematics, physics, biology, geography, history, drawing, and physical education, though the two streams cover the material in different depths. Students in the VWO stream take school completers' examinations in seven subjects while those in the HAVO stream take examinations in only six subjects. Most subject areas rely on Dutch textbooks. Locally prepared textbooks and instructional materials are available for Spanish, history, physics, and for portions of geography and biology.

Students with scores that are insufficient for the pre-university or pre-professional streams may attend "true" vocational streams. Of these, the most prestigious is the four-year **Technical College (NATIN)**, which is oriented toward technical trade skills. Only about one in every three students who enroll in NATIN actually graduate.

Those with yet lower scores can enter a four-year **Teacher Training College (PA)**, where they can specialize in primary teacher training, or they may go to a **Commercial College (MEAO)** for either a three-year program in accounting and general management or a two-year program in secretarial skills. There are also options for less academically able students to attend a *Junior Secondary level elementary vocational program (EBO)*, a **vocational home economics program (LNO)**, or a **special education program (VBO)**.

At both the *senior* and *junior secondary levels* the curricula for vocational programs of each school are largely determined by the instructional faculty of that school. There is little, if any, articulation between the vocational and technical skill training offered and the needs of local employers. Curricula are not based on a labor market analysis nor is instruction based on locally conducted task analysis.

There have been recurring efforts to establish apprenticeship programs with local companies but the scale of these efforts is still small. The Netherlands is assisting in supporting these programs and there is considerable interest among vocational educators in revitalizing and extending these programs over the next few years.

Of all the students enrolled in senior secondary education in 1993/94, **41 percent** were enrolled in the VWO pre-university stream, **15 percent** in the HAVO pre-professional stream, **11 percent** in a NATIN technical college, **16 percent** in teaching training colleges (PA) and **17 percent** in a commercial college (MEAO).

### 2.1.5 Tertiary education

*Tertiary education* is comprised of two tracks: the **University of Suriname** (which possesses a medical school) and **higher vocational education (HBO)**, which offers advanced programs in 21 areas, including advanced teacher training. Students with a School Completer's Certificate from a **VWO** (senior secondary academic school) may enter the **university** and students with a School Completer's Certificate from a **HAVO** (senior secondary vocational school) may continue on to the **higher vocational education**.

For the brightest students in the **HAVO** stream and the technically-oriented senior secondary (**NATIN**) schools there is also a possible route to the **university**. After taking their school completer's examination, students in these tracks can enter a one-year preparatory course of study at the university which leads to full admission for those who complete the course. In fact, this university entrance examination is the same school completers' examination taken by students completing grade 13 at the **academic senior secondary schools (VWO)**. This option has the effect, then, of giving students in the **HAVO** and **NATIN** streams another chance at entering the university, but it does not save them any time because the grade that they skip at senior secondary school is replaced by an extra year of study once they are admitted into the university.

In 1993, 2,463 students were enrolled in the **University of Suriname** (nearly as many as enrolled in the **academic senior secondary** stream); 183 were enrolled in the **Academy of Arts** (which offers advanced professional training); and 1,339 were enrolled teacher training (see Annex Table A-17).

Curricula are determined by the instructional faculty of each institution and are intended to meet international standards. International assistance has supported curriculum development, advanced education for faculty, and the provision of library resources and specialized laboratory and other teaching equipment.

## 2.2 The Ministry of Education and Community Development

The education system of Suriname is highly centralized and is coordinated, managed, and regulated by the MOECD. The MOECD is also the dominant financier of education services. The MOECD is organized into four directorates, in line with its four major areas of responsibility -- education, culture, sports, and youth (see Figure 2 for the organizational chart of the ministry). Each of the directorates is headed by a permanent secretary with an assistant permanent secretary for each of the major functions within each directorate. Across the Directorate of Education, there are assistant permanent secretaries for Development Services, Education, Technical services, and Administrative Services. These four directorates are then organized into a total of 25 bureaus.

The MOECD rather than district governments is responsible for the provision of education throughout the country. The ministry is represented in each of Suriname's 10 administrative districts

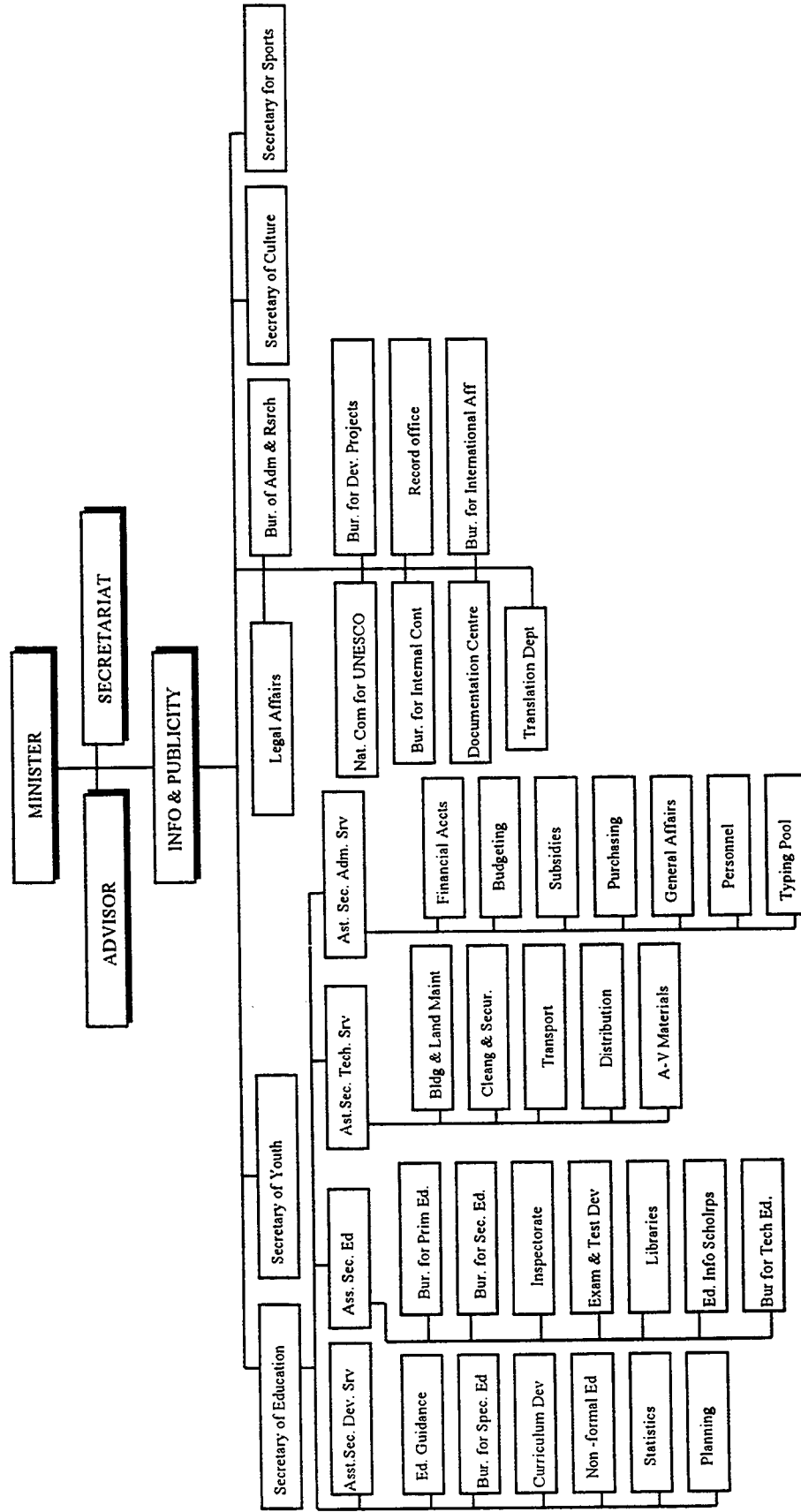
by a district inspector, who reports to the Chief Inspector in the ministry in Paramaribo, who, in turn, reports to the Assistant Permanent Secretary for Education. District inspectors have few if any staff -- those in the more populated districts may have a secretary. Originally intended to provide teacher supervision, their responsibilities have evolved to the point that they now handle virtually all administrative issues that involve the central ministry in the district. For example, they deliver and collect school data forms, forward school complaints about missing or inadequate supplies or furniture to the appropriate office of the central ministry, and respond to concerns about teacher performance. They operate as a first line of communication between a school and the ministry.

District inspectors for the coastal districts of Suriname generally live in their districts. Their housing is provided by the ministry and includes an office. Inspectors responsible for districts in the interior live in Paramaribo. In one respect, this makes sense, since transportation in the interior is mostly by river or air, and virtually all air connections have to go through Paramaribo. However, limitations on travel funds result in little, if any, on-site school visits to interior districts. Even in the coastal districts, inspectors ability to visit schools is seriously constrained by financial limitations. Inspectors are expected to use their own private vehicles for school visits. They receive Sf.6,250 (US\$15.63) per month in car allowance to cover petrol and related expenses. This is inadequate to cover the true costs and, as a consequence, few school visits occur.

The lack of school visits is compounded by the fact that few schools have phones, even in districts close to Paramaribo. Offsetting this weak formal structure is a strong informal structure. Teachers and headmasters in rural districts are given a trip to Paramaribo each year as part of their incentive to work outside the capital and often have direct communication with central ministry personnel when they are in the city.



**Figure 2**  
**Organizational Chart of M.O.E.C.D**



## **2.3 Religious schools**

About half of all primary and junior secondary schools are operated by religious organizations, mostly Hindu, Muslim or Catholic, that operate with substantial government subsidies. The religious organizations provide and maintain the school facilities, which are usually in somewhat better repair than the government schools. The religious organizations recoup maintenance costs by charging students a higher entrance fee (about Sf.2,500 [US\$6.25] per year) than do government schools (Sf.500 [US\$1.25] per year). Religious school teachers are recruited, selected, and hired by the religious organizations, but must be selected from the same pool of the country's teacher training college graduates. None of the religious schools use expatriate teachers.

But in all other respects the religious schools are comparable to government schools. They follow the national curriculum and use the same textbooks prescribed for public schools. Similarly, they depend on the MOECD for delivery of the textbooks and instructional materials. Their teachers are paid by the government on the same pay scale as other government teachers. The Christian schools have some foreign sponsorship, but the Hindu and Muslim schools do not. Given the similarities, it is unlikely that religious schools provide significantly better quality instruction than government schools.

Schools supported by religious organizations are an integral part of the national education system and data about these schools generally are not disaggregated in government statistical reports. For that reason they are considered together with public schools in the remainder of this report.

## **2.4 Parental involvement**

There is little tradition in Suriname of parental involvement in their local schools. While some schools have a core of interested and involved parents, most do not. The MOECD has, in the past, made efforts to increase parent involvement. While the results were disappointing, the experience offers some insight into the dynamics that operate in efforts to involve parents: In the 1980s, the MOECD launched a special program to promote parental participation through the creation of Parent-Teacher Associations (PTAs). PTAs were started in 295 primary and 155 junior secondary schools; however, parental activities were limited largely to fund raising for their school. The schools used the proceeds of the fund raising to purchase school materials (such as writing materials). Parents in the poorer neighborhoods did not have much time to participate in PTA activities because of the long hours they spent working. However, about 40 percent of those parents said that they would have made time if they also could have discussed the problems their children were encountering with the teacher, the curriculum, and instructional practices in the classroom. Teachers and headmasters resisted parental involvement in these matters. In the end the PTAs were not sustained, largely because parents did not see them as providing them with meaningful involvement in the activities of schooling.

## 2.5 Trade unions in the education sector

Teachers and other workers in the education sector are represented by a number of trade unions. Six unions represent teachers in religious schools and have a religious basis (see Table 1 below). Four of these unions have less than 150 members and their combined membership totals 1,930. Teachers in state (secular) schools are represented by the Suriname Public Teachers' Union (S.O.B.) which has a membership of approximately 2,220. However, unions are also configured on the basis of the level or function of schools. Teachers at secondary schools are represented by the Union of Teachers (B.V.L.) and teachers at technical schools are represented by the Technical Schools Teachers' Union (B.L.T.S.). Teachers' unions also operate at different levels of aggregation. All teachers' unions, except the B.V.L., are members of the Federation of Surinamese Teachers (F.O.L.S.) which is an umbrella organization representing all teachers in Suriname. In addition, because nearly all teachers are civil servants, all teachers unions -- except the B.V.L. which withdrew after a disagreement -- and the F.O.L.S. are also members of the Confederation of Civil Servants' Organizations (C.L.O.) which represents all civil servants. The most important unions in terms of negotiating with the government are the C.L.O., the F.O.L.S., the B.V.L. and the S.O.B..

<b>TABLE 1</b> <b>Trade Union Representation in the Education Sector</b> <b>(As of March 1998)</b>		
<b>UNION/ORGANIZATION</b>	<b>ACRONYM</b>	<b>MEMBERSHIP</b>
Confederation of Civil Servants' Organizations	C.L.O.	--
Federation of Surinamese Teachers	F.O.L.S.	--
<b>Teachers in State (Secular) Schools</b>		<b>2,200</b>
Suriname Public Teachers' Union	S.O.B.	2,200
<b>Teachers in Religious Schools</b>		<b>1,930</b>
Catholic Teachers' Union	K.O.B.	900
Central Teachers' Union (Moravian schools)	C.O.B.	700
Union of Arya de Waker (Hindu schools)	O.A.D.	130
Union of Teachers at Sanathan Dharm (Hindu schools)	B.O.S.	114
Islamitic Teachers' Union	I.O.B.	50
Suriname Moslem Association Teachers' Union	O.B.S.M.A.	36
<b>By Level of Teaching</b>		<b>750</b>
Union of Teachers (Secondary schools)	B.V.L.	350
Technical Schools Teachers' Union	B.L.T.S.	400

### 3. Inputs in the Education Sector

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The education sector absorbs a considerable share of national resources. Between 1993-1996, government expenditure for education amounted to 5 percent of GDP. The sector's absorption of human resources is even greater. The MOECD is the largest government ministry, employing approximately 3,272 staff in non-instructional positions and about 4,238 teachers. It also pays the salaries of another 3,711 teachers who teach in religious schools. Total direct and indirect employment by the MOECD, therefore, amounts to 11,221, which is equivalent to 30 percent of total government employment and 12.5 percent of the country's workforce. Nevertheless, the apparent strength of inputs to the sector is nullified by an unbalanced allocation between inputs and several factors that reduce the ostensibly strong teacher input.

#### 3.1 Financing and expenditures

As in most of the region, education is primarily public funded. In Suriname this reflects not only a broad public consensus that the state should ensure the provision of education but also constitutional guarantees to free access to education (see Box 1).

##### Box 1

###### EDUCATION IN THE CONSTITUTION

###### EDUCATION AND CULTURE

###### Article 38

1. Everyone has the right to education and cultural expression.
2. Education shall be free, subject to State supervision of all public educational institutions, in order that the national education policy and the educational standards laid down by the State shall be observed.
3. The practice of science and technology shall be free.
4. The State shall promote the kind of education and the conditions under which school education and other forms of education can contribute to the development of a democratic and socially just society.
5. The State shall promote the democratization of culture by promoting the enjoyment of culture and cultural creativeness, and by guaranteeing the accessibility to those cultural creations to all citizens by means of cultural and recreational organizations, information media and other suitable channels.

###### EDUCATION

###### Article 39

1. The State recognizes and guarantees the right of all citizens to education and shall offer equal access to education to all.
2. In the execution of its education policy the State shall be obligated:
  - a. to guarantee compulsory and free elementary education;
  - b. to guarantee sustainable education and to eradicate illiteracy;
  - c. to grant access to the highest levels of education, scientific research and artistic creation to all on the basis of merit;
  - d. to provide, in phases, free education to all levels;
  - e. to harmonize education with the productive and social needs of the society.

Source: The Constitution of the Republic of Suriname, 1987.

