EDUCATIONAL TRENDS IN THE CARIBBEAN:

European Affiliated Areas

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Contents

Foreword

EDUCATIONAL TRENDS throughout the world hold wider and deeper significance for American education today than in any previous period of our country. Thousands upon thousands of foreign students from many nations are enrolled each year in American colleges and universities. Increasingly the vital part which education contributes to the development of society is being recognized by peoples and their governments.

The present bulletin is another in the Office of Education's long established series on education in other countries. This bulletin deals with some of the most apparent educational trends at the present time in European affiliated areas of the Caribbean. These include the British, Netherlands, and French affiliated areas.

The educational ties of these areas with the United States add importance and interest to such a study. To cite just one example, more than 1,400 students from the British Caribbean areas alone were enrolled in institutions of higher learning in the United States during the 1958–59 school year, according to published statistics of the privately supported Institute of International Education.

Information in this bulletin is based in considerable part on direct observation by the author of educational institutions and practices, and on discussions with educational and other specialists, in certain of the Caribbean areas during the latter part of 1958. These observations and discussions were supplemented by extensive study of published source materials and other writings on the area generally and its educational patterns and facilities. The Office of Education and the author are grateful to governmental and school officials in the Federation of The West Indies, Trinidad and Tobago, British Guiana, Barbados, Antigua, and Jamaica; in the Netherlands Antilles, the Island-Territory of Curaçao, and Surinam; and in the French *Département* of Martinique, for their indispensable assistance and their many courtesies. They supplied data, reports, and other materials; made possible direct observation of educational institutions; and generously gave of their time and knowledge in discussing education in their respective areas. Likewise, officials of the Caribbean Commission, the Embassies of the United Kingdom, the Netherlands, and France in Washington, D.C., the U.S. Department of State, the United States Consulates, Information Service Offices, and Operations Missions in the Caribbean areas visited, gave invaluable assistance in

providing various materials, background information, and useful suggestions, and in extending many courtesies, all of which greatly facilitated the pursuance of the study.

It is hoped that this bulletin will contribute materially toward the furthering of international educational understanding.

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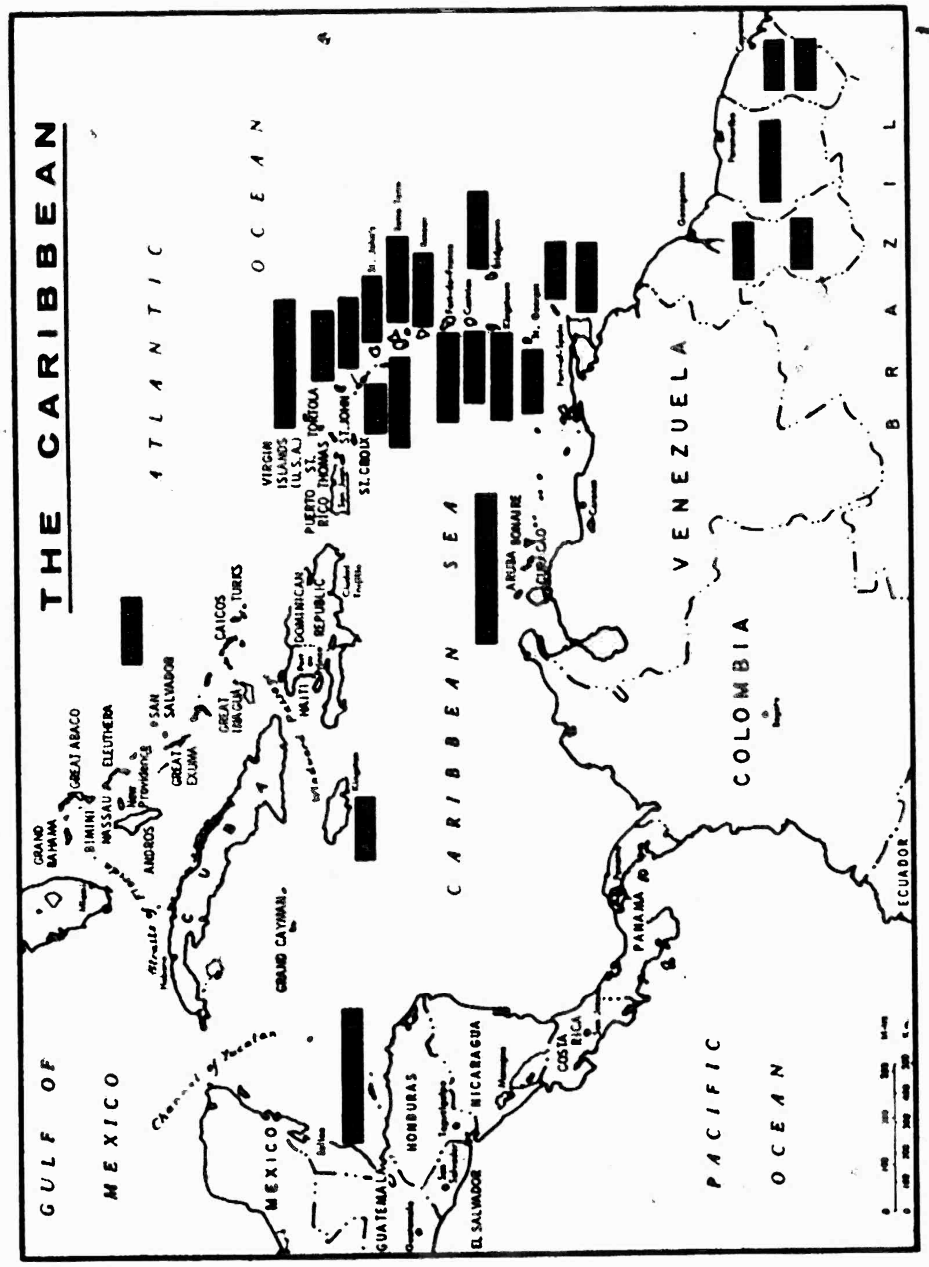
Part I

General Considerations



The above map includes the entire area known as *The Caribbean*, and shows its geographical relation to adjoining countries and territories. The British, Netherlands, and French affiliated areas, with which this bulletin deals, are indicated.

CHAPTER I

The Setting: Geographical, Cultural, Economic, and Political

THE CARIBBEAN AREA is a region with which the United States, because of geographic proximity and economic, political, diplomatic, and strategic factors, has had close relations throughout much of its history. In a broad sense the area is usually regarded in the United States as the region immediately to the south embracing the republics of the Spanish-speaking world that fringe on and surround the Caribbean Sea. It is also generally known that certain lands under the United States flag—the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands of the United States—are located within the area. It may likewise be recognized that the French and Creole-speaking Republic of Haiti falls within its confines.

Not so generally known as being part of the Caribbean area, however, are the non-Spanish-speaking island and mainland territories which continue their cultural and political ties with the United Kingdom, the Netherlands, and France. It is these European affiliated Caribbean areas that we shall be considering here. Included among them are the South American mainland territories of the Guianas—British, Dutch, and French—which lie outside but adjacent to the Caribbean area proper. Situated on the northeast Atlantic coast of South America to the east of Venezuela, they are usually placed in the Caribbean framework because of geographical proximity, psychological and cultural orientation to the Caribbean territories, and similar social, economic, and political characteristics, problems, and needs.

The British affiliated Caribbean areas are the most numerous and the most widely spread of the European connected territories. Extending north and west from British Guiana, the most southeasterly of the territories, they include also certain islands of the Caribbean, most of which are now organized into the West Indies Federation, as well as the Central American mainland territory of British Honduras. The islands consist of Jamaica and Trinidad, the two largest in area and population, as well as Barbados and the Windward and Leeward Island groups in the Lesser Antilles.

The Netherlands affiliated Caribbean areas are the two political units of Surinam (Dutch Guiana) and the Netherlands Antilles. The latter includes the Netherlands Leeward Islands off the coast of

Venezuela (Curaçao, Aruba, and Bonaire), and the Netherlands Windward Islands east of Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands in the Northeast Caribbean (Saba, St. Eustatius, and the Dutch part of St. Martin).

The French affiliated Caribbean areas consist of the three separate political units of French Guiana on the South American mainland, and the islands of Martinique and Guadeloupe. The last named, which is really two islands, also includes for administrative purposes the island of St. Barthelmy and the French part of the island of St. Martin lying in the northern part of the island chain of the Lesser Antilles.

Despite differences in the languages, cultures, and political orientations of these areas, there are basic similarities in social, economic, political, and psychological patterns and characteristics, which in turn make for similarity in educational problems and trends. These include rapid population growth in most territories; underdeveloped economies; the recent emergence of political consciousness and self-government; an increasing popular awareness of and a desire for the "good things of life," and the conviction that expanded and improved educational facilities will afford the opportunity to obtain them. It is not possible here to discuss in detail all the various factors impinging on educational problems and trends, but certain of them will be considered.

A social and cultural fact of significance is the mixed racial composition and background of the population. The great majority of the inhabitants of the area are descended from persons of African origin who were slaves until the liberation movements of the 19th century. In Trinidad, British Guiana, and Surinam, there are, in addition, important numbers of persons of East Asiatic origins—descendants of East Indians (including both Hindus and Moslems), Indonesians, and Chinese, most of whom were brought to these territories as indentured servants to meet a labor need after emancipation of the Negro slaves. In British Honduras, in addition to persons of African origin, a significant number of the population are decended from the Maya Indians. Elsewhere in the areas under discussion, indigenous American Indians are found only in the hinterlands of British Guiana and Surinam, where they form a small percentage of the population and live outside the patterns of national life. And everywhere there are, of course, a minority of persons of European origin along with a considerable number of racially mixed persons.

Although the outward manifestations of the cultural patterns of the area are European in their origin, among all non-European groups there has been retention of certain previous cultural and sociological traits, some of which have important implications for

education. For example, the weakness of family ties among those of African origin in the lower economic groups, stemming from the lack of a family system among the slaves, impedes the development of a stable home situation favorable to the education of children. Likewise, the continuance in varying degrees of languages, dialects, and linguistic usages other than the respective official languages of the region poses the problem of conducting instruction among children in a language or usage different from what many of them use at home and in their everyday conversation.

Economically, the region has historically depended upon an agriculture devoted primarily to staple crops, of which sugar and to a lesser extent bananas and citrus fruits are the most important. Accompanying the cultivation of these staples has been a great deal of subsistence agriculture, and the principal occupations of the vast majority of the population have been agriculture and the related agricultural processing industries. In recent decades, the economy has begun to be diversified and industrialized, in some territories much more than in others. Thus, the semi-arid islands of Curaçao and Aruba, in the Netherlands Leeward Islands group off the coast of Venezuela, devote themselves almost exclusively to the petroleum industry, refining crude oil brought from Venezuela. Trinidad and Jamaica, in addition to their basic agriculture, have some industrial development based on petroleum refining and bauxite, respectively; and British Guiana and Surinam are centers of bauxite mining and processing.

Notwithstanding the beginnings of economic development, the area as a whole remains one of the economically underdeveloped regions of the world, with low living standards and extremely limited government revenues. A principal barrier to educational development is, therefore, a lack of adequate personal and governmental income. Although in the case of the United Kingdom and France the mother countries have been making a considerable financial contribution to education in their respective Caribbean areas in recent years, there will probably continue to be less than adequate financing for education until the general level of the economy can be substantially raised. In these circumstances an elementary school education of approximately 8 years has been about the maximum most children have been able to attain, and far from all children have attained this much. While substantial efforts have been made, particularly since World War II, to provide expanded elementary education facilities in these areas generally, the rapidly increasing school population has also helped make for overcrowding of buildings and classrooms and a shortage of teachers. For example, in the British territories it is estimated that by 1961 the number of children of primary school age will have increased by 43 percent,

or 242,000, since 1946.[1] Compulsory attendance laws, such as exist in most of the areas, tend to be overlooked when school accommodations are inadequate. The "luxury" of some form of post-primary education, whether academic or vocational, has been precluded for most children by the lack of family and governmental income.

Many of the territories, including Jamaica, Trinidad, British Guiana, Barbados, and Surinam, have, in the period since World War II, instituted 5- or 10-Year Plans for economic and social development, which include education development programs designed to help both the individual and society achieve their potential. Improvement and development of educational facilities are thus being recognized as essential to economic development, and these Plans generally provide for attention to education of various types and levels, including facilities for vocational education.

There may be noted at this point a popular psychological impediment to agricultural and other types of vocational education and training which continues to exist in varying degrees in the several areas. Despite the basically agricultural nature of the economies of most Caribbean territories, agriculture has not found general popular favor as a way of life. This attitude is usually regarded as stemming in part from the historic fact of the slave system, in which agricultural labor was slave labor. In the post-slavery period this attitude has been reinforced by antipathy to the poor economic conditions and prospects of the small farmer and the lack of living conveniences in the rural areas. Accompanying these factors has been a widespread feeling that social position and status are not to be gained by tilling the soil with one's own hands. By extension, manual labor in other occupations has likewise not been well regarded, though this attitude is beginning to change with industrialization and the need for trained skills.

The implications for educational patterns of this attitude toward manual labor are obvious. It is frequently asserted that the almost exclusively academic and classical educational systems and curricula which the British, Dutch, and French transplanted to the area have little relationship today to its needs or those of its inhabitants. Historically, vocational education, including agricultural education, has held a minor role in educational systems and programs in the European Caribbean. One barrier to the extension of this type of education has been recognized by some of the strongest West Indian critics of academic and classical education to be the attitudes of West Indians themselves. Education has been popularly regarded as affording an opportunity for "escaping the degradation" and low social position associated with employment requiring the use of

[1] British Information Services, *The West Indies: A Nation in the Making* (New York, 1957), p. 35.

the hands. Consequently education and training for this kind of life have faced an uphill battle.

In this connection, until recent decades there has been little economic incentive for training in agriculture and other vocations, as evidenced by the lack of substantial employment and income opportunities in these pursuits. Economic rewards went largely to those entering white collar and professional occupations following completion of academic education. The development of the economy in parts of the area, particularly since World War II, with the attendant increase in demand and pecuniary rewards for vocational skills, has resulted in an augmentation of popular interest in additional facilities and programs for vocational education, even though this type of education may still be regarded by many as "second best." Particularly among many governmental, educational, business, and agricultural leaders, there is general recognition of the need for additional vocational educational facilities, as reflected in the formulation of the aforementioned Development Plans and in other ways.

Accompanying the economic development of the area, there has been in all of the European affiliated Caribbean territories the growth of political self-consciousness, which has resulted since World War II in the modification or termination of colonial status, as well as in the triumph of representative government based on universal suffrage. This political movement may be regarded as an outward and practical manifestation of the whole social ferment in these territories. It has expressed itself in different and in some respects even seemingly opposite ways in the British, Dutch, and French territories, depending on political and constitutional traditions and the techniques developed by each of the European countries and its erstwhile colonies to meet the emerging demands for full political rights and self-expression. A brief survey of recent constitutional developments in each European group of territories is necessary to understand the general governmental and administrative framework within which current educational developments are taking place. The specific constitutional arrangements for the administration of education will be discussed in later chapters on educational trends in the territories of each national grouping.

In the British areas most of the territories had representative assemblies chosen by a restricted electorate and a limited degree of home rule in the period prior to the abolition of slavery in the mid-19th century. After the emancipation of the slaves, who constituted the bulk of the population, these assemblies were abolished and most of the territories became crown colonies ruled by officials sent from London and by appointed councils which took the place of

elected assemblies. However, even before this process was completed in some of the territories, there began in Jamaica in 1884 the movement toward a reintroduction of an elected element in West Indian legislatures based on a more liberal franchise. After that date, the advance toward fully representative and ministerial government based on universal suffrage, as well as the granting of a considerable degree of home rule in local affairs, gradually took place in each British territory, with the pace accelerating after World War II.

The culmination of the movement toward full political self-expression in the British West Indies has been the coming into existence of the Federation of the West Indies. Serious discussion of the desirability of providing a union of the British Caribbean territories had begun shortly after World War II, but it was not until early 1958 that the Federation was officially born with the inauguration of its first Governor-General. This was followed by the first elections for the Federal Parliament, and is scheduled to lead to full independence within the British Commonwealth in 5 years. Within this period various governmental and economic arrangements with the mother country and the component territorial units are to be made.

The Federation consists of all the British island territories of the Caribbean except the British Virgin Islands, which preferred to remain outside the Federation, at least for the time being. The British affiliated Bahama Islands and Bermuda do not consider themselves Caribbean territories and do not belong to the Federation. Nor does the Federation include the mainland territories of British Guiana in South America and British Honduras in Central America, though both have close ties of cooperation with the Federation and its members, and may join if they wish. Despite the fact that not all British Caribbean territories have joined the Federation its birth symbolizes and dramatizes the movement toward nationhood and self-government in the British Caribbean. With respect to nonmembers British Guiana and British Honduras, they have likewise come to enjoy a considerable degree of autonomy, albeit not without certain political and constitutional difficulties particularly in the case of the former. It is somewhat of an anomaly, incidentally, that British Guiana has a common currency unit—the British West Indian dollar—with all Federation members save Jamaica, which continues to base its currency on the pound sterling.

In the Dutch related areas of the Netherlands Antilles and Surinam a similar movement toward territorial autonomy, representative government, ministerial responsibility to local legislative assemblies, and universal suffrage has taken place. Until World War II the relationship of these territories to the Netherlands was

essentially that of colonies ruled from the Hague. During the war they were the only Netherlands territories not occupied by the enemy, with the result that they exercised a large degree of de facto autonomy. After the war there was a steady movement, expressing itself in a series of meetings between representatives of the Netherlands, the Antilles, and Surinam, which resulted in successive constitutional changes, and the eventual achievement of complete self rule in internal matters. The culmination was the promulgation of the new Charter for the Kingdom of the Netherlands in December 1954, by which the co-equality, or partnership, of the three political units making up the Kingdom—the Netherlands, Surinam, and the Netherlands Antilles—was recognized. Under this arrangement, the latter two areas share with the Netherlands on a co-equal basis, responsibility for matters of common concern described in the Charter as "Kingdom Affairs." The most important of these are Defense and Foreign Relations, and a method for the sharing of responsibility by representatives of the three countries in these and other "Kingdom Affairs" is provided in the Charter. Education is not included under "Kingdom Affairs," and Surinam and the Netherlands Antilles are responsible for their own educational systems.

In the Netherlands Antilles the movement toward self rule within the Kingdom of the Netherlands also manifested itself in the granting of autonomy to the various islands that compose it; and this had important effects on the administration of education. Before the first steps were taken toward the granting of autonomy of the Netherlands Antilles as a whole, the name of Curaçao, the largest island of the group, had been applied for administrative purposes to the whole region, which was governed as a unit, from The Hague. In 1951, with the preliminary steps taken looking to full autonomy for the Antilles and Surinam, the Netherlands Antilles Islands Ordinance, or Regulation, of that year was promulgated, dividing the islands of the Netherlands Antilles into so-called island-territories and granting a large degree of autonomy to each of them in local affairs.

The delineation of the island-territories followed in the main the lines of geography. They consist of (*a*) the island-territory of Aruba; (*b*) the island-territory of Bonaire and Little-Bonaire; (*c*) the island-territory of Curaçao formed by the islands of Curaçao and Little Curaçao; and (*d*) the island-territory of the Netherlands Windward Islands some 550 miles away in the northeast Caribbean, formed by the islands of Saba, St. Eustatius, and St. Martin (Dutch part). This autonomy of the island-territories within the Netherlands Antilles was reaffirmed in the new Consti-

tution of the Netherlands Antilles of 1955, promulgated pursuant to the necessity for adapting the internal Antillean constitutional system to the new partnership system of the Kingdom of the Netherlands of 1954.

In the case of the French Caribbean areas, political self-expression has taken a different, and in a sense an opposite, direction from that in the British and Dutch areas. On March 19, 1946, the colonial status of those areas—Guadeloupe, Martinique, and French Guiana—was terminated and they became overseas Departments of France. In this framework they stand on the same footing and have the same status as the administrative units of this name in continental France. This means that they are integral parts of France and are governed in the same way as French continental Departments under the unitary and centralized governmental and administrative system of France. The executive authority in each of the three French Caribbean Departments is exercised by a Prefect appointed, as for all French Departments, by the French Minister of the Interior.

The inhabitants of the Caribbean Departments have all the civil and political rights of French citizens. They are represented in the French national legislature and have their own Department Councils, or local legislative bodies, with representatives in both chosen by universal suffrage. The satisfaction of the French Caribbean Departments with this governmental and administrative status was attested to by the overwhelming majority vote they gave to the new French Constitution in September 1958, the provisions of which affirmed this status.

Whatever form or direction the movement for greater political self-expression has taken in the European affiliated Caribbean territories, the movement may be regarded as symbolizing their development and aspirations, not only in political but in economic and social matters as well. It is also normal that the beginnings of the movement toward political, economic, and social maturity should be accompanied by a great interest in and a demand for augmented educational facilities to meet the need and desire for national and individual development and self-government. This aspiration has been summed up in the statement that "education for nationhood * * * has become the watchword of the peoples of those countries of the Caribbean."[2]

Notwithstanding the differences in educational systems and patterns in the European Caribbean stemming from the different national and cultural patterns represented by the United Kingdom, the Netherlands, and France, there are, as already indicated, basic

[2] Caribbean Commission. *Increasing Purpose* (Port-of-Spain, Trinidad, 1957), p. 65.

similarities in their educational problems and needs. These similarities have been recognized by the representatives of the respective territories themselves. Among the channels for giving areawide recognition to such problems and needs in the period since World War II have been the meetings on education sponsored by the regional organization known as the Caribbean Commission. A survey of its deliberations thus affords an overview of the area's educational needs as seen by its own representatives. A summary of some of the Commission's educational activities, which have focused attention on these problems and have included certain undertakings designed to assist in meeting some of the area's common needs follows.

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CHAPTER II

The Caribbean Commission

THE CARIBBEAN COMMISSION was organized in 1946 as an intergovernmental consultative and advisory body by the Governments of the United States, the United Kingdom, France, and the Netherlands—the so-called metropolitan member powers having at that time the primary responsibility for the social and economic well-being of the respective Caribbean territories associated with them. It was an outgrowth of the Anglo-American Caribbean Commission established in 1942 during World War II by the United States and the United Kingdom to study and advise those two governments on problems of their Caribbean territories. The purpose of the expanded Caribbean Commission was to foster in the same manner the economic and social well-being and development of the Caribbean territories affiliated with all the metropolitan powers of the area. Thus, in addition to the European connected areas with which we are concerned in this study, the United States affiliated areas of Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands came within the purview of the Caribbean Commission.

In 1959 the Caribbean Commission was in process of being transformed from an organ of the four metropolitan governments into a body directly representative of the Caribbean areas themselves. The projected transformation reflected the changed political and constitutional realities in the European and United States affiliated Caribbean areas, and was designed to facilitate the continuation of social, economic, and cultural cooperation in the region. The name "Caribbean Organization" was proposed for the new body, with its headquarters to be located in Puerto Rico. The fall of 1960 was the target date for the formal launching of the Organization.

With its organization in 1946, the Caribbean Commission established a Central Secretariat at Port-of-Spain, Trinidad, to carry out its program and serve as a center of information and material on the Caribbean in various subject fields, including education. Also set up as part of the Caribbean Commission "system" were two auxiliary bodies—the Caribbean Research Council and the West Indian Conference. The Caribbean Research Council was established as the Commission's research arm to undertake studies as needed, in the various fields within the scope of the Commis-

sion's activities. It was organized to operate through several standing committees of subject experts, one of which was its Committee on Sociology and Education. The other principal auxiliary body of the Commission—the West Indian Conference—was intended to provide a periodic and regular means of consultation among the representatives of the territories themselves. It also served to express the consensus of their views and recommendations to the metropolitan governments, their own Governments, and the Commission on matters of common interest, including education. The West Indian Conference has provided much of the stimulus for making the area aware of its education needs and possible means of meeting them.

Regional Consultation on Education

As early as 1942, education was among the subjects on which recommendations were made by the Commission's predecessor, the Anglo-American Caribbean Commission, and these recommendations formed the basis of an exchange of notes between the United States and the United Kingdom on Caribbean problems. Point 6 of this exchange of notes, formulated at almost the birth stage of the Commission, dealt with educational problems in the area that have continued to draw attention in Commission-sponsored meetings and activities ever since. It stated that "while an adequate literary and cultural standard must be maintained, a greater vocational bias should be introduced into the educational system."[1]

Education also received some attention at early sessions of the West Indian Conference, beginning in 1944. The First Session of the Conference, meeting in that year, before the Commission's transformation into a four-nation body in 1946, included on its agenda the subject of public works planning for the improvement of physical facilities in various services, including education. In this way the territorial representatives took note of the area's inadequate and overcrowded educational facilities and the great need for additional space and improvements in school buildings. The Conference's first session also initiated the attention given at succeeding sessions to vocational education, by recommending that governments provide "vocational and technical training to increase the supply of skilled workers required for future development of industry."[2]

The Second Session of the West Indian Conference meeting early in 1946 shortly after the addition of the Netherlands and France

[1] Quoted in Frances McReynolds Smith, "The Caribbean Commission: Prototype of Regional Cooperation," in *The Caribbean: British, Dutch, French, United States*, A. Curtis Wilgus, ed. (Gainesville, Fla., 1958, University of Florida Press), p. 281.

[2] Caribbean Commission. *Development of Vocational Education in the Caribbean* (Port-of-Spain, Trinidad, 1953), p. 66.

to the Caribbean Commission, while not dealing with education as a specific agenda item, noted that "education is an essential prerequisite to progress within the area. No matter what aspect of the area is being considered, the basic problem is how to bring greater knowledge to bear on it." The Conference emphasized that "the fundamental need is for better primary and secondary education, together with a development of adult education, designed to strengthen the qualities of good citizenship and thereby to increase standards of production and * * * of living."[3]

The interest of West Indian representatives in vocational and "practical" education, including home economics, continued to be manifested by their attention to these subjects at succeeding sessions of the West Indian Conference, as well as at several specialized conferences sponsored by the Caribbean Commission, during the period 1948-52. Vocational and industrial training in its relation to accelerating the industrial development and the economic productivity of the area was included on the agenda of the Third Session of the West Indian Conference in 1948, and General Rural and Agricultural Education was an agenda subject at the Fourth Session held in 1950. In view of the area interest in home economics education, a specialized conference sponsored jointly by the Caribbean Commission and the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization, on Home Economics and Education in Nutrition, was held at Trinidad in 1952. A major result of this conference was the assignment of a home economist to the Commission by the FAO from 1953 to 1957. This specialist organized and conducted training courses, seminars, and workshops in home economics and home economics education in the various areas served by the Commission, and through wide travel in the Caribbean stimulated emphasis on home economics education both for adults and for children in regular school programs of instruction.

The desire of the West Indian representatives to consider vocational educational problems of the area on a broader and more intensive basis was evidenced by a closing recommendation of the 1950 session of the West Indian Conference that one of the major agenda items of the Fifth Session, to be held in 1952, should be a study of "Vocational Education in the Caribbean Area" in its various aspects, and that documentation for the conference should be prepared in advance in the form of papers on each aspect of vocational education. The result was that the Fifth Session of the West Indian Conference gave detailed consideration to different aspects of vocational education. A series of useful papers was prepared as documentation for the Conference. Among the agenda

[3] Caribbean Commission. *Education in the Caribbean* (Port-of-Spain, Trinidad, 1956). Foreword, p. iii.

topics on which the Conference approved recommendations were the following: Guidance Services, Agricultural Training, Trade and Industrial Training, Apprenticeship and On-the-Job Training, and Teacher Training for Vocational Education.

A further significant development of this session of the Conference, which at previous sessions had devoted its attention in the educational field principally to vocational education, was the laying of the groundwork for subsequent consideration of other educational problems and needs in the area. The Fifth Session reiterated the views expressed by the Second Session in 1946 on the basic educational need of the area. It declared "that primary, secondary, and adult education form an essential basis of the economic and social development of the Caribbean area," and recommended "that Education generally and in relation to Communtiy Development be the theme of the Sixth Session of the West Indian Conference." The Fifth Session also recommended that in preparation for the Sixth Session a technical conference on small-scale farming, including the educational factors involved, be held, its report to be included in the documentation for the Sixth Session.

With reference to adult education, the interest of the West Indian delegates at the Fifth Session in this aspect of education, including literacy training, was specifically evidenced by their recommendations that the Caribbean Commission (1) request UNESCO to assist area governments in these fields and (2) urge the latter to promote such education and to cooperate with UNESCO in efforts to this end. The concern of the delegates for this general field of education was further manifested by the recommendation of the Conference's Fifth Session that the Commission make a study of fundamental, literacy, adult, and community education in the Caribbean, and that the results of the study be made available to the Sixth Session of the West Indian Conference. The Commission was also requested to explore the possibility of the territories obtaining technical and financial assistance from the various bilateral and multilateral sources of such assistance, in establishing and organizing the educational programs recommended by the Conference.

The foregoing recommendations of the Fifth Session of the West Indian Conference initiated a period of intensified attention to education by the Caribbean Commission and its auxiliary bodies. In preparing for the Conference's Sixth Session, the Commission made certain of the widest possible scope of the theme for that session suggested by the Fifth Session, by specifying that the Sixth Session should deal with Education generally and in relation to Economic and Community Development (the underlined word being added to the recommendation of the Fifth Session). To the same

end, the theme of the technical conference on small-scale farming recommended by the Fifth Session as a preliminary to the Sixth Session, was expanded at the suggestion of the Caribbean Research Council to provide for fuller treatment of education at a joint conference on education and small-scale farming. On the invitation of the Commission, UNESCO acted as a co-sponsor of the technical conference, and a UNESCO consultant in education was assigned to the Commission for 9 months in 1954 to make the study of fundamental, adult, literacy, and community education recommended by the West Indian Conference, and to assist in preparations for the joint conference.

The Joint Conference on Education and Small-Scale Farming was held at Trinidad in October 1954. Delegates from all the areas served by the Commission were represented, as were observers from several nonmember Governments, multilateral organizations, and educational institutions in the area. The documentation prepared for the Joint Conference points out many of the educational problems and needs in the geographic area under consideration and indicates lines of thinking about these problems by educational specialists from its various territories. Included were papers on "The Need for Instructional Materials Related to the Caribbean Environment," "The School in its Relation to the Community," "Teacher Training in the Caribbean," "Administration of Education in the Caribbean," "Financing of Education in the Caribbean," "Education in Relation to Growing Urbanization and Industrialization," "Community Education Including Adult Education," and "Educational Research in the British Caribbean."

This documentation and the Report of the Joint Conference became, in turn, the basic documentation for the Sixth Session of the West Indian Conference in May 1955, which accepted, with minor modifications, most of the recommendations of the Joint Conference. Thus, the conclusions reached in the field of education at the two meetings were similar and supplemented those of the Fifth Session on Vocational Education as an identification of the educational problems and needs in the various territories of the area, as seen by their own representatives. The keynote of the two meetings on the role of education in the area was expressed in the view of the Joint Conference, and concurred in by the West Indian Conference, that "Education must be regarded not as an amenity to be afforded after the achievement of economic progress but as an essential and concomitant instrument of economic, social and political development."[4] To this end, the Sixth Session of the Conference regarded its deliberations as being concerned, in the

[4] Caribbean Commission, *West Indian Conference. Sixth Session, 1955*, p. 79.

terms of the language of the agenda, with "the Adaptation of Education to the actual needs of the Area," and indicated by its recommendations that a majority of its delegates believed that education in the Caribbean was unrelated to Caribbean conditions and needs.

Specifically the Sixth Session, reflecting the views expressed in the report of the Joint Conference of 1954, considered and approved recommendations which were concerned, among other things, with the following matters: (1) the fostering of group activities in which pupils play a leading part, as a method of civic education; (2) the introduction into both primary and secondary school curricula of practical subjects, such as manual training, school gardening, and home economics; (3) the increased production and use of textbooks and of reading and instructional materials with Caribbean relevance; (4) the establishment by the Caribbean Commission of a Clearing House for information regarding such materials relating to primary and adult education; (5) the improvement of methods for the selection and training of teachers and the broadening of the teacher-training curriculum to include practical subjects and training for participation in community education; (6) recognition that teachers of agriculture be regarded primarily as teachers; (7) the cooperation of all departments of government and appropriate private agencies in community development; (8) recognition that the attainment of the major objective of free universal primary schooling should go side by side with such development of other forms of education as economic and social progress dictates and that in educational development there should be close cooperation between education and other government departments concerned with social and economic affairs; (9) the desirability of continued support from UNESCO in meeting educational problems in the Caribbean in various ways, including the assignment of a UNESCO consultant on education to the Caribbean Commission to advise the Governments of the area and the Secretary-General on educational matters and to assist in setting up the aforementioned Clearing House of educational and instructional materials having Caribbean relevance; and (10) the urgent necessity, in view of the limited financial resources available to Caribbean Governments, for experimenting with various types of school organization and administration, including the interlocking and double enrollment systems, as well as the possibility of enlisting self-help in the villages and towns in relation to the school. It must be mentioned that the Netherlands Antilles Government stated that it could not associate itself with a number of the recommendations approved, on the grounds that they were irrelevant, inappro-

priate, or not applicable to the situation in the Netherlands Antilles.

It should also be noted that both the Joint Conference of 1954 and the Sixth Session of the West Indian Conference in 1955 recognized the significance for educational programs of popular attitudes towards agriculture, the principal occupation in the Caribbean area. The Joint Conference expressed the view that "a basic problem is the historically deep rooted aversion to agriculture as a means of livelihood," and noted certain social and economic reasons for this attitude.[5] The West Indian Conference, while agreeing on the fact of the existence of this attitude, observed that the view of the Joint Conference required some qualification insofar as it referred to certain Caribbean areas, in that it "felt there was no aversion to agricultural occupations as such except insofar as peasant agriculture has for so long been associated with low standards of living."[6]

The 1955 Session of the West Indian Conference remained, through 1959, the most recent Caribbean Commission sponsored conference at which West Indian delegates voiced their views on the overall educational problems and needs of the area. Since 1955 there have continued to be mention and consideration of certain specialized educational problems at various meetings of West Indian representatives. The 7th Session of the West Indian Conference in 1957 considered, among other agenda items, the role of Education in the Cooperative Movement; and the Second Conference on Home Economics held at Trinidad in April 1958, which was again cosponsored by the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization, included home economics education and teacher training among the subjects considered.

Other Education Activities

Among the educational activities with which the Caribbean Commission has been associated must be mentioned the regionwide Caribbean Training Program of the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico and the United States Government's International Cooperation Administration. The Commission has assisted in the processing and selection of recipients of these training grants. This program has been of special interest because of the concern of West Indian Governments and leaders with vocational educational and training opportunities. Designed specifically to afford such opportunities for citizens of the European affiliated Caribbean areas, the Caribbean Program was originated in 1950 as a separate part of a larger program of technical cooperation and training in Puerto Rico.

[5] Caribbean Commission, *Education in the Caribbean*, p. 95.
[6] Caribbean Commission, *West Indian Conference, Sixth Session, 1955*, p. 79.

From 1950 through 1958 almost 800 persons from British, Netherlands, and French Caribbean areas received training in Puerto Rico. Fields of specialization included trade and industrial education, vocational teacher training in agriculture, community education, home economics, cooperatives, social work, public health, and others. In 1959 a new agreement extending and expanding the Puerto Rican training program as a whole, including the Caribbean Program, was concluded between the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico and the ICA. The Caribbean Training Program has thus helped to meet a need caused by a deficiency in vocational and specialized educational and training facilities in the European affiliated Caribbean areas.

Activities of the Caribbean Commission Secretariat in educational matters since the 1955 Session of the West Indian Conference have reflected some of the interests in this field expressed at this and other meetings of West Indian leaders. From January 1957 to April 1958, there was assigned to the Caribbean Commission Secretariat the UNESCO expert recommended by the Sixth Session of the West Indian Conference. He assisted in the establishment of a Clearing House within the Commission for instructional materials with Caribbean relevance and advised the Secretary-General and the Governments of the area on various educational problems. The Secretariat has also developed an extensive library of publications on various subject specialties, including education, and is an official depository for UNESCO publications. In 1958–59 it was preparing a bibliography on education in the Caribbean, which was to include sections on general education, instructional material, education serials, and annotations of laws dealing with education.

In addition, the Secretariat was receiving an increasing number of requests for materials to be used in schools and adult extension work, particularly in nutrition and health education, as well as for information on education in the area generally. It prepared a booklet, *Opportunities for Study Abroad*, and replied to inquiries for information and guidance from students interested in this subject. The Secretariat's Research Secretary, in charge of its Education and Home Economics work, provided consultative services in 1959 to Government of the West Indies Federation in connection with the latter's Conference on Social Development in the West Indies. The same type of assistance was accorded the Government of Trinidad and Tobago, through service by the Research Secretary on its Committee on General Education inquiring into and advising on that territory's educational organization and curriculum in 1959.

Of particular note has been the attention given by the Commission Secretariat to the matter of instructional materials related to

the Caribbean environment. In line with recommendations of the aforementioned 1954 and 1955 Conferences dealing with education, the Secretariat has devoted itself to studying instructional materials produced in the Caribbean territories and elsewhere in fields where there is a dearth of textbooks, with a view to adapting or translating them for use in various Caribbean territories. For example, it translated into English and French and distributed for adult education purposes several publications on nutrition produced in Puerto Rico. It was also engaged in 1958–59 in producing and distributing, in cooperation with the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization, a series of home economics booklets related to the Caribbean environment for use in schools and adult education extension programs, as well as a group of health education booklets known as the "Healthy Living Series" designed for the same use, in cooperation with the World Health Organization and the Government of Barbados. The latter series was being prepared in large easy-to-read type in English, French, and Dutch. In 1958–59 the Secretariat was also compiling a list of instructional materials with Caribbean relevance for use in schools and in adult education.

It was noted in a Commission publication early in 1959 that there is now a considerable amount of instructional material related to the Caribbean in use in schools, and to a lesser extent in adult education, in British and Netherlands territories. Materials for use in the schools are chiefly in reading, geography, history, and arithmetic. Nevertheless, it was observed that much remains to be done in many aspects of this work. In this connection, the Commission-sponsored Conference of Government Information Officers held in Surinam in March 1959 recommended the preparation of a geography textbook for the Caribbean as a whole, and the Commission Secretariat as a preliminary step requested governments to supply information on geography textbooks in use in elementary schools in the area.[7]

In 1959 with the impending demise of the Caribbean Commission as organized, the future of regionwide consultation and cooperation in educational matters among the Caribbean areas retaining their affiliations with outside powers appeared to depend upon the materialization of the projected plans for its successor organization and on whether and how they would decide to use it in such matters.

[7] Commission activities in the matter of instructional material related to the Caribbean is discussed in V. O. Alcala, Research Secretary, Caribbean Commission, "Instructional Material for Healthy Living," *The Caribbean*, 13: 34–35, 44, February 1959.

Part II

British Affiliated Areas

CHAPTER III

Governmental Structure and Policies Affecting Education

THE MODERN PERIOD in education in the British Caribbean may be said to have begun about 1940. During the preceding hundred years or so, from the completion of the emancipation of the slaves in 1838, educational facilities had remained extremely limited, and substantial change or improvement was slow. There was no tradition of mass public education as the responsibility of the state, and education began largely as a function of religious bodies.

In the latter half of the 19th and the early 20th centuries the responsibility of the state in education gradually came to be recognized, and government education departments were established under the British Crown Colony system. As each territory acquired a substantial degree of home rule, cabinet level Ministers of Education responsible to territorial legislative bodies for educational policy were appointed. Execution of policy remained in the hands of a Director of Education or a Chief Education Officer and his staff in the respective territorial education departments. Since there was no central government for the area as a whole, each territorial government developed, in a sense, its own educational system, so that today it may be said there are as many different systems as there are individual territories. Despite variations, however, basic features and common problems gave a unity to education throughout the area. Everywhere government funds were provided for education in two ways—through the establishment of government schools, and through financial contributions to certain denominational and private schools which have become known as "grant-aided" schools. Generally speaking and with exceptions in certain territories, governments have established and operated a higher percentage of elementary than secondary schools. In both categories, however, and particularly in secondary education, the percentage of grant-aided denominational schools remains quite substantial in most of the territories. In Trinidad and British Guiana with their diverse racial and cultural groupings these schools have included Hindu and Moslem institutions, as well as Catholic and various Protestant sectarian schools. In Jamaica there has been for over 50 years a legal prohibition on the addition of any church school to the list of grant-aided elementary schools.

Thus, insofar as grant-aided schools were concerned, education was accepted as a partnership between religious bodies and governments. The former supplied many of the school buildings and administered the day to day operation of the schools; and the latter gradually assumed more and more of the responsibility for financing school operation and construction costs (sometimes up to 100 percent), set the general pattern and framework of substantive and administrative policies and regulations, and provided for regular inspection and overall administration. It is for this reason and also because of the fact, particularly at the secondary level, of common examinations to measure achievement, that there is today no essential difference in programs and administration between government and aided schools in the same territory, and that for all practical purposes they may be regarded as parts of the same system.

A principal handicap to educational development in the British Caribbean, as has been mentioned with respect to the European affiliated areas generally, has long been the poverty of the region and the paucity of funds, public and private, for substantial educational development. Until 1940 the prevailing practice with respect to the financing of education reflected the British Government's view that social services for the benefit of the Caribbean territories should in the main be paid for out of the financial resources of the area.[1] In these circumstances, progress in the early years of the 20th century was slow. Population grew, but in the main the same schools, some nearly a hundred years old, continued to accommodate pupils.[2]

Development and Welfare Organization

In 1940 the British Parliament, acting on the recommendation of the West Indies Royal Commission of 1938, enacted the first United Kingdom Colonial Development and Welfare Act to assist colonial areas financially in their social services and economic development, including education. Although the Act applied to British colonial territories as a whole, special provision was made for financial aid to the British West Indies. This enactment and subsequent similar legislation has had far-reaching effects, not only by reason of an immediate increase in funds available for the indicated purposes, but also because it was accompanied by the establishment of the West Indies Development and Welfare Organization with headquarters at

[1] British Information Services. *The West Indies: A Nation in the Making*, p. 16.

[2] For historical and general information on education in the British Caribbean Territories, *see* UNESCO, "British Caribbean Region" and the individual Territorial summaries which follow in *World Survey of Education, II, Primary Education* (Paris, 1958), p. 1175 ff.

Barbados. The original function of this Organization was to supervise the administration of the Act and allocate Development and Welfare Funds in the area, under a Comptroller for Development and Welfare in the West Indies. Up to March 31, 1957, approximately £2,850,000 had been allocated from Colonial Development and Welfare funds for educational purposes in the individual British Caribbean territories and for areawide educational projects, such as the University College of the West Indies. This represented a little over one-tenth of the allocations for all purposes.[3] Additional allocations made for the 1957–60 period would bring the total for all purposes up to £37,500,000 by the latter date.[4]

Originally intended as an agency for administering the distribution of these Colonial Development and Welfare funds, the West Indies Development and Welfare Organization soon extended its functions to include (*a*) assistance to the British Caribbean Governments in the preparation of applications to the Government of the United Kingdom for grants; (*b*) the provision of technical assistance and advice to these Governments; and (*c*) the provision of machinery for regional consultation and cooperation among the British Caribbean territories in economic and social matters. Included among the various technical specialists attached to the Organization was an Education Adviser to the Comptroller, who from 1940 on, worked on a consultative and advisory basis with the territorial governments on education matters. He also became ex-officio chairman of several regionwide groups of territorial and institutional officials concerned with education, including the Conference of Directors of Education and of Education Officers of the British Caribbean Territories, established in 1951.

The Development and Welfare Organization, with its emphasis on the regional approach to common problems, helped pave the way toward British West Indies Federation, and in fact in 1955 the Comptroller of the Organization was named Commissioner for the Preparation of the Federal Organization. In the planning for Federation it was assumed that the new Federal Government would become the channel for the administration of Colonial Development and Welfare funds and their distribution to Territories within the Federation, including monies for educational purposes. The Government of the United Kingdom gave assurances that Colonial Development and Welfare funds would continue until the Federation's attainment of independence within the Commonwealth. It was also assumed that the Federal Government would carry on the

[3] Luke, *Sir* Stephen, Comptroller for Development and Welfare in the West Indies, *Development and Welfare in the West Indies, 1957* (United Kingdom Colonial Office, 1958), p. 6 and table II.

[4] British Information Services, *The West Indies: A Nation in the Making*, p. iv and 2.

advisory and consultative regional services previously provided by the West Indies Colonial Development and Welfare Organization, including those in education. On this basis, plans were made and carried out for the Organization to wind up its activities and terminate its existence when the Federation came into being, early in 1958.

The West Indies Federation

Under the Constitution of the West Indies Federation, governmental responsibility for education remains primarily a function of the individual Territories. In non-Federation members British Guiana and British Honduras, responsibility is exclusively a territorial function, subject to cooperative arrangements in regional educational undertakings, such as the University College of the West Indies (UCWI) and the Eastern Caribbean Farm Institute. In the Federation, the Federal Government has only those powers and functions which are specifically granted it or which may be regarded as incidental to those so granted. They are specifically included either on the so-called Exclusive Legislative List of functions to be exercised solely by the Federal Government, or on the Concurrent Legislative List of functions which may be exercised by either the Federal or the Territorial Governments. The only educational function over which the Federal Government is given exclusive control is the University College of the West Indies (Paragraph 17 of the Exclusive Legislative List). The Concurrent Legislative List provides for two types of educational services over which the Federal Government and the Territorial Governments may exercise jurisdiction: (1) under Paragraph 33, professional, technological, and agricultural education, training, and studies, subject to the exclusive control of the Federal Government over the UCWI, and (2) under Paragraph 32, Student Services, i.e., financial and other assistance for persons receiving university education, or education or training of the type referred to in Paragraph 33.

It is thus clear that the Federal Government has the authority to develop programs of the nature indicated, both inside and outside the UCWI, as well as exclusive authority for latter institution. How this authority will be exercised remains to be developed, but there were indications in 1958 and 1959 that the Federal Government, and the Territorial Governments as well, hoped to move ahead in these fields in cooperation with such outside sources of support as the United Kingdom Government's Colonial Development and Welfare resources, United Nations agencies, the United States Government's International Cooperation Administration, and private Foundations. In June 1959, technical assistance agreements were signed between the West Indies Federal Government and the International

Cooperation Administration providing the basis for cooperation in several fields, including certain aspects of industrial arts, commercial, and technical education.

Another development in the role of the Federal Government in Education has been the appointment of a Federal Education Advisor. Strong support for the plan to have the Federal Government assume responsibility for advisory and consultative region-wide services in education was expressed by Territorial Directors of Education, Education Officers, and others concerned with education, when they met at the Regional Conference on the Training of Teachers in the British Caribbean in 1957. This Conference, the last regional meeting in the field of education before the birth of the Federation, recommended

> • • • that the Federal Government should continue and expand the advisory services now made available by the Development and Welfare Organisation, and that in addition to a Chief Education Adviser and an Adviser on Technical Education, a woman Adviser especially concerned with the education of women and girls should be appointed.[8]

The Conference also took the view with respect to various fields of education generally, and specifically in teacher training, that a regional outlook should prevail and various problems should be approached from a regional point of view. More will be included about the application of this principle to various types and levels of education in the British territories.

As had been anticipated and planned, the position of Federal Education Adviser was established and placed in the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs when the Federation came into being early in 1958. Named as the first incumbent was the then Director of Education of Jamaica. The position of Adviser on Technical Education in the Office of the Federal Education Adviser was also established, indicating the importance attached to this phase of education. The development of the specific functions and role of the Federal Education Adviser was one of the problems facing the Federal Government in 1958–59. There is no specific provision in the Federal Constitution for the position or its functions. There was general feeling that the substance of the position would be something which to a considerable extent would fall to the Adviser himself to work out after consultations with the Territorial Education Departments, taking into account the limited official functions of the Federal Government in Education. It was anticipated that his role vis-a-vis these Departments would be one of furnishing ad-

[8] Development and Welfare in the West Indies, Bulletin No. 39, *Report of the Regional Conference on the Training of Teachers in the British Caribbean, 25th June–5th July 1957* (Barbados, 1957), p. 39 (referred to hereafter as Teacher Training Conference *Report*).

visory and consultative leadership, as had been that of the Development and Welfare Organization's Education Adviser. Some suggestions as to specific functions he might undertake were made at the aforementioned Regional Conference on Teacher Training, and these will be referred to as various aspects of British West Indian education are discussed.

Education Development Plans

As noted in Chapter I, Governments of British Caribbean territories are attempting to meet educational problems and needs by formulating and carrying out educational development plans. Most of the territories have such plans, usually as a part of larger programs for economic development. These programs in general give a high place to education and are strongly supported by Colonial Development and Welfare Funds. In most territories current plans are continuations with modifications of ones initiated after World War II.

Thus, Jamaica launched a general 10-Year Development Plan in 1945, followed by a new 5-Year Plan in 1955 based on a survey made by the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development. This Plan was expanded in 1957 into a 10-Year (1957–67) National Long-Term Plan for Jamaica, which specifies in some detail the need and program for educational development. In conformity with this plan, some 15 percent of the Jamaican Government's funds—the second highest percentage in the Budget—were assigned to education in 1958. Since Jamaica is the largest and most populous Territory within the West Indies Federation, and its problems and needs, while by no means identical with those of the other Territories, are similar to those of other West Indian Territories generally, the rationale and summary of the objectives of its 10-year education plan are of some interest. Pertinent paragraphs of the Plan read as follows:

> Unless some attempt is made to train Jamaicans at all levels, economic development may be bogged down by lack of skilled personnel. A minimum of literacy and basic knowledge is essential if there is to be easy communication between officials and farmers, between producers and their customers, and if science is to be applied to the land or to industry even in a small way. For this reason a major part of the Long-Term Development Plan is the provision of at least five year's primary education for every child. Having established this basis all the other forms of continued education become more useful, and if every Jamaican child has a minimum chance there is a greater likelihood that the cream of the island's youth, irrespective of birth, will be available for the higher educational opportunities.
>
> There is to be compulsory primary education for all children aged 7–11 years. As a result of this it is hoped that the sections of the community from which pupils to secondary schools are enrolled will be considerably

widened. Within the plan period the aim is to provide free secondary education for at least 60% of the enrolment which is to be rapidly expanded from the present 10,000 to around 26,000.

There will be several streams of elementary and secondary education—academic, technical, agricultural—to fit the needs of children of different levels of ability and with different professional inclinations. To meet these needs the Government will train more teachers, provide more school accommodation and will institute a programme of labour training so as to equip the labour force with skills which are necessary both to make Jamaica an attractive labour market, and to service the development plans. All these needs are provided for and correlated in the Plan in addition to a generous addition to the scholarship provisions both at the secondary, teacher training and University levels.

Considerably increased facilities for training will be made available through the Trade Schools, the Apprenticeship Scheme and the Technical College, while the Post-Primary section of the Elementary Schools will emphasise vocational training. There is also provision for more training in industry, and on the job, and for example special plans are proposed for training hotel employees in collaboration with the hotel industry.[6]

• • • • •

The spread of literacy and basic general education through the [aforementioned] programme • • • will provide the vehicle for greater social, political and cultural awareness at all levels of society. This formal educational programme will be reinforced by the work of the various Social Welfare Services, with programmes for civic and cultural education, and for training in group participation, among adults in the backward areas.

The Education proposals allied to the Agriculture proposals form the core of the Plan. To provide an opportunity for every Jamaican child to have five years of elementary schooling is a major revolution in educational policy. From this decision flow many others which accept the need for a greater supply of teachers, a greater demand for secondary and higher education, which when met will in itself increase the supply of teachers, and the need to meet technical and vocational demands to a greater extent than heretofore.[7]

Other territories have similar Plans. Thus, the Government of Trinidad and Tobago initiated a general 5-Year Development Program in 1951 and began a second 5-Year Program for the period 1958–1962, inclusive. With respect to education the Program states:

> Increasing political independence postulates a literate and informed people; economic aspirations demand skills and abilities in the industrial and agricultural worker. The education system of the country will be reviewed and remodelled towards the achievement of these ends.[8]

The specific aims of the Government in the 5-year period of the Program are listed as follows:

(1) To provide adequate facilities for the basic education of children and adults

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[6] Government of Jamaica, *A National Plan for Jamaica, 1957–67* (Kingston, Jamaica, 1957), p. 4.

[7] *Ibid.*, p. 5.

[8] Government of Trinidad and Tobago, *Five-Year Development Programme, 1958–1962* (Port-of-Spain, Trinidad, 1958), p. 43.

(2) To provide additional facilities for technical education
(3) To increase the number of secondary school places and the number of awards for free tuition as the first step towards the ultimate goal of free secondary education
(4) To provide additional scholarships for study at University level to persons with sufficient ability to qualify for the professions and for key posts in the Government Service, in order to implement the policy of filling posts in the Civil Service and private industry with suitable local candidates
(5) To intensify the local training of Civil Servants and to ensure full efficiency in the administrative arm of Government
(6) To provide facilities for the training up to Government standards of a greater number of people
(7) To increase the information available to the public by intensifying adult education and full use of Government Broadcasting time.[9]

Likewise, Barbados initiated in 1955 a 5-Year Development Program, including provision for educational development, and extended it in 1957 to 1962. British Guiana, a non-Federation territory, included in its 10-Year Development Program for 1946–56 substantial allocations for education. Modifications and extension of this Program into a new 5-Year Development Program for 1956–60, inclusive, took place after the visit of an International Bank for Reconstruction and Development Mission in 1953–54. In its education aspects the British Guiana plan has emphasized expansion of physical facilities to meet increasing enrollments and replacement needs. With respect to the British Guiana education budget generally, there is the same upward trend in the matter of percentage of total funds devoted to education in Jamaica and that which exists elsewhere in British Caribbean territories. In the 3-year period 1954–57, the percentage of total government revenues devoted to education rose from 10.7 percent to 13.6 percent. More of the territory's funds were spent on education in the latter year than on any other function except medical services.[9]

[9] British Guiana Education Department, *Triennial Report, 1954–57*, mimeo., p. 7–8.

CHAPTER IV

Elementary and Secondary Education

PRIMARY, or elementary, education on the one hand and secondary education on the other have historically been regarded in the British Caribbean areas as two different and unrelated types and systems of education. Students have not progressed more or less automatically from the elementary to the secondary schools. "Secondary" education has been academic education for which one might be selected after about 6 years of elementary schooling. Those not so selected might continue their general education in elementary schools. Thus, in early adolescence some students might be attending academic secondary schools and a larger number elementary system schools. One trend in modern educational thinking and practice in the British Caribbean stems from the birth of a new concept of elementary and secondary education as a continuing process of instruction.

Elementary Level

The terms "primary" and "elementary" education have been used somewhat interchangeably in the British Caribbean. Whichever term is used, it usually refers broadly to general education which is at an "elementary," as opposed to an "advanced," level, and is given at one of the regular primary or elementary system schools, and not at an academic secondary school. Such education has generally been regarded as covering the years from age 5 or 6 to 14 or 15, though some students in these schools are older due to retardation or other factors. The usual situation in most territories has been that unless a student "wins a place" in an academic secondary school, or goes into some phase of "technical," or vocational, education, formal schooling is completed in a primary or elementary school. This has embraced about 8 years of schooling in most territories. In Trinidad the primary system also included in 1956 eight so-called intermediate schools, which extended it to 11 or more years. These are "all-age" schools for those from age 5 to 18, and continue education for a limited number of students from 2 to 4 years beyond the combined 9 years of pre-primary and primary education given in the usual primary school in Trinidad.

In recent years there has been a tendency toward reorganization of schools in the traditional primary or elementary system into

departments known as infant (ages 5-6), junior or primary (ages 7-11), and senior or post-primary (ages 12 to 14 or 15). There are the beginnings of a trend for the last of these to be established in separate schools. They are regarded by some as the equivalent of the secondary modern school in England, and as the means of giving a combined academic and "practical," 3-year, post-primary education. In some quarters and in certain areas, such as Barbados, post-primary education for the 12 to 14 or 15 age bracket has come to be regarded, therefore, as secondary education, particularly when it is imparted in separate schools. There will be further discussion when secondary level education is considered. Because the term "primary" is coming to refer in some cases to one department within a school, the term "elementary" will be used in referring to education for the 5 to 14 or 15, or older, age bracket in the same schools. In the British Caribbean area itself, the term "primary and all-age schools" is also used in the same context.

Enrollment Increases

The fundamental problem of elementary education in the British Caribbean is that of remedying an already existing deficiency in buildings, books and equipment, and teaching staff, in a situation in which it is difficult to make headway because the numbers of children reaching school age are increasing so rapidly. Thus, the Government of British Guiana stated in 1957 that there was an increase of 6,000 pupils in its primary (elementary) school enrollment each year. It noted that "the increase in school population has resulted in severe overcrowding and this, with a shortage of adequately qualified staff, has adversely affected the organization and work of schools."[1] The estimated absolute and percentage increases in the 5 to 14 age bracket between 1946 and 1961 in the British Caribbean areas were noted in Chapter I. Further light on the magnitude of the problem is shown by estimates of this trend projected to 1970, as prepared by the Vital Statistics Adviser to the West Indies Development and Welfare Organization, for the aforementioned 1957 Regional Conference on the Training of Teachers. Three different estimates, each based on a different set of assumptions, were made. The lowest of these projected a population increase in the 5 to 14 age group between 1955 and 1970 from 844,500 to 1,273,700, or 50.9 percent, for the region as a whole. Other recent figures show that close to 25 percent of the total population in the area is in this age bracket.

At the same Conference, other figures were presented showing percentages of children of elementary school age not enrolled in school in the different territories. These varied from 2 percent in

[1] British Guiana Education Department, *op. cit.*, p. 9–10.

Barbados, Antigua, and Montserrat, to 10 percent in British Guiana, 12 percent in Trinidad, 15–20 percent in Jamaica, and 30 percent in Dominica. The higher nonenrollment ratios in some of the territories is generally attributed to an insufficiency of schools in view of the compulsory attendance laws in most of them. Barbados, which with two other territories had the lowest nonenrollment ratio, has no compulsory attendance law. Viewed historically, the nonenrollment ratio in most of the territories has decreased since the 1930's.[2] For comparative purposes it may be observed that in the neighboring republics of Latin America generally, the overall nonenrollment ratio is estimated to be in the neighborhood of 40–50 percent, with some of the Caribbean area republics having a higher nonenrollment ratio than this. The relatively favorable position of the British Caribbean area, with similar economic and other conditions, is noteworthy.

The matter of actual attendance is another problem. Although figures are generally lacking showing the ratio of average attendance to total enrollment, it is known in some territories that there is frequently a considerable discrepancy between the two, especially in rural areas. Thus, in a number of territories it is recognized that there is a particularly noticeable number of absences at the beginning and the end of the school week. Chronic tardiness, or drifting into school up to an hour late, is still another problem.

Building Programs

Insofar as the shortage of classroom space is concerned, intensified school building and expansion programs have been underway in most territories since the 1940's, with the assistance of Colonial Development and Welfare funds. The various Development Plans already noted look to a further reduction in the shortage of classroom space and a relieving of overcrowded conditions. For example, it is the objective of the Plans of both Jamaica and Trinidad to provide sufficient "places" for all children of elementary school age. In British Guiana the major emphasis in educational programs in recent years has been on school construction.

The magnitude of the problem of school facilities is evident when it is realized that the traditional elementary school building in the British Caribbean has been the large hall, perhaps 120 by 30 feet in dimensions, often used as a place of worship on Sundays and a meeting center on workday evenings. The building with separate classrooms is the exception rather than the rule, and even separation of classes by movable partitions or blackboards is not universal. The vast majority of elementary schools are rural schools and have an

[2] For recent statistics on this point see UNESCO, "British Caribbean Region," etc., *op. cit.*

enrollment of 200 or more, resulting not infrequently in as many as 500 children, divided into a number of classes, being accommodated in one large room. The one- or two-teacher school is not common in the British Caribbean areas.

The trend in school construction is to have new buildings with separate classrooms and corridors, and to replace existing buildings where possible with new-type facilities. However, in view of ever-increasing enrollment and limited construction funds, existing buildings of the old type continue in use. The 1957 Regional Conference on Teacher Training took cognizance of this situation by recommending that "each class should, wherever possible, be given a separate classroom."[3]

The problem of adequate teaching staff, quantitatively and qualitatively, for the mushrooming school age population is, of course, acute, and is regarded by many as having a higher priority for its solution than that of additional and improved space facilities. Trends in teacher training are discussed elsewhere in this bulletin. The gravity of the teacher shortage from the quantitative point of view is indicated by the fact that the 1957 Regional Conference on Teacher Training saw fit to include among its recommendations one to the effect that "Governments should work towards the principle that no class-room should contain more than 50 pupils."[3] While the average pupil-teacher ratio in most territories does not exceed this figure and in some cases is less, it happens not infrequently that there are class groups in which there are 60, 70, or 80 pupils per teacher.

Adaptation to Local Environment

Another trend in elementary education has been a recognition of the need for an increase in the supply books and teaching materials generally, and specifically for books and materials having relevance to the local environment. The 1957 Teacher Training Conference took note of the lack of textbooks in the British Caribbean and the unsuitability to the region of many of those available. It regarded improvement "as depending on both spending more money on books and also producing more suitable books within the region."[4] It observed that in Jamaica a Production Unit for Educational Publications had recently been established and had begun to produce books suitable for children of the 7 to 12 age group. With the assistance of a UNESCO specialist this work was subsequently expanded also to include books for other age levels and general reading interests beyond immediate educational needs.[5] The fact that progress is

[3] Teacher Training Conference *Report*, p. 35.
[4] *Ibid.*, p. 36.
[5] *See UNESCO House News*, Vol. II, No. 25, Dec. 31, 1958, p. 5.

being made in regard to books with relevance to the local environment, as well as the relatively favorable position of the British Caribbean in this respect, was observed in our discussion of this need in the European Caribbean areas generally.