### Public Funding

The education system is financed through central government revenues. Between 1993-1996, government expenditure for education amounted to roughly 5 percent of GDP (see Table 2), which is slightly above regional norms. For example, in the mid-1990s Trinidad and Tobago spent 4.3 percent of GDP on education, Guyana 3.7 percent, Barbados 6.8 percent and Jamaica 5.1 percent<sup>2</sup>. In 1990, public expenditures on education amounted to 4.3 percent of GNP in Latin America and the Caribbean, 4.1 percent in East Asia, and 5.7 percent in industrial economies (UNESCO and World Bank as reported in IDB, 1996).

<b>TABLE 2</b> <b>Government Expenditure on Education as a Proportion of Total Government Expenditure and GDP</b>				
	1993	1994	1995	1996
MOECD expenditure/Government expenditure ( percent) <sup>1/</sup>	11.9	11.8	12.9	11.7
MOECD expenditure/GDP ( percent)	5.1	5.2	4.8	5.1
<i>Source:</i> MOECD and IDB.				
<sup>1/</sup> MOECD expenditure on cultural and other non-educational matters accounts for only 5% of MOECD expenditure.				

Financing is centralized in the MOECD, which allocates in-kind services rather than money to schools. The MOECD, therefore, is responsible for the provision and distribution of teachers, supplies, and school maintenance to schools. The university has more financial autonomy than the schools and prepares and manages its own budget, although the current expenditure budget is vetted by the MOECD before being submitted to the Ministry of Finance. Funds from the Ministry of Finance and foreign donors pass through the MOECD before they reach the university.

The overall budget for education is determined by negotiations between the MOECD and Ministry of Finance. Funding is determined by inputs or installed capacity rather than by outputs or performance. It is calculated by multiplying the number of civil servants and teachers who work for the MOECD (or whose salaries are paid by the MOECD) by their salaries and adding on some expenses for other inputs and running costs. Actual expenditure outcomes can be very different from the planned budget if civil servants and/or teachers are given large salary raises during the year. This occurred frequently during the high inflation period of 1993-1995 (see Annex Table A-33). In 1994, for example, actual spending was forty times the budgeted level, indicating that the quantity of inputs determine the budget rather than conscious budgetary decisions determining the quantity of inputs.

<sup>2</sup> Guyana data does not include expenditure on tertiary education. However, it is still a relevant comparator, since much of Suriname's expenditure on tertiary education is financed directly by donors and hence not included in the 5 percent of GDP estimate for Suriname government expenditure on education.

### **3.1.1 Payments by users**

Recipients of education services pay a small fraction of the cost of education. Tuition is virtually free at all levels of education, with schools charging only a modest entrance fee (\$1.25 per year for government schools and \$6.25 for religious schools). The "no tuition cost" policy at the tertiary level is currently under review, and MOECD and university staff are investigating the feasibility of a student loan program. Both issues, however, are at early stages of considerations.

Families of children do, however, cover complementary expenses. Families of students must provide a school uniform, contribute to the child's transportation to school, and provide notebooks and pencils that the government has been unable to provide. Students attending teacher training colleges pay for all the supplies they need to complete their practice teaching as well as transportation costs.

Some of the research institutes at the university have been able to sell research and development services. However, these efforts have been inadvertently discouraged by a university policy which routes the resulting income to the central administration of the university rather than the research unit generating the funds. Moreover, when clients provide an advance payment for work they have commissioned, those funds are sometimes diverted by the university to cover other costs, making it difficult or impossible for the research unit to initiate the activities.

### **3.1.2 Allocation by level of education**

The MOECD does not keep its accounts in a manner that allows for disaggregation of expenditures by level of education (pre-primary, primary, secondary, vocational/technical higher education). However, a crude estimation of the balance of expenditures between tertiary education on the one hand, and other levels of education on the other hand, can be derived by comparing the university budget with the total MOECD budget. In recent years, the university share of the MOECD budget has varied from 9.3 percent in 1993 to 7.7 percent in 1995. Suriname, therefore, commits less to tertiary levels relative to pre-primary, primary and secondary level than many countries in Latin America, which allocate between 20-40 percent of public current expenditure on education to the tertiary level. Suriname is in line with other Caribbean countries which allocate between 3.4 percent (Belize) and 21.4 percent (Jamaica) to tertiary education.

However, this refers only to national expenditures on education. Much international donor assistance has been directed at the university and the entire capital budget of the university is donor financed and not included in the statistics on national government expenditures on education. As a result, total funding of the university is much higher relative to primary and secondary levels than solely national expenditures data would indicate.

## 3.2 Non-instructional staff of the MOECD

The MOECD employs approximately 3,272 staff in non-instructional positions. Officials estimate that about 2,000 are grounds keepers, guards, and other support personnel and that about 1,300 are office personnel. This is probably an underestimate of the administrative staffing because: (a) some teachers are assigned to non-instructional responsibilities but continue to be paid (and counted) as teachers; and (b) religious organizations handle many of the administrative matters (teacher recruitment, teacher assignment, building maintenance and repair) for about half the primary and junior secondary schools in the country. The MOECD employs approximately one non-instructional staff member for every 2.5 teachers.

## 3.3 Teachers

On the surface, the teaching corps, which numbers 7,949, is large. However, in practice this ostensible strength is weakened by absenteeism, the poor quality and training of many teachers, and low motivation.

### 3.3.1 Quantity

In 1993, the total teaching pool included 3,695 primary teachers, approximately 808 general junior secondary school teachers, another 547 teaching in junior secondary vocational school, and 331 teaching in the various terminal junior secondary options. To provide adequate content coverage of the eleven subject areas composing the curriculum, junior secondary schools use part-time teachers, some of whom teach at several different schools, making an accurate count of teachers difficult. About 70 percent of the full-time general junior secondary teachers are women, though when all junior secondary options are combined, the proportion of men and women is about equal (since most of the other options are vocational/technical areas in which male teachers tend to predominate). At the tertiary education level much of the instruction is provided by part-time instructors. For example, the 99 full-time faculty at the University are supplemented by 167 part-time instructors (see Annex Tables 19 and 20).

Such staffing levels imply low pupil to teacher ratios: about one teacher for every 22 students at the primary level and one teacher for 12 students at both the junior and secondary levels. These ratios are low by international standards (see Annex Table A-21a), and belie the reality of the classroom where class sizes appear closer to 35-40. This discrepancy is explained by three factors. First, some people classified and paid as teachers are performing other jobs within the ministry or the school and are not providing direct instruction. Second, there are problems in the MOECD's data -- some part-time teachers are counted as full-time. Third, and probably most significant, many teachers do not come to work or meet their classes. Described as "ghost teachers", these individuals continue to receive their salary and benefits, but either hold other jobs or pursue leisure activities. Senior MOECD officials suggest that the number of ghost teachers and others employed through the

education ministry is as high as 50 percent. An informal audit of school grounds keepers by a senior MOECD official in 1996 found 50 percent to be ghost employees.

Three factors help explain the prevalence of ghost teachers. First, ghost teachers continue to maintain their rights to their teaching job in order to keep their health insurance, an important fringe benefit in Suriname. Second, even though teachers' salaries are considered low, they are higher than other civil servants. Ghost teachers can continue to draw their salary. Third, there are few, if any, consequences for not coming to work or not performing one's job. In part this is because the MOECD does not have the management capacity to monitor teacher attendance. However, when evidence of ghost employees has been forwarded to the ministry, little or no action has been taken to correct the situation. Some believe there is official reluctance to correct the situation. More fundamentally, it reflects the lack of incentives and control at the school level. Schools have little incentive to enforce teacher attendance because they are not accountable to pupils' parents or the ministry for lost instructional time. Schools also have little means to enforce teacher attendance because teachers' salaries are paid by the ministry.

Finding teachers willing to serve in the interior and in some of the more distant coastal districts has been a long-standing problem. Teachers in interior schools are provided with housing and are given a trip to Paramaribo each year but these incentives have not been strong enough to attract and retain teachers in the interior.

To address teacher shortages in the interior, in 1984 the MOECD initiated a pilot program, known as the "boslandakte program", to recruit local community members from interior villages who had at least some junior secondary education to attend a special six month training program that would prepare them to teach in their local village. However, the subsequent civil war caused many teachers and boslandakte graduates to flee the interior.

Following the termination of hostilities in the interior and confronted with severe teacher shortages, the boslandakte initiative was reactivated in 1992. The results of the program have been mixed. When the program did not attract enough trainees from the interior districts, the program was opened to individuals from coastal areas. Upon completion, however, many of the trainees from the coastal areas refused to go to the interior. Overall, 60 percent of the 280 students who have participated in the program since 1993 have passed the exam and are teaching. While this has alleviated somewhat the shortage of teachers in the interior, boslandakte teachers receive only 6 months of training compared with four years for the regular teacher training programs.

MOECD officials do not have current data on teacher turnover, but estimate that about 20 percent of the teaching force leave teaching each year due to marriage, death, emigration, and better opportunities in the private sector. This translates into an annual demand for about 739 teachers at the primary level, 165 teachers at the junior secondary level, and about 116 teachers across various types of schooling at the senior secondary level.

While there are about 680 students enrolled in Teacher Training Colleges (TTCs) that prepare primary and junior secondary teachers, these colleges produce about 40-45 graduates per year [Some



transfer to the Advanced Teacher Training Institute before graduating from the TTC] (see Annex Table A-21). The Advanced Teacher Training Institute, which prepares upper junior secondary and senior secondary teachers enrolled 769 in the first year program in 1994-95 and graduated about 176 that same year (Annex Tables 23 and 24). In total, these schools produce about 210 new teachers per year. Senior education officials suggest about 50 percent of those who graduate will actually take a teaching position.

This suggests a shortfall in teacher production, particularly for the primary and junior secondary levels. However, to the extent that the teacher ranks are inflated by ghost teachers, fewer new teachers would be necessary if ghost teachers could be encouraged to return to the classroom. (Alternatively, if ghost teachers leave the teaching force, it might actually increase the apparent teacher shortfall, since the annual turnover of teachers--now estimated at 20 percent --would represent a higher percent if computed only over the active teachers.)

### **3.3.2 Quality and motivation**

The quality of teaching staff is weakened by recruitment of academically weak students to teaching, poor teacher training, and poor teacher motivation.

#### **a. Recruitment**

Often, students opt to receive teacher training not because they have a particular interest in or commitment to teaching, but because they are academically weaker and that is the only alternative they have if they want to continue studying. Pre-school teacher training is an educational option pursued by those who do not have a junior secondary school completers' examination score that would allow them into a better senior secondary option. Primary teacher training is an option generally pursued only by junior secondary school graduates who do not qualify for either the academic senior secondary tracks (VWO and HAVO) or technical courses of study (NATIN).

#### **b. Teacher training**

Training for pre-school and primary teaching is provided through a four-year program at three Teacher Training Colleges (TTC), all of which are located in Paramaribo. There is a part-time program in Nickerie in which students study in Nickerie four days a week and take courses at TTCs on the weekends. Training for junior secondary teaching is provided by the Advanced Teacher Training College. Vocational and technical teachers receive their training at a special Training College for Vocational Teacher Training.

The first two years of the TTC curriculum concentrate on improving students' knowledge of content in their area of specialization. Students take courses in 11 subject areas each year. In year three, students are introduced to pedagogical techniques. During that year, they attend class at the TTC four days a week and practice teaching in a school one day a week. The entire fourth year is spent practice teaching at a nearby school. TTC faculty are responsible for supervision of practice teachers, however they do not receive sufficient reimbursement to cover their costs of travel to the

schools for supervision visits. There are differing opinions about the extent to which TTC students have an opportunity to familiarize themselves with the curriculum or instructional materials that are actually used in the primary schools, though presumably they encounter it during their practice teaching.

As noted above, students enrolling in the TTC tend to be less academically able and come to the TTC because they do not have test scores that allow them a better option. School officials estimate that less than one percent express any interest in teaching as a career. While about 300 enter each year, only about 50 complete the four year TTC program (see Annex Table A-22). School officials have no role in the assignment of students after graduation.

Moreover, morale among TTC teachers is low, partly because they work with the least able students who exhibit little if any interest in their studies. Teachers have few instructional resources with which to work. They even have to purchase their own reference books as the schools do not have a reference library for instructors. Facilities of the three TTCs need repair and upgrading. The buildings have water problems, broken toilets, poor athletic facilities, and cannot be adequately secured against theft. School officials report that many instructors hold second jobs. Instructors in the TTC are (usually) graduates of the Advanced Teacher Training College. Instructors at the Advanced Teacher Training College are graduates of that institution, graduates of the University of Suriname, or were trained abroad.

The Training College for Vocational Teacher Training faces the same problems experienced by the other teacher training colleges -- lack of funds, lack of tools and equipment with which to learn and practice one's trade. Consequently, it is highly probable that teachers' own preparation to be a VTT instructor is weak.

Recruiting and retaining teachers in technical areas poses a particular challenge because, if they are good at their trade, their skills demand a considerably higher salary in the private sector. Consequently, those who continue to teach tend to be older instructors who do not wish to compete in the private sector, or younger teachers who have second jobs in which they use their specialized skills to supplement their income.

#### c. Qualifications

Notwithstanding the problems associated with teacher training programs listed above, passage through the teacher training colleges does impart some preparation for teaching. One problem with the education sector is that a large number of primary school teachers do not have the minimum recommended teacher training qualifications. To be considered qualified to teach in primary school, a person must attend a four year training program at one of three teacher training colleges. In 1991-92, about 67 percent of primary teachers met this qualification (see Annex Table A-7). The remaining 33 percent were hired without adequate teacher preparation. Opportunities for in-service upgrading of unqualified teachers are limited. A bureau within the MOECD is responsible for offering in-service teacher training and it has organized some in-service training programs in conjunction with the Advanced Teacher Training College, but on a rather *ad hoc* basis.

The situation at the junior secondary level is probably somewhat better. To teach at the junior secondary level, a teacher is supposed to have graduated from the Advanced Teacher Training College. Data on the proportion of teachers who are considered qualified are not available. However, senior MOECD officials estimate that about 20 percent of the teaching force leave teaching each year – about 162 teachers just from the general junior secondary track alone. Output from the Advanced Teacher Training College in 1991-92 was about 459. If this output has been maintained and if even half of those graduating enter teaching, the production of trained teachers should be able to meet demand at the junior secondary level.

#### d. Teacher morale

Teacher morale has been negatively affected by declining salaries in real terms, poor remuneration relative to other professions, inadequate preparation for teaching, poor facilities and a lack of materials. Between 1980 and 1994, teachers salaries declined by four-fifths in real terms, thereby contributing to an outflow of qualified teachers who could get jobs abroad. Although the real declines in teachers' salaries over that period was in line with economy-wide declines in wages and salaries, teachers had much less ability to absorb the decline because they started out from a lower base. As real salaries declined, therefore, economic necessity obliged some teachers to shift to jobs in other economic activities, which were much better remunerated (see Table 3).<sup>3</sup> This was manifested by formal shifts from education to other activities, informal shifts through an increase in ghost-workers, and a deterrent to potential teachers.

<b>TABLE 3</b> <b>Average Salaries in Different Economic Activities in 1995 (US\$)</b>	
Mining and quarrying	20803
Transport, storage and communication	12990
Banking	7250
Trade, restaurants and hotels	4925
Economy average 1/	3183
Insurance	2421
Manufacturing	2139
Utilities	1801
<b>Government (including education sector) 2/</b>	<b>1011</b>
Community and personal services	585
Source: GBS and IDB.	
1/ Does not include agriculture.	
2/ Teachers receive from 0-25 percent more than other government employees.	

<sup>3</sup> It should be noted that teachers are, on average, slightly better remunerated than other government employees and they receive 0-25 percent higher salaries than other government employees of equivalent grade.

Inadequate preparation -- of the teachers without teaching qualifications and those that pass through TTCs -- further contributes to teacher demoralization, as do the poor state of teaching facilities and the acute shortage of teaching materials and supplies. School officials report that teacher morale is especially low among technical and vocational schools, in part due to the lack of student interest in the content of instruction and in part due to the lack of the equipment and materials that would allow students to practice their skills. They point out that technical and vocational students are among the least capable and justify the high dropout and repetition rates in terms of low student quality and interest.

## **3.4 Instructional materials**

At present, schools are desperately short of texts and instructional materials, and do not have sufficient furniture, textbooks, or other instructional materials to support quality teaching. The MOECD has been unable to provide an adequate supply of even the most basic instructional aids, such as pencils and paper. This is primarily due to a shortage of funding for instructional materials, but is also due to problems with the distribution system. Schools' inability to secure the materials from theft once they are delivered to the schools compounds the shortages.

All of the vocational and technical schools face a particularly difficult instructional problem caused by the shortage of materials and supplies. Schools are unable to provide sufficient raw materials -- lumber, sheet metal, chemicals, tools, computers -- for students to use in practising their vocational trades. Specialized equipment is mostly broken and unrepaired. This lowers the quality of student preparation and reduces students' utility to employers.

### **3.4.1 Funding**

Although government funding for the education sector -- at 5 percent of GDP -- has been adequate, few of the resources have been allocated to instructional materials. As Table 3, shows, 88.5 percent of the education budget is spent on personnel expenses (salaries of MOECD employees including teachers, religious school teachers and administrators, and pension fund contributions). As a result, few resources are available for other items such as school and office supplies and equipment and maintenance. Less than 4 percent of the education budget is spent on supplies.

<b>TABLE 4</b>				
<b>Annual Budget of the Directorate of Education, MOECD ( percent of total)</b>				
	<b>1993</b>	<b>1994</b>	<b>1995</b>	<b>1996</b>
Recurrent expenditures	99.2	97.3	97.9	99.1
Personnel	42.2	49.8	46.3	48.3
Subsidies to religious schools (teachers administrators)	38.4	31.6	36.8	37.8
Other personnel expenditures (teacher insurance, pension fund contributions)	1.3	2.4	2.8	2.4
Utilities	5.7	2.7	2.1	1.7
Transportation	5.8	6.0	5.0	4.4
General operation	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.0
Supplies	4.2	2.2	3.9	3.6
Maintenance and repairs	1.0	2.3	0.6	0.6
Accommodation for residential students	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4
Capital expenditures	0.8	2.7	2.1	0.9
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<i>Source:</i> Annex Table A-34.				

### 3.4.2 Distribution

The system for distributing textbooks and educational supplies from the central ministry to the schools is widely regarded as having broken down. Headmasters and teachers almost universally complain that they do not have the necessary materials to do their job. Even the distribution of materials and supplies to schools in Paramaribo is weak. A frequently cited reason for the distribution problem is lack of money to pay for transportation. While this may be a contributing factor, it does not appear to be the major reason for the breakdown. More money will not necessarily solve the problem.

Currently, school furniture and educational materials cannot be delivered to the schools until schools open in October for fear that these materials would be stolen from the schools. Schools do not have secure warehouse or storage facilities and the school buildings themselves cannot be secured against theft, which is widespread. Once school begins, the MOECD department responsible for distribution gives top priority to delivering chairs to all schools. They then give priority to national distribution of tables. Only when the furniture has been delivered is priority given to the distribution of textbooks and instructional supplies. Consequently, instructional supplies, when they are provided, do not arrive until many weeks after school begins.

A contributing factor is the procedures used for ordering furniture and instructional materials. Schools are required only to submit their orders for furniture and supplies in June. Since some schools are late submitting this information, the consolidated order does not go to the vendors until

September, for a school year starting in October. Since the growth in enrollments has been relatively stable -- and hence predictable -- over the last few years, it should be possible to order materials and supplies ahead of time and have them distributed to schools before school begins. At present, however, there is a problem of warehousing. One could argue that the cost of providing warehouse facilities is more than offset by the value added by having instructional materials in the schools on time.

The Distribution Department has a computer system that allows it to track orders and plan deliveries. However, senior officials in the Department cite the need for more staff training. The Department lacks skilled personnel capable of developing and implementing a national distribution plan. It also lacks vehicles (only one of its two trucks is operational currently), though it rents extra trucks during peak delivery times. The issue of whether there are sufficient amounts of instructional materials available to be delivered is viewed as the responsibility of other Ministry departments.

#### **3.4.3 Curriculum and materials**

Until the mid-1980s, primary school instructional materials consisted mainly of Dutch textbooks brought from the Netherlands. This posed some problem for students, as they were unfamiliar with some of the terminology (such as snow) or to Dutch popular culture, such as the use of "ugly duckling" as a nickname for a particular automobile model produced by *Citroen*. In 1986, as part of an IDB project, new curricular materials were developed with special attention to Surinamese culture and with more emphasis on active student participation. Textbooks were replaced with workbooks in which students wrote their answers. Although employing a better pedagogical approach, these materials introduced a new problem. While the old textbooks had been reusable, the new materials had to be replaced each year since students wrote in them. Moreover, the workbooks had soft-covers and were not durable. When the government was unable to assume the recurrent cost for producing and distributing the new materials, subsequent students had no texts or instructional materials. To compensate, teachers presented the materials by writing the lessons from the student workbooks on the blackboard.

The problem was exacerbated when the IDB project was terminated early due to difficulties encountered in other parts of the project (discussed later). While originally intended as a new curriculum for all six years, only materials for the first three years were completed in some of the subjects at the point at which the project was terminated. As a result, students switch pedagogical approaches in the middle of their primary schooling.

### **3.5 Facilities**

As with instructional materials, the funding allocation to educational facilities is meager. From 1993-96, maintenance and repair expenditures received less than 2 percent of the education budget. As a consequence, educational facilities are in poor condition.

In 1994, there were 273 primary schools and 103 junior secondary schools throughout the country, most of which were in and around Paramaribo. Existing facilities are generally in poor repair, many without water, working toilets, or blackboards. There are only six senior secondary schools, five located in Paramaribo and one in Nickerie. Senior secondary school facilities are in relatively better condition than primary and junior secondary schools, but they are still in need of repair and refurbishing. School officials are not able to secure the schools and report that theft has resulted in the loss of much of the scientific and sports equipment and other school supplies. Vocational and technical school facilities are in very poor repair and are poorly furnished, reflecting the lower prestige assigned to vocational and technical education generally. The facilities at the tertiary level are in relatively better condition than those at lower levels of the education system, reflecting the fact that much of the international assistance to education has been directed at higher education.

The Director of Technical Services in the MOECD estimates that 60 percent of the government schools need repair. School repair is the responsibility of the Department of Technical Services of the MOECD and repair teams are dispatched from Paramaribo when a District Inspector reports the need for their services. Department of Technical Services staff appear to have the technical skills to make the needed repairs, but lack the funds to purchase the necessary materials. MOECD officials point out that one major repair may require a quarter of the annual materials budget for the Technical Services Department.

There is little history of community participation in maintaining government school facilities, though this occurs occasionally. The new Director of the Technical Services Department has been encouraging community participation by purchasing paint and supplies for communities that are willing to contribute labor. There is, however, some community participation in maintaining religious school facilities.

The government has assigned a priority to constructing new schools, but hopes to achieve that through international assistance. Progress on schools currently under construction is slow and only limited new school construction is funded within the government budget (capital expenditures accounted for only 0.8-2.7 percent of the Directorate of Education's budget between 1993 and 1996).

Some new school construction is needed to replace those schools which have deteriorated beyond repair. The need for additional school construction beyond replacement, is less clear. The high school participation rate and relatively slow growth in primary enrollments over the last ten years would suggest that the annual demand for new school facilities should be minimal and manageable. Similarly, the average class size of 25 students reported in the Ministry data suggests class sizes within existing facilities are well within international standards. However, visits to schools suggest that classes are considerably larger than Ministry statistics would indicate and a real need for new construction may be masked by poor data. Last year, for the first time, about 160 students in the Paramaribo area were denied admission to a primary school because there were insufficient school places.

The need for new schools is most pronounced in Districts farther away from Paramaribo, in which participation rates are still proportionately lower than in the urban and coastal areas. In particular, most schools in the interior were badly damaged (or destroyed) during the civil war. A Dutch government program, initiated in 1987, to construct new schools in the interior has encountered several setbacks that have delayed that effort (discussed later).

Construction of new schools is the responsibility of the Ministry of Public Works (MPW). The MPW is regarded as generally unresponsive to the needs of the Ministry of Education and new construction is slow. Buildings started in 1992 still had not yet been completed in late 1996. Problems in the earlier ill-fated IDB school construction project are attributed, in large part, to misallocation of funds within MPW.



## 4. Performance and Efficiency of the Education Sector

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### Introduction

The large amount of human and financial resources devoted to the education sector was discussed in Chapter 3. This Chapter discusses the results of those inputs and analyses the performance and efficiency of the education sector. Box 2 provides definitions of terms commonly used to analyze the performance and efficiency of education systems.

#### Box 2

##### Definitions of Education Terminology

**Access and equity:** *Access* concerns the proportion of the target population reached by the education system. *Equity* concerns the extent to which education opportunities are made available for all segments of the population, without restriction due to factors beyond an individual's control, such as gender, socioeconomic status, and geographic location.

**Internal efficiency:** refers to the extent that an education system optimally allocates and uses available resources for improving the quality and increasing the quantity of education. Inefficiencies are indicated qualitatively by low student attainment, weak teacher preparation and effectiveness, inadequate or inappropriate content and presentation of curricula, and low availability and utility of instructional materials and resources. Inefficiencies are indicated quantitatively by high rates of attrition and repetition, low student to teacher ratios, and under-utilization of physical facilities.

**External efficiency:** refers to the extent that education and training contribute to the sustained economic and social development of the country, build knowledge and skills geared to specific employment opportunities in the economy, and are balanced in the type and quantity of output. More specifically, it refers to the relevance of the instruction that students receive. It is concerned with the extent that the education adequately prepares students for employment and/or continued schooling. Indicators of external efficiency include graduates' ability to find employment, their ability to perform well once employed, and employer satisfaction with employees preparation.

### 4.1 Access and equity

Generous public funding of the education sector has resulted in relatively high levels of access to education, particularly at the basic levels. In 1990, the enrollment ratio at the pre-primary level was 94 percent, which was the highest in the Latin America and Caribbean region (UNESCO). Similarly, coverage at the primary level has been nearly universal. At the secondary level the

enrollment ratio drops to 45 percent, which is on a par with Colombia, Mexico and Peru, below Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago (65 percent) and Barbados (81 percent), and above Brazil (19 percent), Venezuela (20 percent) and Nicaragua (26 percent) (see ID B, 1996).

The principal reason for relatively high enrollment ratios is that private costs have not represented a significant constraint on access to education, because -- as noted in Chapter 3 -- tuition is virtually free at all levels of education. Therefore, household expenditures are limited to very modest entrance fees, a school uniform, a contribution to the child's transportation to school, and notebooks and pencils that the government has been unable to provide. The estimated annual costs to a family for sending one child to a primary school in a district outside Paramaribo is US\$26 (see Annex Table A-8). The costs to a family that has three children in primary school would be about \$77 per year. The annual cost to a family for sending a child to pre-primary school -- where pupils do not wear uniforms -- is US\$5.75. These expenditures compare with an annual per capita income of \$1,280.

Cost is more of a deterrent to entering Teacher Training Colleges. Students have to pay for all supplies they need to complete their practice teaching -- e.g. special paper they need for lesson plans, extra writing books, photocopies of parts of a lesson they want to use in class and glue and scissors. They are also responsible for any transportation costs associated with their practice teaching. Students from districts outside Paramaribo may stay at a government dormitory at a cost to the student of S\$2,000-3,000 per month.

Geography undoubtedly does constrain access to education. The nearly 67 percent of the population who live in and around Paramaribo have much greater access to education than children from rural areas, particularly the interior districts (see Annex Table A-30). Primary schools in the interior districts were badly damaged or destroyed during the civil war and many have not yet been repaired fully. Most junior secondary schools are in the Paramaribo area with a scattering of schools in other coastal cities. There are no junior or senior secondary schools in interior districts. Boarding facilities for children who are out of commuting range and have no urban relatives are extremely limited, leaving little opportunity for these students to continue their education.

The quality of instruction also appears to vary between the urban and interior areas. Examination scores (for all their problems) indicate that student performance on the primary school leavers examination differ across students in urban, coastal and interior areas of the country. While about 50 percent of students in the Paramaribo urban area qualify for entrance to the MULO (academic track) junior secondary option, only about 30 percent of students in the interior do so (Annex Table A-32). Such variations, however, may derive more from the lower average household incomes in the interior than from geographical differences in the quality of provision.

The education system is equitable from a gender perspective. Girls outnumber boys in primary and the academic tracks of junior and senior secondary education (see Annex Table A-1). All pre-school teachers, 88 percent of primary teachers, and about 70 percent of secondary teachers are women. (Senior secondary teacher data is not available by gender.) While male teachers outnumber female teachers in technical schools, female vocational students tend to outperform their

male counterparts, as indicated by the higher percent of girls passing at each grade level (Annex Table A-13).

## **4.2 Internal efficiency**

### **4.2.1 Dropout and repetition**

Student dropout and repetition are extremely high in Suriname. While about 9 out of every 10 Surinamese children start school, less than four in a thousand will finish senior secondary school 12 years later. Until 1992, dropout at the primary school level averaged about 4 percent each year for grades 1-5, and then increased sharply for grade 6, presumably reflecting parents' judgements about the low probability of their child passing the primary school leavers examination administered at the end of grade 6 (Annex Table A-5). More recently (1992-1993) there has been a sharp increase in student dropout during and after grade 1. Nearly one in five students who started first grade did not return for second grade.

Most students who do not pass to the next grade do not dropout, they repeat the grade, often doing this several times in the course of attending primary school. Over the last ten years, about a quarter of the students at every grade level (1-6) repeat that grade the following year. A cohort analysis, tracking the same group of students from 1988-1994, indicates that, of 10,275 students in the sample who started grade 1 in 1988, 7.27 percent completed six grades in six years. Another 12.4 percent completed in seven years; 12.7 percent completed in eight years; 9.8 percent completed in nine years; and 5.6 percent completed in ten years of schooling (Annex Tables 5a and 5b). Overall, only about 48 percent of those who started ever received a primary school completers' certificate.

The MOECD has some special programs for addressing the needs of those students who never enter or drop out of primary school, but they are relatively small in scale and cannot keep up with demand.

Data on student enrollment by grade and data on student progression, repetition, and dropout are not available for junior secondary schools. Anecdotal information from individuals familiar with the national education data suggest that 22 percent - 28 percent repeat each grade and that perhaps another 17 percent dropout each year. These estimates are consistent with repetition and dropout rates for the primary and senior secondary levels. At the senior secondary level, dropout and repetition rates are high in all three tracks. In 1991, one in every three students in the 13 year (top academic) track dropped out after the first year; another one in every four students had to repeat the grade (Annex Tables 11a).

The high rates of repetition and dropout indicate high rates of wastage and low internal efficiency. Student dropout means that the government pays for many years of schooling that do not result in graduates with employable skills. Repetition means that the government has to pay for extra years of education for many students. As a consequence of dropout and repetition, the government

must invest 15 years of primary schooling for every student who completes the six grades of primary schooling. This compares with 6.7 years in Panama, 7.5 years in Venezuela, nearly 9 years in Peru and 11 years in Nicaragua (IDB, 1996).

#### **4.2.2 Examination system**

Examinations at the end of each cycle of schooling are used to ration educational opportunity. While procedures for developing these national tests follow well established professional guidelines, they are ultimately administered and scored in a way that undermines their validity and usefulness.

National tests are administered at the ends of the primary cycle (grade 6), the junior secondary cycle (grade 10), and the senior secondary cycle (grade 12 or 13, depending on course of study). Each of these examinations has two purposes: (a) to determine eligibility for a school completers' certificate for that cycle; and (b) to determine a student's eligibility and placement in the educational options at the next cycle.