The 1957 Teacher Training Conference also noted the advantages of a regional approach to problems of textbooks in the British Caribbean as a whole. In view of the fact that the respective territories had little idea of what each was doing in this field and that exchange of information on books and educational matters in general was becoming more and more necessary, it endorsed a recommendation that the Federal Government, through the Federal Information Officer and in consultation with the Federal Education Adviser, develop an agency to coordinate and supply information on educational matters with special reference to school books.[6]

In the related matter of adapting and broadening the curriculum of elementary schools to the local environment and local needs and giving it a practical bent, some progress has been made. Though there is in general no basic distinction between urban and rural elementary schools, home gardening, rural science, handicrafts, manual arts, and home economics have been added to school programs in some instances. A basic problem is the lack of training for teachers in these subjects. More will be said on this general matter in the discussions of technical and agricultural education and teacher training.

Secondary Level

As indicated, elementary and secondary education have traditionally been regarded as two distinct branches of education and have been organized and administered as such, with little if any articulation between them. Secondary education has been "Grammar School," or academic, education. It has not usually been thought of in the broad sense of secondary level education regardless of subject or curriculum bias. A selected group of pupils have been siphoned from the elementary schools at about age 11 to 12 through the so-called "11 plus" examinations. Many if not most of those who have entered the traditional type of secondary school at this age have been scholarship holders. Those not successful in the "exhibitions," or scholarship examinations, and those not entering some form of vocational education, may continue and terminate their education in the elementary or post-primary schools. Or, if space is available and they can qualify, they may be accepted in secondary schools as non-scholarship holders at that or some later point. In the recent past, probably not more than 10 to 15 percent of the total secondary school age group in the most favorably situated territories, and

[6] Teacher Training Conference *Report*, p. 37.

considerably less in most, have attended the traditional secondary schools. The tendency is for the percentage to increase as Governments add to the number of "free places" and to facilities for secondary education.

Thus, qualifying examinations, other procedures, and the existence of tuition fees have been factors in the selection of students for academic secondary education. Even when a "free place" is won, it has been difficult for many parents to afford the other expenses of financing a child through the completion of secondary education. It is for this reason, including the fact that secondary education has almost invariably been urban education and has sometimes entailed the necessity of living away from home for those in the larger territories such as Jamaica, that there are the beginnings of a trend to have government scholarships include funds for these additional expenses where necessary.

The objective of academic secondary schools has traditionally been preparation for one or more of the British system certificate examinations, generally regarded as measuring the level and nature of secondary school achievement. Usually these have been the examinations for the Cambridge Overseas School Certificate and Higher School Certificate, or more recently in some British West Indian territories the General Certificate of Education at both Ordinary and Advanced Levels. Achievement on these examinations has been the prime factor in considering eligibility for entrance into British universities and the University College of the West Indies. More will be said about these examinations and certificates later in this Chapter.

Broadening and Growth

Despite the long existing gap between elementary and secondary education, there are, as previously noted, the beginnings of a trend to break down this rigid division and to regard them as a two-stage organization of education below the higher education level. Thus, a recent policy statement of the Government of British Guiana indicates that it regards education as a continuous process in two stages —primary and secondary.[7] Most long-range planning for education in the area is on the basis that elementary and secondary education are parts of the same process. The 10-Year National Development Plan for Jamaica proceeds on the assumption that the "ideal and theoretically perfect system" envisages "free education for all children between the ages of 5 and 17 years" in one integrated process and system. While it realizes that this goal will be impossible of

[7] Luke, *Sir* Stephen, Comptroller for Development and Welfare in the West Indies, *Development and Welfare in the West Indies, 1957* (United Kingdom Colonial Office, 1958), p. 55.

achievement for some time to come, its long-range program of pre-university education is organized under the four broad headings of Infant Education (ages 5–6); Primary Education (ages 7–11); Post-Primary Education (age 11 and over); and Further Education (various forms of community education for adults and adolescents). The educational planning of other territories is based on similar assumptions and includes similar organizational patterns, although there are, of course, differences from territory to territory.[8]

The principal dynamics in this process, are the urgent necessity and the popular demand for expansion of secondary educational facilities. In the words of Dr. Richard D'Aeth, formerly Professor of Education at the University College of the West Indies,

> • • • the tremendous political and social changes now taking place are producing a fast growing demand for secondary education not only in levels of the community that can afford fees, but also from children at elementary schools who seek the hallmark and the better opportunity for advancement that secondary education offers. Education continues to provide the main ladder of social mobility; and the rising tide of consciousness is matched by the increasing need for people with secondary education, if present and future plans for economic development are to be effective.[9]

The demand for academic secondary education is rising much faster, however, than facilities can be expanded. Statistically the chance of being able to attend the popularly preferred secondary grammar school is small. This is so despite the trend, under strong public pressure, toward more scholarships and more government and grant-aided secondary schools to enable children to make this switch from elementary schools at the age of 11 to 12.

Developing patterns of post-primary or secondary education provide, therefore, for additional and varied types of schools and programs, and for closer relationships between elementary and secondary level schools. In Jamaica, for example, in conformity with the long-range plan of pre-university education previously outlined, the developing pattern of post-primary education includes three main types of schools: (*a*) Secondary schools of the traditional academic type; (*b*) other post-primary schools, or post-primary departments attached or specially related to all-age elementary schools; and (*c*) Secondary Technical and Vocational Schools and Training Centres. Other territories exhibit in the main, the same general division of types of schools in their planning. The programs of academic secondary schools have already been referred to and more will be said about them in the next section. Secondary technical education is also discussed elsewhere.

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[8] *A National Plan for Jamaica, 1957–1967*, p. 38–39.
[9] Teacher Training Conference *Report*, p. 52.

With respect to educational facilities falling into category (*b*) above, these are usually designed to give a combined academic and "practical" education to the 12 to 15 age bracket on a nonselective basis. In addition to provision for education for this age grouping in all-age elementary schools, in 1959 Jamaica's separate "Senior Primary Schools" and Trinidad's planned "Central" and secondary modern schools fell into this pattern. For approximately the same age level, Barbados had in 1958–59 four secondary modern schools and Antigua a similar type institution (called, however, a post-primary school), in which academic and "practical" subjects, including home economics, woodwork, metal work, and home gardening, are combined in the curriculum.

It appears that there may be the beginning of a trend for the secondary modern type of school to prepare certain students for the examinations for the Oversea School Certificate or General Certificate of Education (Ordinary Level), as is already happening, for example, in Antigua. Some specialists have expressed the view that the establishment of such a trend would be a mistake and would destroy the distinctive purpose of the secondary modern school as an institution for those of moderate ability. While there is growing support for this and similar types of schools among certain educational and other leaders, there are some who object to them and to the name "secondary modern schools." These include both the educational traditionalists who favor secondary academic education, and laymen and parents who believe this type of school has less prestige and does not lead to the best white-collar positions.

Curriculum Trends in Academic Schools

As given in secondary grammar schools, academic education itself shows evidences of a modernizing trend in respect to curriculum, teaching materials, and examinations. In most such secondary schools, there are now two or more principal programs of study, including a "classical" program and a "modern" program emphasizing science, mathematics, and modern languages. The "modernizing" trend, including also some "practical" subjects, is evident everywhere, though in some territories it has not proceeded as far as in others, and there are secondary school educators, as well as parents, who believe there is no substitute for a "classical" education of English language and literature, Latin or Greek, French, English history, Scripture, and traditional mathematics. Governments and government officials concerned with education are among those interested in the modernizing trend and, generally speaking, favor more utilitarian subjects.

As regards specific subjects, Spanish has been added to the curriculum in many secondary schools, particularly in those territories where for reasons of commerce, industry, and travel, contact with the nearby Spanish-speaking areas has been established. For example, in Jamaica Spanish has largely replaced French as a modern language for study.[10] In Antigua with fewer direct contacts with Spanish-speaking neighbors and also a lack of teachers of this language, Spanish was not offered in 1958–59 at the two principal secondary grammar schools, for boys and girls, respectively. In Trinidad both Spanish and French are being taught. It was the sense of the First Conference of Heads of Secondary Schools in the British Caribbean (also attended by territorial Directors of Education and Education Officers), which was held at the University College of the West Indies in 1955, that

> • • • it would be a pity to eliminate one of these languages in favour of the other in the British West Indies. Those who give more stress to the common French-English heritage and modern literary and artistic values will favour French. Those who look more at the practical side and to the New World will prefer Spanish. The ideal is to teach both • • •.[11]

A further broadening of the secondary curriculum to make it more responsive to modern and West Indian interests and needs is the addition of West Indian history and geography to courses in some secondary schools. Again, a principal difficulty here has been a lack of suitable textbooks and teachers with a good knowledge of the subject. It was recognized at the 1955 Conference on Secondary Education that this would take some time to overcome, and 3 years later, despite general awareness of this situation, the need remained. The 1955 Conference observed it was symptomatic of the situation that the secondary school which had been teaching West Indian history the longest had recently given it up.[12] It might be expected that the birth of British West Indian Federation and the movement toward commonwealth status would have important results for the teaching of West Indian social studies generally.

Offerings and facilities in science subjects are increasing in secondary schools, though instruction is handicapped in many schools by a lack of adequately trained teachers and equipped laboratories, despite the large and increasing demands for professional personnel requiring training. An American Fulbright program grantee was welcomed as a science teacher at the Antigua Secondary Grammar School in a recent year. It was especially emphasized at the aforementioned 1955 Conference of Secondary School Heads that physics,

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[10] Jamaica Education Department, *Annual Report, 1954*, p. 4.

[11] H. R. X. D'Aeth, *Secondary Schools in the British Caribbean* (London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1956), p. 100.

[12] *Ibid.*, p. 90–91.

one of the most recent subjects to be added to the curriculum in the British West Indies, should be taught more widely in secondary schools. In some cases arrangements are made for schools without laboratory and teaching facilities for science subjects to use such facilities at other schools. Thus, students from the Girls' Grammar School at Antigua take science subjects at the territory's secondary school for boys.

There are also the beginnings of instruction in a few secondary schools in Jamaica and elsewhere in the area in agricultural science, a subject offered on the certificate examinations. In addition, some educators and some of those concerned with the development of the area have encouraged not only the introduction of agricultural science, but also the teaching of science generally, in its special relation to its rural and agricultural aspects.[13] Here, as in other specialized subjects of the "modern" or "practical" curriculum, a principal problem is the acute shortage of qualified teachers.

There has also been the introduction in a few academic secondary schools of a technical element into the regular curriculum. This has taken place, for example, in certain of the secondary schools in Barbados and British Guiana, where some of the students attend the respective local Technical Institutes to take subjects such as mechanical drawing, machine shop, woodwork, metal work, and in some cases science where this is not offered in the secondary school. These subjects can then be offered on the General Certificate of Education examinations. Such courses are most likely to be taken in conjunction with a "modern" or scientific biased program in the secondary school, often by those who are thinking of going on to some form of higher technical education. The Development Programs of Jamaica and Trinidad also look to the eventual establishment of a technical "stream" in academic secondary schools.

Likewise for girls, some academic secondary schools have introduced home economics and commercial subjects into the curriculum. The matter of adapting the secondary school curriculum to special needs of girls received attention at the 1955 Conference on Secondary Education, in view of the fact that about as many girls as boys attend secondary schools in most territories. The discussion revealed a pressing need and agreement on the desirability of more teaching in home economics in its broadest sense, and considerable progress has been made since then. With respect to the further introduction of commercial subjects into the curriculum, opinions were divided, despite (or perhaps because of) the fact that the majority of girls from secondary schools now seek and find employment in business offices.

[13] Luke, *op. cit.*, p. 54–55.

"Bilateral" Schools

Developments both in the traditional secondary schools and in new forms of post-primary education are indicative of the beginnings of the application of the concept of "bilateral" or "comprehensive" schools. A "bilateral" school was defined in the last West Indies Colonial Development and Welfare Report by that Organization's Education Adviser as "a school which provides separate courses either for pupils whose abilities cover a wide range or for pupils of varying aptitudes." [14] The Report noted that a bilateral school may, for example, offer an academic program leading to the examinations for the School Certificate or the General Certificate of Education, along with another program of shorter duration in commercial subjects leading to the examinations of the London Royal Society of Arts or the London Chamber of Commerce. Or it might offer both academic and technical types of programs. One of the arguments of the Welfare Organization's Education Adviser in favor of "bilateralism" was that of economy, i.e., it offers a method of increasing the opportunities for secondary education of different types and programs without the expense of building separate schools for each. His other argument in favor of the recognition of the bilateral principle as applying to existing secondary grammar schools was his assertion that many such schools in the British West Indies are, in fact, already bilateral, since under the definition given, less than 50 percent of the pupils in these schools were in his opinion of academic caliber.

The desirability of establishing and expanding different programs in traditional secondary schools was recognized by the 1955 Conference on Secondary Education, which noted that a problem facing many secondary schools was the development of alternative courses with modified curricula to meet the needs of pupils of different abilities.[15] The educational development plans of the different territories give weight to the concept of bilateralism. Thus, the proposed development of secondary education as set forth in Trinidad's 5-year Development Program appears to be predicated largely on this concept, both as it applies to diversification of curriculums and programs in secondary grammar schools, through the addition of modern, technical, and practical subjects, and to the proposed establishment of a number of regular bilateral and secondary modern schools.

The plea was made at the 1955 Secondary Education Conference that the expansion of secondary education should not be allowed

[14] Luke, *op. cit.*, p. 53.
[15] D'Aeth, *op. cit.*, p. 28.

"to jeopardize the [existing] high standards in academic and technical schools."[16] This was reiterated by Professor D'Aeth in a paper presented at the 1957 Teacher Training Conference, in which he stated that despite the democratic and social unity appeal of comprehensive schools, "to make existing secondary schools * * * comprehensive under present conditions would lead to a tragic reduction in academic standards."[17] He also stated, apparently contrary to the view expressed by the former Colonial Development and Welfare Education Adviser, that such schools are more expensive to build and run than individual schools carrying on different educational programs. To the force of this argument against turning academic secondary schools into comprehensive schools may be added the fact of the social prestige attached to an academic education and popular resistance to substantial alteration of the curriculum in these schools. Thus, some of the problems faced in broadening secondary, or post-primary, education opportunities by applying the bilateral or comprehensive principle are apparent.

Certificate Examinations

The programs of the traditional secondary schools have generally been directed to preparing students for one or more of the "external" certificate examinations. In addition, students in other institutions and programs sometimes take these examinations as, for example, a few students in Trinidad's aforementioned intermediate schools who are prepared for the Cambridge School Certificate Examination in a limited range of non-science subjects.[18] There may also be the beginning of a trend for secondary modern type schools to prepare students for these examinations in certain subjects.

The word "external" in referring to these examinations and certificates signifies that the examination is prepared by a recognized examining board or syndicate outside, or external to, the individual school. The examinations they prepare are designed to indicate subject mastery at the secondary level and have usually been taken at or near the completion of a program of study in an academic secondary school. There is no regular system for the earning of credits or a graduation diploma by the completion of a given number of subjects, courses, or years of study.

Different external examinations are usually taken in the various British Caribbean territories. In Jamaica and Trinidad the examinations are normally those for the University of Cambridge Oversea School Certificate and Higher School Certificate, and in Barbados they are the examinations for the General Certificate of Education

[16] *Ibid.*, p. 50.
[17] Teacher Training Conference *Report*, p. 52.
[18] Government of Trinidad and Tobago, *Administration Report of the Education Department for the Year 1956* (Trinidad: Government Printing Office, 1958), p. 18.

(GCE) of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge. In British Guiana the University of London GCE examinations at both "Ordinary" and "Advanced" levels are those usually taken. These external examinations are identical with examinations given by the same examining groups or syndicates in England and Wales and in other overseas territories, except for questions designed especially for the Caribbean area, such as West Indian history or geography. The same grading system and ratings apply to the examinations taken in the West Indies as to the same examinations taken elsewhere in the Commonwealth, and the Certificates granted by the examining syndicate on the basis of the examinations are identical. There has been general acceptance in the British Caribbean of a recognized common examination system as the best means of judging comparative achievement of students from different schools and different territories.

There is considerable difference of opinion on the relative merits of the School and Higher School Certificates on the one hand and the General Certificate of Education on the other, and neither is lacking in its vehement advocates and defenders. Although the use of the GCE examinations is a recent development patterned after its introduction in England in the early 1950's, there are many who feel that the modernized "Oversea" type of Cambridge School Certificate examination is better adapted to local needs in individual British affiliated overseas territories. Others believe that the General Certificate of Education examinations are equally adapted to local needs and have advantages in other respects. And then there are those among West Indian educationists themselves who would prefer a separate West Indian examination system.

The whole subject of external examinations was discussed at the 1955 Conference on Secondary Education. It was noted that the external examination has been described as "putting the secondary school in a strait-jacket, which does not fit well and restricts its growth," and that "the examinations dominate the curriculum to such an extent that most of the teaching is closely directed to the external syllabuses." [19] It was also observed that the existing examinations, and especially those for the General Certificate of Education, did not make sufficient allowance for the wide range of ability among children in British West Indian Schools, and that they failed to show an understanding of what is appropriate for the curriculums of these schools. At the same time it was recognized that the syllabuses for the external examinations have been gradually modified and include much of local relevance, particularly in history, geography, and science.

[19] D'Aeth, *op. cit.*, p. 30.

In this situation it was observed that there were two alternatives to the existing system. The schools might grant their own certificates, at least to those who fail in the external examinations, if not to all students achieving a certain minimum standard; or a separate certificate might be instituted for the British Caribbean. With respect to alternative number 1, the discussion showed clearly that "an external certificate is everywhere recognized * * * as the hallmark of success in a secondary school, and that a noncompetitive internal certificate awarded by a school would not be generally accepted as a substitute." [20]

With respect to the second alternative, the Conference urged that a start be made on planning the establishment of a Regional Examining Board, perhaps in conjunction with the University College of the West Indies, to establish a General Certificate of Education especially for the British Caribbean. The view was expressed that the West Indian outlook and orientation could be spread through the secondary schools only if the external examinations which shape their curriculums and programs are prepared within the region. It was felt that it would help to secure respect and prestige for the new board if it were linked with an established board in England for a number of years. It should be mentioned that examinations to test secondary level subject mastery have been developed by Education Departments in most of the British Caribbean territories, in large measure in connection with the certification process for the vast majority of teachers, who have not attended an academic secondary school. These locally prepared examinations are coming to have other purposes as well. Some of those examinations are regarded by the local Education Departments as being at the level of the examinations for the School and GCE (ordinary level) Certificates. They will be discussed in more detail in the next chapter on teacher training.

With the approach of West Indian Federation, the matter of an appropriate type of external examination was merged with the overall question of the effectiveness of secondary schools and their programs generally and the possible role of the proposed Federal educational advisory service in this connection. It was in relation to problems of secondary education that the aforementioned specific proposal of the 1957 Teacher Training Conference recommending the establishment and structure of a Federal advisory service took shape. One of the main functions of such a service, in the opinion of the Conference subcommittee recommending it, was the need for broad scale assessment of secondary education and advice to secondary schools in the area. The subcommittee made specific reference

[20] *Ibid.*, p. 30–31.

to the exaltation of the external examination as the supreme arbiter of the school curriculum and to the need for other criteria besides the external examinations, stating that these were among the problems of secondary education to which a Federal advisory service should give its attention. It was on the basis of the reasons advanced by the subcommittee that the Conference made a specific recommendation

> * * * that one function of the Federal Education Advisers should be to make available to Unit Governments a panel of educationists to advise and assess the secondary schools of the West Indies.[21]

The Conference noted in this connection that secondary schools in Jamaica were already being inspected by teams drawn from the Education Department staff of the University College of the West Indies and the Heads of Secondary Schools themselves. It observed that the whole region, and the Eastern Caribbean in particular, would benefit from such a Federally organized panel. Problems of Secondary Schools were thus one of the matters subject to possible attention by the Federal Education Adviser after his appointment in the new Federal Government in 1958.

[21] Teacher Training Conference *Report*, p. 39.

CHAPTER V

Teacher Education

THE NEED for more teachers, and especially for more trained teachers, is recognized as a major need of education at both the elementary and secondary levels in the British Caribbean. The 1957 Regional Conference on the Training of Teachers in the British Caribbean posed the lack of trained teachers as the No. 1 educational problem of the area in the following words:

> Above all, most teachers have no training for their work. This is true of primary and all-age schools and also of grant-aided secondary schools in which less than half of all the teachers have a university degree, and only a very small proportion of them any training as teachers.[1]

Accordingly, the first recommendation of the Conference was to the effect that Governments in the area should accept the long-term aim of having a fully trained teaching service at both these levels of education. The situation and trends in teacher preparation at both levels are discussed here.

Elementary Teachers

Pupil-Teacher System

With respect to the training of teachers for the elementary schools, the overwhelming proportion of teachers have historically been recruited directly from such schools at the time of completing about 8 years of education at age 14 or 15, to serve under what is generally known as the pupil-teacher system. The details of this system vary from territory to territory. In some, the term "pupil-teacher" is no longer in good repute or officially sanctioned. In Jamaica, for example, the term "probationary teacher" is now used because one who has completed the Senior Primary School or Department cannot enter the system without the additional minimum qualification of having passed the first of the three so-called Jamaica local examinations. Likewise, Antigua in the Leeward Islands no longer regards its teachers recruited from the elementary school system as pupil-teachers, but rather as probationary teachers, because the minimum requirement for a beginning teacher has been increased to

[1] Teacher Training Conference *Report*, p. 7. The Recommendations of the Conference, as summarized in its *Report*, p. 40–43, are listed in Appendix A to this Bulletin.

signify success at a high level on the Post-Primary School Leaving Certificate examination (the Post-Primary School in Antigua is comparable in level to the Senior Primary School in Jamaica). Similar raising of minimum entrance requirements are coming into force in other territories. Regardless of whether these beginning teachers are called pupil-teachers, or probationary teachers, or are given some other designation, the essential feature of the system is the widespread use, as beginning teachers, of young persons lacking both the completion of secondary education and professional training as teachers, under the guidance and supervision of older and "qualified" teachers, most of whom were recruited in the same manner.

In order to become "qualified" or "certificated" teachers, pupil or probationary teachers have had to pass a series of successive examinations varying in number in the different territorial jurisdictions. In some there have been as many as five or six successive examinations. In Jamaica, for example, these examinations have begun with the three so-called Jamaica Local Examinations, which have also been taken by those desiring to enter training for the nursing profession, the police force, and certain other fields. They have usually been considered in Jamaica to represent scholastic achievement at approximately the level of 10 years of elementary-secondary schooling. To complete the process of becoming a certificated teacher in Jamaica, one who has not then been selected or able to enter one of the regular 3-Year Teacher-Training Colleges (and the majority have not, because of lack of sufficient Training College facilities and personal funds for support over a 3-year period) has customarily taken three successive External Teacher Training examinations, each comparable to the 1st, 2d, and 3d year examinations of the Training Colleges. (For purposes of clarification here, the Teacher-Training Colleges of the British Caribbean are not colleges in the United States sense, as will be evident from a later discussion.) In other territories the process has been similar, and in some, the total number of qualifying examinations has been greater.

Pupil and probationary teachers have usually prepared for these examinations by studying in their spare time with help from head teachers, and at times with the assistance of correspondence or special classes during vacation periods and on Saturdays. The process is generally referred to as the External Training of Teachers, because it involves preparation for examinations on general education and professional training, outside the regular secondary schools and teacher-training colleges.[2] The 1957 Teacher Training

[2] The system is described in detail in V. L. Griffiths, *External Teacher Training: A Study of the Problem of the Pupil-Teacher and Probationary Teacher Systems in the British Caribbean* (Mona, Jamaica: Centre for Study of Education, University College of the West Indies, 1955).

Conference referred to the whole procedure as a "marathon" which poses such difficulties that only 1 or 2 out of every 10 who begin the process ever became certificated. The Conference noted that "in consequence the teachers suffer frustration before they get a chance of a suitable training; and many children are taught by teachers who are untrained and see little in the way of prospects in their work." [3]

The existence of this system has been basically a reflection of the economic facts of life in the area. The financial resources of governments have been extremely limited, and pupil teachers could be had for very low compensation, which they have accepted because by the time they are of an age to become pupil-teachers they must obtain some kind of employment to support themselves in a region where full-time jobs are scarce. It seems likely that in time the system will tend to disappear, as the economy of the area develops and resources available for education increase.

Certain developments appear to be evidences of the beginnings of a change in this direction. There is widespread recognition that the pupil-teacher system is an evil and should be dispensed with as soon as possible. There is also recognition that as long the system exists steps should be taken to mitigate its weaknesses. Already mentioned is the practice in some jurisdictions of requiring beginning teachers to have at least one academic qualifying examination beyond the completion of a regular elementary education. Programs of in-service professional orientation and training are being introduced. In Jamaica, plans were being made in 1958–59 for a 20-week preliminary period of professional training for all new probationary teachers before they begin to teach; it was planned to give this preliminary training to 600 beginning probationary teachers in the first 2 years, 150 in each of two 20-week periods each year. In the matter of practical classroom training and supervision for pupil and probationary teachers, the 1957 Regional Conference on Teacher Training recommended "that Governments ensure that all uncertificated teachers receive guidance in the classroom from trained teachers as a normal part of their in-service programme." [4]

Another development in the modification of the pupil-teacher system is the tendency toward simplification and reduction in the total number of examinations required to attain the status of certificated teacher. A recommendation to this effect was made by the 1957 Teacher Training Conference, according to which there should not be more than three examinations leading to certification. Such is now the practice, for example, in Antigua, which has reduced the number of such examinations from six to three. A related trend

[3] Teacher Training Conference *Report*, p. 29.
[4] *Ibid.*, p. 30.

follows another recommendation of the 1957 Conference that Governments should provide special courses during at least one full school day a week for pupil and probationary teachers preparing for these examinations. Along the same line, plans were being formulated in Jamaica in 1958–59 for a formal 2-year correspondence course to cover the first 2 years of professional training for those teachers who are unable to attend a training college and wish to prepare for the External Teacher Training examinations. 'Under this plan, the third year of professional training required in Jamaica, which it has heretofore been possible to take externally, would have to be taken in residence at a Training College.

Academic Preparation

As regards the academic preparation of teachers for elementary schools, one observes the beginning of a recognition of the need for secondary education for such teachers. The generally prevailing situation in the area has been that most elementary teachers have not obtained either an Oversea School Certificate, or an Ordinary Level General Certificate of Education in a sufficient number of subjects, or a local certificate regarded as substantially comparable, any of which would be recognized as indicative of a certain standard of achievement at the secondary level. In the area as a whole probably not more than 10 percent of those entering a Teacher-Training College hold such a certificate, and in most territories the majority have not attended an academic secondary school.

This situation is changing, however. In Barbados only those who have the General Certificate of Education (Ordinary Level) in a requisite number of subjects are accepted as elementary school teachers and admitted to Training College (a reflection, perhaps, of the fact that an estimated 15 percent of the Barbados population of secondary school age receive an academic secondary education, as compared, for example, with an estimated 1 percent in Jamaica). In Trinidad in 1957 about one-half of those entering training colleges had gained the School Certificate or its equivalent. In Antigua new regulations put into effect in 1955 provided that all new recruits for the teaching profession must pass the Cambridge Oversea School Certificate Examination or its equivalent before taking the external qualifying examination for a teaching certificate or being eligible to enter the local Training College.[5] The 1957 Regional Teacher Training Conference recommended that all students admitted to Teacher-Training Colleges should have a good educational background, including at least the School Certificate or its equivalent, and the trend appears to be toward this goal in the area generally.

[5] Colony of Antigua-Barbuda, *Report on the Education Department for the Years 1955–1957*. (mimeog.), p. 38.

One obvious result of the beginnings of this trend is that those entering training colleges may represent different degrees of achievement in academic or general education. In the Leeward Islands, for example, which are served largely by a training college in Antigua, those entering from the latter island are now required to have the School Certificate or its equivalent, while those entering from the other islands in 1958–59 were not, and were required to make up this "deficiency" in the course of their training college program and examinations. Likewise, in Trinidad, Jamaica, and British Guiana in 1958–59, the situation was similar in varying degrees.

The "equivalent" of the School Certificate, a term which has been used several times in referring to the academic preparation of those entering Training Colleges, bears some discussion at this point. The "equivalent" of a School Certificate can, of course, be an Ordinary Level General Certificate of Education, in a comparable number of subjects. In a number of territories of the British Caribbean it may also refer to the recent innovation of a certificate granted on the basis of an examination set by the local education authorities, usually as part of the external teacher-training system for those who have not attended a regular secondary school. It is regarded by education officials in the given territory as indicating achievement comparable to that represented by the attaining of a School Certificate.

Reference has been made to the granting of such a certificate in Trinidad and Antigua. Mention is also made in this connection of the examinations begun in 1954 in Jamaica leading to the First and Second Jamaica Certificates of Education. It was the purpose of these examinations ultimately to replace, at a more advanced level of requirements, the aforementioned three Jamaica Local Examinations. The second of the two examinations for the Jamaica Certificate of Education is regarded by its supporters as bearing comparison, subject for subject, with the School Certificate examination. The two Jamaica Certificates of Education are also accepted as the basis for further education or training in certain other fields.

In the matter of preparation for the School or GCE certificate examinations, the role of the Training College itself should not be overlooked for the majority in the area generally who do not have such a certificate on entrance. Its curriculum usually includes a good percentage of academic subjects, and those without a secondary education certificate are encouraged to obtain it by the end of the Training College program. In Jamaica, which has not had such a requirement for admission to Training Colleges, one recent estimate was that 60 to 70 percent obtained the certificate by the time of completion of Training College. Thus, the Training Colleges, in addi-

tion to serving as the vehicle for professional training, are assisting those attending to obtain this evidence of achievement in academic education. This function will, of course, become of less importance as the percentage of those entering Training College who already possess a School or GCE certificate increases.

Professional Training

Professional training for teachers in elementary schools is normally given in so-called Training Colleges, after a certain standard of achievement in general education has been demonstrated. Usually, also, a minimum period of a year or two of teaching service has been required for entrance into a Training College, and the majority, who have come to the Training College through the pupil-teacher system, will have had more. As the pupil-teacher system is gradually modified, this situation will presumably change, as already evidenced by the fact that it is possible in some cases for those who have a good School Certificate or General Certificate of Education to be admitted into Training College without prior teaching experience. Due to the shortage of Training College facilities for all teachers, admission has historically been on a selective basis, and there generally are upper age limits for admission to the regular programs. The academic requirements have been indicated in the previous section. It is largely because of the limited facilities and opportunities to attend Training College that the previously described practices relating to professional study, training, and examinations in the External Training of Teachers arose and remain an important part of the training system in most territories. This situation is especially prevalent in the Windward Islands, which have no Training College facilities of their own.

Trends in the British Caribbean in this area of activity include, as indicated, recognition of the need for all teachers in elementary schools to receive full professional training, and the beginnings of improvement and expansion of facilities for this purpose. In 1957 it was estimated that in no territory of the area did the ratio of professionally, i.e., college-trained teachers reach 50 percent. In Jamaica and Trinidad the figure was about 45 percent; in Antigua, 40 percent; in Barbados, 25 percent; in the Leeward Islands other than Antigua about 20 percent; in British Guiana, 17 percent; and the Windward Islands, less than 10 percent.[6] There was a rough correlation between these percentages and the availability of Training College facilities in a given territory. At that time the regular Training Colleges of the area offering full length courses of 2 years

[6] Teacher Training Conference *Report*, p. 8 and 46.