Primary school completers are directed into subsequent educational options through a combination of their end-of-cycle test score and their age. If students below the age of 13 receive low scores, they may have the option of repeating grade 6. If they are over the age of 14, they have exhausted their eligibility for primary school and must either take a lesser vocational junior secondary option or drop out of school. The examination given at the end of the junior secondary cycle is used to determine eligibility for a junior secondary school completers' certificate and is re-scored to yield a second score that is used to place the student into one of the senior secondary options (see Annex Table A-28).

Prior to 1984, these end-of-cycle examinations involved only a test prepared by the Examinations Bureau of the Ministry of Education. However in 1994, responding to a public outcry about low examination passing rates, the Minister of Education changed the procedures to allow each school to prepare its own end-of-cycle test. The results of these school tests are then combined with the national test results in the determination of both eligibility for a completers' certificate and placement into the next cycle. In combining the school and national test scores at the primary level, the school test is worth one-third and the national test is worth two-thirds of the final combined score. At the end of junior secondary, the school and national tests are given equal weight. This procedure has three consequences:

- Examination pass rates cannot meaningfully be compared across schools or districts, since school tests differ in content coverage, reliability, and difficulty.
- Local schools are able to influence their pass rates to respond to community pressures (which was the original intent of the Minister's policy change).
- The Ministry has no effective way to monitor the instructional impact of new initiatives to improve the quality of education.

Ironically, the introduction of the new procedure did not raise primary student pass rates during its first year of application, 1994. Indeed, examination pass rates for primary students actually dropped because student performance declined faster than the reduction in standards. In the context of galloping inflation that year, schools suffered an acute shortage of instructional materials and supplies, and a series of teacher strikes reduced the amount of instructional time.

However, the new procedure did start to raise pass rates in 1995. A comparison of pass rates including the school exam with those when not including the school exam (Annex Tables 25 and 26) indicates that including the school examination data in the final score raises the pass rate -- rather dramatically in some districts (e.g. Sipaliwini).<sup>4</sup> The tendency for school tests to increase the overall pass rate also holds for the junior secondary school completers' exam (see Annex Table A-27).

The *national* end-of-cycle tests appear to follow well-established professional procedures for test development and administration. Test items are prepared by committees of teachers, test experts, and community representatives. A second committee, composed of educators and test experts then reviews the tests for alignment of the test to the national curriculum (to the extent possible, given the variability in implementing the curriculum across schools).<sup>5</sup> Each test in each school is administered under the supervision of an independent test monitor. These test monitors are teachers from other schools, retired teachers, and government officials who are paid for their time and help ensure that proper test administration procedures are followed. Scoring of the primary school and junior secondary completers' examinations are done by the Examination Bureau of the Ministry of Education. However, scoring of the Senior Secondary Leavers' Examination is scored at the school by the teachers and the examination monitors, and the results of the school and national examinations are reported to the Examination Bureau.

While the present test administration system is expensive to operate, it would be worth that investment if the test results accurately and fairly allocated children to different education options and yielded useful information about the impact of interventions to improve educational quality. However, as long as the national tests results are combined with school-built test results in reaching a final student score, the investment in elaborate test administration procedures is largely wasted.

The present testing system is also over-reliant on a single test at the end of a four or six year school cycle as the basis for allocating students to future educational options. International practice generally favors a continuous assessment approach, in which the allocation of students to future educational options is based on more information, collected over a longer period of time and which makes some provision for including students' personal interests and aptitudes in the decision.

This notwithstanding, at present most grade repetition occurs during the years in-between national testing cycles and testing within grade cycles appears more flawed than between cycle

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<sup>4</sup> An exception is the District of Nickerie where marginally fewer students were eligible for the academic junior secondary track (MULO) with the combined score than with only the national score.

<sup>5</sup> Only one committee is involved in preparing and reviewing the Senior Secondary Completers' Examination.

testing. Grade-to-grade promotion is based on tests constructed by teachers. Student progress, based on these tests, is then supposed to be reported three times a year to the MOECD. Teachers get little if any training in test development and there is no comparability in tests from school to school. In practice, teachers probably end up evaluating pupils based on their overall judgement of that student's ability. The consistency of repetition rates over years and across grades suggests a widespread informal expectation among teachers about how many students should be allowed to pass.

International comparisons of educational attainment are hampered by linguistic isolation. Suriname does not participate in the Caribbean Examination Council and thus does not administer the examination that would allow a comparison of student achievement with other Caribbean countries. MOECD officials point out that the Caribbean Examinations, while honoured by institutions in the Caribbean region, do not have wide currency in Europe, where most Surinamese students who wish to study abroad prefer to go.

## **4.3 External efficiency**

### **4.3.1 Skills availability and employability**

Widespread skills shortages suggest that the education system is not producing an adequate supply of qualified employees.<sup>6</sup> The skills shortage is particularly acute in the civil service (including the Ministry of Education), where only 1,200 persons (700 if teachers are excluded) out of a total of 34,000 employees had some degree of higher level education. A 1996 study of higher level (professional) skill shortages within the government, conducted by the Organization of American States (OAS) and the National Planning Office (NPO) estimated that, based on the existing structure and functions of government, the executive levels of government needed 230 additional persons with a bachelor's degree and 220 additional persons with a master's degree (see Annex Table A-24a).

It is harder to assess definitively skills shortages in the private sector because of a lack of data.<sup>7</sup> However, anecdotal evidence suggests that, while skills shortages are not as acute as in the public sector, primarily because the private sector pays considerably more attractive salaries, skills shortages are still pervasive. A case study of Suralco, which is the country's largest private sector

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<sup>6</sup> While deficiencies in the education system are mainly responsible for the skills shortage, part of the skills shortage is attributable to the emigration of many highly-skilled persons after 1974.

<sup>7</sup> National employment data tend to be old and of uncertain quality. Much of the workforce needs data in the 1996 Employment Report of the Ministry of Labor were collected in 1992, prior to an acceleration of inflation and large exchange rate adjustments. The 1992 data do not reflect current development plans or vacancies of major employers. In 1996, the Ministry of Labor sought Dutch assistance to conduct a labor demand study, but this request was not viewed as a priority by other units of government and the item was not included in the agenda of the November 1996 bilateral meeting between Suriname and The Netherlands.

employer and which is generally considered to have access to the best graduates, illustrates this point and questions the relevance and quality of the vocational education students receive.

The total workforce of Suralco is presently about 2,200, but the company expects to reduce its workforce over the next four to eight years. Suralco hires about 135 new employees each year and about half of those come directly out of school without previous employment experience. The experience of the company so far is that graduates of junior and senior secondary schools are weak in English and mathematics, and are weak in the general knowledge necessary for the acquisition of advanced skills. Those hired for technical jobs (virtually all who enter without prior employment experience) go through a two year apprenticeship program designed and run by the company (which includes a year of additional mathematics instruction). Of the 24 junior secondary vocational graduates accepted into the Suralco apprenticeship program, 16 were able to complete the course. Suralco has fared better with NATIN graduates -- all but one of 24 apprentice trainees finished the course.

Company officials point out that Suralco is an American company and employees need to be able to converse in English with American staff and be able to read English instruction and repair manuals that accompany the equipment. Further, much of the technical equipment in the mining and refining processes are computer controlled. While the company expects to provide this specialized computer training, the company training requires stronger literacy and numeracy skills than graduates of technical track programs tend to have. Company officials have had better success in hiring graduates from the academic tracks and training them in technical skills than in hiring technical graduates and teaching them basic literacy and numeracy skills.

Company officials observe that graduates of vocational and technical programs are unfamiliar with much of the technology used in the production process (e.g. fuel injection systems, valves, pumps) and many of the tools used to maintain that equipment. A more general problem is that graduates from technical schools are trained rather narrowly in single technical areas (e.g. carpentry and metal work). Suralco requires that employees have cross-skill training and operate in a multi-tasking work environment. For example, all electricians receive training in instrument mechanics and all instrument mechanics receive electrical training. Mobile equipment operators are expected to maintain and repair, as well as operate, their equipment.

Other major employers, such as Staatsolie, the state-owned oil company, report similar experiences and are uniform in urging stronger school preparation in basic skills, more multi-skill training, and more attention to aligning the school-based training to the skill needs of local companies.

Suralco and other major international employers observe that the relevant technology associated with their production processes is changing every 2-3 years. It is unlikely that vocational and technical training schools can (or should) support the investment in specialized equipment that would allow them to train their graduates in specific fields.

### **4.3.2 Quality of education**

While low quality instruction undercuts internal efficiency, it also undermines the external efficiency of education as graduates do not have the skills necessary to find and hold meaningful employment.<sup>8</sup> As discussed earlier, academic track students often lack textbooks and instructional materials; vocational and technical students do not have the materials and tools with which to develop and practice their skills; and the average quality of teaching is low. The combination of these factors limits the skills of new entrants to labor market.

### **4.3.3 Commitment to professional track**

Much educational and training effort does not lead to increased output because many students in vocational and professional training have no particular interest in their subsequent studies or in pursuing careers in the areas for which they are being trained. Students' post-primary education options, and again their post-junior-secondary options are determined largely by their score on national examinations given at the end of each education cycle that presumably measure students mastery of previous content. Individual interests and aptitudes are not considered in the assignment of individuals to subsequent educational options.

This problem is particularly acute in the teaching profession itself. Teacher training school officials estimate that less than one percent of incoming students have any interest in teaching as a career. About half of each cohort do not enter teaching after graduation. While TTC training may contribute to national development as leavers utilize their skills in other areas of the economy, much of the government's investment in teacher training does not return to benefit education and teacher training is an inefficient way to raise general skills levels in the economy.

### **4.3.4 The prestige of vocational and technical education**

The test-driven selection process that tracks the least academically able students into vocational and technical options devalues vocational and technical skills and stigmatizes students who pursue training in these areas. This caste system undermines national development, as students seek to avoid the very skill areas essential to the development of a robust economy.

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<sup>8</sup> Tracer studies of recent graduates that could clarify the employment options available to graduates have not been conducted. Anecdotal evidence indicates that actual unemployment of school graduates, at least at the junior and senior secondary levels, is low because those not employed in formal positions generally earn an adequate living by piecing together a series of part-term activities.



## **5. Government Strategy and International Support in the Education Sector**

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### **5.1 Government's strategy**

A new government took office in October 1996 and, given the unavoidable period of policy review and development that occurs with every change of government, is in the process of formulating a full plan for education development. A committee has been appointed to review the education portion of the national multi-year development plan (1993-98) and prepare a new plan.

Articulation of the government's plans for education has also been hampered by a recent cabinet reshuffle. In public remarks, the former Minister of Education and Development indicted that more attention would be given to primary education and that higher education institutions needed to explore new ways of cost-sharing and cost recovery. The Ministry is already exploring a student loan system to help offset increased costs to students from such an initiative. (The student association at the university has already indicated its opposition to increased student costs.). Given the short time in office, the new Minister has not yet articulated definitive views on the direction of education policy.

### **5.2 International support**

The major international donors to education in Suriname are the Netherlands and Belgium. Several other countries and international organizations, including India, China, Brazil, Japan, and UNDP provide scholarships for advanced study abroad (see Annex Table A-37 for a summary of international project assistance). Coordination of donor assistance within Suriname is assisted by a monthly lunch meeting of international assistance representatives with senior officials of the Ministry of Planning and Development Cooperation.

The major focus of Dutch support has been instructional materials and supplies at the primary level -- particularly in the interior, the development of apprenticeship programs in vocational/technical education, and support for higher education, both for strengthening the University of Suriname and for scholarships for students to study abroad (Annex Table A-38).

The largest primary education project financed by the Dutch government encountered a series of difficulties related to the purchase and distribution of materials.<sup>9</sup> Instructional materials purchased from Holland arrived in the country late, the distribution network was a continuing problem, and theft of materials once they arrived in the schools was frequent. As a consequence, the purchase and

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<sup>9</sup> A report evaluating the primary school project was due in late November 1996.

distribution of school supplies was stopped in the early 1990s. The repair of schools in the interior was re-started by working through a Surinamese NGO (rather than through the government).

Belgian assistance has been in the form of Belgian advisors to the MOECD and university scholarship programs. There are also several direct university-to-university collaborative projects between Belgian universities and the University of Suriname. Most of the Belgian scholarships are for Surinamese students to study in universities in the Latin American region. Previous experience with scholarships to Dutch universities indicated that many students did not return to Suriname at the end of their studies. The provision of scholarships to Latin American universities was an effort to increase that return rate, a strategy that appears to be working.

The EU does not have an active program in the education sector and does not anticipate increasing its activities in that area, in part because a member country, the Netherlands, is already heavily involved in the sector.

Assistance from the IDB itself, has hitherto been limited to a primary education project initiated in 1987, and which was referred to in Chapter 3. That project provided for: (a) the development of curriculum and improvement of instructional materials in order to encourage more active student participation and make the content and examples more relevant to Surinamese students; (b) the provision of instructional materials; (c) the production and distribution of instructional materials and supplies; and (d) school construction. While the curriculum development portion of the project appears to have had some success, problems were encountered in local oversight and follow-through in the school construction component. As a result, the IDB project was suspended in 1993, when it was half-completed.

Over the last 15 years, increasing awareness of the high rates of private and social return for primary education have led many international development organizations to give priority to investing in primary education. In Suriname, however, much of the international assistance to education has been at the tertiary level, in the form of assistance to the University of Suriname and scholarship programs to support Surinamese students studying abroad. Only the Dutch government and a previous project of the IDB have given substantial assistance to primary and secondary education.

## **6. Conclusions and Evaluation**

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### **6.1 Strengths of the education sector**

In conclusion, Suriname's education sector has some notable strengths. Education is widely available, particularly at the basic levels, and there is little evidence of financial or income constraints to access. Moreover, the system has achieved a high degree of gender equality.

### **6.2 Weaknesses of the education sector**

But these strengths must be measured against the weaknesses of the system. The number of well qualified graduates produced by the education system is low. This under-achievement is linked to extremely high drop out and repetition rates, poor quality instruction, lack of education materials and deteriorated school buildings. Among the students who do graduate, some, particularly those with technical-vocational training, have skills that are only marginally useful to employers. The system, therefore, poorly equips students with skills with which they can earn a living. Nor does the system provide employers with a skilled, highly productive workforce.

### **6.3 Immediate causes of weaknesses**

These deficiencies exist despite the generous amount of financial and human resources devoted to the education sector. Public expenditure on education is equivalent to 5 percent of GDP and 12 percent of total government expenditures. Total direct and indirect employment by the MOECD accounts for 30 percent of total government employment and 12.5 percent of the country's workforce. The contradiction between resource inputs and outcomes stems from three immediate problems: misallocation of resources; inefficiencies and waste; and weak teaching capacity.

Resources are not allocated efficiently between different inputs. Too high a proportion of total financial resources are devoted to salaries, leaving insufficient funding for complementary inputs like supplies, equipment and school maintenance. Chronic and severe shortages of these complementary inputs diminish the effectiveness of teachers. Moreover, the heavy spending on salaries is not, in practice, reflected in low pupil to teacher ratios because of the existence of a sizeable non-instructional staff and the absenteeism among teachers. Approximately 65 percent of the financial resources allocated to salaries is spent on non-instructional staff and ghost teachers.

The education sector is internally and externally inefficient. High drop out and repetition rates raise unit costs significantly: the government must pay for 15 years of primary schooling for every student who completes the six grades of primary schooling. Some training is ineffectual and

generates very few benefits either for the student or for the economy. Only half of the students trained at advanced teacher training colleges actually become teachers. The usefulness of technical-vocational training appears extremely limited. And despite generating less benefits than general education it costs more per pupil.

Despite spending around 4.5 percent of GDP on teachers, teaching capacity is weak. A large chunk of that expenditure has no impact on teaching capacity because it finances ghost teachers. Moreover, many of the teachers who do attend work are under qualified. A perverse selection mechanism means that teachers are recruited from the academically weakest students and many lack any interest in teaching. In addition, teacher training is weak because teacher training colleges suffer, perhaps even more severely than schools, from facility, supply and teacher deficiencies.

## 6.4 Fundamental causes of weaknesses

The above problems, while particularly acute in Suriname, are present in many Latin American and Caribbean countries.<sup>10</sup> This is because problems with misallocation of resources, inefficiencies and waste, and weaker teacher capacity, are symptoms of more fundamental deficiencies in the institutional structure of the education sector, which are common to many countries. The effectiveness of a social system, such as education, is to a great extent determined by the roles of different actors and the rules they play by. Education policy in Suriname, in common with much of the traditional social policy in Latin America and the Caribbean, has recognized the importance of public action to improve social conditions of the population. The strategy adopted has been to give the public sector an all encompassing role – as financier, purchaser, provider, employer and regulator. Such social programs may have performed adequately when clienteles were smaller, but in many cases attempts to expand and universalize the services led to a deterioration of service delivery. As the number of clients expanded, programs became more ambitious and more complex. Under these circumstances, the combination of all these different roles in one large ministry creates a structure which lacks the appropriate mechanisms to make the system perform efficiently and equitably. Furthermore, this centralization of decisions and resources exacerbates the difficulties of monitoring performance, ensuring equity and inducing innovation in the social sectors.

For example, efficiency in the use of funds is largely determined by how the system using the funds is organized. Under Suriname's current system the budget is determined by inputs, in particular by the payroll plus some other expenses and running costs. Funding, therefore, is only very indirectly linked to output or outcomes and education providers (schools, colleges, training institutes) do not face any financial incentives to produce large quantities of high quality education services. They will receive the same amount of funding whether they produce inferior quality teaching or high quality teaching.

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<sup>10</sup> This section draws on the analysis in the special section of the IDB's 1996 report on Economic and Social Progress in Latin America: Making Social Services Work.

In addition, schools face little incentive to ensure that inputs (particularly staff) are used efficiently since the quantity of inputs provided by the MOECD does not vary according to the efficiency with which resources are used. Similarly, the MOECD has no financial tools to reward good provider performance or punish weak provider performance. Funding schools on the basis of the number of students attending rather than the number of teachers or number of classrooms can give decision-makers strong incentives to use their resources efficiently and provide a high quality service that will attract and retain students in their schools.

Another drawback of funding inputs rather than outputs is that financial flows respond only weakly, slowly or coincidentally with changing needs. Financing follows historical supply capacity rather than changes in demand.

A second major deficiency with the current system of funding is that it is highly centralized. Expenditure on education is almost entirely controlled by the MOECD and providers have no control or discretion over what inputs they can use. They cannot alter the resource mix and adjust, for instance, how much should be spent on teachers versus how much should be spent on supplies or school maintenance or security. They have little control over what staff skills or specializations are hired or supplied. Since school principals have immediate contact with students, teachers and the infrastructural environment, they often have a better understanding of which expenditures are going to be more effective. The weak communications infrastructure in the education sector and scarcity of formal contact between the MOECD and schools also hamper the transmission of information to the central level, where decisions regarding the allocation of resources are taken. Centralization of funding, therefore, separates those in control of allocating resources from those who have the most information about needs. In addition, the lack of school officials ability to alter their own environment can contribute to poor morale.

Since teachers are paid centrally by the MOECD, school officials have little power to discipline or reward teachers. In particular, they have little ability to penalize non-attendance by deducting absences from teachers salaries or dismissing chronically poor performers.

The existing institutional structure also diminishes and disperses accountability for performance in the education sector. Since parents and local communities have no say over how individual schools are run or to force improvements, school principals and officials are not accountable to their major clients for the services they are providing. While reporting to the MOECD, the accountability of schools to the MOECD is also reduced because both parties know that the schools have little ability to change their performance. The practice of combining national exam marks with school examination marks also clouds objective evaluation and comparison of individual school performance in turning out qualified graduates.

In addition to reducing the ability of providers to perform efficiently, the institutional concentration of responsibilities on the MOECD (financier, purchaser, employer, regulator, and manager of the providers) also hampers the MOECD's ability to carry out certain tasks. Generally, the imperatives of day-to-day management of the provision of education take precedence over other tasks such as strategic planning, regulation and monitoring and the setting of standards. The collapse of the Ministry's ability to collect and compile national education statistics is an example of this crowding out effect.

## 7. Recommendations

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### 7.1 General considerations

Suriname's education sector is facing severe challenges, which need to be addressed if better progress in human capital accumulation and economic development are to be achieved. The preceding chapters have argued that these challenges are not the result of a shortage of resources allocated to the sector. Rather they are, at root, caused by the current institutional and incentive structure in the education sector.

Simply increasing the level of resources allocated to the sector, therefore, will result in little improvement in the functioning of the education system or in the number and quality of graduates from the education system. A larger number of resources would be misallocated and used inefficiently. Merely increasing salaries for teachers also is unlikely to have a major positive impact on education sector performance. Experience in developing countries suggests that increasing salaries for teachers had a positive impact on educational output in only 29 percent of cases (IDB, 1993).

Moreover, even if increasing the level of resources would secure improvements in the education sector, the weak fiscal situation and competition from alternative uses would not permit significantly higher expenditures on education for the foreseeable future. Thus, the only meaningful and sustainable way to obtain a significant improvement in the education system will be to reform the fundamental institutional and incentive structure of the sector.

Because of the positive externalities generated by education and because of equity considerations, the role of the public sector in mobilizing funds for education is indisputable. However, the fact that financing is an obligation of the government does not determine either how resources are allocated or who should be responsible for directly providing the service. The choice in the method of allocation and in responsibility for the provision of the service are the keys to improving the institutional and incentive environment. Improvement, thus, boils down to giving schools the means to improve performance, giving them incentives to improve performance and holding them accountable for it.

### 7.2 Recommendations

#### 7.2.1 Let providers define inputs

The first major institutional change would be to decentralize budgeting and let providers have discretion and control over the inputs they use. The unit that is most appropriate for constructing decentralized budgeting may be administrative districts, school districts or individual schools.

Channelling funds to individual schools would provide the strongest incentives for better allocation and utilization of resources but economies of scale considerations may make a more aggregated unit the most efficient option.

The degree of decentralization could also vary, ranging in a spectrum from total centralization, as is the case now, to decentralizing 100 percent of school costs. Transferring a budget equivalent to 100 percent of school expenditures would enable schools to have control over all of their inputs, staffing and otherwise, and a substantial degree of autonomy. A less ambitious but perhaps more feasible reform in the short term would be to transfer some resources for school supplies and maintenance to schools (the value equivalent of the present in-kind transfers). This arrangement, which has been introduced in several states of Brazil, would allow each school to determine whether it wants to repair school infrastructure, buy new blackboards or to increase security. Such an arrangement could be supplemented by increased use of non-financial incentives for staff management, such as recognition for good performance and penalties for bad performance.

### **7.2.2 Make resources reward outcomes**

A second key institutional and incentive reform would be to allocate resources on the basis of outcomes rather inputs. By putting greater emphasis on performance as a criterion for receiving funds one can make budgets an instrument for putting pressure on public providers to be efficient. The most direct way to reward performance or outcomes is to allocate funding for schools based on the number of students attending the school.<sup>11</sup> Such "capitation" mechanisms can be simple or complex. In Suriname's case, the formula for allocating funds would have to take account of several factors. Schools in the interior would probably need a higher per pupil expenditure because costs per pupil would be higher. Teachers would have to be paid more to live in the interior and transportation costs for materials and supplies would be higher. Smaller schools -- typical of the interior -- which cannot benefit from economies of scale would also face higher per pupil costs. Schools located in poor neighborhoods are likely to be teaching more difficult students and that factor too would have to be incorporated in the formula. Costs per student also would vary between different levels of education, with higher education generally being more expensive than primary and secondary levels. The formula used to allocate funding, including the weighting for different factors, should have a legal basis and should be published and accessible in order to ensure transparency. A balance would have to be struck between flexibility to calibrate the weighting of various factors, especially in the initial period after introduction, and establishing a stable and predictable basis for planning.

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<sup>11</sup> An even more precise measure of schools' outputs is the number of students passing a standard national exam. However, it can be difficult in practice to determine the extent to which differential exam pass rates are due to schools' own efforts and teaching skills as opposed to other factors, such as average household income of the attending students. For this reason, if pass rates are used as a criterion in the formula allocating funding, they should be given a relatively low weighting.

### **7.2.3 Make providers accountable**

There are numerous checks and balances that need to be in place before school autonomy is increased. It is necessary to ensure that in the process of reallocating responsibilities those that receive decision-making power have the right structure of governance, incentives and ownership to be held accountable for their actions. If resources are going to be transferred to schools there are three management instruments that need to be in place simultaneously: (i) a governance structure at the school level, preferably with parent and community participation; (ii) a budgeting process based on outcomes; and (iii) a standardized examination system. Such a coherent structure can ensure proper control over the transferred fund both by the beneficiaries of the education system and by the central government.

The typical governance structure at the school level would be to establish a school board which would have the strong participation of parents. Parents are the clients of the school's services and have a direct stake in the performance of the school. Other board members could comprise teachers and respected community members. For school principals and administrators to be held accountable to the school board, as well as to the MOECD, the board would need to have some influence or control over how financial resources are allocated and managed, what programs are run and careers of schools administrators. For the schools to take on the new responsibilities, the schools' administrative capacities would also have to be strengthened, possibly by transferring administrative staff.

As noted above, a budgeting process that is based on outcomes also puts pressure on schools to be efficient and attractive to students. It conditions schools to use inputs in the best possible combination and as efficiently as possible, while focusing them on service provision.

A standardized examination system would be required to monitor and evaluate school performance on a fair and objective basis and especially if the number of students graduating were to be used as a weight in the allocation formula. This would mean that the practice of combining school tests with national test results would have to be terminated.

### **7.2.4 Try on a pilot or test basis**

If the reforms recommended above seem to be too radical for broad implementation, they could be tested or introduced on a pilot basis. A small number of schools could be selected (preferably the schools themselves would volunteer to participate in the program) to undergo reforms of this type. Once success is demonstrated on a small basis and experience is gained, the reforms could be broadened to other schools.

### **7.2.5 Change the role of the MOECD**

Changing the role of schools would allow the MOECD's role to change also. Its role would shift from a focus on the provision of education to that of overseer of the education system, strategic



planner, regulator and setter of standards. In sum, it would focus on the higher functions which only the Ministry is in a position to do and which, hitherto have been crowded out by the day-to-day management and operation of the education system. It would set standards for recruiting teachers, national examinations, infrastructure and facility codes, and the curriculum. It would begin again to compile and process statistics and to conduct research. Based on this enhanced information capacity, it would also strengthen its ability to plan strategically for the sector.

The MOECD would still control the allocation of funds to schools. However, it would exercise this control not by the provision of in-kind services as is the case now, but by determining, in collaboration with other relevant parties, the formula used to allocate actual financial resources to schools. It would adjust and calibrate the allocation formula as it gains experience with it.

In addition to the fundamental institutional reforms listed above, there are a number of more moderate reforms which could also be undertaken to improve the functioning of the education system.

#### **7.2.6 Review recruitment procedures**

The current system for allocating students into different educational options is crude and severely disadvantages the teaching profession by allocating academically weak and unmotivated students into teaching. This suggests the need for an entrance examination for teacher training colleges that is separate from the national examination. This would test not only for academic skills but also give a better picture of other skills that are relevant and important for a teaching career. It would also seek to screen out unmotivated students. Also, by raising an additional hurdle to entrance to teacher training colleges it would restore some prestige to the institutions and to teaching as a career.

#### **7.2.7 User fees for higher level education**

An additional method of increasing the seriousness of students receiving vocational and professional training would be to charge a modest fee for the course. At present, students in many vocational or professional training tracks pay no direct costs for the training and, given the limited possibility for obtaining a well-paying job, have little opportunity cost. A modest fee should not be intended to recover fully the costs of providing the service or to discourage serious students but to screen out students with very little commitment to the training.

#### **7.2.8 Review technical-vocational education**

The apparent expense per pupil and poor results from the technical-vocational tracks suggest that a thorough review of the system would be useful. It is likely that much could be gained from reducing the technical-vocational capacity and using the funds saved to increase the supply of general/academic education.

### **7.2.9 Allocation of expenditure by level of services**

While Suriname has given priority to primary and secondary education levels, international donors have favoured supporting the tertiary level. Given the higher social rates of return on primary and secondary education, it would be useful to steer donors into increasing the proportion of their support allocated to primary and secondary levels.

### **7.2.10 Maintenance versus new school construction**

It will also be important to focus on school maintenance and refurbishment of new buildings rather than embarking on a large program of new school construction. Limited demographic changes and slow growth in enrollments suggest that the growth in demand for school facilities will be modest and manageable. In general then, channeling expenditures on school maintenance and refurbishment would have the highest rate of return. However, new construction may be needed to replace those schools which have deteriorated beyond repair, particularly in the interior where schools were destroyed by the civil war.

### **7.2.11 Language considerations**

Suriname's economic links are increasingly shifting towards English, Portuguese and Spanish-speaking countries. The dominance of Dutch, therefore, while facilitating connections with the Netherlands which is the principal source of external aid and which maintains strong cultural and other links with Suriname, may hamper Suriname's participation in a number of avenues, including trade relations. Given this, it may be useful to strengthen English instruction at an early age and in later grades, Portuguese or Spanish for more advanced students.

## List of Persons Interviewed

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Mr. R. Adama, Assistant Permanent Secretary for Vocational Education, Ministry of Education and Community Development

Mr. Carlo Badal, Lecturer in Statistics, University of Suriname

Mr. R. van den Berg, Head of the Division of the Development Aid Cooperation, Embassy of the Netherlands

Mr. H. Bhoepsingh, Chief, Training and Management, SURALCO

Mr. Bottse, Head of the Office of Guidance, Ministry of Education and Community Development

Mr. T. Dudermel, Secondary Secretary, European Commission Delegation

Mr. Essed, Head Human Resources Manager, State Oil Company of Suriname

Mr. T. Gobardhan, Minister of Education and Community Development

Mr. Goedschalk, former Head of Budget, Ministry of Education and Community Development

Mrs. De Haas-Bledoeg, Planning Office, Ministry of Labor

Mr. G. Hollingsworth, Head of Distribution, Ministry of Education and Community Development

Mr. A. Kallan, Assistant Permanent Secretary for Development Services, Directorate of Education, Ministry of Education and Community Development

Mrs. Marie Levens, Senior Policy Advisor, Higher Education Development Scholarship and Exchange Programs, Ministry of Education and Community Development

Ms. Lobbazoo, Division of Development Aid Cooperation, Embassy of the Netherlands

Mr. Kenneth MacDonald, School Leader, A.M.S. Senior Secondary School

Mr. Marica, Deputy Director, Ministry of Labor

Mrs. M. Mohamedradja, Head, Bureau of Examination and Test Development, Ministry of Education and Community Development

Mrs. L. Monsels, Director, National Planning Office, GOS

Mr. Oreste, Political Officer, American Embassy

Mr. H. Pinas, Assistant Permanent Secretary for Administrative Services, Ministry of Education and Community Development

Mr. K. Ramsundersingh, School Leader, S.P.I. Teacher Training College

Mr. Soetosenojo Ruben, Education Advisor, Bureau of Educational Information and Exchange Programs, Ministry of Education and Community Development

Mr. I. Sno, Director, General Bureau of Statistics, GBS

Mr. B.L. Tijin Liep Shie, Assistant Permanent Secretary for Education, Ministry of Education and Community Development

Mr. R. Wesenhagen, Assistant Permanent Secretary for Technical Services, Directorate of Education, Ministry of Education and Community Development

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**Table A-1**  
**Number of Schools, Teachers and Students, 1993/94**

Type of School/Level	Grade/Age	Student Enrollment			Number of Teachers			Number of Schools	Number of Classrooms	Number of Classes
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total			
Pre-primary (KO)	2 years; ages 4-5	8243	7891	16134	0	602	602	220	551	549
Special Education (BO)	Grades KO-6; ages 4-11	754	375	1129	8	148	156	24	154	104
Primary	Grades 1-6; ages 6-11	36362	34634	70996	428	3105	3533	273	3149	2487
General Jr. Second. (MULO)	Grades 7-10; ages 12-15	5357	7408	12765	248	560	808	47	614	521
Jr. Sec.-- Vocational (LBGO) 1994	Grades 7-10; ages 12-15	3219	5221	8440	169	383	547	40	449	399
Jr. Sec.-- Technical (LTO)	Grades 7-10; ages 12-14	2084	91	2103	166	43	209	7	144	163
Jr. Sec.-- Elementary Vocational (LNO)	Grades 7-9; ages 12-14	0	284	284	1	32	33	2	30	25
Jr. Sec.-- Voc. Home Econ. (EBO)	Grades 7-9; ages 12-14	1395	373	1768	26	12	38	4	42	93
Jr. Sec.-Special Educ. (VBO)	Grades 7-9; ages 12-14	140	75	215	1	17	18	3	27	22
Sn. Sec.--General Academic (VWO)	Grades 11-13; ages 16-18	1106	1441	2,547	Total combined number of teachers 583			6	Total combined count of 349	Total combined count of 268
Sn. Sec.-- General Ordinary (HAWO)	Grades 11-12; ages 16-17	451	513	964				2		
Sn. Sec.-- Teacher Training College (PA)	Grades 11-14; ages 16-19	40	933	973				3		

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**Number of Pre-Primary School Teachers and Pupil Enrollment  
by Gender and Year, 1985 to 1993**

**Source:** 1985-1992 data was from the Statistics Office of the Ministry of Education and Community Development. The 1993 and 1994 data was from the General Statistics Bureau. Note that the data collection methods differ between these offices and apparent changes in trends may be due to variations in data collection methods rather than shift in school going behavior.