(except for Jamaica where the course was 3 years in length) were as follows:

ANTIGUA	Spring Gardens Training College, serving the Leeward Islands with facilities for 80 men and women.
BARBADOS	Erdiston College, for 96 men and women, a limited number of them from the Windward and Leeward Islands.
BRITISH GUIANA	Government Training College for 60 men and women.
BRITISH HONDURAS	Government Training College for 25 men and women.
	St. Johns (Roman Catholic) Training College for 10 men and women.
JAMAICA	Bethlehem Training College for 96 women.
	Mico Training College, primarily for men, with facilities for 125 students.
	St. Joseph's (Roman Catholic) Training College, for 58 women and 1 man.
	Shortwood Training College for 77 women.
TRINIDAD	Government Training College for 157 men and women.
	Roman Catholic Training College for women, 40 students.
	Naparima Training College, Canadian Presbyterian Mission, for 60 men and women.[7]

Recommendations of the 1957 Regional Conference on the Training of Teachers called on Governments during the ensuing 10-year period to "direct their efforts to giving at least two-thirds of all teachers either a two- or three-year course, or an emergency one-year course, in a training college," and made specific suggestions looking to the improvement of the situation in individual territories.[8] Among them were recommendations that arrangements should be continued as an interim measure for teachers from the Windward and Leeward Islands to be trained at Erdiston College in Barbados, and that the problem of the Windward Islands, with less than 10 percent of its teachers trained, should be a subject of consultation among the Governments of the immediate area and should be referred to the Federal Education Adviser.

Plans for at least two new Training Colleges in the area have materialized in the past few years. Trinidad, as part of its 5-Year Development Programme, began in 1959 construction of a new Government Teachers Training College for some 200 students. The Governments of the Leeward Islands opened a new Training College at Golden Grove, just outside St. Johns, Antigua,

[7] *Ibid.*, p. 45.
[8] *Ibid.*, p. 9–10.

early in 1959, and the Spring Gardens College was closed down. One of the recommendations of the 1957 Conference on Teacher Training had been that the Leeward Island Governments should consider the expansion of Spring Gardens. The Governments came to the conclusion that a College on a new site would be preferable. The new College began with an enrollment of 30 men and women (the same number as Spring Gardens), with plans to expand to 60 as additional facilities were constructed on the site. It was planned to take advantage of the rural setting by expanding teacher-training programs in rural sciences, home economics, natural sciences, and history and geography in their Caribbean setting and application. The new College takes students from all the Leeward Islands and from Dominica in the Windwards, which all contribute to its support. Those who complete the 2-year course and the concluding examinations, or successfully take the examinations externally, receive the highest Leeward Island Teachers Certificate of competency permitting them to teach anywhere in the Leeward Islands.

Another recent development in meeting the need for trained teachers is the 1-year emergency training program, which has been introduced in most of the territories having training facilities. The institution of the program is a recognition of the need for special measures to meet the rapid growth of the school population and to make a sizeable reduction in the percentage of untrained teachers in the area. This was one of the subjects considered at the 1957 Conference on Teacher Training. That body, while agreeing in principle that the Training College course of study should be at least 2 years in length, recommended that in the circumstances Governments should consider the possibility of instituting, as an emergency measure, 1-year courses at a Training College.

The experience of the area's first 1-year emergency program, then already underway at Moneague Training College in Jamaica, was one of the major considerations in influencing Conference and subsequent areawide thinking in this connection. The Moneague program was initiated as an experiment in 1956 with the objective of training annually 100 in-service teachers. The results of the program were such that it was continued in 1957, and the third group of 100 teachers was receiving training in 1958–59. Generally speaking, these have been selected groups of experienced teachers, all with at least 1-year of external professional study behind them. The 1-year curriculum has emphasized professional subjects and training rather than academic subjects. The enthusiasm of those admitted to this program has been especially noticeable. For most of them, who were overage to enter the regular 3-year training

APPENDIX B

The Percentages of College-Trained Teachers in Primary and All-Age Schools at Present and Forecast at 1965

Territories	A Present total number of teachers	B Present number of college-trained teachers	C Present percent of college-trained teachers	D Additional teachers for additional children at 1965	E Present annual output of trained teachers	F Annual output of trained teachers at 1965	G Forecast total number teachers at 1965	H Forecast number of college-trained teachers at 1965	I Forecast percent of college-trained teachers at 1965
Antigua	300	120	40	60	8	10	360	200	56
Barbados	965	245	25	275	32	32	1,240	420	33
British Guiana	2,595	435	16.8	1,210	30	75	3,800	1,000	26.4
Dominica	325	28	9	144	3	3	469	60	11
Grenada	485	37	8	340	3	3	825	61	7
Jamaica	4,500	2,000	44	3,800	120+96	330	8,320	4,000	48
Montserrat	88	18	21	20	2	2	108	34	32
St. Kitts	370	74	20	150	13	13	520	160	31
St. Lucia	423	26	6	183	2	2	606	38	7
St. Vincent	425	25	6	200	2	2	625	43	7
Trinidad	4,157	1,800	45	812	128	320—400	5,000	4,000	80

(Reprinted from Teacher Training Conference *Report*, p. 46)

program and could not in any case afford that much time from their teaching career and their family and personal responsibilities as adults, it represented a previously unforeseen opportunity and a "last chance" to attend a training college.

Since the 1957 Conference, 1-year emergency programs, or plans for such programs, have been initiated elsewhere. A second emergency Training College was set up in Jamaica in 1959. In Trinidad a separate training college was established in 1958 to train 150 teachers a year in such a program, in addition to the three Training Colleges offering the regular 2-year program. As at Moneague in Jamaica, most of those receiving such training were women, with greater teaching experience and maturity than those in the 2-year program, and they exhibited the same enthusiastic response.

In British Guiana, with its one training college, plans were announced in 1958 to convert the 2-year training program indefinitely into a 1-year emergency program beginning in 1959. It is to be noted that the 1957 Conference on Teacher Training had recommended that British Guiana "should increase still further the planned expansion of its training college, if necessary by establishing one-year courses."[9] Likewise, the Conference recommended the expansion of Erdiston College in Barbados in the same manner, and in 1958–59 plans were being formulated for the initiation of a 1-year emergency course. The Training College in Antigua was also considering in 1958–59 the establishment of such a program.

The situation in 1957 with respect to the percentage of college-trained teachers in elementary schools, as well as a forecast of the situation for 1965 as visualized at that time, can be seen in the chart on the adjoining page. Plans for 1-year emergency training programs instituted since that time, as well as other factors, may have the result of increasing the percentage of college-trained teachers forecast.

Secondary Teachers

The foregoing discussion has been concerned with the preparation and training of teachers for elementary schools. As to the preparation and training of teachers for the traditional secondary schools, the ideal situation has generally been regarded as one where the teacher has an undergraduate, or Bachelor's, degree from a university in his subject specialty, plus a so-called Diploma in Education, representing an additional year's professional study and training in preparation for secondary school teaching. As taken in British universities, this 1-year program is somewhat similar to undergraduate courses in education taken in American universities by prospective teachers. The usual program of preparation for

[9] Teacher Training Conference *Report*, p. 9.

secondary school teaching at the University College of the West Indies or a British University has not included teacher education subjects taken simultaneously with a subject specialty in preparation for a Bachelor's degree.

As indicated in the discussion of problems and trends in secondary education in the British Caribbean areas, there is a shortage of secondary teachers in general, and in particular a lack of teachers prepared at the Bachelor's degree level in subject specialties, and trained professionally for secondary level teaching. Or to put it in terms signifying formal educational achievement in British oriented systems, the percentages of "graduates," i.e., holders of a university Bachelor's degree in a subject field, and of the subsequently granted Diploma in Education are low in the British Caribbean areas. Generally speaking, the Government secondary schools are in a better position by reason of their higher rates of pay to attract university-trained teachers than are grant-aided and purely private schools.

The report of the aforementioned 1955 Conference of Heads of Secondary Schools in the British Caribbean summarized the situation as of that date as follows:

> The overall position in the British Caribbean is, therefore, that no more than a dozen schools have mostly graduates on their staff, and few of these graduates have a Diploma of Education. Non-graduates comprise more than half of the staffs of the secondary schools in the region. A small number of them are working towards a degree, usually the External B.A. of London University, but most have no better academic qualifications than a School or Higher Certificate, and some of them not even this. A few have been to a training college for teachers in elementary schools; the others have no professional training at all. Many of them move away to other jobs as soon as they can, which means that the turnover of staff is high. Some of them are good natural teachers, but the average level of academic background and teaching skill is low. There are few opportunities for even the best of them to become qualified, so that a career in teaching holds out slender prospects.[10]

The shortage of teachers of science, mathematics, and other subjects was particularly noted. It was observed that in some schools the teaching of science has not been developed or has had to be curtailed. Other problems and needs in secondary staffing were considered, and these needs and remedial action to meet them were summarized in the following words:

> In formulating a policy, governments should aim at strengthening the position of schools working to the highest academic standards and also achieving a steady improvement in the overall staffing of secondary schools. The proportion of graduate teachers, and of those with a Diploma in Education, should be increased progressively. An appropriate form of train-

[10] H. R. X. D'Aeth, *Secondary Schools in the British Caribbean* (London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1956), p. 35.

ing should be arranged for the many non-graduate teachers. Emergency measures should be taken to relieve the shortage of science teachers, which is already alarming. In the long run, however, the teaching profession will have to offer more attractive prospects and require better qualifications if secondary education is to be put on a sound footing. A number of the difficulties can only be effectively resolved on a regional basis; and an arrangement for federal consultation is needed to supplement the regular consultations between government and secondary schools in each territory.[11]

These problems were also considered by the 1957 Regional Conference on Teacher Training, which approved a series of recommendations in similar vein directed to the territorial Governments.[12] A principal need here was felt to be financial, i.e., that governments should give more assistance through scholarships and other means to worthy teachers or candidates for teaching to enable them to attain both their university degrees and their diplomas in education, while also providing salary scales recognizing educational achievement and attractive enough to compete with those of other professional pursuits. In meeting the financial problem, some progress is being made. Governments are gradually offering more scholarships and financial aid for present and prospective teachers. In Jamaica, for example, such aid is included as an integral part of the Government's program for providing more trained teachers. In most territories, additional salary increments are given to those obtaining the Diploma in Education. In the matter of a general and substantial rise in salary levels, both absolutely and in comparison with other professions, progress is slow.

Both the 1955 and 1957 Conferences recognized the all important role of the University College of the West Indies in providing facilities to help meet the need for qualified and trained secondary teachers. Included in the recommendations of the latter Conference was one that the UCWI increase the number of places for students preparing for the Diploma in Education, and another that it provide facilities for the professional training of a limited number of capable non-graduate teachers already in service. The role of the UCWI in teacher preparation and training will be considered in more detail in the discussion of the University College; suffice it here to point out that the Conference took note of the recognition by the UCWI of its responsibility, so far as its finances permit, to expand its degree programs to include as many as possible of the subjects taught in secondary schools and to increase its enrollments generally so as to meet the needs of the region for teachers and others with university training.[13]

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[11] *Ibid.*, p. 42.

[12] *See* Recommendations 18 through 23, reprinted in appendix A to this Bulletin.

[13] Teacher Training Conference *Report*, p. 22.

A Unified Teaching Service

The historical distinction between elementary and secondary education and the erstwhile lack of articulation between them has already been noted. There has likewise been a sharp distinction between elementary and secondary school teaching systems and generally speaking this remains the prevailing practice. Elementary and secondary teachers usually have had different types of preparation and professional training, and have been members of two different teaching systems, with little official and professional communication and relationship between them.

It is therefore significant that along with the beginnings of a trend to regard elementary and secondary education as two parts of one continuing process, there has been official and professional recognition of the desirability of recognizing elementary and secondary teachers as members of a unified teaching service and of working toward that goal. The 1957 Conference on the Training of Teachers agreed that

> * * * the aim should be to simplify the structure of the teaching service, by removing unnecessary complications and anomalies, and in so doing to bring teachers in elementary and secondary schools into a unified teaching service.[14]

It was the Conference view that the distinction between categories of teachers should be on the basis of their education and training, and that they should be divided into two main categories, graduates and non-graduates, each of these in turn divided into two groups consisting of trained and untrained teachers. These four groups the Conference designated as trained graduate teachers, graduate teachers, trained teachers, and uncertificated teachers. At the same time it was recognized that for some time to come the additional category of certificated teacher would have to remain. This would embrace those who have been unable to receive a course of training in a training college, but who provide satisfactory evidence of academic attainment, professional knowledge, and ability to teach. The five categories of teachers, with their levels of qualifications as recommended by the Conference, were summarized in its Recommendation 33.

Similarly, in the corollary matter of salary scales, the thinking of official and professional opinion at the Conference held that teachers' salaries should be related to their qualifications and not to the type of school in which they serve. It was recognized that existing practice was for separate salary scales for teachers in

[14] Teacher Training Conference *Report*, p. 32.

secondary and elementary schools, and it was the conference's view that governments should work toward relating salary scales and allowances to the five main categories of teachers it had recommended.

Up to the present the goal of a unified teaching service embracing both elementary and secondary teachers remains largely an unfulfilled ideal. The opinion may be ventured that it is not likely to be achieved in any substantial degree until the educational attainments which can be required of both groups are more nearly alike. Insofar as elementary teachers are concerned, the trend in the individual territories appears to be toward recognition of the three indicated categories of uncertificated, certificated, and trained teachers, although sometimes the terminology for describing these groups varies and there usually are several subcategories within each main category.

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CHAPTER VI

Technical Education

THE SIGNIFICANCE attached to the development of "technical," "vocational," and "practical" education, including agricultural education, by governmental and educational leaders in the British Caribbean areas has already been noted. Although still in its infancy, this kind of education and training is receiving increasing attention and can scarcely fail to continue to expand as the demand for vocational and technological skills develops, and the value of such education is increasingly recognized. Manifestations of the trend include various developments previously mentioned, such as (1) the inclusion of "practical" subjects in the curriculum and programs of some of the regular primary, post-primary, and secondary schools; (2) the participation of the British Caribbean territories in the Caribbean vocational training program in Puerto Rico; and (3) the establishment of the position of Technical Education Adviser in the Office of the Federal Education Adviser in the new West Indies Government. In this chapter a further evidence of the trend, the founding and expansion of technical institutes and schools at both the post-primary and advanced levels will be discussed more particularly. Non-agricultural and agricultural education will be dealt with separately.

Post-Primary Technical Education

There have been in existence in recent years in the British Caribbean areas two types of institutions at the post-primary level for non-agricultural vocational education and training—the secondary technical school and the technical institute. The technical institute is primarily intended for vocational training in specific trades, emphasizing training for those already employed in industrial or service trades. Such persons usually receive training on released time under some special arrangement, such as an apprenticeship system, or an after-working hours schedule. The secondary technical school provides a secondary education emphasizing specialized technical subjects, but including also basic academic subjects, and does not draw its students from those already employed.[1]

[1] The distinction is set forth in Comptroller for Development and Welfare in the West Indies, *Memorandum on Technical Education in the British Caribbean* (Barbados, 1956), p. 11.

In accordance with this distinction in function and curriculum, there is also a distinction in the examinations for which students are being prepared. Technical institutes in the main prepare their students to take one or more of the regular external examinations attesting to their skill as craftsmen and artisans, such as the examinations of the City and Guilds of London Institute, whereas the students at technical secondary schools usually concentrate first on the examinations for the School Certificate or the General Certificate of Education, including a heavy concentration of subjects with a technical bias, though by no means exclusively so. In 1954 a new type of General Certificate of Education, placing a strong emphasis on technical subjects, was developed with the establishment of the Associated Examining Board. This Board took its place with the other eight examining boards empowered to award the GCE. "Its standards are in every way equal to those of the other boards but it has been created with a view to meeting the needs of candidates whose abilities lie in the technical or practical fields rather than in arts, languages or pure sciences." [2]

Such students may also take one or more of the trade or craft examinations of the City and Guilds of London Institute, or the examinations of the Royal Society of Arts in commercial subjects such as typewriting and bookkeeping. They may also continue with more intensive and advanced training in a trade or craft, perhaps becoming apprenticed at that point and undertaking the kind of specialized training given in a technical institute.

Each of these two main types of institutions for technical education may to some extent carry on the functions of the other. Thus, in 1958–59, there were five post-primary or secondary level institutions for technical education in the British Caribbean. In Barbados and British Guiana there were technical institutes, which as previously noted also functioned to provide a technical "stream" of subjects for regular secondary school students. In Jamaica, Trinidad, and British Honduras, there were secondary technical schools which also functioned at night as technical institutes.

Barbados and British Guiana

In Barbados, technical education dates from 1948 when classes for training in trades and crafts began with the opening of the Evening Institute for Adult Education. In 1955 the new Technical Institute opened its doors, with 100 day-release apprentices and 20 evening students. In 1956 the technical training work of the Evening Institute was absorbed into the Technical Institute. By 1958–59 the latter had developed three or four main types of programs. The principal emphasis was on training of apprentices in

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 14.

crafts and trades on a daytime release and an evening class basis. A second emphasis was the daytime program in technical subjects for students enrolled in certain of the regular secondary schools. A third was the similar arrangement for giving training in technical subjects to certain of those attending Erdiston Teacher Training College and planning to teach such subjects. And a fourth emphasis was evening trade courses for those of more mature years who desired advanced training in their specialties. Because of the nature of these various programs, there were no students pursuing full-time programs at the Institute.

Several variations in the types of day and evening programs were available in the first and fourth categories mentioned. For those undergoing training as trade apprentices, the fields of specialization included automobile engineering, machine shop, carpentry and joinery, electric installation, plumbing, sugar factory engineering, radio servicing, welding, and masonry. Most of these fields necessitated 1 year of pre-technical study plus 5 years of technical training, normally on either a one day a week release arrangement, or an evening class basis, or a combination of the two. In 1957–58 the total number of students on roll in the various programs of the Institute was 425. A gradual annual increase in enrollment was planned, contingent upon expansion of facilities, with the maximum number of classes to be reached by 1962–63. Among the future plans of the Institute was a program of special training as "student apprentices" for those secondary school students who had included a technical "stream" at the Institute as part of their secondary education and wished to enter a technical pursuit as a craftsman. This would be a departure from the usual type of career for students who attend a secondary school.

The Government Technical Institute at Georgetown, British Guiana, though organized on a larger scale than the Technical Institute at Barbados and showing some variations and additions, follows basically the same general pattern. Founded in 1951 to provide training for craftsmen and technicians, the Institute runs the bulk of its courses on a part-time day-release or evening basis. A variation of the part-time system, and one finding increasing favor, is the Block-Release principle designed to meet the needs of those from other parts of the country. This enables them alternately to work and to attend full-time courses for 12-week periods until they have completed their full training program. The Institute advises students desiring training to become apprentices with a Master licensed by the local Board of Industrial Training. This Board, as part of its scheme of training for apprentices, has approved programs of training in various Engineering and Building trades in cooperation with the Technical Institute. Usually apprentices

study on the day-release basis are released by their employers one day a week to attend classes at the Institute throughout the 5 years of the apprenticeship. Both these and the 12-week Block-Release courses are designed to lead to Intermediate Examinations of the City and Guilds of London Institute. Evening courses are available for those unable to secure day- or Block-Release. Several miscellaneous courses of varying duration are also available, including Telecommunications Engineering and Seamanship.

The Institute requires all students planning to enroll in a regular craft course to take a preliminary course. The preliminary course includes instruction in basic and technical English, mathematics, elementary science, and technical drawing, and may be taken under a day or evening part-time arrangement. It can also be taken on an "extra-mural" basis at several extension centers in other urban areas. Entrance examinations are required and the minimum age of admission is 15.

Like the Technical Institute at Barbados, its British Guiana counterpart also has programs of instruction in technical subjects and their teaching for those enrolled in teacher-training programs elsewhere. As noted it also offers instruction in these subjects for those attending a number of Georgetown secondary schools. Short-time and special evening courses of practical instruction for adults are also offered. A total of some 1,600 persons were enrolled in the various programs of the Institute during the 1958–59 session.[8]

In discussing vocational education in British Guiana, mention must be made of the Carnegie Trade School for Women. Althougn the Technical Institute is open on the same basis to girls and women as to boys and men, and offers instruction to women as architectural tracers and in a few commercial subjects, its course offerings by their nature make for an overwhelming male enrollment. The Carnegie Trade School for Women at Georgetown has been operating as a center primarily for home economics instruction and training at the post-primary level since 1933. Some general education subjects are also included in the curriculum. Established and supported by a Carnegie Institution grant for the first 4 years of its existence, the school was a pioneer in the field of home economics in the British Caribbean. In recent years it has greatly enlarged its facilities and equipment and has increased its enrollment. Its regular 3-year day-time program for girls of post-primary age partakes of the nature of a technical secondary school program for girls. It also serves as a center for the instruction of women students enrolled in home economics subjects at the Government Teacher Training College, as well as for special in-service courses for teachers. In addition, it

[8] "Government Technical Institute, Georgetown, British Guiana," *The Caribbean*, 13: 226–230, December 1959.

sponsors evening and adult classes at its Georgetown headquarters and also in rural areas, and has conducted special training courses for domestics selected on a contract basis for service overseas.

Trinidad and Jamaica

Trinidad, Jamaica, and British Honduras are the three British Caribbean territories that have developed secondary technical schools, which, as noted, also function as technical institutes at night.

In Trinidad until 1955 vocational education and training, aside from a few "practical" subjects in the curriculum of the regular elementary schools, consisted exclusively of in-service craft and trade training under the aegis of the Government's Board of Industrial Training organized in 1922. It took two forms—apprenticeship training in evening and part-time day-release classes at local "training centres" for 61 proclaimed trades, and in-service training for workers in certain industries, notably petroleum and sugar. Those receiving such training constitute the bulk of those receiving education in technical subjects in the territory. In 1956 there was a total of 3,218 persons receiving instruction in such classes in various vocational subjects. Of these, 2,809 were men and 409 women.[4]

In 1955 the present so-called Technical Institute came into being as the only technical school administered by the Government's Education Department. It grew out of a former Junior Technical School which had been started by the Board of Industrial Training, and the latter continues to use the Institute's facilities for evening training classes for apprentices. Located at San Fernando in the heart of Trinidad's oil and industrial district, some 45 miles south of the capital city of Port-of-Spain, the Institute is in reality a secondary school and is not to be confused in its basic characteristics with the Technical Institutes in Barbados and British Guiana. Equipment for shops and laboratories was made possible by grants from Colonial Development and Welfare Funds and assistance from UNESCO.

At the outset the Institute offered a 3-year secondary level program of studies combining academic and technical subjects. The program has been gradually lengthened, and in 1959 it was to become 5 years in length, preparing students for the examinations for the General Certificate of Education, Ordinary Level. In the beginning stages of the 3-year program a special locally issued certificate signifying completion of the course was granted. Entrance to the Institute is by examination at age 11½ or 12, the educational level on entrance being approximately the same as for the secondary grammar schools. In the fall of 1958 the enrollment of the school was about 200 students, all of whom were boys. As in the secondary

[4] Government of Trinidad and Tobago, *Administration Report of the Education Department for the Year 1956*, p. 20.

grammar school, the payment of fees is required for attendance. A few of those enrolled live in residential quarters on the premises.

The curriculum in 1958–59 consisted of technical and shop subjects—woodwork, metal work, and mechanical drawing—plus a "modern" academic curriculum—English, Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, History, and Geography. Plans for the future included the addition of electrical and auto mechanic shop courses. Those completing the program may secure employment as apprentices in industry, continuing their specialized training at night and taking three successive examinations of the City and Guilds of London Institute to become Craftsmen at about the age of 21. Thus, those who have the opportunity to attend the Institute obtain a general secondary education in addition to certain technical training, prior to embarking on further training for industry.

In the Education and Training Section of its Five-Year Development Programme for 1958–62, the Government of Trinidad included plans for a second so-called Technical Institute, to be established at Port-of-Spain. This Institute was apparently to follow in its functions the same pattern of giving a full-time technical secondary education to a limited number of students by day and vocational training to a much larger number in evening classes. Thus, plans for the regular daytime enrollment called for an annual intake of 120 boys to be educated for industrial positions and 60 girls to be trained in home economics and commercial subjects. It was anticipated that the number enrolled in part-time evening classes would be some 1,000.[5]

Until recently there were no plans for the introduction of a so-called technical "stream" into the traditional secondary schools in Trinidad or Jamaica, as has been the case in Barbados and British Guiana. The two former territories have till recently preferred to "segregate" secondary technical education in separate schools. Both, however, exhibit signs of a change in connection with their long-range plans to broaden the base of secondary level education. Trinidad's Five-Year Development Programme called for the establishment by 1962 of eight bilateral secondary schools to include technical and commercial "streams," while also preparing for the School Certificate in academic subjects. Several of these schools were already under construction in 1958–59. In making plans for the establishment and teaching of industrial arts programs in these and other schools, the assignment and work in Trinidad of a UNESCO industrial arts curriculum specialist played a part. Jamaica, as we shall see, also has similar plans.

In Jamaica the principal institution for non-rural technical education has been the Kingston Technical School. Up until about 1954

[5] *Five-Year Development Programme, 1958–1962*, p. 46 and 93.

this was a trade school giving specific vocation or job training. At that time, in similar fashion to the Technical Institute in Trinidad, it changed its character, insofar as its day classes were concerned, to that of a school giving a secondary education with a strong technical bent. Its night classes, or Evening Institutes, continue to provide specialized training in the manner of a technical institute for those preparing for craft examinations, and there were approximately 1,000 night school students in 1958.

The daytime program of the Kingston Technical School is 4 years in duration. Students usually enter at about age 13 from the elementary school system, by means of an entrance examination and on the payment of fees. The school is able to take only a fraction of those who apply each year. In recent years the number of applicants has run around 1,000, of whom 150 to 200 have been accepted. In 1958–59 the total enrollment of the school was about 600 to 650, about evenly divided between boys and girls.

The 4-year program has three main technical specialties—commercial and home economics lines for girls and technical and trade subjects for boys. In the first 2 years, the subjects followed are predominantly academic and are intended to round out a general education; in the last 2 years, they are a mixture of "practical" and academic. Woodwork, metal work, building construction, engineering workshop, and mechanical drawing were the principal technical subjects offered in 1958–59. Shop work in electricity, automobile mechanics, and plumbing was not available despite statements of need for preliminary training in these specialties.

Students at the Technical School generally are preparing themselves for the General Certificate of Education examinations, Ordinary Level, of the Associated Examining Board, with some taking the examination of the Royal Society of Arts in commercial subjects, and the beginning examinations of the City and Guilds of London Institute in technical subjects. Employment opportunities for those completing the program are reported to be good, with boys usually becoming apprentices in some trade and taking further training in preparation for the examinations for one of the trades or crafts. Girls specializing in the commercial course may obtain employment in business offices.

The value placed by government education planners and specialists on the type of education offered at the Kingston Technical School is attested to by the inclusion of plans for additional schools of this nature in Jamaica's 10-Year Development Plan. This Plan also includes provision for the establishment of departments of secondary technical education in existing secondary schools. Complete and de-

tailed programs for the development of technical education remained to be formulated when the 10-Year Plan was announced.

General Problems and Trends

Certain of the problems and trends in technical education in the British Caribbean areas have been pin-pointed by conferences of area technical education leaders. Thus, at the First Conference of Principals of Technical Institutes and others concerned with Technical Education in the British Caribbean, held at the headquarters of the West Indies Development and Welfare Organization in Barbados in 1955, a number of these problems were discussed. Attention was given to the shortage of adequately trained teaching staff in "practical" and technical subjects at all levels and the problems involved in training them. The consensus of the views of those at the meeting was that additional teachers of "craft subjects" at the elementary level could be recruited and trained locally in Technical Institutes, though it was recognized that there was a "grievous lack" of teachers of woodwork and metal work at this level in the region. The 1957 Regional Conference on Teacher Training also considered this aspect of teacher training and came to similar conclusions, pointing out that such specialist teachers should be trained as teachers and not merely in the techniques of their specialist subjects. With respect to the advanced education and training necessary for teachers in Technical Institutes and Schools, the 1955 Technical Education Conference considered that they would have to receive such training abroad, since facilities were lacking in the Caribbean area; in the meantime, the short-term solution of the staffing problem would be to bring instructors to the West Indies.

Another matter discussed at the 1955 Technical Education Conference was the relative merits of the Secondary Technical School and the Technical Institute in meeting the needs of the area for technicians. Those at the meeting were generally of the view that the Technical Institute was more likely to be able to supply the quantities of craftsmen required to meet the urgent needs of the region. The need for sound general education as the essential background and foundation for technical education was also emphasized for both Secondary Technical Schools and Technical Institutes. It was recognized that while the programs of the Technical Institute may draw some students from Secondary Schools, the main flow of the intake may be expected for some time to come to be from Elementary, Senior, Post-Primary, and Secondary Modern Schools. There was agreement on the necessity for a preliminary pre-vocational course for all new students undertaking vocational education

at an Institute. The Conference also noted that the natural connection between technical education and agriculture should be widely recognized, and that the program of technical education should include agricultural subjects. In 1957 those concerned with technical education held their Second Conference in Jamaica and considered these matters further.

Advanced Technical Education

Not only are the British Caribbean areas concerned with the development of vocational education at the levels already discussed; but there is also interest in developing technical education and institutions at a more advanced level. Plans were already in the formative stage for the development of such institutions in Jamaica and Trinidad in 1956, when, as a reflection of this interest, a Mission on Higher Technical Education in the British Caribbean was appointed by the British Colonial Secretary in December of that year. The immediate background for the Mission's appointment stemmed from the situation in Jamaica, where both the Jamaican Government and the University College of the West Indies were planning to develop advanced courses in engineering.[6] Thus, concern over a possible duplication of effort in engineering education and problems in the relationship between the University College and a proposed technical college prompted a study by a three-man team of British specialists of the wide field of advanced technical education in the British Caribbean. Serving as Chairman of the Mission was the Education Adviser to the Comptroller for Development and Welfare in the West Indies, and the West Indian Territorial Governments appointed representatives to serve as Liaison Officers to the Mission.

The Mission's terms of reference were "to consider proposed developments in the field of Higher Technical and Technological education in the British Caribbean in relation to present and future needs; and, in the light of probable financial resources, to make recommendations." [7] The Mission "interpreted 'higher technical education' to mean the provision of courses of two kinds: first, courses leading to a university degree; second, courses leading to a higher certificate or to a diploma." In amplification, it went on to state that "we have concerned ourselves with the need not only for the professional engineer, architect, and pharmacist, but also for the men or women to assist them." [8]

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[6] Luke, *Sir* Stephen, Comptroller for Development and Welfare in the West Indies, *Development and Welfare in the West Indies, 1957* (United Kingdom Colonial Office, 1958), p. 47.

[7] Colonial Office, *Report of the Mission on Higher Technical Education in the British Caribbean* (London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office, 1957), p. iii.

[8] *Ibid.*, p. 1.

The Mission spent about 2 months in the British Caribbean areas early in 1957. It survey the whole gamut of technical education and training in the British Caribbean, not only with reference to needs and plans at the advanced level as indicated in its terms of reference and in its interpretation of the term "higher technical education," but also at the lower and intermediate levels, and in addition gave attention to the problem of adequate general education for those pursuing technical studies. The summary of its principal recommendations are reproduced from its Report as Appendix B to this Bulletin. The extent to which these recommendations will set the pattern for the development of advanced technical education in the area was not clear in 1958–59. There were indications that it was not likely the Mission's line of thinking and specific recommendations would be followed in certain respects, although there was general recognition in the area of the need for the development of facilities for technical education at all levels. Insofar as advanced technical education is concerned, the principal manifestations of plans for developments along the lines of the Mission's recommendations were seen on 1958–59 in the opening of the Jamaica Institute of Technology (the Kingston Technical College of the Mission's Report) and in the program of the University College of the West Indies to develop an Engineering Faculty. (The former is discussed immediately below; the latter development will be included in the succeeding chapter on the UCWI.)

Jamaica Institute of Technology

The Jamaica Institute of Technology had its origin in the decision of the Jamaican Government in 1955 to establish a technical college. Its purpose is twofold, according to the Jamaican 10-Year Plan for National Development: (1) to provide trade training at various levels by serving as a technical institute for evening and night classes for apprentices and persons employed in the daytime, thereby helping to fill the need for skilled craftsmen and artisans; and (2) to provide for higher Technical Education up to pre-professional standards for full-time students proceeding to higher levels of training. Thus, the Plan called for the Institute to meet a dual purpose at different levels of instruction.

The site chosen for the Institute includes the former headquarters and facilities of the Hope Agricultural School, which is now expanded and established at another location as the Jamaica School of Agriculture. The Institute is located outside of Kingston about a mile from the University College of the West Indies. With an initial grant of £200,000 from the Colonial Development and Welfare central allocation for higher education in 1957, the first stage of

the Institute's development included the beginning of the construction of a large workshop, block laboratories, drawing offices, and residential and administrative buildings. The second stage, which it was anticipated would normally commence in 1960, was planned to include extension of the laboratory and classroom buildings for subjects such as commerce and home economics, and an additional building to provide facilities for higher level work capable of reaching to professional standards, including the theoretical work necessary for professional engineering qualifications.

Backed by the support of the United Kingdom Colonial Office and the aforementioned Colonial Development and Welfare grant, the Institute opened its doors in 1958, taking in 50 full-time students that year in the preliminary courses of a 3-year program in engineering and mechanics. The entrance requirement for these students was the presentation of the General Certificate of Education, Ordinary Level, or the equivalent, in three subjects—one of the sciences, mathematics, and English language. Thus, at the outset the educational background required for students in this program was below the level generally required for UCWI or British University entrance.

In 1958–59 the nature and level of the Institute's studies and training in various programs remained to be worked out. In the same situation were possible arrangements involving a recommendation of the Mission for Higher Technical Education regarding the admission of students from other British Caribbean territories. The possibility of the Institute's establishing and using laboratory and other facilities jointly with the projected Faculty of Engineering of the University College of the West Indies, as recommended by the Mission for Higher Technical Education, was apparently precluded by a decision early in 1960 to establish the University College's Engineering Faculty in Trinidad.

Trinidad Polytechnic Institute

With respect to the development of advanced technical education in Trinidad, the Mission for Higher Technical Education recommended that the existing Technical Institute at San Fernando and the proposed new Technical Institute at Port-of-Spain, referred to earlier in this chapter, become regional Technical Colleges for the British Eastern Caribbean areas, with offerings in advanced technical and commercial education, respectively. In 1958–59, Trinidad's 5-Year Development Program did not make provision for following these recommendations. The Mission's Report did not specifically mention Trinidad's additional project for a "Polytechnic Institute," and it was not clear in 1958–59 that this institution was intended

to devote itself to advanced technical education as the term is being used here. The Polytechnic Institute is, however, discussed in this chapter for sake of convenience.

Provision was made for the Polytechnic Institute in Trinidad's 5-Year Development Program for 1958–62. Its opening, originally scheduled for 1958, was delayed. The proposed institution was described in the 5-Year Program as one which would "train students for London University degrees in Arts and Social Science, and provide instructions for certain professional examinations, Law, Accountancy, and Valuation." [9] According to this statement, it would not rival the University College of the West Indies but would fill a gap between the secondary schools and the University. It was stated that the greatest demand on it at the outset would be for graduates to staff the new secondary schools, and that private business and the civil service would benefit later from its output of trained personnel. It was announced that until the Institute had its own facilities, evening classes would be held in the Queens Royal College, the Government Secondary School for boys in Port-of-Spain. In February 1959 a Trinidadian of East Indian origin was appointed to be first Principal of the Polytechnic Institute.

Agricultural and Rural Education

In the British Caribbean, with its predominantly agricultural economy, there has gradually been recognition of the need for providing formal instruction in agricultural subjects. Although the territorial school systems have not generally differentiated between urban schools and rural schools in organization and curriculum, the introduction of "practical" rural and agricultural subjects in the curriculums of the elementary, post-primary, and secondary modern schools in rural areas has been noted. In British Guiana, for example, a scheme of work with an agricultural bias and practical work on the land has been prepared for rural elementary schools in collaboration with officers of the Department of Agriculture. Rural youth clubs have been initiated in some territories as a means of augmenting agricultural education. In addition, there has been interest in establishing or designating certain elementary schools for special attention to curricular programs for rural living. For example, in Jamaica six rural schools began in 1954 a program of specialization in agriculture. This included regular classroom work in rural subjects, as well as instruction in practical farm management on farms of 5 to 7 acres attached to the

[9] *Five Year Development Program, 1958–1962*, p. 45.

schools, with the keeping of accounts and records part of the program. Along the same line, the Government of British Guiana in 1955 accepted in principle the desirability of setting up a Farm School in the elementary system to train small groups of farmers' sons and other specially interested young people, and to offer courses for teachers in training. Lack of funds to set up and maintain such a school had prevented its establishment by 1958–59.

A major problem in the establishment of such courses and programs has been the shortage of teachers with the knowledge and training necessary to teach such subjects. In cooperation with extension agents and other personnel of the territorial Departments of Agriculture efforts are being made to remedy this deficiency through special short courses, workshops, and conferences, as well as through courses in teacher-training colleges.

Separate institutions giving post-primary instruction in agricultural and rural subjects have developed in Jamaica in the so-called Practical Training Centres, and at a higher level at the Jamaica School of Agriculture. In Trinidad there are the regionally sponsored Eastern Caribbean Farm Institute for training in practical agriculture and the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture for instruction at the higher education level.

Jamaican Practical Training Centres

The Jamaican Practical Training Centres, four in number, are located in rural areas and are in the nature of rural technical secondary schools. Three of them are for boys and one for girls (the Jamaica School of Home Economics). In addition to general education courses, the boys specialize in agriculture and related practical subjects, and the girls in home economics. Entrance is by examination on a selective basis, usually between the ages of 15 and 17 at the minimum level of the First Jamaica Local Examination, or 8 to 9 years of schooling. The Centres do not usually represent a direct and immediate continuation of elementary schooling for those entering, who are usually older, for example, than those entering the Kingston Technical School. There are normally about 300 day and resident students in the three Centres for boys and 60 in the girls' Centre. In 1958 there were reported to be some 1,000 applicants each year for admission to the 120 places available to new students. Fees are charged but some students enter on scholarships offered by the Government, private concerns, or individuals.

The instructional program at the Centres is 3 years in length, with the first 2 years including some general education subjects and the third year consisting largely of specialized training. At the Dint Hill Centre, for example, English, Mathematics, and Sciences

are included in the curriculum with the objective of preparing students up to the level of the Overseas School Certificate. Practical subjects at Dint Hill include agricultural sciences, applied agriculture, woodwork, and metal work. Those who conclude the 3-year program for boys may have opportunities for employment with on-the-job training in industries processing agricultural products, on plantations, or in government. Or they may undertake further formal training at the Jamaica School of Agriculture, or at a Teacher Training College as future teachers of agriculture and shop subjects in the elementary schools. Few return to the farms of their parents.

The Practical Training Centres also serve as Evening Institutes offering practical training for adults and others not enrolled in the day programs.

Jamaica School of Agriculture

The recent extension of the facilities of the Jamaica School of Agriculture is further evidence of the trend to use education to help meet practical developmental needs. Founded in 1910, the institution was known until 1939 as the Government Farm School. Until 1957 it was located at Hope Gardens and Hope Agricultural Station, on the site which has now been taken over by the Jamaica Institute of Technology. Its primary purpose has always been to provide practical education and training for young men in careers in all branches of tropical agriculture, including positions in agricultural extension and other governmental services. The school is operated by the Jamaica Department of Agriculture, and the Department of Education now has a representative on the School's Board of Governors.

In 1957 the school moved from Hope to more extensive quarters and larger buildings constructed with the aid of a £125,000 grant from Colonial Development and Welfare funds as part of Jamaica's Development Plan. Located at a site known as Twickenham Park in a rural area about 15 miles from Kingston, the new quarters include a large tract of agricultural land for experimental farm purposes. With facilities for and an enrollment of 168 students in 1958–59, this figure is twice the 1954 enrollment at Hope. In 1958–59 there were 11 full-time faculty members and a number of part-time lecturers.

In 1958 applicants for admission to the Jamaica School of Agriculture had to be at least 16 years of age and to have passed any one of the following examinations: (1) Third Jamaica Local, (2) Second Jamaica Certificate of Education Examination, (3) Cambridge Overseas School Certificate Examination, or (4) a public examination equivalent to any one of these. In addition, applicants

were required to take an entrance examination in English, mathematics, and several sciences. Payment of tuition fees was required, but a considerable number of scholarships from the Government, private individuals, and agricultural and other firms and organizations were available. About half the students were scholarship holders.[10] All students were residential and the tuition fees included board and room.

The course of study at the Jamaica School of Agriculture in 1958–59 was 3 years in length and included English, mathematics, and science subjects in addition to courses in agriculture, agricultural economics, agricultural engineering, rural sociology, soils, animal husbandry, and veterinary science. At the end of the 3-year course a diploma was awarded to those who had attained a certain standard. For those who failed to reach diploma standard, a certificate might be awarded if the overall grade average was not less than 45 percent.

Eastern Caribbean Farm Institute

Training in practical agriculture was the objective of the Eastern Caribbean Farm Institute, which was established in 1954 near Arima in Trinidad, some 20 miles east of Port-of-Spain. The Institute is a joint project of the Governments of the British Eastern Caribbean Territories—Trinidad and Tobago, the islands of the Windward and Leeward groups, Barbados, and British Guiana —which have responsibility for its maintenance. The West Indies Development and Welfare Organization was closely connected with the preparatory work in organizing the Institute. The site of the institute was made available through arrangements with the Government of Trinidad and Tobago. Funds for the initial capital expenditure for buildings, equipment, and supplies, including full living quarters for the staff and dormitories for the students, came from Colonial Development and Welfare funds and a grant from the Carnegie Corporation. Additional Colonial Development and Welfare funds have been supplied as facilities expanded. The Institute is controlled by a Governing Board composed of representatives from the Governments of the member territories, usually the prescribed officers in their respective Departments of Agriculture, as well as a few others holding important positions in agriculture in the region.

The Institute was founded primarily to train subordinate staff members of Departments of Agriculture in the region, and when opportunity permits, men of similar status in commercial agricul-

[10] British Information Services, *Higher Technical Education in the UK Dependencies* (New York, January 1959), p. 10.

ture.[11] Thus, instruction was intended as in-service vocational training at the intermediate level for those who it was anticipated would eventually fill executive positions in Departments of Agriculture and perhaps other government agencies and private commercial organizations with agricultural interests.

To this end, the long-range plan was that the Institute course should cover 2 years, and that students would normally be between the ages of 18 and 25 at entry and have a good basic education and some experience of practical farming. At the outset, however, in order to meet an immediate need, the Institute undertook to provide an intensive 1-year program of training for men already employed in the territorial Departments of Agriculture, many of them with long periods of service. It was for this reason that in its first 2 years, 1954–55 and 1955–56, the Institute gave only a 1-year intensive course. In the autumn of 1956 the third and last group of 1-year trainees was admitted, along with the first group taking the regular 2-year program.

In the autumn of 1958, the third group of regular 2-year students began their studies. There were enrolled at that time some 30 students in each year of the 2-year program, or 63 in all. The character of the enrollment was coming more and more to approximate the original intention, i.e., a group of young members of their respective Agriculture Departments, who after 3 to 6 months' service would be sent for specialized training to the Institute. As time goes on and the needs of these Departments are gradually met, it is expected that the proportion of privately sponsored trainees will increase.

In 1958–59 there were no formal educational entrance requirements. It is presumed, however, that those attending the Institute will normally have had at least a basic elementary education, although some of those enrolling have had less formal education and some up to the level of the School Certificate or the General Certificate of Education Ordinary Level.

The faculty, or tutorial staff consisted in 1958 of five members, including a teaching principal and vice-principal. The faculty members were originally all from the United Kingdom, but the ultimate aim is to have the tutorial staff composed entirely of West Indians. In 1958 a start had been made in this direction with the inclusion of one West Indian on the staff. The Institute's program of studies and training is about half lectures and class work, and half practical field work. The formal class work is geared to

[11] Eastern Caribbean Farm Institute, *Report of the Governing Body for the Year 1957*, p. 10. Much of the data on the Institute and its activities given here is taken from these Annual Reports.

problems connected with the actual operation of farms. To this end, the Institute maintains a demonstration farm, which consisted of about 150 acres in 1958–59, with plans to increase its size. Financially, the farm is maintained as a business undertaking separate from the Institute, and is expected to be self-sustaining.

Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture

The Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture located at St. Augustine, Trinidad, near Port-of-Spain, is the British Caribbean's institution of higher education in agriculture. It dates back to 1921, when on the recommendation of a Committee appointed in 1919 by the British Secretary of State for the Colonies, it was founded as the West Indian Agricultural College to conduct research and provide instruction in tropical agriculture. Formal instruction began in 1922. In 1924 it received its present name, and in 1926 it was incorporated by Royal Charter. A principal development for the future of the Imperial College is its scheduled conversion into the Agricultural Faculty, or School, of the University College of the West Indies in the autumn of 1960, and the anticipated initiation of programs for regular university degrees in agriculture. The development is discussed in more detail in the following chapter on the University College.

The Imperial College was intended from the outset to serve as an institution for education and training in tropical agriculture for the British Commonwealth as a whole. In view of this purpose, administration and finance have been on an overall Commonwealth-wide basis. The headquarters of its Governing Board have been at London, and funds for its capital costs and recurrent expenditures have been contributed by the various Commonwealth Governments, including those of the West Indies territories and the United Kingdom. Other funds have come from Colonial Development and Welfare grants, resources of the College's own experimental farm, private contributions, tuition fees, and other sources.

The College has had two principal but distinct functions—formal instruction and directed research. The line between them has been rather sharply drawn insofar as the responsibilities of staff members are concerned. A staff member has belonged to either the teaching or the research staff and has not normally engaged in the other function at the College unless formally transferred to it. Instruction is divided into undergraduate and graduate levels. At the undergraduate level emphasis is on Caribbean agriculture, and instruction is intended primarily for West Indian students. A large portion of these come with scholarships granted by British West Indian Governments and subsequently serve in the territorial Departments of Agriculture. Undergraduates from other areas may be

admitted if there are vacancies unfilled by West Indians. There have been two undergraduate Diploma courses of 3 years in length, one leading to a Diploma in Agriculture and the other to a Diploma in Sugar Technology. The admission requirement to the undergraduate programs has been a good grade School Certificate, or a comparable General Certificate of Education at Ordinary Level, or the equivalent, with those preferred who do well in science and mathematics subjects. A student who has met the entrance requirements at any university in the British Commonwealth may also be accepted.

At the graduate level the Imperial College has been the recognized Commonwealth center for required training in tropical agriculture and the agricultural sciences. At this level instruction has been intended primarily for officers destined to serve in the Agricultural government services of the various tropical Commonwealth territories. The College has offered three regular graduate level programs, the most significant in numbers enrolled in recent years being the 1-year Special Diploma course in Tropical Agriculture. The other programs have been 2-year courses leading to the Associateship in Agriculture or the Associateship in Sugar Technology. Graduate students are normally required to have completed appropriate undergraduate programs and to have received their undergraduate degrees, or as an alternative for entrance to either of the Associateship programs, they may present the Imperial College's undergraduate diploma. For admission to the Diploma courses in tropical agriculture, they must also normally have had at least 1 year of graduate level training. Graduate students have usually received their country assignments, or "postings," prior to entering the Imperial College. As a result of the College's being the only recognized center in the Commonwealth for graduate training in tropical agriculture and related sciences, most of the senior staff of Departments of Agriculture of Commonwealth tropical countries have received their graduate training at the College.

In the past several years the total number of students at the Imperial College has reached its highest level. The following figures show the enrollment for the indicated years:

Year	*Graduates*	*Undergraduates*	*Total*
1956–57	65	41	106
1957–58	64	42	106
1958–59	57	43	100

The 43 undergraduate students in 1958–59 included 37 studying for the Diploma in Agriculture, divided 14, 14, and 9 into 1st, 2d, and 3d year students, respectively. The 6 remaining undergraduates were all in the first year of the 3-year course for the

Diploma in Sugar Technology, the course being offered only once every 3 years subject to there being a sufficient number of candidates. Of the 43 undergraduates, 38 were from the British Caribbean territories, divided as follows: 15 from Trinidad, 6 from British Guiana, 5 from Barbados, 7 from the various Windward Islands, 3 from the Leeward Islands, and 1 each from British Honduras and Jamaica. The remaining 5 undergraduates were distributed 1 each from Kenya, Aden, the Fiji Islands, and the nearby non-British Caribbean areas of Martinique and Surinam. It is perhaps normal to expect a greater number of undergraduates from Trinidad, than any other territory. Presumably the almost complete absence of students from Jamaica is accounted for by the existence of the Jamaica School of Agriculture and the feeling in Jamaica that there is not sufficient difference in level and quality of offerings at the Imperial College to justify the expense of sending students to Trinidad.

Of the 57 graduate students enrolled at the beginning of the year 1958–59, 46 were studying for the Diploma in Tropical Agriculture, and the remaining 11 in the other graduate programs, including 1 in Sugar Technology. About half the total had previously studied at the University of Cambridge in England, which has been a principal center for prior agricultural education of Colonial Office "probationers" planning to proceed to tropical posts. One graduate student in 1958–59 was from Portugal. Three had been educated in an institution in the United States, one of these being "posted" for Ghana, another having recently served in the U.S. Trust Territories of the Pacific Islands, and the third apparently being an ICA official taking a special course before proceeding to Vietnam. Most of the total of 57 were "posted" for service in British African territories and others for the Pacific Islands and Asian territories. There were only two graduate students indicated as destined for the British Caribbean area, both of them for British Guiana, and three other graduate students who were West Indian undergraduate diploma holders of the Imperial College. This is a reflection of the fact that there has been more interest in official circles in the Caribbean Territories at this stage in training undergraduates than graduates in this field. The contributions of the members of the West Indies Federation, which are now made through the Federal Government, are intended primarily for the maintenance of the undergraduate Diploma courses.

The directed research function of the Imperial College is considered to be of equal significance for Caribbean and tropical agriculture with the teaching programs. While research activities have been carried on at the College practically from its inception, its

research potential was greatly extended in 1946–47 by the establishment of four so-called research schemes for cacao, bananas, soils, and sugar chemistry. In 1955 the administration of the first three of these projects was incorporated into a Regional Research Center. Separately organized and administered under the College is the British West Indies Sugar Research Scheme.

Facilities for research and experimentation, as well as for teaching and demonstration, are provided through experimental plots, research and demonstration farms, and other means. In addition to such facilities forming part of the College grounds, the College operates a 300-acre mixed crop and livestock farm 3 miles distant, as well as a 420-acre estate about 20 miles away, where large-scale cacao experimental tracts have been laid out. Also forming part of the College facilities is an experimental sugar factory used both in sugar technology research and in instruction of students.

CHAPTER VII

The University College of the West Indies

IT IS in higher education that the most spectacular educational advance has been made in the British Caribbean since World War II. This is due to the founding and development of the Universtiy College of the West Indies located at Mona, near Kingston, Jamaica.

The Role of Codrington College

Prior to 1948 the only facilities for higher learning in the British Caribbean, aside from those for agricultural education at the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture, were at Codrington College in Barbados. It offered programs in the classics and theology for a small number of students. Dating back to the will of Sir Christopher Codrington, who died in 1710 and wished to found an institution of theological training for the Anglican clergy in the West Indies, Codrington College had passed through various vicissitudes and achieved recognized status as an institution of higher learning when it was affiliated to the University of Durham in 1875. Under this affiliation classics were added to the theological base of the institution, and the University of Durham bestowed its degrees on students completing university level work in these fields at Codrington. Since 1841 more than half the clergy in the West Indian Province of the Anglican Church have been trained there. Numerous British West Indian schoolmasters and lawyers in the late 19th and early 20th centuries also attended Codrington.

In 1946 the role of Codrington College as a training center for the Anglican Church was given official recognition when it was designated as the Provincial Theological College of the Anglican Province of the West Indies. In 1955 the Anglican Order of the Community of the Resurrection assumed direction of the College, and it again became almost exclusively an institution for theological training. From 1953–54, when there were 12 university level students at Codrington studying for University of Durham degrees, the number declined to 3 in 1957 and 1 in 1958. In the latter year the College had 5 faculty members and a total student enrollment of 32. Thus, simultaneously with the founding and growth of the University

College of the West Indies, there has occurred the virtual eclipse of Codrington College as an institution offering programs at the university level.

Development of the University College

The University College came into existence as part of the general movement to develop university education in British overseas territories. For the British West Indies, this movement found expression in the 1944 recommendation of the so-called Irvine Committee (from the name of the Committee Chairman, Sir James Irvine, Vice-Chancellor of St. Andrews University) that a University College of the West Indies be established as an affiliated college of the University of London. This recommendation was accepted by the British and the territorial Governments.

Following the drawing up of organization plans, the University College opened its doors in 1948 with the entrance of a small number of medical students. A Royal Charter incorporating the University College was issued in January 1949. Starting in temporary wooden barracks used for housing refugees during World War II, the University College occupied these quarters until the erection of a series of modern buildings. The first stage of the building program was completed in 1953. The facilities at Mona in 1958–59 included lecture halls, laboratories, administration offices, a library, four student residence halls, a Student Union building, approximately 50 faculty residences, a 300-bed teaching hospital with facilities for clinical training of medical students and nurses, and a playing field, sports area, and olympic size swimming pool.

It is not the intention to set forth full and detailed information on the University College. (Factual data are available from several published sources listed in the bibliography accompanying this Bulletin.) The emphasis here will be on recent developments and apparent trends in the programs and organization of the University College, including its role and activities in meeting the needs and problems of the West Indies Federation.

New Programs of Study

One of these trends is the movement toward the establishment of new programs of study and new Faculties, or Schools, to carry them out. As background for an understanding of this movement, it should be pointed out that the three Faculties established early in the University College's existence were those into which its several Departments continued to be organized in 1959. There were (1) the

Faculty of Arts, consisting of Departments of Classics, Economics, English, History, and Modern Languages; (2) the Faculty of Natural Sciences, consisting of the Departments of Botany, Chemistry, Mathematics, Physics, and Zoology; and (3) the Faculty of Medicine, consisting of the Departments of Anatomy, Medicine, Obstetrics and Gynæcology, Pathology, Physiology, and Surgery. In addition, the College's Department of Education enjoyed an autonomous status, not being affiliated with any Faculty.

In 1959 the degree programs of the University College followed the general pattern of English Universities, and specifically that of the University of London, which grants the degrees awarded after study at the University College. All programs for Bachelor of Arts and Bachelor of Science "general" degrees were 3 years in length. A 3-year Bachelor of Arts "honours" degree (signifying more intensive specialization in a given field) was also offered in English, French, History, and Latin. A 3-year program for a Bachelor of Science Special degree program in the Faculty of Natural Sciences, has recently been added, involving intensive specialization in one subject, with specified ancillary subjects. Through 1957 no degrees of this nature had yet been awarded. The program for the degree of Bachelor of Medicine and Bachelor of Surgery is 6 years in length from the time of university entrance. London University graduate degrees of Master of Science, Master of Arts, and Doctor of Philosophy may be awarded in certain circumstances, but the UCWI is overwhelmingly an institution for undergraduates and medical students. Initial enrollment figures in the fall of 1959 showed a total of 695 students in all programs, of whom about 25 were students holding undergraduate degrees. Approximately 20 of these were studying for the UCWI Diploma in Education, and the others for the UCWI Diploma in Chemical Technology or the Master of Science degree of the University of London.[1]

The two Diplomas mentioned are granted directly by the University College itself, as contrasted to the regular degrees, which are awarded by the University of London. The Education Diploma will be described later. The existence of a program for a Diploma in Chemical Technology is a recognition of the need for practical chemists in the British Caribbean. It provides a minimum 1-year program designed to give training to undergraduate degree holders in chemistry to fit them better for employment in various industries of the Caribbean area such as sugar and bauxite. Before this Diploma is awarded, the candidate must complete at least 3 months of approved experience in some chemical phase of industry.

[1] Figures taken from the UCWI *Newsletter*, No. 305, Oct. 12, and No. 315, Dec. 21, 1959.

In 1959, plans for the addition of three new Faculties were at various stages of discussion and development. The farthest along was the aforementioned plan to convert the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture into a degree-granting Faculty of Agriculture of the University College, which had been under consideration for several years.[2] This merger was scheduled to take place in August 1960. Proposals of the governing bodies of the two institutions to this end were unanimously accepted at a conference of the West Indies Federal Government and the Territorial Governments in March 1959.[3]

A second new Faculty which has long been discussed and for which plans are being considered is a Faculty of Engineering. One of the recommendations of the aforementioned Mission on Higher Technical Education in the British Caribbean was that the UCWI should proceed with its plan to develop a degree course in Engineering Science. A principal obstacle to its establishment to date has been financial, i.e., the high cost of establishing and equipping engineering facilities for teaching purposes. It was in large part to avoid duplication of facilities that the Mission on Higher Technical Education recommended that arrangements for joint use of one set of engineering laboratories be worked out by the UCWI and the technical college or institute then being planned by the Government of Jamaica and since established as the Jamaica Institute of Technology. In 1959, as one aspect of the solution of the general problem of financing overall expansion of the UCWI financial resources were becoming available which it was expected would enable teaching in engineering to begin in the fall of 1960.[4] In February 1960, it was announced that the Faculty of Engineering would be located in Trinidad in association with the new Faculty of Agriculture.

A third projected area of development of instructional programs is the Social Sciences. The initiation of a 3-year honours degree program in economics in the fall of 1959 which would lead to the Bachelor of Science of the University of London in this field was regarded as the first step in this direction. The Department of Economics, which has been for some time a part of the Faculty of Arts, has been strengthened by the addition of several new staff members. The institution of this degree program will permit more intensive specialization by undergraduates in this field of vital import to the British Caribbean areas than has heretofore been possible. Thirty-three undergraduates began studies in this program in October 1959.[5]

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[2] See Wood, Robert S. *Report on the Provision of Agricultural Education of University Degree Standard in the British Caribbean Territories.* Colonial Office, No. 313 (London, 1955).

[3] UCWI *Newsletter*, No. 78, Apr. 6, 1959.

[4] UCWI *Newsletter*, No. 307, Oct. 26, and No. 311, Nov. 23, 1959.

[5] UCWI *Newsletter*, No. 310, Nov. 16, 1959.

Another fact in this connection is the reorganization and expansion of the Department of Economics through the integration into it of the University College's Institute of Social and Economic Research. The Institute has long been an integral part of the College to investigate and perform advanced research on social and economic questions affecting the British Caribbean area. It has also published the quarterly, *Social and Economic Studies*, and has sponsored lectures and conferences in these fields. Studies and investigations prepared under its auspices have dealt with such subjects as the economic problems of the various British Caribbean territories and the West Indies Federation as a whole, including trade questions and the matter of West Indian customs union. Heretofore the Institute has not been a teaching organization. With the integration of the Institute into the Department of Economics in Ocober 1959, the Institute's staff "became members of the Department having duties similar to those of other members of teaching departments in the college."[6] It was planned that the Institute would also continue to have a formal existence within the Department of Economics and that its research program would be conducted on a larger scale than previously.

In the fall of 1959 it was envisaged at the UCWI that the foregoing developments would lead to the rapid expansion of teaching of the Social Sciences and that the reconstituted Department of Economics would expand into a Faculty of Social Sciences within a few years. In addition to economics, specialized study and professional training in the fields of sociology, anthropology, and political science are recognized as vital in view of the cultural, social, and racial patterns of the British Caribbean areas and their emerging political development. In this connection, the new Principal of the University College appointed in 1959 to assume his duties in 1960 is a noted West Indian economist and social scientist who has held teaching positions in the United Kingdom as well as various administrative and research positions with international bodies, and was to continue serving as Deputy Director of the Special United Nations Fund for Economic Development until April 1960.

Enrollment Increase

A second and related trend at the University College is an anticipated marked increase in enrollment. From the 33 students who enrolled in the Faculty of Medicine when the College opened its doors in 1948, the numbers in all Faculties and Departments gradually increased until at the beginning of the academic year 1959–60

[6] UCWI *Newsletter*, No. 306, Oct. 19, 1959.

total enrollment was 695. Figures giving total enrollments since 1953 are as follows:

Date	Total	Men	Women	Arts	Science	Medicine	Education
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
October 1953	302	212	90	85	66	136	16
October 1954	384	275	109	105	92	169	18
October 1955	444	299	145	139	96	192	17
October 1956	494	325	169	169	112	193	20
October 1957	566	364	202	205	135	212	14
October 1958	622	391	231	218	161	212	31
October 1959	695	446	249	279	165	231	20

Of the total of 695 enrolled in October 1959, 222 were new admissions, the vast majority being first-year students in Arts, Sciences and Medicine.[7]

With respect to the matter of degrees granted, the Calendar (Catalog) of the University College for 1958–59 lists its graduates from the inception of the College up to 1958.[8] They are divided as follows: Bachelor of Arts Honours Degrees, 43; Bachelor of Arts General Degrees, 108; Bachelor of Science General Degrees, 112; Bachelor of Medicine and Surgery, 70; Master of Science, 10; and Diploma in Chemical Technology, 7. To these figures, for purposes of giving the overall picture from 1948 through 1959 may be added the numbers of those successful on examinations for degrees in 1959, as follows: Bachelor of Arts Honours, 26; Bachelor of Arts General, 28; Bachelor of Science General, 28; Bachelor of Medicine and Bachelor of Surgery, 22.[9] Overall figures on the Diploma in Education will be given in the discussion of the University College's Education Department.