### Primary School Enrollment by Grade and Year, 1984-1993

**Source:** Developed from data provided by the Ministry of Education and Community Development.





Table A-5

## Primary School Enrollment, Progression, Repetition and Dropout by Grade and Year, 1984-1994\*

Number of Students Entering	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	Corresponding Rates (%) by Grade					
							1	2	3	4	5	6
1984 Enrollment	13742	12427	12156	12007	11433	9928	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Repeaters	3742	2840	2820	3101	2537	1818	27.2	22.9	23.2	25.8	22.2	18.3
Passed	9607	9153	8823	8272	7466	5889	69.9	73.7	72.6	68.9	65.3	59.3
Dropped out	393	434	513	634	1430	2221	2.9	3.5	4.2	5.3	12.5	22.4
1985 Enrollment	13707	12052	11771	11838	10776	9819	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Repeaters	3894	2445	2618	3015	2504	2353	28.4	20.3	22.2	25.5	23.2	24.0
Passed	9604	9156	8720	8670	7855	5344	70.1	76.0	74.1	73.2	72.9	54.4
Dropped out	209	451	433	153	417	2122	1.5	3.7	3.7	1.3	3.9	21.6
1986 Enrollment	14166	12209	11834	11818	11411	10581	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Repeaters	4062	2605	2678	3098	2741	2726	28.7	21.3	22.6	26.2	24.0	25.8
Passed	9765	935	9136	8393	8251	594	68.9	76.6	77.2	71.0	72.3	49.1
Dropped out	339	253	20	326	419	2661	2.4	2.1	0.2	2.8	3.7	25.1

\* Enrollment figures may vary from other official estimates, since these data are from a special study which only included students for whom complete data were available.

Table A-5

Number of Students Entering	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	Corresponding Rates (%) by Grade					
							1	2	3	4	5	6
1987 Enrollment	15048	13027	12752	12915	11918	10903	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Repeaters	3659	3262	3402	3779	3524	2652	24.3	25.0	26.7	29.3	29.6	24.3
Passed	9800	9712	9131	8539	7791	5321	65.1	74.6	71.6	66.1	65.4	48.8
Dropped out	1589	52	220	597	603	2930	10.6	0.4	1.7	4.6	5.1	26.9
1988 Enrollment	16246	13001	13065	12998	12117	10904	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Repeaters	5679	3201	3353	3867	3578	3113	35.0	24.6	25.7	29.8	29.5	28.5
Passed	9927	9066	8810	8012	7117	5236	61.1	69.7	67.4	61.6	58.7	48.0
Dropped out	640	735	902	1119	1423	2555	3.9	5.7	6.9	8.6	11.7	23.4
1989 Enrollment	16112	12954	12236	12468	11396	10060	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Repeaters	5371	3027	3171	3657	3384	2944	33.3	23.4	25.9	29.3	29.7	29.3
Passed	10427	9452	8779	8551	7777	4596	64.7	73.0	71.7	68.6	68.2	45.7
Dropped out	315	475	287	260	235	2521	2.0	3.7	2.3	2.1	2.1	25.1
1990 Enrollment	14511	13118	11971	11715	11209	10751	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Repeaters	3282	2692	2519	2936	2658	2974	22.6	20.5	21.0	25.1	23.7	27.7
Passed	10869	9793	9077	8718	8272	5053	74.9	74.7	75.8	74.4	73.8	47.0
Dropped out	359	634	375	60	279	2724	2.5	4.8	3.0	0.5	2.5	25.3

Table A-5

Number of Students Entering	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	Corresponding Rates (%) by Grade					
							1	2	3	4	5	6
1991 Enrollment	14988	13548	12367	12103	11580	11091	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Repeaters	4186	2679	2574	3026	2862	2819	27.9	19.8	20.8	25.0	24.7	25.4
Passed	10542	10216	9592	8852	8616	5257	70.3	75.4	77.6	73.1	74.4	47.4
Dropped out	260	653	201	225	102	3015	1.7	4.8	1.6	1.9	0.9	27.2
1992 Enrollment	15678	14172	12936	12661	12114	11601	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Repeaters	3688	3630	2720	3069	3262	2985	23.5	25.6	21.0	24.2	26.9	25.7
Passed	10156	9942	9956	9334	8674	6093	64.8	70.2	77.0	73.7	71.6	52.5
Dropped out	1834	600	260	258	178	2523	11.7	4.2	2.0	2.0	1.5	21.7
1993 Enrollment	15054	12994	12775	12896	11948	11539	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Repeaters	3059	2838	2833	2940	2612	2865	20.3	21.8	22.2	22.8	21.9	24.8
Passed	9174	9716	9736	9745	8828	6116	60.9	74.8	76.2	75.6	73.9	53.0
Dropped out	2815	440	206	211	506	2558	18.7	3.4	1.6	1.6	4.2	22.2
Increase in enrollment by grade over 10 years (1984 to 1993)	9.5%	4.6%	5.1%	7.4%	4.5%	16.2%						

Source: Statistics Office, Ministry of Education and Community Development.





Table A-6

**Number of Primary School Teachers, Pupil Enrollment and Teacher: Student Ratio  
(by Gender and Year, 1985 to 1993)\***

Year	Teaching Staff			% of Teachers that are Female	Student Enrollment			Teacher- Student Ratio
	Male	Female	Total		Male	Female	Total	
1985	809	2201	3010	73	36305	33658	69963	1:23
1986	394	2311	2705	85	32263	30370	62633	1:23
1987	385	2295	2680	86	32057	30214	62271	1:23
1988	499	2422	2921	83	33596	32202	65798	1:23
1989	464	2269	2733	83	30084	31351	61435	1:22
1990	428	2258	2686	84	30569	29489	60058	1:22
1991	402	2580	2982	87	37645	35762	73407	1:25
1992	472	3223	3695	87	41284	37878	79162	1:22
1993	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	44523	43359	87882	n.a.

**Source:** Statistics Office, Ministry of Education and Community Development.

\* Complete data for 1993 and 1994 were not available from the MOECD. Data for those years provided by the General Bureau of Statistics were not included in this table since it was collected in a different way and differs with MOECD estimates by about 18000 students for 1993 (with GBS offering a lower estimate).

### Primary Teachers by Level of Qualification, 1991/1992

**Source:** Ministry of Education and Community Development.

**Table A-8**

**Estimated Costs to Family for a Child to Attend Primary and Pre-Primary School  
(per Child per Year)**

<b>Estimated Cost to Attend Primary School</b>	
<b>Item</b>	<b>Amount</b>
Entrance fee (covers some books, insurance, etc.)	500 Sf
Notebooks	2250 Sf
Pencils	1000 Sf
Uniforms (partly subsidized for poor students)	6000 Sf
Parents contribution to government subsidized transportation	500 Sf
<b>TOTAL estimated parent contribution per child</b>	<b>10250 Sf</b>
USD\$ equivalent @ 400 Sf = \$1	\$ 25.63
<b>Estimated Cost to Attend Pre-Primary School</b>	
Entrance fee (covers insurance, some materials)	500 Sf
Drawing books, pencils, other materials	1800 Sf
<b>TOTAL estimated parent contribution per child</b>	<b>2300 Sf</b>
USD\$ equivalent @ 400 Sf = \$1	\$ 5.75
<b>Source: Academy for Educational Development</b>	

**Table A-9**

**Number of Students, Teachers, Classes, and Schools in General Junior Secondary School  
by Gender and Year, 1989/90 to 1994/95\***

Year	Student Enrollment			Number of Teachers			%		Number of Classes	Number of Schools	Teachers: Student Ratio	Students: Class Ratio
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female				
1989/90	7071	8955	16026	214	614	828		74.2%	n.a.	59	1:19	n.a.
1990/91	7208	8687	15895	259	595	854		69.7%	n.a.	57	1:19	n.a.
1991/92	6240	9152	15392	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.		n.a.	n.a.	55	n.a.	n.a.
1992/93	6692	9197	15890	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.		n.a.	634	55	n.a.	25:1
1993/94	5895	7108	13003	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.		n.a.	615	55	n.a.	21:1
1994/95	6104	8842	14946	251	575	826		69.6%	615	55	1:18	24:1

**Source:** Statistics Office, Ministry of Education and Community Development.

\* 1993 student enrollment exceeds estimates by the General Statistics Bureau (reported in Table 1) but differences do not change the policy implications of the data.

**Number of Junior and Senior Secondary School Teachers,  
Pupil Enrollment and Teacher: Student Ratio  
(by Gender and Year, 1985 to 1993)**

**Source:** Ministry of Education and Community Development.

Table A-11

**Senior Secondary School Enrollment (VWO; 13 Year Program)  
Progression, Repetition and Dropout by Grade and Year, 1989-1994**

Year	Number of Students Entering	Grade 11	Grade 12	Grade 13	Corresponding Rates (%) by Grade		
					11	12	13
1989	Enrollment	1204	722	766	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Repeaters	291	128	207	24.2	17.7	27.0
	Passed	770	538	460	64.0	74.5	60.1
	Dropped out	143	56	99	11.9	7.8	12.9
1990	Enrollment	1192	898	745	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Repeaters	229	171	245	19.2	19.0	32.9
	Passed	792	608	380	66.4	67.7	51.0
	Dropped out	171	119	120	14.3	13.3	16.1
1991	Enrollment	884	963	853	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Repeaters	137	202	299	15.5	21.0	35.1
	Passed	579	640	418	65.5	66.5	49.0
	Dropped out	168	121	136	19.0	12.6	15.9
1992	Enrollment	1080	781	939	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Repeaters	226	155	320	20.9	19.8	34.1
	Passed	673	486	527	62.3	62.2	56.1
	Dropped out	181	140	92	16.8	17.9	9.8
1993	Enrollment	913	828	806	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Repeaters	143	165	283	15.7	19.9	35.1
	Passed	599	468	397	65.6	56.6	49.3
	Dropped out	171	195	126	18.7	23.6	15.6
1994	Enrollment	988	764	751	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Repeaters	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
	Passed	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
	Dropped out	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.

**Source:** Ministry of Education and Community Development. Enrollment figures may vary from other official estimates, since these data are from a special study which only included students for whom complete data were available.

Table A-12

**Senior Secondary School Enrollment (HAVO; 12 Year Program)  
Progression, Repetition and Dropout, by Grade and Year, 1984-1994**

Year	Number of Students Entering	Grade 11	Grade 12	Corresponding Rates (%) by Grade	
				11	12
1989	Enrollment	894	495	100.0	100.0
	Repeaters	450	225	50.3	45.4
	Passed	338	197	37.8	39.7
	Dropped out	106	73	11.8	14.7
1990	Enrollment	931	563	100.0	100.0
	Repeaters	262	194	28.1	34.4
	Passed	328	185	35.2	32.8
	Dropped out	341	184	36.6	32.6
1991	Enrollment	611	522	100.0	100.0
	Repeaters	184	225	30.1	43.1
	Passed	215	166	35.1	31.8
	Dropped out	212	131	34.6	25.0
1992	Enrollment	587	440	100.0	100.0
	Repeaters	216	112	36.7	25.4
	Passed	225	194	38.3	44.0
	Dropped out	146	134	24.8	30.4
1993	Enrollment	627	337	100.0	100.0
	Repeaters	237	87	37.7	25.8
	Passed	192	163	30.6	48.3
	Dropped out	198	87	31.5	25.8
1994	Enrollment	680	279	100.0	100.0
	Repeaters	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
	Passed	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
	Dropped out	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
<b>Source:</b> Ministry of Education and Community Development. Enrollment figures may vary from other official estimates, since these data are from a special study which may not have included students for whom complete data were not available					

**Senior Secondary Vocational School (NATIN -- Four Year Terminal Program)**  
**Progression, Repetition and Dropout, by Grade, Gender, and Year, 1989-1994**

**Source:** Statistics Office, Ministry of Education and Community Development.



Table A-14

Number of Junior Secondary Technical School (NATIN) Students by Area of Specialiation  
by Gender and Year, 1989/90 - 1993/94

Subject Area	1989-1990				1990-1991				1991-1992				1992-1993				1992-1993			
	M	F	Tot	% F	M	F	Tot	% F	M	F	Tot	% F	M	F	Tot	% F	M	F	Tot	% F
Basic Year	206	40	246	16	235	40	275	15	274	44	318	14	308	36	344	10	246	27	273	10
Electronics	96	4	100	4	124	5	129	4	87	2	89	2	76	2	78	3	120	5	125	4
Construction	9	3	12	25	13	6	19	32	18	5	23	22	27	4	31	13	35	5	40	13
Civil Engineering	19	4	13	31	16	2	18	11	19	3	22	14	11	3	14	21	6	2	8	25
Mechanics	61	0	61	0	83	0	83	0	79	0	79	0	103	0	103	0	134	0	134	0
Mining	13	0	13	0	19	0	19	0	19	1	20	5	20	4	24	17	16	6	22	27
Agriculture	29	2	31	6	26	3	29	10	21	4	25	16	20	7	27	26	29	6	35	17
Mapping & Surveying	6	2	8	25	3	1	4	25	2	2	4	50	1	1	2	50	2	4	6	67
Meteorology	9	1	10	10	8	0	8	0	1	2	3	67	2	2	4	50	2	2	4	50
Chemical Analysis	22	24	46	87	20	34	54	63	19	45	64	70	20	52	72	72	40	66	106	62
TOTAL	470	80	550	15	521	90	611	15	539	108	647	17	588	111	699	16	630	123	753	16

Source: Ministry of Education and Community Development.