In 1959 a 300 percent increase in enrollment to 2,000 by 1964 was planned. The newly appointed Principal stated that in providing University education for only 700 students (the approximate 1959 fall enrollment), the University College was failing to meet the needs of the West Indian people. He noted that nearly 4,000 West Indians were studying in 1959 in British, American, and Canadian Universities, and that in view of this fact the projected expansion was very modest. The existing ratio of one teacher to five students, he observed, was quite uneconomic, and the annual operating cost of accommodating 2,000 students with a normal ratio of teaching staff to students would not be any greater.[9]

Two factors which have limited enrollment to date, in addition to the lack of certain programs have been the inability of numbers

[7] UCWI *Newsletter*, No. 310, Nov. 16, 1959.
[8] UCWI *Calendar, 1958–1959*, p. 104–107.
[9] UCWI *Newsletter*, No. 297, Aug. 17, 1959, and No. 311, Nov. 23, 1959.

of qualified students to obtain funds to finance their education and the heretofore purely residential nature of the University College. With respect to the first of these, about 50 percent of the student body are "grant-aided," i.e., are scholarship holders. (This is in contrast to colleges in British West Africa where all or practically all of the students receive financial assistance.) Various University College, territorial Government, and privately endowed and commercial scholarships are available for students attending the College, but in UCWI circles there is general recognition that there should be a substantial increase in the number of scholarships and grants.[10] In this connection the Ford Foundation in November 1959 announced a grant of $100,000 to the UCWI for "exhibitions," i.e., examinations for additional scholarships. Candidates from the Leeward and Windward Islands and British Honduras were to be given first consideration, but awards from this grant might also go to candidates from other British Caribbean territories.[11]

With respect to the long existing residential requirement, it was originally instituted in the hope that a completely residential institution would bring about close contact among all students and make for a general West Indian outlook. With residence quarters for only 600 students in 1959, a severe limitation was imposed upon the expansion of enrollment if the residential requirement were adhered to. Consequently, beginning with the fall term of 1959, this requirement was rescinded for those who have completed 2 years' residence. Henceforth they are required to live off the College premises unless permission is given to remain in the College residential quarters. It is anticipated that in line with the overall expansion in enrollment anticipated by 1964 the residential requirement may have to be modified still further even though the building expansion program calls for residence halls for an additional 1,000 students.

Relationship to University of London

Another aspect of the University College's development is its relationship with its "foster mother," the University of London, and its hope of qualifying for full independence as a University in its own right by 1963. Some discussion of the history and nature of the existing relationship is in order at this point. The University College of the West Indies was one of several institutions of higher learning established in British overseas territories as a result of the recommendations of the so-called Asquith Commission appointed in 1943 by the British Secretary of State for the Colonies to inquire into Higher Education in the Colonies. The Irvine Committee, already mentioned, was the sub-group of the Asquith Com-

10 UCWI *Newsletter*, No 294, July 27, 1959.
11 UCWI *Newsletter*, No. 312, No. 30, 1959.

mission which concentrated its investigations and recommendations on the British Caribbean. The Asquith Commission recommended that all institutions which might be developed in colonial territories should, during their formative years, be affiliated Colleges of the University of London, before achieving independent university status of their own.

University College of the West Indies

Admission of Undergraduates in October 1959

1. Applications are invited for admission to the University College of the West Indies in October 1959.

2. A number of Open Scholarships, Government Exhibitions and other awards will be offered in 1959, as a result of the University College Scholarship Examination which will be held in each territory from 24th February to 28th February. The Entry fee to the Scholarship Examination is £1. 0. 0. Some candidates for entrance only may also be asked to write some papers in the Scholarship Examination.

3. Candidates may qualify for normal minimum entrance requirements with

A. Passes in five subjects at the G.C.E. of which at least two must be passed at Advanced Level.

OR

B. Passes in four subjects at the G.C.E. of which at least three must be passed at Advanced Level.

Normally a credit at the Cambridge School Certificate is equivalent to an Ordinary Level pass G.C.E. and a pass at Principal Standard H.S.C. is equivalent to a pass at Advanced Level G.C.E.

4. Candidates with five passes at Credit Standard of five 'O' Level subjects G.C.E. including English Language, Mathematics and a foreign language may be considered for entry to the Faculty of Medicine or to the Preliminary Course in Science.

5. Students wishing to read for an Arts Degree should have included in their qualification either English and at least one foreign language at the Ordinary or Advanced G.C.E. Level, or two foreign languages including Latin or Greek.

6. Further details about entry requirements. Faculty requirements, scholarships available and an outline of courses, may be found in the appropriate pamphlets, which is available from the Registrar, U.C.W.I., or from the Resident Tutor, Extra-Mural Studies or the Education Officer in the territories.

7. The closing date for applications is January 31, 1959.

8. Please note that in the Scholarship Examination 1959 each candidate will be required to write a General Paper and any two of the following subjects irrespective of the faculty for which he is applying:

Botany	Greek	Mathematics (Pure & Applied)
Biology	History	Physics
Chemistry	Latin	Spanish
English	Mathematics (App.)	Zoology
French	Mathematics (Pure)	

provided however that (1) Biology is not taken with Botany or Zoology;
(2) Pure & Applied Mathematics is not taken with Pure Mathematics or Applied Mathematics.

[Reprinted from Kingston, Jamaica *Daily Gleaner*, Nov. 22, 1958, p. 17.]

As a result of this recommendation, the University College of the West Indies was accepted by the University of London into a special relationship.[12] Admission requirements for the UCWI may be either those of the University of London or a special scheme operating between the two institutions.[13] In 1959 these were as indicated in the UCWI announcement reproduced from the Kingston *Daily Gleaner* of November 22, 1958. (See page 87) Under the relationship between the two institutions, the University College may propose and obtain approval for degree programs and syllabuses for the examinations for degrees. These syllabuses in each affiliated College "are adjusted to the geographical, linguistic and educational conditions of the territory, but represent no relaxation in the standards of the University." [14] The two institutions collaborate in the examination process, with London representatives responsible for the final form of the papers and determination of the results for each candidate. Degrees granted are those of the University of London and the standard of performance required of candidates from the UCWI is equal to that demanded from London University students generally.

It was the full intention of the Asquith Commission that the relationship with the University of London would serve a transitional purpose and that the overseas Colleges operating under it would attain full University status as quickly as possible. It was thought that to this end the arrangements for consultation and collaboration between the staffs of the University and the respective Colleges would enable the latter to acquire the necessary experience, understanding, and sense of responsibility. One of these colleges has been transformed into the University of Khartoum, in the Sudan, and grants its own degrees.

Insofar as the University College of the West Indies is concerned, full independence remains the goal, with the target date of 1963 reflecting the same desire for West Indian self-expression that originally set the same date for the attainment of full Commonwealth status for the Federation. The new Principal of the University College has observed that to qualify for independence the number and quality of academic programs must be strengthened. In addition to the projected additions to instructional programs already mentioned, he has stated that considerable expansion is planned for the Faculty of Medicine and that "the College must be able to do the full range of honours work and post graduate work in Arts and

[12] *See* the section, "Schemes of Special Relation with University Colleges Overseas," in the discussion of the University of London in the *Commonwealth Universities Yearbook, 1959*, p. 846.
[13] *Ibid.*, p. 1148.
[14] *Ibid.*, p. 846.

Science." To this end he has noted that the teaching staff must be much more highly specialized than it has been, which means a larger staff, and that it is the plan to have a staff of more than 200 by the end of 1960.[15]

A further trend in this connection is the anticipated gradual increase in the percentage of West Indians on the staff of the University College as the numbers of adequately trained specialists from the area increase. In 1959, approximately 50 percent of the teaching staff were British, 30 percent West Indian, and the remaining 20 percent from a wide range of other regions. With the appointment of a West Indian as Principal of the University College in 1959, the two top positions in the College were held by West Indians for the first time. Thus, this trend is looked on by some West Indians as further evidence of a movement leading eventually to full assertion of the West Indian character of the University.

Financing the University College

The financing of the proposed expansion of the University College's programs of study involves efforts to increase drastically funds for both recurring and capital expenditures. The original method of financing agreed on by the mother country and the Governments of the territories served by the College at the time of its origin was that the capital expenditures would be met by a direct grant from Colonial Development and Welfare Funds (CD&W), and the recurring or operating expenditures would be financed by contributions from the territorial Governments on a pro-rata population basis. These territorial contributions might include funds received by the territories from their individual CD&W allocations, so that CD&W funds going into the UCWI were actually greater than the special direct capital grant. The site of the College was provided by the Government of Jamaica at a nominal rent.

The original CD&W capital grant to meet the aforementioned first phase of building construction was £1,500,000. Colonial Development and Welfare also contributed additional funds toward the major part of the cost of construction and equipping the Teaching Hospital connected with the University College. Some of the hospital construction expense was borne by the Jamaican Government from its own CD&W allocations, since it was the territory benefitting most from the hospital services thus provided. The capital cost of the total plant as it existed early in 1959 was approximately £2,446,000 (U.S. $6,848,000). The pro-rata schedule of contributions for recurring expenditures in effect just prior to the

[15] UCWI *Newsletter*, No. 311, Nov. 23, 1959.

birth of the Federation was as follows: Jamaica, 45.4 percent; Trinidad, 20.2 percent; British Guiana, 13.4 percent; Windward Islands, 8.7 percent; Barbados, 6.7 percent; Leeward Islands, 3.4 percent; and British Honduras, 2.2 percent. Total income for the year 1957–58 was £520,416, of which 90.4 percent came from the territorial Governments, 6.24 percent from special grants, and 3.33 percent from fees.[16]

With the establishment of the West Indies Federation, official responsibility for the UCWI, insofar as the territories making up the Federation are concerned, was transferred to the Federal Government. The Constitution of the West Indies, as noted, puts the UCWI on the so-called Exclusive Legislative List. Accordingly, it was anticipated that arrangements would be made for the recurring expenditures of the UCWI to be met by an allocation of funds from the Federal Government in addition to the continuation of grants from British Guiana and British Honduras, the two non-Federation members. Included in these allocations would be amounts to cover the teaching function of the Hospital, with the rest of the recurrent costs of operating the Hospital borne by the Government of Jamaica.

In 1959, the financing of the planned expansion of the University College involved efforts to obtain increased funds from the British Caribbean territorial governments, the Government of the United Kingdom, the United Nations, and private Foundations, concerns, and individuals. The new Principal of the University College indicated late in 1959 that additional operating costs stemming from the proposed expansion would amount to an extra BWI $2,000,000 a year (about U.S. $1,176,000), and that the capital cost of adding new teaching buildings, an Engineering Faculty, halls of residence, and staff housing accommodations would be 10 times that figure.[17] Intensive efforts were being made to obtain agreement from the British Caribbean territorial Governments to increase their total contributions for recurring expenditures by BWI $6,000,000 for the 3-year period 1960–63, and the Governments of Jamaica, Trinidad, Barbados, Montserrat, and other territories had agreed to make substantial increases for this purpose. It was anticipated that other territorial Governments would do likewise.

Along with and on the basis of actual and anticipated support from the local Governments in meeting the additional recurring expenditures of the proposed expansion, the much larger amounts needed for capital expenditures were being solicited from other sources in 1959. Approximately BWI $5,000,000 had been offered

[16] *Commonwealth Universities Yearbook, 1959*, p. 1148.
[17] UCWI *Newsletter*, No. 311, Nov. 23, 1959.

by the British Government from Colonial Development and Welfare Funds. In addition, the new Principal reported in November 1959 that BWI $1,500,000 would be granted by the Special United Nations Fund for Economic Development, and that the remainder of the $20,000,000 needed would come from the Federal Government of the West Indies, Foundations, and other private sources. In this connection a fund raising project was launched in the United States late in 1959 under the name of "The American Friends of the University College of the West Indies." [18]

Its Department of Education

In view of the overall educational problems and needs of the British Caribbean areas, the role of the University College's Department of Education in helping meet these needs merits particular attention. Broadly considered, the work of the Department of Education since its establishment in the early 1950's has fallen into three main categories: (1) professional training for existing or prospective secondary school teachers leading to the Diploma in Education; (2) research on educational problems in the Caribbean; and (3) various types of services, advice, and consultation on educational matters at all levels to Governments, educational institutions, and teachers of the area—activities which are sometimes collectively referred to as the "Institute functions" of the Department. To carry out these various responsibilities, the Department has had a small staff, which in 1958–59 consisted of one part-time and four full-time teaching members, and one Research Fellow. Plans for an increase in the staff were being made in 1959. As part of the expansion two new Research Fellows were appointed to begin their duties in the fall of that year, not only in connection with the research program but also with respect to the other functions of the Department.[19]

To the first and third of the aforementioned functions special attention will be paid here. The second, or research function, is exemplified by the establishment of the Department's Centre for the Study of Education and research projects of staff members on various education problems in the British Caribbean. The emphasis in research is on the practical problems of the area.

With respect to the first function mentioned, the 1-year course for the Diploma in Education is intended primarily as professional training for secondary school teachers who are already "graduates," i.e., who hold an undergraduate degree in a subject specialty. This

[18] UCWI *Newsletter*, No. 813, Dec. 7, 1959.
[19] UCWI *Newsletter*, No. 286, June 1, 1959.

1-year course began in 1953 and the first Diplomas in Education were awarded in 1954. This was in line with the recommendation for the Irvine Committee that the University College establish such a course and award its own Diploma. As indicated, this Diploma, like the College's 1-year Diploma in chemical technology, is awarded by the University College in its own right and not, as in the case of regular degrees, by the University of London.

The program for the Diploma in Education "is designed to provide a broad preparation for teaching with particular emphasis on the study of education in the British Caribbean in the light of an understanding of educational theory and practice in Western countries." [20] The main fields of study offered in 1958–59 were Principles and Philosophy of Education, Child Development, History and Sociology of Education, Methods of Teaching (including the teaching of subject specialties), and Practice of Education. To be admitted to the examinations for the Diploma, a student had to be a graduate of an approved university, pursue an approved program of studies of at least 1 year, and pass an examination consisting of two parts on (*a*) the theory of Education and (*b*) the practice of Education.

The number of students enrolled in the course for the Diploma in Education over the period 1953–59, inclusive, has previously been given with the University College's general enrollment figures. The greatest number studying for this Diploma in any one year was 32 in the year 1958–59. At the beginning of the year 1959–60, 20 students were enrolled. From 1954, when the Diploma was first granted, through 1959, a total of 104 students received the Diploma.[21] In 1959, 28 students, the largest number in any one year up to that time, received the Diploma. This figure included 10 each from the two territories of Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago, with the others from Antigua, Barbados, British Guiana, and St. Vincent.

Although the idea that teachers in secondary schools need professional training is comparatively new in the British Caribbean and the facilities for this purpose at the University College are limited, professional opinion in the area looks to their expansion. Thus, the 1957 Regional Conference on the Training of Teachers recommended "that the University College of the West Indies should arrange for an early increase in the number of students reading [i.e., studying] for the Diploma in Education to at least fifty." [22] Of at least equal significance, in view of the fact that less than 50 percent of secondary

[20] UCWI *Calendar, 1958–59*, p. 85.

[21] This figure is based on the number shown in the UCWI *Calendar* for 1958–59, p. 106–7, plus those receiving the Diploma in 1959, as given in the UCWI *Newsletter*, No. 292, July 13, and No. 304, Oct. 5, 1959.

[22] Teacher Training Conference *Report*, p. 23.

teachers were holders of university degrees at that time, was the Conference's recommendation "that the UCWI should provide a 1-year course similar to the Diploma in Education involving a study of local educational problems, for a limited number of non-graduate teachers holding or capable of holding positions of responsibility." [23] The initiation of such a program would, of course, require a change in the University College's requirement that those admitted to the Department of Education must have a university degree.

During the early part of the 1959–60 academic year, it had not been possible to take steps to implement these two recommendations of the 1957 Conference, and it appeared that expansion of the Department of Education's facilities in this connection awaited consummation of the overall expansion program of the College. Within the Department there was also some consideration in 1958–59 of the possibility that its programs of professional training might better be spread over a 2-year period and worked in with simultaneous academic preparation. Long-range thinking in the Department also looked to the development of programs of more advanced work in Education and the granting of advanced degrees.

The service, advisory, and consultative functions of the University College's Department of Education (which are not confined to secondary education) partake, as indicated, of what are sometimes referred to as Institute functions, since they resemble some of the functions of an Institute of Education as found in British Universities. Such an Institute had not yet been established at the University College in 1958–59, though under a 4-year grant from the Carnegie Corporation in 1954, a start had been made by the College in undertaking certain functions of an Institute of Education. One of the recommendations of the 1957 Teacher Training Conference was that the UCWI should develop such an Institute with broad functions, in cooperation with Governments and Training Colleges.[24]

The service, advisory, and consultative functions of the Department of Education have embraced such matters as (1) sponsoring education conferences; (2) assisting in in-service short courses, workshops, and seminars for teachers, often as part of the program of the University College's Extra-Mural Department, which is discussed in more detail in the next chapter on adult education; (3) giving assistance to the individual territories in assessing the courses, syllabuses, and examinations of Teacher Training Colleges; and (4) providing general advice to territorial Departments of Education and institutions. Examples of conferences sponsored or co-spon-

[23] *Ibid.*, p. 24.
[24] *Ibid.*, p. 26.

sored by the College's Department of Education have been the meeting of Heads of Secondary Schools in the British Caribbean in 1955, the 1957 Regional Conference on the Training of Teachers in the British Caribbean for which numerous of the working papers were prepared by staff members of the Department of Education, and a Conference on Selection of Students for Secondary Education in April 1959.

One type of short in-service programs sponsored by the Department of Education has been general training courses for teachers in primary and all-age schools, usually organized in cooperation with territorial Departments of Education, Training Colleges, and Teachers Associations. Other in-service programs have dealt with specific problems, such as (1) the teaching of younger children, using the results of studies and research carried out at the University College, and (2) the teaching of specified secondary school subjects as exemplified by a short course for teachers of history on the desirability and problems of teaching West Indian history. As a result of the last-named course, the College's Department of Education produced a source book on West Indian history for use in the classroom. The 1957 Regional Conference on Teacher Training asked the University College to run more such courses in consultation with Government Education Departments, and envisaged the development of a more comprehensive system of in-service teacher training generally, in collaboration with the University College.[25]

Advisory assistance by the College's Department of Education to Teacher Training Colleges in formulating their programs, syllabuses, and examinations is exemplified by the cooperative program in British Honduras and Jamaica whereby staff members of that Department have worked with governmental and institutional representatives in certain phases of this work. One of the recommendations of the 1957 Teacher Training Conference was that, while the University College should not take over the function of examining students in Teacher Training Colleges and of issuing teaching certificates, it "should offer advice on the training of teachers, and assessment of the work of training colleges, on request and with full consultation."[26] The Conference also recommended that the UCWI should assist in the writing of a manual on the training of teachers to guide those so engaged. Among the other functions it recommended for a new Institute of Education at the UCWI was assistance in the development of a regional system of qualifications for teachers.

The generally comprehensive nature of the consultative and advisory work of the University College's Education Department is

[25] *Ibid.*, p. 31.
[26] *Ibid.*, p. 25.

illustrated by a tour of certain of the West Indian Territories undertaken by a staff member in 1959. This involved (1) consultative services on future programs of study at the new Leeward Islands Teacher Training College at Golden Grove in Antigua and at Erdiston Training College in Barbados; (2) the conducting of two courses for head teachers in Dominica; and (3) the planning of a 10-week-summer training course in Grenada on the teaching of young children. The University College observed in connection with this tour that the different territories were making "more and more demands for help and advice in all aspects of education." It went on to state that the College's Education Department "was not yet staffed nor equipped to grant many of the requests, but it will obviously need to develop along lines which will enable such work to be carried on as an organised and systematic contribution to education in the West Indies."[27] A further example of the service role of the University College's Department of Education is the assistance it can render the Federal Government of the West Indies in advising the latter and representing it at conferences on educational matters. Thus, the head of the College's Education Department and the Federal Education Adviser served as the Federation delegates to the British Commonwealth Education Conference in July 1959, the UCWI having been asked by the Federal Government to nominate one representative.[28]

Community Service Activities

Various community service activities and projects of the University College and its staff members in fields other than education also give evidence of its role in helping meet practical community needs. These are in addition to activities falling under the Extra-Mural Department of the College, which are discussed in the next chapter.

Among examples of such activities reported in the issues of the UCWI *Newsletter* in 1959 May cited the following: (1) research projects by the College's Chemistry Department on medicinal plants of Jamaica, the refining of salt from sea water, and improved methods of making charcoal (the principal fuel for family cooking in the Caribbean); (2) a 1-day refresher course on Diabetic Management sponsored by the College's Department of Medicine and Teaching Hospital; (3) a 5-week Seminar at the College on Economic Development in the Caribbean area as a whole, which was co-sponsored by the College and the Economic Development Institute of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development and

[27] UCWI *Newsletter*, No. 278, Apr. 6, 1959.
[28] UCWI *Newsletter*, No. 290, June 29, 1959.

attended by representatives from various Caribbean area republics and territories; (4) the undertaking of a project to survey and preserve West Indian archival records, under a grant from the Rockefeller Foundation; (5) participation by physicians and medical staff members from the College's Teaching Hospital in medical meetings and conferences in British Guiana and British Honduras; and (6) the holding of a Creole language studies conference, of special import to certain British and non-British Caribbean territories, under a grant from the Rockefeller Foundation.

CHAPTER VIII

Adult Education

ADULT EDUCATION in the British Caribbean areas is being interpreted for the purposes of this chapter as including various programs of education and training for persons beyond elementary school age who are unable or do not desire to attend a full-time program of instruction at a regular institution of secondary or higher learning, or who having had such instruction require or desire further specialized education. Such programs may vary in scope and level of instruction from literacy training for adults to university level classes on an extension basis. They may include such different types of instruction as basic education in health and dietary practices for persons living in underdeveloped rural areas, vocational training for apprentices and others in evening or part-time classes at technical institutes or elsewhere, and specially designed advanced courses or seminars for specialists. In short, for our purposes here, they include all the various programs embraced under the headings of Community, Literacy, adult, and Fundamental Education.

There are a number of agencies, institutions, and groups in the British Caribbean territories carrying on activities in the broad field of adult education in this sense. The growing interest in such education is also evidenced by the fact that it has been dealt with at several conferences. Of particular interest was the First Caribbean Seminar on Adult Education sponsored by various agencies and institutions in Jamaica, as well as by UNESCO and the British Council, which was held in Jamaica in September 1952. Attending the Conference were representatives not only from the British Caribbean territories, but also from Puerto Rico, Surinam, Martinique, Haiti, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Panama, UNESCO, FAO, the Caribbean Commission, and the West Indies Development and Welfare Organization. The broad view of adult education as envisaged at the Seminar was evidenced by its statement that "education must be considered as one means of community development and Adult Education as a term including a variety of agencies of social and economic improvement." It noted that "this comprehensive view of Adult Education was reflected in the composition of the Seminar, which included members of the clergy, doctors, agri-

culturists, and librarians, as well as social workers and educationalists." [1] The underlying premise of the Conference was that attention to and expenditure on Adult Education must not await the establishment of universal schooling, despite the recognized need for a vast expansion of regular schooling facilities.

Other Conferences which considered and emphasized the role of adult education in the Caribbean generally but drew heavily in reaching their conclusions on experiences and examples of developments in British territories were the aforementioned Caribbean Commission sponsored Joint Conference on Education and Small Scale Farming in 1954, and the Sixth Session of the West Indian Conference in 1955. The documentation prepared by a UNESCO Consultant on Community and Adult Education in the Caribbean also will be recalled in this connection.

In addition to evening and part-time technical and trade training for workers in Technical Institutes, which has already been discussed, specific examples of other forms of adult education will make clear the variety of activities underway in recent years.

UCWI Department of Extra-Mural Studies

The University College of the West Indies' Department of Extra-Mural Studies has been carrying on almost from the inception of the College a program of adult education. This has included not only instructional programs for adult learning and self-improvement, but also seminars, lecture courses, and the like, intended to consider and help solve some of the practical and immediate problems in the British West Indian community. As its name implies, the Extra-Mural Department functions outside the regular residential degree programs of the University College. It operates in each of the British Caribbean territories in somewhat the manner of a university extension program in the United States, but with some differences.[2]

Designed to bring the University to the people and to develop leadership in meeting the everyday needs and problems of British West Indian society, the Department is organized under a Director, who has full professional status. It includes Staff Tutors, or Department Heads, in Industrial Relations, Radio Education, Drama, and Social Work, working out of the Mona campus. The field staff consists of 7 Resident Tutors, one for each of the British Caribbean territories, except that the Windward and Leeward

[1] *The First Caribbean Seminar on Adult Education, 1953*, p. 3.

[2] A detailed description of the activities of the Extra-Mural Department is found in J. R. Kidd, *Adult Education in the Caribbean: The Extra-Mural Department of the University College of the West Indies* (Multilithed, 1958).

Island groups have Resident Tutors for each of the two groups as a whole. These Resident Tutors are in charge of the entire Extra-Mural Program in their respective territories. In addition the Resident Tutor serves as a liaison point between the UCWI and prospective full-time students in each territory, in such matters as supplying information on the College, conducting scholarship and entrance examinations, and holding interviews with prospective students. In each territory or group of territories there is a Territorial Advisory Committee for Extra-Mural Studies, composed of local educational, governmental, and community leaders, to advise the Resident Tutor on program needs in the particular territory. The main elements in the program include (1) for adults generally, instruction through lectures, discussion groups, short courses, the use of radio, and formal classes at various levels of instruction, embracing in some territories preparation for the examinations for the School and Higher Certificate and the General Certificate of Education, as well as for the external examinations for degrees of British Universities, and (2) special courses, projects, and activities to meet the needs of groups which have responsibilities for leadership, such as teachers, civil servants, extension workers, trade union officials, and others.[8]

Some idea of the specific nature of the activities of the Department of Extra-Mural Studies in one field—education—has already been indicated in the discussion of work undertaken in collaboration with the University College's Department of Education. A listing of some of the other activities of Extra-Mural Department in the weekly *Newsletter* of the University College in 1959 makes clear their wide nature and scope. Included among the many activities so listed were the following undertakings which the Department conducted or co-sponsored, or in which it participated:

1. Preparation by the Department's Radio Education Unit of a Catalogue of Programs available for broadcast or for playing on tape recordings.
2. The Annual Dance and Drama Festival held in British Honduras under Department sponsorship, followed by a short course in dramatic production by the Department's Staff Tutor in Drama.
3. A program of some 40 regular classes in various subjects to be offered in Jamaica by the Department, with the level of instruction ranging from introductory to external degree (University of London) standard.
4. In cooperation with the Teachers' Association of St. Kitts, a 4 day Conference of Primary and Secondary School teachers on the theme "Education for West Indian Citizenship."
5. A 4-day exhibition in Trinidad showing in Sculpture the story of the steel band, accompanied by lectures, including one on "A National Culture in Formation."

[8] UCWI *Calendar, 1958–59*, p. 17.

6. A series of lectures in Trinidad under the title of "The Federal Principle," the first two being given by the American historian, Prof. Henry Steele Commager of Columbia University.
7. The Fourth Residential Summer Course in Public and Business Administration at the University College for leaders in government and business in the various territories.
8. Participation by the Department in a 6-week Summer Seminar at the University College, under the sponsorship of the Canadian and UCWI branches of the World University Service on the "West Indies" in Transition: the Implications of Political Independence," with study tours to various Caribbean territories at the termination of the Seminar.
9. A summer course in Small Farm Economics for officers of the Jamaican Yallahs Valley Land Authority and selected farmers in that area.
10. Participation by the newly appointed Staff Tutor in Social Work in a Juvenile Delinquency Seminar in British Honduras and in planning a training course for urban social welfare workers; the Staff Tutor was also authorized to attend, under sponsorship of the U. S. Government's International Cooperation Administration, a meeting of the Council of Social Work Education in the United States, and to visit U. S. University Schools of Social Work.
11. Organization of a series of Shakespearian plays by the Staff Tutor in Drama, developed principally for secondary schools having students planning to be examined on these plays on their certificate examinations.
12. Short Seminars and courses for public health nurses and hospital supervisors on various problems in public health and hospital services.
13. A special course on English language for postmen in Trinidad, at the request of the Postmen's Section of the Civil Service Association of Trinidad and Tobago.
14. A residential Workshop in Jamaica for artists from the British Caribbean territories.
15. A 5-day Conference on Labor Education at the Mona campus for labor leaders from all the British Caribbean territories, as well as cooperation by the Staff Tutor in Industrial Relations in drawing up plans in individual territories for special training courses in trade union activities.
16. Participation in a weekend Conference on Adult Education in Jamaica.
17. Organization of an evening class program for Trinidad and Tobago for 1959–60 which was to emphasize education for the adult student at a general level, rather than tutorial classes for students studying for external degrees.
18. Organization of courses in Barbados, St. Vincent, and Dominica on Political Problems of the Caribbean, Public Administration, and oral Spanish and French.
19. A 10-day residential course entitled "Agricultural Communications" for branch organizers of the Jamaica Agricultural Society and 4-H Club officers.
20. A short course entitled "Parliamentary Procedure," with the emphasis on committee procedure, organized in Jamaica for YWCA and YMCA

leaders, Cooperative and Credit Union employees, teachers, and representatives of the Jamaica Library Service.

21. A 6-week lecture course in Trade and Tariffs for members of the Trinidad and Tobago Junior Chamber of Commerce, including discussion of problems of underdeveloped areas and West Indian Customs Union and Industrial Development.
22. Organization in Jamaica of a series of classes on music appreciation.

Jamaica Social Welfare Commission

In addition to the Extra-Mural work of the University College of the West Indies, there are throughout the British Caribbean various projects attuned to adult and community education at what may be termed the "grassroots" level. Jamaica may perhaps be regarded as having taken the lead in this respect. Several governmental, quasi-governmental, and voluntary projects have been underway for some years in activities of this nature. In recent years these have consisted of the activities of the Jamaica Social Welfare Commission, the Sugar Industry Labour Welfare Board, the Jamaica Agricultural Society, and other bodies.[4]

To discuss only one of these agencies, the Jamaica Social Welfare Commission is a quasi-governmental body which began as a private organization, Jamaica Welfare Limited, in 1937. It is today a statutory body authorized by and drawing its revenue from the Jamaican Government, but operating largely as an autonomous agency. It has carried on a program of social and community development through stimulation of the concept of guided self-help and the organization of community organization and councils to this end, largely in rural areas. The work has developed along four main lines: cooperatives, community education, cottage industries, and mobile cinema units. In community education the program has covered a wide variety of educational training activities for adults geared to practical living. These activities have included literacy training, home economics, handicrafts, drama and recreation, audiovisual aids, and programs in other fields.

A word regarding illiteracy and literacy training in Jamaica and the British Caribbean generally may be said at this point. The Social Welfare Commission has carried on this training in Jamaica as an integral part of community education in diet, health, recreation, and functional living generally. It is the principal agency in the British Caribbean concerning itself with this problem. One problem in Jamaica and elsewhere appears to be the loss or lapsing of literacy by those who, on leaving the elementary school with at least some degree of literacy, cease to read for various reasons, in-

[4] Adult Education on Jamaica, *The Caribbean*, 11: 271-273, July 1958.

cluding a lack of materials related to their daily living. There is a paucity of factual statistical data in this matter in most of the territories, and little organized literacy training work. For this and other reasons it appears that published figures on illiteracy ratios may be low. Such figures on the illiteracy rate in the population 15 years of age and older in the several territories are as follows (all figures are as of the 1946 census, except for Jamaica, where they are taken from the 1943 census[5]) : Barbados, 8.9 percent; British Guiana, 24.1 percent; British Honduras, 18.9 percent; Jamaica, 27.6 percent; Leeward Islands, 19.2 percent; Trinidad and Tobago, 26.2 percent; and Windward Islands, 34.3 percent.

In connection with the problem of adult literacy in the British Caribbean area and the role of the Jamaica Social Welfare Commission, the Commission's Literacy Section sponsored a Caribbean Seminar on Literacy in collaboration with the Extra-Mural Department of the University College of the West Indies early in 1960. The Seminar considered the need for adult literacy in various Caribbean territories, exchanged information on existing projects, and suggested methods of carrying out programs. Delegates from all the British Caribbean territories, as well as from Netherlands and French Caribbean areas, Puerto Rico, Panama, and Mexico were invited.[6]

Other Programs

In certain territories the British Council, an arm of the British Government designed to promote a knowledge of the United Kingdom and to conduct programs of cultural relations, has carried on various adult education activities. In British Guiana, for example, it co-sponsored with the Extra-Mural Department of the University College in 1957 a symposium on Adult Education in British Guiana. This brought together representatives of governmental, business, and other agencies engaged in various forms of adult education, and resulted in 1958 in the organization of the Adult Education Association of British Guiana.

The aims and objectives of the Association, as stated in its Constitution and Rules, are (1) to help to stimulate all forms of adult education, and to provide a channel through which needs may be expressed and an organization through which they can be met; (2) to provide a means of liaison and coordination between all organizations and persons concerned with forms of adult education, including cooperation between government departments and voluntary bodies; (3) to give whatever help may be appropriate

[5] UNESCO, *World Survey of Education, II: Primary Education*, p. 1179 ff.
[6] UCWI *Newsletter*, No. 315, Dec. 21, 1959.

and possible to member organizations providing adult education; (4) to take steps to ensure that provision of adult education is made where none exists; (5) to encourage adult education by radio; (6) to encourage discussion of problems and methods among adult education workers, voluntary and professional; (7) to maintain a register of teachers and tutors of adult classes and study groups; (8) to encourage training of group leaders and adult teachers and to arrange training courses; and (9) to stimulate the provision and use of reading material for adult study.

It may be noted that British Guiana has had in recent years a combined Community Development and Ministry of Education. As one type of adult and community education activities in that territory, the Ministry has carried on certain programs of this nature in several Community Development Pilot Projects, which were undertaken in collaboration with the United States Government's International Cooperation Administration.

In Barbados a substantial program of evening classes in academic and practical subjects has been sponsored by the Barbados Evening Institute, an arm of the Education Department, and there are also community education projects, carried on in a number of community centers. In Antigua provision has been made under the overall guidance of the Ministry of Social Services for the organization of village community councils of private citizens in each village. The functions of these councils have embraced various types of community development services and activities, including projects designed to foster "the social and educational well being of the inhabitants of the villages."

In Trinidad the Education Extension Service, which previously formed a unit in the Education Department and conducted a wide program of community education services, was transferred, more or less simultaneously with the inauguration of the Government's 5-Year Development Program for 1958–62, to the Department of Social Services.[7] It has been renamed the Community Development Service, and its functions have been broadened in scope. The 5-Year Development Program proposed various projects of Community Education as part of larger plans of Community Development and Adult Education. Included was a project for a Community Education Centre, to serve in the production and distribution of educational materials and the training of workers in this field. It is considered as one of the Program's most significant contributions to adult education. The long-range development plans and programs of other territories likewise contain provision for various adult and community education projects.

[7] Government of Trinidad and Tobago, *Five Year Development Programme, 1958–1962*, p. 39; *Report of the Education Department, 1956*, p. 23.

Part III

Netherlands and French Affiliated Areas

CHAPTER IX

Netherlands Areas

EDUCATIONAL TRENDS in the Netherlands Antilles and Surinam are similar in many respects, and many of the same problems and needs are apparent. On the other hand, there are certain differences stemming largely from geographic, economic, social, and cultural factors. For the most part the 95 percent of the population of the Netherlands Antilles living on the islands of Curaçao and Aruba are oriented to an industrial-urban-commercial way of life based largely on one industry—petroleum refining. The majority of the population of Surinam is dependent upon agriculture for a livelihood and lives in rural areas. This is so despite the fact that the bauxite industry accounts for some 83 percent of the value of Surinam's exports and about 75 percent of governmental revenues, and that there is drift of the Surinam population to the commercial and governmental center of Paramaribo, the capital, and to the bauxite mining centers.

Similarities and Differences

Both the Netherlands Antilles and Surinam have the problem of widely used languages other than the official tongues employed as the media of instruction. The latter are Dutch in Surinam and the Netherlands Antilles Leeward Islands, and English in the latter country's Windward Islands, where Dutch is learned as a foreign language and is increasingly used in the upper elementary grades as the language of instruction. In the Leeward Islands the vernacular is Papiamento, which is based on Spanish, Portuguese, Dutch, and other tongues. In Surinam various languages are commonly spoken, including Taki-Taki, the *lingua franca* of the country, and several Asiatic tongues which reflect the diverse racial and cultural origin of the population. The policy of instructing in the official language has been pursued in both countries as one of the means of creating national unity through the schools, others being prohibitions against school segregation for reasons of race or religion.

In both the Antilles and Surinam this policy has necessitated making students from non-Dutch-speaking homes bilingual at the earliest possible age. To meet this problem there have been estab-

lished in both countries two sets of schools, for children from Dutch- and non-Dutch-speaking homes. Teachers are sought who can converse with students in the latters' respective native languages, a qualification which is not common. As one means of meeting this need in the Netherlands Antilles, evening classes in Papiamento are offered under the adult education and extension program for teachers and others who do not have this facility. In Surinam there are additional problems in providing education for those of Asiatic origin, whose cultural practices differ from those of the Occident. Many of them live in rural areas and are largely unintegrated with other groups.

In both the Netherlands Antilles and Surinam the organizational patterns and structure of education are based on those of the Netherlands, with variations and adaptations resulting from local conditions. Both countries face the problem of a rapidly increasing population and demand for education, with a limitation on the financial resources available for the purpose. Each of these "statutory partners" in the Kingdom of the Netherlands, enjoying co-equal political status with the Netherlands proper, is responsible for financing its own educational facilities and receives no regular assistance in this respect from the Mother country. Because of its more favorable economic situation, the Netherlands Antilles is able to devote to education a higher percentage of government funds and a higher expenditure per capita than is Surinam.

In both the Netherlands Antilles and Surinam education is, as in the British affiliated Caribbean territories, a joint venture of the Government and private organizations, the latter being largely religious bodies. The Government contributes on the same basis to the costs of public and aided private schools. In the Netherlands Antilles this may include some contributions to capital expenditures, while in Surinam it generally does not. The preponderance of schools in the Antilles are church-affiliated and the vast majority of these are Catholic. In Surinam there is a sizeable minority of Government schools and most denominational schools are either Catholic or Moravian Brothers (Protestant) in affiliation. General programs of study and Government inspection are identical for public and government-supported schools.

Both the Netherlands Antilles and Surinam have the objective of affording the opportunity of 6 years of elementary education for all. Whereas it is generally accepted that practically all children of elementary school age (6–12) are enrolled in school in the Antilles, it was estimated in 1955 by an official Surinam source that somewhat more than 20 percent of schoolage children in that country, principally in rural areas, were receiving no formal education owing

to a lack of schools, overcrowded conditions, unstable family situations, and the use of child labor in agriculture.[1] Nevertheless, prior to that date the enrollment ratio of children of school age had steadily increased in recent decades. It appears that this ratio has further increased since 1955, as a result of the construction of new schools to the full extent funds permit under Surinam's 10-Year Development Plan. The problem is the familiar one of a sizeable increase each year in the schoolage population and the difficulty of adding facilities fast enough to meet the need for additional classrooms and to replace outworn buildings.

In the Netherlands Antilles education for those of elementary school age is not compulsory, while in Surinam it is for those of the 7 to 12 age group. Legally, this obligation may be met by parents in their own way, not necessarily through school enrollment. In any case, it has been unenforceable in certain localities because of the deficiency of classrooms. Some separate schools have been established in Surinam, largely by religious groups, for education of the Bush Negroes and Amerindians (indigenous American Indians) of the interior. The Bush Negroes are the descendants of former slaves who escaped to the interior where they set up their own villages and community life. The Government has continued to permit their autonomous existence. Schools for these groups provide a basic education for children and adults.

Both the Netherlands Antilles and Surinam have the problem of a shortage of teachers and facilities for training them. Surinam has several separate teacher-training institutions at the secondary level, while the Antilles trains teachers, as discussed later, in a separate program of the secondary schools. In both countries there are growing demands for additional secondary and vocational education, still in their infancy. Facilities for higher education are generally lacking both, though Surinam has a law school and a medical school at this level giving certain training. Those desiring higher education in both countries usually try to win government or other scholarships for study in the Netherlands. Adult Education is relatively new, both areas having initiated evening classes of instruction. In Surinam, a Director of Adult Education was appointed in 1958 to supervise a new Department in that field. With its rural and hinterland areas and its diverse racial and cultural groups, Surinam has also begun activity in community education and development.

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[1] "The Social and Economic Background of Education in Surinam and the Netherlands Antilles," *Education Generally and in Relation to Economic and Community Development*, Caribbean Commission, WIC/6, Document No. 2 (Trinidad, 1955), p. 7.

Educational Pattern in the Netherlands Antilles

Because of its special situation in the Caribbean area, the Netherlands Antilles is proposed for somewhat more detailed consideration of its educational trends here. The geographic, economic, and social background of the educational problems and needs of Surinam is, in certain respects, similar to that of its adjoining neighbor, British Guiana. The Netherlands Antilles, on the other hand, is unique among the European affiliated Caribbean areas in being the only one that has developed the largely industrial-urban-commercial economy previously mentioned. It also represents an interesting combination of centralization and decentralization in the administration of education, as compared with the centralized system of Surinam. It is largely for these reasons that of the two Netherlands affiliated areas, we have chosen the Antilles for more detailed consideration. At the same time it is recognized that the same basic Dutch structural pattern of education present in the Antilles is also found in Surinam and that from this point of view and others, much of what will be said about education in the Antilles has its counterpart in Surinam.

Economic Background

The modern development of education in the Netherlands Antilles begins with the economic transformation brought about by the establishment of the petroleum refining industry in the 2d and 3d decades of the 20th century. Prior to that time opportunities for more than a subsistence living were few. The natural resources and wealth of the Antilles were limited, with agriculture being almost entirely precluded on Curaçao and Aruba by reason of the semi-arid climate and the rocky soil. Government revenues from local sources were not sufficient to meet the budget, and the Netherlands Government was obliged to make up the deficit. Only small sums were available for education, which remained in a generally underdeveloped state.

As a result of the establishment of large petroleum refineries on Curaçao (1916) and on Aruba (1929), economic and social conditions changed. Employment opportunities in Curaçao and Aruba resulted in a large influx of population from many sources, and the other Dutch islands of the Caribbean were drained of much of their labor force. As of January 1958, the population of the Antilles as a whole was estimated at about 190,000, of which some 95 percent, as noted, were found in Curaçao and Aruba. Only 3,700, or not quite 2 percent of the total Antillean population, remained in the Netherlands Windward Islands as of that date, with the remaining 3 percent on Bonaire.

One of the specific effects of the development of the oil industry was a drastic increase in personal and governmental income. By 1924 the government budget of the Antilles area as a whole was balanced from local revenues, and it became possible to begin making more substantial provision for education. At the same time, the continuing increase in the population posed problems in keeping facilities abreast of the demand for education. Various types of buildings were converted into schools, and new schools have been built at an accelerated pace, particularly since World War II. There remains a difference between the facilities of schools in the central and the outlying areas of Curaçao and Aruba. The Windward Islands and Bonaire with their generally underdeveloped economies are largely dependent for the provision of educational facilities upon the financial resources of Curaçao and Aruba. The agricultural, livestock, and small industry and handicraft nature of their economies poses a different problem in meeting educational needs than do those of Curaçao and Aruba. Overall, the result of the Antilles' economic development has been to provide sufficient facilities to enable practically all children to obtain a 6-year elementary education.

Administration

With respect to the administration of education, governmental responsibilities are divided between the central Government of the Netherlands Antilles and the Governments of its component island-territories. Articles 139 and 140 of the Netherlands Antilles Constitution of 1955 give the Antilles Government general power and control over education. Article 139 states that "The National Government shall continuously spread enlightenment and culture and promote the arts and sciences." Article 140 contains several provisions on the educational powers of the Antilles central Government, including the following:

> Education shall be a subject of constant care of the National Government.
>
> Public Education shall be regulated by National ordinance with due respect to individual religious beliefs.
>
> Adequate public general elementary education shall be provided by the Government in an adequate number of schools. By national ordinance certain deviations from this provision may be permitted in connection with the financial position of the Territory.

Despite the general constitutional authority which the central Government may exercise over education, the granting of island autonomy in the Netherlands Antilles, to which reference was made in the first chapter, set the pattern for the partial decentralization of educational administration. In 1953 the educational ordinance

of 1935 for the Antilles as a whole was amended so as to delegate to the island-territory Governments responsibility for a wide area of educational administration and financing in their respective territories. Included among the educational functions of the insular governments are the initial and primary responsibility for enforcing all educational laws, the construction of schools, the appointment and retirement of public-school teachers, the payment of all teachers whether in public or private schools, and in general the day-to-day operation and administration of government functions and responsibilities in education. The Antilles Government retains for itself the authority to prescribe basic educational legislation, and through the Ministry of Education, the supervision, or inspection, of all schools, the organization of examinations, and the ultimate enforcement of all educational legislation and national regulations. Thus, in practice it may be said that the national government has the legal authority to exercise basic and ultimate control over education in the Netherlands Antilles, while day-to-day administration falls to the island-territory Governments. The authority of the central Government is exercised through the Ministry of Education and National Culture, and each island-territory carries out its educational responsibilities through an Education Section or Department in the local Government.

Governmental financial responsibility for education is regarded as primarily that of the insular Governments. The central Government makes contributions for school construction and operating costs, particularly for Bonaire and the Windward Islands, where it was supplying most of the funds for educational purposes in 1958. In the more affluent island-territories of Curaçao and Aruba, about 50 percent and 30 percent of the respective insular government budgets were going for education at that time.[2] On the basis of these percentages and official estimates of revenues and expenditures of the central Government and of the Governments of Curaçao and Aruba, it appears that some 25 to 30 percent of the combined central and insular government budgets were being devoted to education in the years 1955–57.

As noted, education in the Netherlands Antilles has been accepted as a joint responsibility of government and private agencies, the latter being principally religious bodies. This is largely a development of the 20th century. Prior to 1907 the barrier to government financial support for Catholic schools was almost insurmountable because of the "neutrality" article in educational legislation, which,

[2] Netherlands Antilles Government Information Service, *The Netherlands Antilles: Their Geography, History, and Political, Economic, and Social Development*, Second Edition (Curacao, 1958), p. 54.

as a condition for the award of government subsidies, required teachers to "refrain from teaching, doing or allowing anything incompatible with the respect due to the religious beliefs of others." [8] In that year a new educational ordinance came into effect which scrapped this article. Since 1907, and particularly since 1922, the scope of government subventions to private schools has been repeatedly widened, concurrently with the increase in public revenues available for education, but it was not until 1935 that a special educational ordinance established the system of equal subventions for private and government elementary education. This special ordinance has been amended and extended a number of times since then so that today private schools at all levels are supported almost entirely by public funds. The Constitution of the Netherlands Antilles of 1955 states in Article 140 that "Public and denominational education—the latter to the extent it fulfills the conditions established by national ordinance—shall be financed from public funds on an equal basis."

The same curriculums, programs of study, and general regulations are prescribed by governmental edict for private subsidized schools as for public schools, and the former are subject to the same general supervision and inspection. Teachers in public and aided private schools are regarded as belonging to the same system insofar as matters of qualifications, certification, salaries, and status are concerned. Appointment and dismissal of teachers are the responsibility of the body or agency actually operating the particular school, with similar standards and administrative procedures generally followed for teachers in public and aided private schools to ensure similar treatment. The legal basis for these regulations is found in provisions of Article 140 of the Netherlands Antilles Constitution, which reads as follows:

> Anyone has the right to provide educational services, subject to government inspection in accordance with national ordinance, and to examination of the ability and morality of the teachers under national ordinance.
>
> The required high standards of education to be paid entirely or in part from public funds shall be regulated by national ordinance with due observance to freedom of belief so far as denominational education is concerned.
>
> These required high standards for general elementary education shall be set in such a manner that proper education at denominational schools which is entirely paid from public funds and at public schools shall be equally well guaranteed. Such regulation shall specifically respect the freedom of the denominational schools in the choice of educational means and the appointment of teachers.

[8] UNESCO, *World Survey of Education, II*, p. 754.

School Enrollment Increase

Total school enrollment has steadily increased in the Netherlands Antilles, as has the ratio of enrollment to total population, and as we shall see later, to school age population as well. Approximately 49,000 were enrolled in regular school programs (not including adult education) at the end of the calendar year 1957. This figure represented about 25 percent of the total population as compared with the 22 percent of the population enrolled in school in 1954, the 21 percent of 1958, the 17 percent of 1946, and the 13 percent of 1938. The increase in school enrollment during this period is evident from the following figures:

Year	Enrollment	Year	Enrollment
1938	13,771	1954	40,792
1946	25,457	1955	43,330
1951	35,446	1956	45,790
1952	37,268	1957	49,104
1953	39,166		

With respect to the division of enrollments between public and private schools, the vast majority of schools in the Netherlands Antilles are aided private schools, and they have enrolled a similar preponderant majority of the school population. At the end of 1959 about 78 percent of all schools were private institutions, most of these being Catholic in affiliation, thus reflecting the heavy preponderance of Catholics in the population. Between the years 1951 and 1957, inclusive, the proportion of total school enrollment attending Catholic institutions remained in the neighborhood of 75 percent. At the end of the latter year, of the total recorded school enrollment of about 49,100, some 37,000 were found in Catholic schools.[4]

Elementary Level

Education in the Netherlands Antilles has been almost exclusively kindergarten and elementary education. In the Dutch-oriented system of education found in the Antilles, the elementary system includes the basic elementary course of 6 or 7 years given in so-called GLO schools (*Gewoon Lager Onderwijs*, or Ordinary Elementary Education). Also forming part of the elementary education system is "continued elementary education" given in so-called

[4] Statistics given in this chapter are largely taken from and based on three sources. These are the UNESCO *World Survey of Education, II*, p. 754–759; Nederlandse Antillen, Bureau Voor de Statistiek, *Statistisch Jaarboek, 1957* (Netherlands Antilles, Bureau of Statistics, *Statistical Yearbook*, 1957); and the mimeographed report "Algemeen Overzicht Toestand op 31 december 1957" (General Summary as of December 31, 1957), issued by the Netherlands Antilles Ministry of Education and Culture. Additional figures were supplied directly by education officials in the Governments of the Netherlands Antilles and Curaçao.

ULO schools (*Uitgebreid Lager Onderwijs*), which offer the regular GLO program and add 1 or 2 years of education beyond this. In 1957–58, ULO schools were found only on St. Martin and Bonaire. Their place on Curaçao and Aruba was taken by the MULO schools (*Meer Uitgebreid Lager Onderwijs*, or Advanced Elementary Education) which provided 4 years of schooling beyond GLO education, sometimes in the same school buildings and sometimes in different buildings. Thus, the total number of years of education possible in 1957–58 in the elementary system in the Netherlands Antilles was 7 or 8 on all islands save Aruba and Curaçao, where it was 10. Of the total of some 49,000 enrolled in school at the end of 1957, over 47,000 were kindergarten, elementary, continued elementary, and advanced elementary students. The remainder were enrolled in institutions for secondary, vocational, and special education.

There has been a steady rise in the school enrollment ratio of those in the full elementary age group over the past 30 years. This rose from an average of 61 percent in the early 1930's to about 77 percent for the first half of the decade of the 1950's. These figures are based on estimates of the numbers in the 5 to 14 age group and enrollments in elementary, continued elementary, and advanced elementary schools. If we accept the statement that practically all of the 6 to 12 age group are enrolled in school, the figure of a lower enrollment ratio for the 5 to 14 age group as a whole must result from a sharp fall off in school enrollment after age 12. This is borne out by figures showing the limited number of those enrolled in classes (grades) 7 through 10 of the MULO schools from 1938 through 1956, as well as by the relatively small numbers of the post-12 age group enrolled in the 7th and 8th classes of the ULO schools and in the regular secondary and technical schools. As noted previously, school attendance is not compulsory in the Netherlands Antilles, and while this does not appear to be a deterrent to enrollment in the first 6 classes, or grades, the introduction of compulsory attendance has been contemplated "with a view to combatting early school leaving and thus developing the continued elementary schools."[5]

Education is free in the regular 6- and 7-year elementary, or so-called GLO-b, schools, and also in the 7- or 8-year ULO schools of Bonaire and St. Martin. GLO schools were listed until 1954 as GLO-a or GLO-b, for children from Dutch- and non-Dutch-speaking homes, respectively. For children in Curaçao, Aruba, and Bonaire, GLO-b schools were intended largely for children who came from homes where Papiamento was the spoken language. Begin-

[5] UNESCO, *World Survey of Education, II*, p. 754.

ning in 1954 GLO-a schools disappear from official education reports, and simultaneously there is a marked increase in the officially reported number of GLO-b schools and the number of students enrolled in such schools. It would appear that in Curaçao and Aruba those in the regular elementary age bracket (6–12) who are from Dutch-speaking homes generally attend those MULO schools that include instruction in classes, or grades, 1 through 6. MULO schools are not free, but a reduction in fees is made for each child a family has in school.

In the matter of curriculum and instructional materials, it has been recognized by those responsible for educational administration in the Netherlands Antilles—and in Surinam as well—that the adaptation of the system to the local environment is a problem of prime importance.[6] This is so despite the fact that at the 1955 session of the West Indian Conference, which dealt with education, the Netherlands Antilles delegation noted that it could not endorse the Conference recommendation that the Caribbean Commission establish the aforementioned clearing house for information regarding instructional material with Caribbean relevance, because the recommendation was not of importance to the Netherlands Antilles.[7] As noted in the earlier discussion of the situation in the Caribbean area generally, adaptations have been made in recent years in the Netherlands affiliated Caribbean areas with respect to relating teaching and instructional material to the local environment. In the Netherlands Antilles, for example, modifications in the teaching of reading, history, and geography reflect this trend, and the Government has financed the writing of textbooks related to the local scene. The same situation prevails in Surinam.

Generally speaking, the basic subjects taught in the elementary schools of the Netherlands Antilles are laid down in legislation and are those found in the Netherlands, but administrative boards of both public and private schools have a wide degree of freedom in fixing the specific content of the subjects to be taught. Aided private schools within each jurisdiction also have complete liberty in the choice of textbooks and teaching aids.[8] The common examinations given by the Antilles Education Ministry at the end of the MULO program, as well as those for entrance to secondary school, tend to bring about a basic unity in curriculum, even though annual promotion in the elementary system schools is in the hands of the school principal.

The same basic subjects are given in the first 6 classes, or grades, of all schools, regardless of whether these are GLO, ULO, or MULO

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6 *Ibid.*, p. 756.
7 Caribbean Commission, *West Indian Conference, Sixth Session*, p. 81.
8 UNESCO, *World Survey of Education, II*, p. 756.

schools. One manifestation of adapting the curriculum to local needs is the fact that foreign language study begins in the regular elementary grades, because of its importance in the life of the Antilles and the aforementioned fact that the formal education of many students is limited to 6 years. English and Spanish are widely used in the everyday commercial life of Curaçao and Aruba, and their study is generally begun in the 5th and 6th grades, respectively. As noted, in the Netherlands Windward Islands, where the language of instruction in the lower grades is English, Dutch is taught as a foreign language in the elementary schools.

In the 7th and 8th grades of the ULO and MULO schools French and some commercial subjects are added to the curriculum. The MULO schools also include in the 7th through the 10th grades mathematics beyond arithmetic, sciences, typing, shorthand, training for Government positions, and German, which may be substituted for Spanish, though most students take the latter. The MULO program is divided into two principal streams known as MULO-A and MULO-B, plus a special supplementary course in mathematics and physics. The MULO-A program includes in addition to general education subjects, courses in preparation for commercial or government employment. The MULO-B program emphasizes general education with a scientific bent, and it and the supplementary course in mathematics and physics serve, for example, as preparation for further technical training at the special vocational school in Curaçao (discussed below). At the end of the MULO course a common examination for all students in each stream is given by the Netherlands Antilles Ministry of Education to obtain the MULO Diploma. The Diploma is recognized in the Netherlands as the equivalent of that issued to those leaving its MULO schools.

The major function of the MULO schools of Curaçao and Aruba as a source of personnel for commercial and governmental positions is seen in figures for recent years on those completing the MULO programs. A heavy majority took the examinations for the MULO-A, or commercial, diploma. The following figures on those completing the 3 programs in given years indicate the trend:

Year	Diploma A	Diploma B	Mathematics and physics supplementary program
1960	18	5	----------
1961	102	27	2
1962	194	5	1
1963	166	11	----------
1964	197	3	----------
1965	222	10	3
1966	268	12	3
1967	278	14	5
	332	24	3

Secondary level

Full secondary education is in its beginning stages in the Netherlands Antilles. According to an official statement of the Netherlands Antilles Government, "during the Second World War it became impossible to continue the practice of sending gifted pupils to Holland to further their studies * * * and so secondary education was introduced."[9] In 1946 such education was given in one school on Curaçao to 87 students. One additional school was added by 1950 and a third a year later. Aside from certain facilities for vocational education which are discussed later, these three schools in Curaçao constitute the total number of Dutch-type institutions in the Netherlands Antilles for education at this level. There is also an American-type high school established in 1931 in Aruba by the petroleum refining company primarily for children of its employees. The latter institution, known as the Lago Community School, is accredited by the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in the United States.

Of the three secondary schools in Curaçao, one is a coeducational public institution, the ultra-modern Peter Stuyvesant College, and two are government-aided Catholic institutions, the Radulphus College principally for boys and the Maria Immaculata College for girls. Combined enrollment figures for these three schools since 1951 are as follows:

Year	Total	Year	Total
1951	470	1955	611
1952	492	1956	698
1953	539	1957	823
1954	576	1958	[1] 1,078

[1] Estimate.

For the last 2 of these years the breakdown of the total enrollment by institution and sex is as follows:

1957

Institution	Boys	Girls	Total
Peter Stuyvesant	166	144	310
Radulphus	255	—	255
Maria Immaculata	—	258	258
Total	421	402	823

1958[1]

Peter Stuyvesant	175	175	350
Radulphus	325	3	328
Maria Immaculata	—	400	400
Total	500	578	1,078

[1] Estimated total.

[9] "The Social and Economic Background of the Problem," *Education Generally and in Relation to Economic and Community Development*, op. cit., p. 8.

Entrance to these schools is by examination given by the Antilles Ministry of Education on completion of regular elementary education (6 or 7 years of schooling), and fees are charged. These schools give several different programs of study which are the counterparts of programs offered in various types of secondary level schools in the Netherlands. There are three types of 5-year Higher Burger School (Hogere Burgerschool) programs, designated in abbreviation as H.B.S.–A, H.B.S.–B, and H.B.S.–C. Program A is given in the Language and Economics section or department of the secondary school. It emphasizes modern languages and commercial subjects and is generally regarded in the Netherlands Antilles as terminal, preparing for office positions. Program B offers concentration in sciences and mathematics and is generally regarded as university-preparatory for medicine, engineering, and scientific specializations. Program C is a general education-pedagogical course intended primarily for those who plan to teach in elementary schools and is followed by an additional 1-year course in teacher preparation; the combined 6-year program was stated in 1957–58 to offer the same subjects as those given in the longer program of a Netherlands teacher-training institution, or *Kweekschool*.

In addition to the Higher Burger School Programs, there have been a 5-year program of the Higher Commercial School (*Hogere Handelschool*, abbreviated as H.H.S.) and a 5-year special Secondary School Program for Girls (*Middlebaar Meisjeschool*, abbreviated as M.M.S.). The former has emphasized business-preparatory training and the latter home economics preparation for girls. In 1958–59 the Government secondary school confined its programs to the Higher Burger School Programs A, B, and C. The other two types of programs have been offered only at the Catholic institutions, along with Higher Burger School programs.

The following figures indicate the approximate numbers who have completed the final examinations in these programs for selected years from 1946 to 1957:[10]

Program	1946	1951	1952	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
H.B.S.–A	5	10	10	8	10	7	6	21
H.B.S.–B	14	13	24	24	19	20	19	26
H.B.S.–C (5 years)					22	23	11	
H.B.S.–C (6th year)		7	7	16	4	22	14	20
H.H.S.			9	13	12	12	10	
M.M.S.					7	7	10	10
Total	19	30	50	61	74	91	70	76

[10] These figures are compiled on the basis of statistics supplied in the aforementioned *Statistisch Jaarboek, 1957* and "Algemeen Oversicht." There are discrepancies in some cases in the two sources on statistics for the same year, and the figures given here represent an effort to reconcile these discrepancies. In some cases statistics appear to be missing. Though perhaps not completely accurate, it is believed the figures as compiled here portray the general situation.

These figures indicate that the numbers of those completing a full secondary education have shown a marked percentage increase since the late 1940's and early 1950's. At the same time they show that the total numbers for the most recent years given are modest in themselves and in comparison with the previously listed figures on total enrollments in the three secondary schools.

Vocational Training

The development of vocational education is in its beginning stages and is generally regarded by Government education leaders as one of the principal needs of the area. In the Netherlands Antilles, as elsewhere in the Caribbean area, one obstacle has been a popular preference for office and white-collar employment; and, as has been seen, education for such positions in business and government takes place in ULO, MULO, and full secondary schools. However, the increased demands for mechanical and trade skills of various kinds resulting from general economic development, particularly in Curaçao and Aruba, has expanded employment opportunities for those with such skills.

Regular vocational schools for boys increased in number from one in Curaçao in 1938 to three by the early 1950's, with the addition of such schools in Aruba and Bonaire. The school in Curaçao is a Catholic institution, while those in the other two mentioned islands are public. Students from the Netherlands Windward Islands may compete for scholarships to attend these schools. The enrollment in them grew from 193 in 1946 in the one school on Curaçao, to 899 in all three schools in the school year 1957–58. The programs of instruction in these schools are generally 3 years in length and require for admission the completion of 6 years of elementary education. The various skills in which instruction is given are shown in the breakdown of final examination fields for vocational school diplomas in recent years. Figures for Curaçao and Aruba for the year 1956 indicate, for example, that a total of 108 diplomas were granted in that year, divided as follows: machine bench hand, 26; motor mechanic, 40; electrician, 22; and carpenter, 20.

Generally included also in official statistics and information on government supported vocational education are 4 Catholic girls' schools offering specialization in home economics, which have been established in Aruba beginning in 1955. In the school year 1957–58 the total enrollment in these schools was 118.