**Enrollment in Junior Secondary Technical School (NATIN)  
by Age, Gender, and Year, 1989/90 - 1992/93**

Age	1989-1990		1990-1991		1991-1992		1992-1993		1993-1994	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
16	1	0	0	0	0	2	2	0	0	0
17	13	12	21	11	39	15	26	9	38	10
18	56	18	56	19	54	18	25	19	52	12
19	95	14	80	23	104	20	104	19	90	24
20	67	13	123	16	100	23	122	24	105	19
21	98	18	83	6	98	16	100	16	111	17
22	59	3	81	13	57	5	73	14	72	11
23	45	1	36	2	51	9	32	2	42	9
24	7	0	28	0	22	0	28	6	24	2
25	5	1	7	0	7	0	17	0	14	5
26	3	0	4	0	5	0	6	1	5	0
27	0	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	0	0
unknown	1	0	1	0	0	0	3	0	3	0
Total	470	80	521	90	539	108	638	110	556	109

**Source:** Ministry of Education and Community Development.

**Number of Technical School (TC-NATIN) Students Passing Final Examination,  
by Area of Specialization, Gender and Year, 1989/90 - 1992/93**

**Source:** Ministry of Education and Community Development.

Table A-17

**Enrollments in Tertiary Education**  
(Selected Years: 1989/90 - 1994/95)

Type of Education	1989/90				1990/91				1991/92				1994/95			
	M	F	Total	% F	M	F	Total	% F	M	F	Total	% F	M	F	Total	% F
University of Suriname	1227	937	2164	43	1239	1021	2260	45	1174	1030	2204	47	1182	1280	2462	52
Institute for Advanced Teacher Training (IOL)	632	1225	1857	66	508	1037	1545	67	504	974	1478	66	442	897	1339	67
Training College for Technical School Teachers (LOBO)	89	0	89	0	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	169	11	180	6	51	0	51	0
Academy of Arts (a professional school) (AHKCO)	95	114	209	55	78	114	192	59	80	125	205	61	n.a.	n.a.	183	n.a.
Total	2043	2276	4319	53	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	1927	2140	4067	53	n.a.	n.a.	4035	n.a.

*Sources:* Ministry of Education, Division of Research and Planning; Suriname University Bureau of Student Affairs.

Table A-18

Student Enrollment at the Faculty of Technology and Faculty of Medicine, University of Suriname  
by Gender and Program of Study

Year	Mining			Agriculture			Civil Engineering			Electrical Engineer			Construction			Sub-total			FACULTY OF MEDICINE		
	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total				M	F	Total
1983	17	3	20	27	14	51	37	10	47	38	2	40	38	0	38	196			81	45	126
1984	20	7	27	24	16	40	39	14	53	42	2	44	40	0	40	204			107	64	171
1985	22	7	29	29	18	47	39	10	49	38	1	39	49	0	49	213			125	98	223
1986	24	5	29	33	24	57	48	14	62	45	2	47	49	0	49	244			160	115	275
1987	24	7	31	38	21	59	52	12	64	43	1	44	53	0	53	251			185	121	306
1988	23	6	29	44	31	75	53	11	64	43	3	46	53	0	53	267			216	145	361
1989	35	5	40	66	47	113	61	10	71	53	3	56	71	0	71	351			220	161	381
1990	37	8	45	64	45	109	64	11	75	84	4	88	67	0	67	384			216	168	384
1991	36	16	52	61	39	100	49	9	58	76	5	81	68	1	69	360			214	158	372
1992	37	20	57	45	48	93	52	12	64	79	6	85	58	2	60	359			199	155	354
1993	45	28	73	55	44	99	51	23	74	60	7	67	53	3	56	369			170	142	312
1994	48	32	80	59	43	102	43	24	67	75	10	85	74	2	76	410			167	143	310
1995	49	34	83	52	45	97	48	30	78	80	13	93	71	6	77	428			164	153	317
1996	40	32	72	43	36	79	40	28	68	63	12	75	56	4	60	354			170	179	349

Source: University of Suriname.

Table A-18a

**Student Enrollment in the Faculty of Social Science at the University of Suriname  
by Gender and Program of Study**

Year	Planning Economics			Business Administration			Sociology			Law			Public Administration			Education			OVERALL TOTAL ENROLLMENT		
	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total
1983	31	38	69	81	61	142	4	22	26	137	114	251	16	2	18	2	13	15	509	45	554
1984	36	37	73	113	94	207	6	32	38	149	129	278	14	2	16	2	13	15	592	64	656
1985	41	43	84	128	101	229	6	29	35	146	134	280	9	0	9	3	12	15	635	98	733
1986	49	47	96	163	130	293	10	37	47	173	176	349	61	18	79	2	10	12	817	115	932
1987	56	70	126	178	156	334	14	47	61	183	187	370	61	22	83	3	7	10	890	121	1011
1988	65	80	145	207	177	384	20	54	74	222	273	495	69	35	104	2	7	9	1017	145	1162
1989	81	100	181	237	210	447	18	61	79	316	329	645	48	28	76	1	7	8	1207	161	1368
1990	92	108	200	253	227	480	18	63	82	301	353	654	39	26	65	3	7	10	1238	168	1406
1991	90	103	193	258	244	502	18	56	74	267	371	638	31	23	54	3	5	8	1171	158	1329
1992	67	89	156	237	236	473	13	43	56	295	410	705	30	26	56	4	4	8	1116	155	1271
1993	65	77	142	232	235	467	10	37	47	323	478	801	35	30	65	31	59	90	1130	142	1272
1994	60	72	132	254	298	552	9	34	43	335	549	884	33	24	57	22	48	70	1179	143	1322
1995	61	73	134	248	352	600	8	31	39	343	593	936	41	56	97	22	53	85	1187	153	1340
1996	27	45	72	197	295	492	3	21	24	280	516	796	57	71	128	22	63	85	998	179	1177

Source: University of Suriname.

**Table A-19**

**Instructional and Research Staff at University of Suriname, 1996**

Faculty of Social Sciences (Instructional Staff)	full time	42
	part time	40
Institute for Social Research (Research Staff)	full time	2
One Year Preparatory Program (Instructional Staff)	full time	30
Faculty of Medicine (Instructional Staff)	full time	7
	part time	39
Faculty of Technology	full time	42
	part time	58
Research Institute for Natural Resources (Inorganic)	full time	2
Research Institute for Natural Resources (Organic)	full time	1
Total Full time		167
Total Part time		99
TOTAL		266
<i>Source:</i> University of Suriname.		

**Table A-20**

**Number of Instructional and Non-Instructional Staff in  
Tertiary Education Institutions, 1983-87**

<b>Year</b>	<b>Administration and Technical Services</b>	<b>Full-time Instructional Staff</b>	<b>Part-time Instructional Staff</b>	<b>Student Assistantships</b>	<b>Student Assistantships in Library</b>
1983	258	77	66	n.a.	n.a.
1984	265	60	117	n.a.	n.a.
1985	153	64	175	72	20
1986	159	73	170	83	18
1987	266	68	134	64	24
<i>Source:</i> University of Suriname.					



### Enrollment in Junior Secondary Teacher Training by Age by Gender and Year, 1989/90 - 1992/93

**Source:** Ministry of Education and Community Development.

Table A-21a

**Comparisons of Pupil Enrollments, Pupil-Teacher Ratios, and Public Expenditures on Education  
1990 (Selected Countries)**

Country	Enrollments			Public Expenditures - 1990				
	Enrollment Ratio, 1990 (% age 6-23 enrolled)	Pupil-Teacher Ratio		Secondary Technical Enrollment	Education as a % of GNP	Educ as % of Total Government Expenditure	Primary & Secondary Educ as % of all Levels	Higher Educ as a % of all Levels
		Primary 1990	Secondary 1990					
Barbados	n.a.	17	n.a.	n.a.	8.0	n.a.	75	19
Belize	n.a.	25	14	1.3	6.0	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Brazil	60	23	14	n.a.	4.6	n.a.	56	26
Colombia	55	30	20	21.5	2.9	21.4	60	21
Costa Rica	n.a.	32	19	22.2	4.6	20.8	48	36
Cuba	63	13	10	32.2	6.6	12.8	65	14
Dominica	n.a.	29	n.a.	1.1	5.8	10.6	87	3
Dominican Republic	66	41	n.a.	n.a.	2.1	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
El Salvador	51	40	28	n.a.	1.8	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Guyana	65	34	n.a.	3.4	4.7	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Haiti	n.a.	29	n.a.	n.a.	1.8	20.0	72	9
Jamaica	61	31	26	3.5	6.1	12.9	71	21
Panama	62	20	19	25.6	5.5	n.a.	60	21
<b>Suriname</b>	<b>69</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>27.1</b>	<b>8.3</b>	<b>n.a.</b>	<b>75</b>	<b>9</b>
Trinidad and Tobago	66	26	n.a.	0.8	4.1	11.6	79	12
Venezuela	63	23	9	17.6	4.1	18.8	n.a.	n.a.

*Source:* Academy for Educational Development

Table A-22

**Teacher Training College (PA --Four Year Terminal Program)**

Year	# of Students Entering	Grade 11			Grade 12			Grade 13			Grade 14			TOTAL		
		M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total
1989-0	Enrollment	90	224	314	114	276	390	32	152	184	33	124	157	269	776	1045
	Passed	33	135	168	25	110	135	10	90	100	15	50	65	83	385	468
	Repeaters	28	40	68	36	67	103	6	21	27	7	28	35	77	156	233
	Dropped out	29	49	78	43	84	127	10	14	24	5	16	21	87	163	250
	Passed final exam	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	10	9	19	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	10	9	19
1990-1	Enrollment	89	211	300	70	212	282	32	135	167	17	121	138	208	679	887
	Passed	39	110	149	8	71	79	14	83	97	11	70	81	72	334	406
	Repeaters	20	52	72	28	74	102	7	28	35	6	39	45	61	193	254
	Dropped out	5	13	18	1	2	3	5	8	13	n.a.	5	n.a.	11	28	39
	Passed final exam	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	3	20	23	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	3	20	23
1991-2	Enrollment	89	246	335	71	192	263	17	100	117	20	124	144	197	662	859
	Passed	30	127	157	4	41	45	4	65	69	9	62	71	47	295	342
	Repeaters	23	60	83	29	72	101	6	15	21	7	36	43	65	183	248
	Dropped out	35	58	93	18	30	48	7	20	27	4	25	29	64	133	197
	Passed final exam	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	13	25	38	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	13	25	38

Year	# of Students Entering	Grade 11			Grade 12			Grade 13			Grade 14			TOTAL		
		M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total
1992-3	Enrollment	87	242	329	61	202	263	6	52	58	13	103	116	167	599	766
	Passed	37	125	162	8	63	71	5	33	38	3	45	48	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
	Repeaters	20	60	80	20	74	94	0	9	9	4	38	42	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
	Dropped out	30	57	87	9	30	39	1	10	11	6	20	26	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
	Passed final exam	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	24	35	59	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	46	117	163

**Source:** Ministry of Education and Community Development.

Enrollment figures may vary from other official estimates, since these data are from a special study which included students for whom complete data were available.

Table A-23

## Enrollment in the Advanced Teacher Training College (IOL), Selected Years, 1990-1996

Subject Area	1990-1991			1992-93			1994-95			1995-96		
	LO	MOA	MOB	LO	MOA	MOB	LO	MOA	MOB	LO	MOA	MOB
Dutch	72	65	20	42	37	14	40	27	5	37	21	5
English	41	84	14	31	75	4	52	73	3	45	67	2
Spanish	46	34	14	32	30	11	33	24	30	30	26	28
Mathematics	91	70	28	110	57	11	82	44	9	83	39	6
Physics	41	32	5	37	15	3	15	12	1	17	13	1
Biology	54	23	17	23	32	9	41	37	3	42	30	1
Chemistry	20	30	2	14	27	n.a.	20	31	n.a.	33	28	n.a.
Geography	97	64	16	61	52	16	70	44	9	59	33	7
History	39	39	5	33	27	3	45	24	3	42	27	1
Economics	159	95	n.a.	125	62	n.a.	212	67	n.a.	244	59	n.a.
Music	20	7	n.a.	32	3	n.a.	23	n.a.	n.a.	23	1	n.a.
Teaching methods	13	2	n.a.	4	1	n.a.	1	1	n.a.	1	n.a.	n.a.
Drawing	25	16	n.a.	21	11	n.a.	23	8	n.a.	17	6	n.a.
Clothing making	40	3	n.a.	19	1	n.a.	16	10	n.a.	24	10	n.a.
Home Econ	40	n.a.	n.a.	46	n.a.	n.a.	30	n.a.	n.a.	25	n.a.	n.a.

Table A-23

Subject Area	1990-1991			1992-93			1994-95			1995-96		
	LO	MOA	MOB	LO	MOA	MOB	LO	MOA	MOB	LO	MOA	MOB
Physical Educ	18	33	33	19	16	9		16	6	10	11	n.a.
Teaching methods (in subject area)	n.a.	134	46	n.a.	84	30	n.a.	65	28	n.a.	69	19
Special Educ	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Pedagogical practices	30	2	n.a.	45	3	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	81	n.a.	n.a.
Pre-primary Educ	n.a.	39	n.a.	n.a.	13	n.a.	n.a.	5	n.a.	n.a.	2	n.a.
TOTAL	846	772	200	694	546	110	703	488	97	813	442	70

Source: Ministry of Education and Community Development.

LO = Qualifies graduates to teach in primary and lower junior secondary grades.

MOA = Qualifies graduates to teach in upper junior secondary and lower senior secondary grades.

MOB = Qualifies graduates to teach in upper grades of senior secondary.

**Table A-24**  
**Graduates from the Advanced Teacher Training College (IOL)**

Subject Area	1990-1991				1991-1992				1992-1993				1993-1994				1994-1995			
	LO	MOA	MOB	Total	LO	MOA	MOB	Total	LO	MOA	MOB	Total	LO	MOA	MOB	Total	LO	MOA	MOB	Total
Geography	9	3	0	12	10	3	0	13	17	3	7	27	8	3	0	11	11	0	0	11
Biology	6	1	1	8	3	0	3	6	4	0	2	6	12	0	3	15	4	0	0	4
English	7	2	0	9	18	2	3	23	7	5	0	12	3	5	0	8	6	5	0	11
History	6	1	0	7	8	0	1	9	2	0	0	2	3	1	0	4	4	2	0	6
Bookkeeping	8	2	0	10	21	3	0	24	6	0	0	6	2	2	0	4	13	1	0	14
Crafts	2	0	0	2	2	0	0	2	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0
Home Econ	1	0	0	1	2	0	0	2	4	0	0	4	3	0	0	3	0	0	0	0
Sports	0	2	0	2	3	5	1	9	1	3	0	4	4	2	2	8	2	1	0	3
Music	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	3	0	0	0	0	7	0	0	7
Physics	4	3	0	7	6	4	0	10	5	2	0	7	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Dutch	9	8	1	18	19	7	10	36	14	0	4	18	8	3	0	11	9	1	1	11
Teaching methods (in subject area)	80	0	0	80	164	0	0	164	79	0	0	79	85	0	0	85	78	0	0	78
Chemistry	0	0	0	0	9	0	0	9	2	0	0	2	1	2	0	3	0	1	0	1
Spanish	7	1	0	8	13	3	0	16	7	6	0	13	9	5	0	14	6	1	1	8
Drawing	2	0	0	2	4	0	0	4	3	1	0	4	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1

Subject Area	1990-1991				1991-1992				1992-1993				1993-1994				1994-1995			
	LO	MOA	MOB	Total	LO	MOA	MOB	Total	LO	MOA	MOB	Total	LO	MOA	MOB	Total	LO	MOA	MOB	Total
Clothing making	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	5	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	2	1	0	0	1
Mathematics	18	2	2	22	13	1	1	15	17	3	0	20	7	1	1	9	9	0	2	11
Kindergarten	0	4	0	4	0	13	0	13	0	7	0	7	0	2	2	4	0	0	0	0
Pedagogical practices	0	4	2	6	0	8	2	10	0	5	0	5	0	7	7	14	1	6	2	9

Source: Ministry of Education and Community Development.



**Table A-24a**

**Skill Shortages at Executive Levels of the Government of Suriname  
Results of a 1996 OAS and National Planning Office Study**

<b>Category</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>BSC Level</b>	<b>MSC Level</b>
Economics	79	35	44
Law	109	29	80
Social Science	89	70	19
Natural Science	27	12	15
Technology	92	43	49
Chemistry	5	1	4
Management	10	9	4
Public Administration	7	3	4
Automation	11	11	n.a.
Communications	3	3	n.a.
Statistics	4	2	2
Other	14	12	2
<b>Total</b>	<b>450</b>	<b>230</b>	<b>220</b>
<b>Source:</b> National Planning Office			

Table A-25

**Results of Primary School Completers' Examination (Not Including School Exam)  
by District, 1994-1995**

DISTRICT	NUMBER OF STUDENTS	PASSED WITH SCORE MAKING THEM ELIGIBLE FOR ACADEMIC JR. SEC (MULO)	PASSED WITH SCORE MAKING THEM ELIGIBLE FOR TECHNICAL SCHOOL (LBGO)	RECEIVED LOW PASS, SCHOOL CAN ADVISE THEM INTO A LOWER TECHNICAL JR. SEC. OPTION	FAILED BUT CAN RETAKE TEST AND ARE YOUNG ENOUGH TO REPEAT GRADE 6	FAILED TEST BUT CAN RETAKE. THESE STUDENTS ARE OLDER THAN 13 BUT NOT YET 14, SO THEY CAN RETAKE GRADE 6 OR THE SCHOOL CAN ADVISE THEM INTO A LOWER TECHNICAL JR. SEC. OPTION	NO RESULT (STUDENT MOVED, ETC.)
Paramaribo	5,067	2,271	716	379	1,304	338	59
Wanica	2,059	693	302	172	706	161	25
Para	373	120	70	53	88	36	6
Comewijne	564	190	83	41	202	40	8
Saranacca	260	132	40	8	70	8	2
Nickerie	846	421	142	38	210	22	13
Coronie	81	22	7	16	31	5	0
Marowijne	209	53	46	47	45	15	3
Brokopondo	93	36	22	13	14	8	0
Sipaliwini	85	15	17	29	13	8	3
TOTAL	9,637	3,953	1,445	796	2,683	641	119

*Source:* Ministry of Education and Community Development.

Table A-26

**Results of Primary School Completers' Examination (Including School Exam)  
by District, 1994-1995**

DISTRICT	NUMBER OF STUDENTS	PASSED WITH SCORE MAKING THEM ELIGIBLE FOR ACADEMIC JR. SEC (MULO)	PASSED WITH SCORE MAKING THEM ELIGIBLE FOR TECHNICAL SCHOOL (LBGO)	RECEIVED LOW PASS, SCHOOL CAN ADVISE THEM INTO A LOWER TECHNICAL JR. SEC. OPTION	FAILED BUT CAN RETAKE TEST AND ARE YOUNG ENOUGH TO REPEAT GRADE 6	FAILED TEST BUT CAN RETAKE THESE STUDENTS ARE OLDER THAN 13 BUT NOT YET 14, SO THEY CAN REPEAT GRADE 6 ON THE SCHOOL, CAN ADVISE THEM INTO A LOWER TECHNICAL JR. SEC. OPTION	NO RESULT (STUDENT MOVED, ETC.)
Paramaribo	4,845	2,500	696	255	912	181	301
Wanica	1,947	863	256	94	528	114	92
Para	305	99	44	34	78	32	18
Comewijne	533	244	68	29	115	28	49
Saramacca	211	100	36	7	47	8	13
Nickerie	628	412	90	16	41	17	52
Coronie	78	23	13	6	27	4	5
Marowijne	237	79	50	41	35	15	17
Brokopondo	106	35	14	34	15	4	4
Sipaliwini	91	17	20	28	13	3	10
TOTAL	8,981	4,372	1,287	544	1,811	406	561

Source: Examination Bureau, Ministry of Education and Community Development.

**Table A-27**

**Results of Junior Secondary School Completers' Examination and  
National Completers' Examination, 1995-1996**

<b>Subject</b>	<b>School Test</b>	<b>National Test</b>
Dutch	6.7	5.6
English	6.7	5.8
Spanish	6.3	5.5
Math	5.7	5.0
Physics	5.8	4.6
Geography	6.8	5.8
History	6.6	5.6
Biology	6.8	5.4
Drawing	6.7	6.5
<b>Source:</b> Ministry of Education and Community Development.		
<b>Note:</b> Does not include data for one school for which data were unavailable.		

**Table A-28**

**Results of Junior Secondary School Completers' Examination  
by Year, 1990-1996**

Year	Jr. Sec. Completers' Examination			Admitted to Sr. Sec. School**
	Passed	Failed	May Retake Exam*	
1990	45.4%	32.4%	12.6%	28.9%
1991	35.4%	42.9%	13.4%	19.4%
1992	44.9%	38.6%	14.3%	29.0%
1993	37.1%	12.8%	12.8%	23.9%
1994	42.2%	35.7%	14.9%	27.0%
1995	37.9%	40.8%	14.0%	23.0%
1996	41.0%	39.3%	12.7%	n.a.
<i>Source:</i> Ministry of Education and Community Development.				

\* Tests are given in each of seven subjects. Tests are scored on a ten point scale (1=fail to 10=(high pass). Students who pass four subjects but get a score of five in three tests can retake the same test one week later in up to two of those subject areas.

\*\* This test is used both to determine a students' eligibility for a Junior Secondary Completers' Certificate and to determine eligibility for admission to a university track senior secondary option (MULO) and senior secondary vocational (HBO). After eligibility for a certificate is determined, some of the same underlying tests are rescored (e.g., combined) into a new score which is used to determine the Senior Secondary option a junior secondary school leaver is eligible to attend. The percentage figures in this column indicate the percent of test takers who were eligible to a university track senior secondary option (MULO or HBO).

### Results of Primary School Completers' Examination, by Year, 1990-1996

Disposition \ Year	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Number of Students	8747	9212	8594	8695	9639	8768	8627
Passed with score making them eligible for academic Jr. Sec (MULO)	36.6%	47.4%	39.8%	27.0%	49.6%	50.0%	51.0%
Passed with score making them eligible for technical school ( LBGO)	15.9%	15.3%	14.6%	12.0%	13.9%	14.7%	14.3%
Received low pass, school can advise them into a lower technical Jr. Sec. option	9.6%	7.3%	10.1%	12.1%	6.9%	6.2%	6.0%
Failed but can retake test and are young enough to repeat grade 6	29.0%	23.0%	26.9%	35.8%	23.3%	21.8%	22.9%
Failed test but can retake, These students are older than 13 but not yet 14, so they can repeat grade 6 or the school can advise them into a lower technical Jr. Sec. option	7.4%	5.5%	7.4%	11.9%	5.3%	4.7%	4.0%

**Source:** Ministry of Education and Community Development.

Table A-30

## Number of Schools, by Level, Type, and Region, 1994

District	Spec. Educ.	Pre School	Primary	General Jr. Sec.		Jr. Sec. Vocat.		Jr. Sec. Tech.		Jr. Sec. Elem. Vocat.		Jr. Sec. Elem. Tech.		Jr. Sec. Home Econ.		Jr. Sec. Special Educ.		General Sr. Sec.		Sr. Sec. Vocat.		Sr. Sec. Tech.		TOTAL
				MULO	GLO	LBGO	LTO	EBO	ETS	LNO	VBO													
Parimaribo	21	8	118	31		22	4	2	2	2	5							31		n.a.		n.a.		246
Wanica	5		50	4		8												4		n.a.		n.a.		71
Para	4		19	2		2												2		n.a.		n.a.		29
Commewijne	1		23	2		3		1										2		n.a.		n.a.		32
Marowijne	1		23	1		2												1		n.a.		n.a.		28
Saramacca	1		16	1		1												1		n.a.		n.a.		20
Coronie	1		3	1		1												1		n.a.		n.a.		4
Nickerie	2		27	5		3	1		1		1							5		n.a.		n.a.		45
Brokopondo			13	1														1		n.a.		n.a.		15
Sipiliwini			40																	n.a.		n.a.		40
TOTAL	35	8	332	47		42	5	3	3	2	6							47		n.a.		n.a.		530

Source: Ministry of Education and Community Development.

Table A-31

**Results of Junior Secondary School Completers' Examination (Including School Exam)  
by District, 1995-1996**

District	Number of Schools	Number of Students	Number of Students								Range of % Passing within Individual Schools
			Passing		Retaking Test		Failing		No Results		
			Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Paramaribo	28*	1,829	875	47.8%	193	10.5%	706	38.6%	55	3.0%	12.0 % to 72.2%
Wanica	6	428	194	45.3%	46	10.7%	183	42.7%	5	1.0%	17.0% to 50.6%
Para	2	50	28	56.0%	12	24.0%	9	18.0%	1	2.0%	53.4% to 60.0%
Comewijne	2	139	51	36.7%	19	13.7%	65	46.8%	4	2.9%	29.4% to 46.2%
Saramacca	1	77	18	23.4%	7	9.0%	45	58.4%	7	9.1%	23.4% to 23.4%
Nickerie	5	371	135	36.4%	32	8.6%	192	51.7%	12	3.2%	29.1% to 43.4%
Coronie	0	0	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	n.a.
Marowijne	1	57	32	56.1%	9	15.8%	15	26.3%	1	1.8%	56.1% to 56.1%
Brokopondo	1	6	2	33.3%	1	16.7%	3	5.0%	0	-	33.3% to 33.3%
Sipaliwini	0	0	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	-	n.a.
TOTAL	46	2,957	1,335	45.1%	319	10.8%	1,218	41.2%	85	2.9%	

**Source:** Examination Bureau, Ministry of Education and Cultural Development.

\* All data for one school missing, school omitted from this count.

**Source:** Examination Bureau, Ministry of Education and Cultural Development.

\* All data for one school missing, school omitted from this count.



**Table A-32**

**Results of Primary School Completers' Examination (Including School Exam)  
by District, 1994-1995**

<b>Region</b>	<b>Districts Included</b>	<b>Passed with Score Making them Eligible for Academic Jr. Sec. (MULO)</b>	<b>Passed with Score Making them Eligible for Technical School (LBGO)</b>
Urban	Paramaribo Wanica	50%	14%
Coastal	Para Comewijne Saramacca Nickerie Coronie	47%	13%
Interior	Marowijne Brokopondo Sipaliwini	30%	19%
<b>Source:</b> Examination Bureau, Ministry of Education and Community Development.			

### National Budget by Ministry

**Source:** Ministry of Education and Community Development.

**Annual Budget for the Directorate of Education, by Category of Expenditure, 1993-1995**  
**(Surinamese Guilders, in 000s)**

**Source:** Ministry of Education.

### Number of Available Positions by Sector, 1980-1993

**11** After 1987 "Forestry and wood processing is included in Agriculture, livestock and fisheries.  
Source: General Bureau of Statistics (ABS).

### Unemployment Rates (%) by Selected Education Levels

Year	Primary (GLO)	General (MULO)	General A-Stream	General B-Stream	Vocational (LBGO)	Technical (LTO)
1990	8.79	6.56	8.11	9.38	14.84	11.21
1992	8.55	11.19	15.20	14.29	10.93	12.82
1993	8.59	11.90	9.84	3.33	14.16	12.64

**Source:** General Bureau of Statistics: Household survey and IDB calculations.



Table A-37

**Summary of International Donor Assistance to Education, 1996**  
**(Thousands of Suriname Guilders)**

Source	Description of Assistance	1992	1993	1994	1995
Dutch Aid	Funds the Dutch Centre for Educational Studies in Developing Countries to provide technical assistance	21	0	11	0
	Evaluation of educational cooperation within the Dutch cooperation framework	0	0	0	41
	Scholarship program for study abroad I	49	1	75	1,174
	Repair of educational facilities in the interior	1	0	0	873
	Provision of equipment to Medical Faculty of the University of Suriname	129	0	235	245
	Provision of equipment to Vocational/ Technical Schools	170	151	587	1,121
	Provision of supplies to primary schools I	342	0	0	0
	Scholarship program for study abroad II	0	0	0	137
	Provision of books for the library at Nickerie	0	34	35	0
	Provision of supplies to primary schools II	408	14	880	1,548
	Provision of books for University library I	0	0	0	1,884
	Assistance to maintain buildings and equipment at the University	0	44	59	214
	Set up apprenticeship program as part of vocational training	38	1	117	664
	To support a coordination unit within the Ministry to administer Dutch aid	1	29	104	29
	Provision of books to University library II	0	47	117	196
	Support for overall educational cooperation	0	0	293	1467
	Support for overall program of welfare and culture	0	0	116	1,749
	Scholarship program for study abroad III	1,877	804	2,348	4,109
	Support for University Faculty of Law and Faculty of Economics I	0	0	63	0
	Repair of dormitories for senior secondary students	0	0	147	117
	Support for University Faculty of Law and Faculty of Economics II	0	0	552	293

Source	Description of Assistance	1992	1993	1994	1995
Belgian Aid	Support for a skills laboratory	144	0	300	200
	Funds for studies	0	0	100	300
	Funding for University programs	99	0	99	99
	Support for a cooperative program between the University of Suriname and Universities in Belgium.	465	0	500	400
	VVOB cooperation (Provision of Belgian technical assistance to education system in Suriname)	763	0	763	650
European Union	National participation in the W.P.I.M.An. Program	4	0	0	0
	National participation in the Suriname-Ghana Pan-African/Pan-American festival	0	0	0	192
	Support to senior secondary school in Nickerie	18	0	0	0
TOTAL		4,529	1,125	7,501	1,7702
<b>Source:</b> National Planning Office, Government of Suriname.					



**Table A-38**

**Dutch Assistance to Education in Suriname**

<b>Focus of Support</b>	<b>Nature of Support</b>	<b>Amount of Support</b>
Primary Education	Provision of instructional materials and school supplies at the primary level	Df 40 million
	Rehabilitation of primary schools in the interior	Df 3.2 million
	Equipment and supplies for primary schools in the interior	Df 6 million
Vocational/Technical	Development of an apprenticeship program; initial focus on tourism, hotel management, construction trades, and printing	Df 1.4 million
Higher Education	Rehabilitation of the university facilities	Df 5.6 million
	Rehabilitation of the university library, provision of books	
	Equipment for medical faculty	
	Scholarship program	Df 40 million, of which Df 20 million remains to be spent
Ministry of Education	Institutional strengthening in support of project management	Df 290,000
<b>Source:</b> Embassy of the Netherlands, Suriname.		



Table A-39

**Salary Scale for Teachers and Other Government Employees  
March 1996, in Sf**

Civil Service				Teachers			
Minimum	Maximum	Grade	Step	Level	Minimum	Maximum	
152385	164385	G	24				Salary range for senior system administrators; secondary school teachers
135505	152385		23				
125005	140755		22	XVI	125005	140755	
				XVa	122380	138130	
114505	130255		21				
		F	20	XV	106630	138130	
104005	109255			XIVa	104005	135505	
				XIV	987551	35505	
93505	109255		19				
				XIIIa	88445	130255	Salary range for junior secondary teachers
				XIII	88445	125005	
83565	98755		18	XII	83565	119755	
83565	98755	E	17a	XI			
74570	88445		17		74570	109255	
				Xa	70830	104005	
67260	79065		16	X	67260	98755	
				IXa	63690	93505	
60130	70830		15	IX	60130	88445	
60130	70830		14a				Salary range for primary school teachers
		D		VIIIa	566660	83565	
53475	63690		14	VIII	53475	79065	
				VIIa	50550	74570	
47700	56660		13	VII	47700	70830	
				VIa	44850	67260	
42020	50550		12	VI	42020	63690	

Table A-39

Civil Service				Teachers			
Minimum	Maximum	Grade	Step	Level	Minimum	Maximum	
42020	50550	C	11a				Salary range for primary school teachers
				Va	40330	60130	
38640	44850		11	V	38640	56660	
				IVa	36950	53475	
35260	40330		10	IV	35260	50550	
31880	36950		9	III	31880	44850	
31880	36950	B	8a				
28500	33570		8				
25405	30190		7	II	25405	36950	
22705	26905		6	I	24055	—	
20125	24055		5				
20125	24055	A	4a				
17905	21395		4				
15825	18995		3				
15320	16855		2				
14814			1				

*Source:* MOECD and Ministry of Domestic Affairs