The most advanced vocational education available in the Netherlands Antilles is given by schools of the petroleum companies in Curaçao and Aruba, in preparation for employment in their respective refining establishments. That of the aforementioned Curaçao

school offers 4 years of vocational training. It is an outgrowth of a company trade school opened in 1938 and reorganized and expanded into a regular vocational school in 1944. A training center for providing theoretical in addition to practical instruction was added in 1954.

The school accommodates about 325 students, and is divided into lower and upper divisions, each offering program of 2 years' duration. There are two lines of study—metal-technical and oil-technical. The latter is in turn divided into the two sub-categories of preparation for plant technician or laboratory technician. Entrance to the lower division program of each line of study is by examination at age 15½ to 17, following completion of at least 7 years of elementary (GLO) or combined elementary and continued elementary (GLO and ULO) education, or 6 years at a MULO school. On completion of the 2-year lower division course, those in the metal technician line continue in the upper division, where they may be joined by those of age 16 to 18½ who have received the diploma in one of the machine shop or metal trades in the previously mentioned 3-year vocational schools. Those in the oil-technical line completing the 2-year program of the lower division are eligible to obtain employment in the company plant. If they are among the top students of the lower division they may continue their training in the upper division, where they may be joined by those who have received the MULO–B diploma, or have completed the 3d year of the Higher Burger School program.

Both the metal-technical and the oil-technical programs of specialization include, in addition to technical subjects, some general education courses in Dutch language, mathematics, geography, social studies, health, and physiology. In the oil-technical program, physics and chemistry are also included. Those selected for the school attend as full-time students and are not regarded as employees or apprentices. They receive free tuition, as well as pocket money to help defray other expenses. Most of them accept employment in the company plant upon completion of the program. Approximately 10 percent are dropped along the way because of inability to keep up with the work or for other reasons.

In addition to the regular daytime program of the vocational school, the CPIM prvides various types of in-service training and courses for employees on an after-hours, part-time basis, in order to increase their specialist knowledge.

Teacher Training

The shortage of teachers is one of the recognized problems of the Netherlands Antilles. Practically all secondary teachers and most

vocational teachers have come from the Netherlands, as have many elementary teachers. Local education and training of teachers is in its beginning stages. There are no separate teacher-training institutions in the Antilles like the *Kweekschool* in the Netherlands. With the development of the three secondary schools in Curaçao, teachers for the elementary schools may pursue the Higher Burger School type C program, as discussed above, followed by 1-year of pedagogical training at the same institution. Completion of this combined program is the minimum requirement for securing a position as a qualified elementary teacher of the lowest class. Advance up the hierarchical ladder through several classes, until the top class of head teacher is reached, requires further study and examinations given by the Netherlands Antilles Education Ministry. This study is usually undertaken in evening or extension classes forming part of the general program of adult education discussed below.

These classes have also included special training for student and helping teachers who lack full education and training to become qualified teachers, but who assist qualified teachers in the classroom. A report prepared in June 1953 from official sources, for the 1955 UNESCO *World Survey of Education*, stated that in the Netherlands Antilles "the pupil-teacher system of training teachers prevails." [11] The UNESCO expert who assisted the Caribbean Commission in preparing for the earlier mentioned Joint Conference on Education and Small Scale Farming, held in 1954, likewise stated in his report on "Teacher Training in the Caribbean," prepared for that Conference, that "in the Netherlands Antilles there is considerable reliance upon the pupil-teacher system." [12] However, the recommendations of the 6th Session of the West Indian Conference in 1955 relating to the pupil-teacher system in the Caribbean area were among those to which the Netherlands Antilles delegation took exception, on the grounds that "the system was not known in its country." [13] And in 1957 the Caribbean Commission noted, apparently on the basis of information received from the Netherlands Antilles Government, that the pupil-teacher system had been abolished.[14]

Adult Education

The Netherlands Antilles has had underway in recent years activities in adult extension and continuation classes. In 1955 it was reported by the UNESCO expert who prepared for the Caribbean

[11] UNESCO, *World Survey of Education* (Paris, 1955), p. 465.
[12] Caribbean Commission, *Education in the Caribbean*, p. 30.
[13] Caribbean Commission, *West Indian Conference, Sixth Session, 1955*, p. 82.
[14] Caribbean Commission, *West Indian Conference, Seventh Session, 1957*, Appendix II (Trinidad, 1957), p. 7.

Commission the earlier study on adult education generally, that it had been felt unnecessary in the Netherlands Antilles to organize courses for adults in basic education. For example, he noted that it was reasonable to assume that illiteracy was no longer a problem, being confined to some aged persons who showed no desire to receive literacy training and to some illiterates among imported workers. At the same time, he noted the existence of courses of education extension for young people beyond elementary school age.[15] The numbers of those enrolled were limited at that time, the average being under 100 in the early years of the 1950's.[16]

The statistical and summary report of the Netherlands Antilles Education Ministry on education at the end of 1957 indicates an apparent expansion in this program. The program of evening classes was described as having two purposes: (1) vocational and specialized training, and (2) continued general education. In the former category, evening classes were being held, as previously noted, for student teachers for kindergartens, helping teachers for the elementary grades, regular teachers preparing for the examinations for promotion in the teaching hierarchy, and head teachers. Other courses were given in training for aircraft mechanics, electrical technicians, architects, surveyors, carpenters, customs officers, and government administrators. Teachers of both specialized and continuation evening classes were those giving similar instruction in the regular day schools of various levels and types.

[15] Howes, *op. cit.*, p. 28.
[16] UNESCO, *World Survey of Education, II*, p. 758.

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CHAPTER X

French Areas

IN THE FRENCH CARIBBEAN Departments of Martinique, Guadeloupe, and French Guiana—coequal since 1946 in legal and administrative status with the Departments of metropolitan France—education is being imparted to a population primarily African in its racial origins. Martinique and Guadeloupe are relatively small, heavily populated, tropical islands, the economies of which are dependent upon the export of sugar, rum, molasses, bananas, and pineapples. Their estimated combined population of over 500,000 in 1958, with Martinique having a little more than half the total, gave them an average density of about 520 persons to the square mile. Martinique alone had 685, one of the highest population densities in the Western Hemisphere, on an island of extremely mountainous terrain primarily agricultural in its economic base. It has, however, a heavy urban concentration in its capital and commercial center of Fort-de-France, which has about 25 percent of its total population.

By contrast to the two island Departments, French Guiana is a relatively large area almost completely undeveloped and unpopulated, except for the approximately 30,000 persons living in the coastal areas and the small numbers of native Amerindians and Bush Negroes (descendants of former escaped slaves) of the interior. French Guiana produces very little for export, though importing heavily to meet the needs of the inhabitants. Martinique and Guadeloupe, on the other hand, have a considerable export trade, though they have had an unfavorable balance of trade in recent years. All three areas are dependent upon government funds from metropolitan France to support their official budgets and services and their economies. It is generally accepted that the government revenues collected in the Caribbean Departments do not come close to meeting their costs of government, and that public services, including education, are maintained through outlays by the taxpayers of metropolitan France. One 1958 estimate was that the French Caribbean Departments were costing the Mother country the equivalent of about $25,000,000 a year.

Education in the three areas, as integral Departments of France, follows the same methods and principles as in France. The organi-

zational structure, programs of study, examinations, and all other facets of the educational system are those of France. The objective is complete assimilation, insofar as possible, to the metropolitan pattern, with such limited modifications or deviations permitted as are essential in the light of local conditions and needs. Thus, as noted by the French National Commission for UNESCO, it has been the purpose to provide in the French Overseas Departments a French education on the same basis and with the same curriculums in establishments of the same categories, as in the Mother country, even though it has not been possible financially to provide full physical facilities for all types of schooling.[1] In the Caribbean Departments, as in France, public education is free at all levels, and school attendance is legally compulsory between the ages of 6 and 14. This legal requirement has not been enforceable in some communities because of a lack of school facilities.

Administration and Financing of Education

The change in the status of the French Caribbean areas in 1946 to that of Departments of France had the effect of making educational administration conform in all essential respects to that of continental France. Prior to this change, education in Martinique, Guadeloupe, and French Guiana had been administered, along with other governmental functions, by the French Colonial Ministry. The full implementation of the constitutional provisions for Departmental status as applied to the administration of education has meant that since January 1, 1948, each of the Caribbean Departments has been attached to the *académie*, or educational region, of Bordeaux in metropolitan France and through it to the Ministry of National Education at Paris. The *Recteur* (Rector), or head, of the Bordeaux *académie* is represented in each of the French Caribbean areas by a Vice-Rector, or *inspecteur d'académie* (academy, or regional, inspector), usually appointed from metropolitan France, who acts as a local superintendent of schools for each of the Overseas Departments. Likewise, with the granting of Department status, the educational legislation and regulations of metropolitan France automatically became applicable to the Caribbean overseas Departments. Prior to this, legislation on education in France had to be made applicable in colonial areas by special decree, although in point of fact, the basic laws on education in metropolitan France were in force in the Caribbean areas long before 1946.[2]

With respect to funds for educational expenditures, the same principles apply in the French Caribbean Departments as in metropoli-

[1] UNESCO, *World Survey of Education, II*, p. 395.
[2] *Ibid.*, p. 404.

tan France. Thus, government responsibility for the financing of education is officially divided between the French national government, the Departmental governments, and the communes, or local governments. In practice, however, most of the costs of public education in the French Caribbean Departments are paid from the French national budget. The national government meets the entire expense of teachers' salaries, the principal item in current operating expenditures, as it also does in metropolitan France. The Departments and communes are supposed to bear most of the costs of building, upkeep, supplies, and furnishings, but their ability to do so varies from time to time and locality to locality, so that the greater part of the burden falls on the central government. The Departmental and local governments are also supposed to contribute substantially to school construction expenditure, but with the rapid growth in school-age population in recent years they have been unable to keep up with the needs. The result is that the central government, which is empowered to make grants to French communes of up to 85 percent of construction costs, has increased its share to the Caribbean Departments in recent years.

Generally speaking, Martinique has been regarded as being in the most favorable situation of the Caribbean Departments in recent years with respect to public expenditures on education. Its expenditures for recurrent costs in the year 1957–58 were in the neighborhood of 2,000,000,000 francs, or the equivalent of about $5,000,000.[3] This amounted to a per capita annual expenditure of the equivalent of about $20, based on an estimated population of 260,000 at that time, or the equivalent of roughly $80 per student. The bulk of the total went for teachers' salaries, paid by the national Government. With respect to amounts for capital expenditures, whereas the share of the national Government previously amounted to 45 percent to 60 percent, increases ranging up to the full 85 percent have been forthcoming in the case of many communes. The approximate dollar equivalents spent by the French national Government on school construction costs in Martinique in recent years are as follows (figures supplied in francs by the Vice-Rector of education for Martinique and converted to dollars on the basis of the official exchange rate):

1955	$145,000
1956	517,000
1956 (temporary construction)	400,000
1957	500,000
1958	145,000

Thus, as regards both current and capital expenditues, all but a small proportion of educational costs in Martinique is paid by the

[3] Education in Martinique, *The Caribbean*, 11: 128, January 1958.

central French Government in Paris. The island's own resources would fall far short of providing the educational facilities available.

As contrasted with the situation in the British and Netherlands affiliated Caribbean areas, education in the French Caribbean Departments is primarily public education. Most schools are government schools, though there are a few Catholic schools. In French Guiana the private clerical schools are relatively more significant than they are in the island Departments. In the Caribbean Departments, as in metropolitan France, inspection of private schools has been limited to ensuring compliance with certain legal regulations and has not generally extended to methods and content of instruction. However, to obtain the certificates or diplomas granted by the public authorities, which are generally required for a wide variety of employment, professional, and further educational purposes, those pursuing studies at private schools must take the same examinations as public school students on completion of different stages of schooling. This has the effect of making for similar curriculums in private and public schools.

Educational Pattern in Martinique

Of the three French Caribbean Departments Martinique is the most developed in its educational facilities generally. It is, therefore, the intention here to view educational trends in the French areas largely through more specific attention to that island. Generally speaking, the same trends are also evident in Guadeloupe and French Guiana, although there are certain variations from the Martiniquan pattern.

Population and Enrollment Increase

The essential statistical fact for education in Martinique is the accelerated rate of school-age population growth and school enrollment since 1950.[4] The annual number of births increased from 6,500 in 1944 to 10,800 in 1958, at the same time that the infant mortality rate was substantially falling. It was pointed out by the Martinique Vice-Rector in 1959 that the adult population 20 years of age and over was not much greater then than it had been in 1900. In 1957 more than half the total estimated population of about 260,000 were stated to be less than 20 years of age. Viewing this population growth another way, one sees that the number of those in the legal

[4] Statistics in this chapter relating to educational needs and trends are taken largely from three sources, supplemented by material supplied directly by educational officials in Martinique in 1958–59. The three published sources are (*a*) "Education in Martinique," *op. cit.*, which is a report prepared for the 7th Session of the West Indian Conference in 1957; (*b*) Inspection Academique de la Martinique, "Tableaux Statistiques de l'Enseignement Public et Prive dans la Departement de la Martinique, Janvier 1959" (mimeo.), and (*c*) UNESCO, *World Survey of Education, II* (Paris, 1958).

school-age bracket of 6 to 14 increased by 1,480 in the period 1945–49, 5,780 between 1950 and 1954, and an additional 11,450 between 1955 and 1959. It was anticipated in 1959 that the number in this bracket would increase another 11,000 by 1964, from a total of about 54,000 to almost 65,000. In 1957 it was officially reported that among the Departments of France, Martinique, which is 92d in area and 74th in total population, was 34th in the size of its population of legal school age.

Despite the fact of the drastic increase in school-age population and the difficulties of keeping up with school building needs, it was offically reported for the school year 1958–59 that 99.7 percent of the 6 to 14 age group were enrolled in school.[5] This compared with the approximate enrollment ratios of 60 percent for 1938, 77 percent for the 1946–49 period, and 82 percent for the period 1950–53.[6] The 99.7 percent enrollment ratio for Martinique in 1958–59 was compared in Martinique official reports with a stated 93 percent enrollment ratio for metropolitan France.[7] In Guadeloupe and French Guiana there is a similar upward trend in enrollment ratios of those of legal school age in recent years. It was estimated in 1959 that the ratio was about 98 percent for French Guiana, where the school-age population has also increased sharply since the census of 1954, despite the sparsity of the total population. In Guadeloupe one estimate of the enrollment ratio in 1958–59 was 80 percent, lower than that of Martinique but higher than in any previous year.

School enrollment figures for Martinique for 1958–59 indicate that after age 14 the enrollment ratio fell to 46.1 percent for the 14 to 16 age group. These figures took into account students beyond the age of compulsory attendance completing elementary education, as well as those in vocational and regular secondary education. Nevertheless, one of the recognized educational problems in Martinique is the need for further education and training for boys over 14 years of age whom it has not been possible to keep in elementary school or to place in other schools.[8]

It was estimated in the school year 1958–59 that about 71,000 persons, or more than 25 percent of the total estimated population of 270,000, were receiving elementary, secondary, or vocational instruction in the public and private schools of Martinique. This represents an increase both numerically and percentagewise over the approximately 60,000 reported as receiving such instruction in 1956.

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5 "Tableaux Statistiques," p. 8.

6 UNESCO, *World Survey of Education, II*, p. 410. The computation of the enrollment ratios for these years does not appear to be on precisely the same basis as for the year 1958–59 but the difference would not appreciably alter the ratios and conclusions.

7 "Tableaux Statistiques," p. 9.

8 "Education in Martinique," *op. cit.*, p. 127–128.

The following table summarizes the enrollment situation in these levels of education in the school year 1958–59:

Level	Public	Private	Total
Elementary	64,244	1,960	66,204
Secondary	2,841	571	3,412
Technical	787	531	1,318
Total	67,872	3,062	70,934

Elementary Education

As is evident from the foregoing figures, those receiving elementary education are in the overwhelming majority in Martinique, and the same situation prevails in Guadeloupe and French Guiana. The system in the broadest sense has been regarded as including both the regular 8-year program of elementary education and the 4-year program of the *cours complémentaire* (complementary course). Some students are selected for the latter after 5 years of elementary schooling at about age 11 or 12, at the same time that other elementary students are chosen for the *lycées* (secondary schools) or the *Collège Technique* (vocational secondary school). This is generally known as entering the sixth class (*entrée en sixième*), the classes, or years, numbering downwards rather than upwards as one progresses in the French system. Those remaining in elementary school and completing the 8-year program receive on final examination, as in France, the primary school certificate (*certificat d'études primaires*).

The complementary course adds 1 year of schooling to the usual elementary education. Since opportunities for regular secondary education have been restricted in Martinique, the complementary course has increased in significance as terminal education and, as we shall see later, also as a principal source of recruits for elementary school teachers. Those enrolled in the complementary course in 1958–59 had approximately doubled since 1950, reaching a total of almost 5,200. The course is generally offered in schools which also give the regular elementary program. On examination the same terminal certificates are given for the complementary course as in metropolitan France, either an elementary certificate (*brevet élémentaire*) or a lower secondary certificate (*brevet d'études du premier cycle du second degré*). The latter is the same certificate given to those completing the first 4 years of the *lycée*, or regular secondary school.

Figures for given years on enrollments in the public elementary schools and complementary courses are as follows:[9]

Year	Elementary	Complementary course	Total
1938–39	32,328	1,076	33,404
1944–45	34,771	1,061	35,832
1946–47	36,086	2,219	38,305
1947–48	37,672	2,420	40,092
1948–49	37,235	2,280	39,515
1949–50	38,772	2,393	41,165
1950–51	38,953	2,620	41,573
1951–52	40,776	2,724	43,500
1952–53	42,369	2,745	45,114
1953–54	44,061	3,270	47,331
1954–55	46,577	3,521	50,098
1955–56	49,430	3,793	53,223
1956–57	52,790	4,038	56,828
1957–58	55,866	4,561	60,427
1958–59	59,049	5,195	64,244

It is seen from these figures that the rate of enrollment increase from 1938–39 to 1948–49 was 18.3 percent, whereas between 1948–49 and 1958–59 it was 63.6 percent. Overall, there was an increase of 92.3 percent in the 20-year period 1938–39 to 1958–59, compared with a 29.3 percent increase for metropolitan France in the same period.[10] Those enrolled in Catholic elementary schools increased from about 1,000 in 1952–53 to 2,000 in 1958–59.

The increase in enrollments has posed, as in the British and Netherlands affiliated areas in the Caribbean, a serious problem of classroom space. There is the simultaneous need to construct new buildings, to meet new space demands, and to replace or improve older facilities. An intensive school building campaign has been carried on, so that despite increasing enrollments and the achievement of virtually universal enrollment in the 6–14 age group, there has been a gradual decline in the average number of students per classroom. Regulations have prescribed a maximum class enrollment of 30, but crowded conditions have precluded the substantial attainment of this objective. In 1950, 53 percent of the classrooms had more than 40 students each. By 1957–58, this had declined to 42.6 percent, and there was a further decline in 1958–59 to 39.5 percent. The average number of students for the 1,536 classrooms reported as being in use in 1957–58 was 39.3, while for the 1,697 classrooms of 1958–59 it was 37.8 students.

Because of the sharp population increase it has been necessary to concentrate in the school building program on the provision of new facilities to meet this need, and to defer the replacement of old and

[9] "Tableaux Statistiques," p. 1–2.
[10] *Ibid.*

substandard buildings. The addition of new classrooms has proceeded at an accelerated pace. From 1946 to the end of 1958, 383 new classrooms were added, 111 between 1946 and 1953, 118 from 1954 to 1956 and 154 in the period 1956–58. It was planned in 1959 to begin construction of facilities for an additional 145 classrooms. Despite this progress, it was estimated by an official source in 1958 that one-third of the existing classrooms could be considered as meeting modern standards, one-third as fairly good though deficient in certain respects, and one-third as poor.

In the matter of attendance it is recognized that there are irregularities and that at times the absentee rate runs from 5 percent to 10 percent of enrollment. Factors preventing regular attendance have been deficiencies in the road system in rural areas, which makes a number of village schools difficult to reach; a lack of school canteen, or lunch, facilities for those coming appreciable distances; and authorization for students 12 years of age and over to be excused from school for agricultural work for periods not to exceed 6 weeks each year. The number of those availing themselves of this right has shrunk in recent years, though attendance tends to be irregular during the sugar cane harvest period beginning in January. Under the rural code, penalties are provided for any person employing a child subject to compulsory school attendance.[11]

The program of studies and the curriculums in the elementary schools and the complementary course are basically the same as in metropolitan France. In some of the complementary courses, there is some instruction in vocational and "practical" subjects, in addition to the academic subjects. No distinction is made between urban and rural education, except for introducing into the curriculum in some schools rural subjects such as gardening. It was noted in the aforementioned report on educational developments in Martinique prepared for the West Indian Conference in 1957 that "the curriculum is not yet sufficiently geared to the study and utilisation of the local environment." [12] Some attention has been given to local history and geography, by teaching them as part of French history and geography. The same situation prevails generally in Guadeloupe. For French Guiana it has been noted that "the 1924 curricula assigned an important place to local history and geography, but the 1946 curricula neglect them almost entirely or include a few lessons on them in the French history and geography courses." [13]

French is the language of instruction from the beginning of the school program in all the Caribbean Departments. This poses cer-

[11] UNESCO, *op. cit.*, p. 407–408.
[12] "Education in Martinique," *op. cit.*, p. 127.
[13] UNESCO, *op. cit.*, p. 401.

tain problems in Martinique and Guadeloupe where the common language is Creole, basically similar to that heard in Haiti and the bayou country of Louisiana. Its use is prohibited in the classroom, as the objective of educational policy is to have the local populace learn "to think, speak, and write in French." [14] It appears probable that language difficulty is a factor in the matter of retardation in the elementary schools, where it was estimated in 1957 that two-thirds of the elementary enrollment in Martinique were in the three lowest grades. For previous years it had been reported that a sizeable proportion of students spent several years in the first grade and that perhaps up to half of the total did not get beyond the first 4 years of elementary school before reaching the legally permissible school-leaving age. Other factors contributing to this situation would appear to be irregular attendance and unstable home conditions.

The language difficulty would also seem to be a factor in the matter of illiteracy, or lapses from literacy, which was noted as a serious problem in Martinique in 1955.[15] In view of the relatively favorable enrollment ratio of school-age population that had existed for some years prior to that date, it is assumed that one factor in this situation is the tendency to revert, on leaving school, to the almost exclusive use of Creole, which is not taught as a written language, and to lose facility in reading and writing French. The same situation appears to prevail in Guadeloupe, where about half the population was recorded as illiterate by the census of 1946, though it is recognized that there has been a lower enrollment ratio of school-age children on that island.

Secondary Education

Secondary education (*enseignement sécondaire*) is regarded as academic education in Martinique. Vocational education at the upper elementary and secondary level is usually called "technical" education (*enseignement technique*). As previously noted, secondary education is imparted on a highly selective basis. In 1958–59 there were two public secondary schools, or *lycées*, one for boys (*Lycée Schoelcher*) and one for girls (*Lycée des Jeunes Filles*), both in Fort-de-France, the capital. In addition, there were three Catholic secondary schools, one for boys (the *Seminaire-Collège*), and two for girls (the *Couvent de St. Joseph de Cluny* and the institution known as *Notre Dame de la Delivrande*). The first two of these Catholic institutions are also located as Fort-de-France, and the last named, which enrolls a small number of secondary stu-

[14] *Ibid.*, p. 406.
[15] Howes, *op. cit.*, p. 27.

dents, is at Gros Morne. The secondary schools, public and private, also have elementary sections covering the work of the first five classes, or grades, the 11th (*onzième*) through the 7th (*septième*).

There has been a marked percentage increase in the numbers of those receiving secondary education in Martinique, although the total number remains small in comparison with those in the elementary schools. The following figures show the trend since 1953–54 (separate figures for boys and girls in private schools not readily available to author).

Year	Public Lycées			Private schools		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1953–54	1,115	1,161	2,276	.....	.....	296
1954–55	1,186	1,227	2,413	.....	.....	328
1955–56	1,221	1,262	2,483	.....	.....	403
1956–57	1,235	1,353	2,588	.....	.....	470
1957–58	1,353	1,531	2,734	194	311	505
1958–59	1,341	1,500	2,841	240	330	570

The total of 3,411 receiving academic secondary education in public and private institutions in 1958–59 represented an increase of 32.6 percent since 1953. This compared with a 35.7 percent increase in elementary and complementary course enrollments for the same period. Girls have made up more than half the total enrolled in secondary institutions in recent years. Many upper-income group families prefer to send their children and particularly their girls to the private Church schools. With respect to those attending the public *lycées*, official information for the school year 1958–59 indicated that they come largely from government, business, and professional families. Relatively few come from the agricultural and labor groups. There are also a number of secondary school students from Martinique receiving education in France and other countries. It was stated in 1957, for example, that more than 400 young Martiniquans were studying in metropolitan France.[16]

Additional and improved secondary education facilities were recognized as necessary in Martinique in 1958–59. While the quarters of the *Lycée Schoelcher* were regarded as satisfactory, plans for new quarters for the *Lycée des Jeunes Filles* had been formulated and a site selected adjacent to the new buildings of the *Collège Technique*. The new facilities were to include living quarters for those from outside the Fort-de-France area, which the existing girls' *lycée* had

[16] "Education in Martinique," op. cit., p. 128.

not had. Such quarters form part of the facilities of the boys' *lycée*.

In addition to the planned replacement of the girls' *lycée*, the expansion of public secondary education generally and its extension to centers outside Fort-de-France have been stated to be an urgent need. It was officially noted in 1957 that 6,000 students should be receiving secondary education in Martinique and that secondary schools should be extended to other parts of the island.[17] The demand for expansion of secondary education exists despite the fact that it has been criticized as being too classical and theoretical for the needs of the Martiniquan economy and that those receiving it are said to have difficulty finding employment commensurate with their aspirations.

Entrance to the secondary section of the two public *lycées* usually occurs by admission to the sixth year of elementary-secondary schooling, on the basis of a high elementary school record up to that point or an entrance examination. Those completing the 4-year complementary course, which they entered at the same point and usually in the same manner, may also have an opportunity to enter the *lycée* in the tenth year of schooling.

The program of study in the *lycée* is divided, as in metropolitan France, into a first cycle of 4 years and a second cycle of 3 years. Both public *lycées* in Martinique provide a classical program stressing classical languages, literature, and history, and a modern course including science, mathematics, and modern languages. In addition, there is, as discussed below, a teacher preparation section in the second cycle of secondary education in the *lycées*. At the end of the first cycle, or the "third class" (the *troisième*), the examination for the certificate of completion of the first stage of secondary education (*brevet d'études du premier cycle du second degré*) may be taken, as it may also at the completion of the complementary course. Two years later, at the end of the "first class" (the *première*), or 11th year of elementary-secondary education, the examination for the first part of the *baccalauréat*, or what is sometimes called in Martinique the final certificate of secondary education, is taken. This may be followed a year later, after a "terminal" year, by the examination for the second part of the *baccalauréat*, or simply the *baccalauréat* as it is sometimes referred to in Martinique.[18] The results on the latter examination are stated to be practically identical with those obtained in France, i.e., a minority of those taking the examination at any given time are successful. The average age at which students take and pass the examination appears to be higher than in metropolitan France, and a great many repeat

[17] *Ibid.*, p. 127.
[18] *Ibid.*, p. 128.

grades along the way and do not obtain their *baccalauréat* if they achieve it at all, until they are 19 or 20.

Secondary education in Guadeloupe and French Guiana exhibit the same basic characteristics as in Martinique. Public institutions enroll a substantial majority of secondary students, and they impart an academic education for a minority of those of secondary school age.

Vocational Training

Vocational education is a modern development in Martinique. In 1938 several public trade and vocational schools were merged into a Practical School of Industry (*Ecole Practique d'Industrie*). The name of this institution has been changed and its orientation modified several times since then. In 1948 it received the name of the *Collège Technique*, which is a combination of a vocational secondary school and a center for the training of apprentices.

From 1941 to 1953 vocational education for girls was also given in the girls' *lycée*, but this was abandoned with the expansion of the programs of the *Collège Technique*. In addition to the public program of vocational education, commercial education was given in 1958–59 in the commercial section of the principal Catholic Girls Secondary School, the Convent of St. Joseph de Cluny, and in the orphanage *Orphelinat de l'Espérance*, as well as at 5 approved private commercial schools. The total number enrolled in vocational programs of the *Collège Technique* increased from 212 in 1938–39 to 741 in 1957–58 and 787 in 1958–59. In the latter year there was also an enrollment of 531 in the vocational programs of the Catholic and commercial schools, an increase of 158 over the 373 of the year before.

In 1958–59 the *Collège Technique*, long housed in older quarters in the downtown section of Fort-de-France, had recently been completed and was occupying new modern buildings on the outskirts of the city adjacent to the site selected for the new quarters of the girls' *lycée*. New dormitories remained to be built, as did several other buildings. For 1957–58 and 1958–59, the student body was divided as follows:

Location	1957–58	1958–59
Preparatory classes (2 years)	234	211
Collège Technique programs proper	218	262
Center for Apprentice Training	289	314
Total	741	787

The earliest opportunity for entry was to the preparatory classes after completion of 5 years of elementary education, under the same conditions as those entering the *lycée* or the complementary course at the same stage of education. Passing the examination for entry

into the 6th class was the usual method. At this stage one must not have passed his 13th birthday by the end of the calendar year. For subsequent entry at a higher stage and a later top-age limit, the requirements also called for an entrance competition. The last opportunity to enter one of the regular secondary level vocational courses was after completing 3 years in the modern program of the *lycée* or the complementary course—a total of 8 years of elementary-secondary schooling. To enter a full-length vocational course, which would take an additional 4 years to complete at that stage, one must not have passed his 17th birthday by the end of the calendar year, or his 18th for entry to a program and certificate representing 1 year's work less.[19]

Those entering at different stages of previous schooling had the opportunity to work for one of several vocational education certificates in the French system. The certificates divided into two general types: the 11-year *Brevet* in various fields of vocational education—commercial, industrial, or applied arts; and the 12-year higher technical certificate (*Baccalauréat Technique*).

With respect to the Training Center for Apprentices (*Centre d'Apprentissage*) of the *Collège Technique*, the requirements for enrollment in 1958–59 were either (1) completion of the sixth class, or first year, in the *lycée*, the complementary course, or the preparatory program of the *Collége Technique*, or (2) the certificate of primary studies (*certificat des études primaries*). In addition, those seeking admission were required to pass a competitive entrance examination and to be less than 16 years of age at the end of the calendar year. Upon entrance they undertook a 4-year program beginning with a preparatory year (*classe d'orientation*) and leading to one of the certificates of vocational aptitude (*Certificat d'Aptitude Professionnelle*).

The various vocational specialties offered in the *Collège Technique* programs in 1958–59 included commercial subjects, architectural drawing, boiler making, automotive mechanics, electricity, carpentry, home economics, jewelry making, welding, ceramics, sheet metal work, and seamanship. Thus, the programs of the *Collège* cater to both sexes. The breakdown in enrollment in this connection in all programs for the years 1957–58 and 1958–59 were as follows:

Year	Boys	Girls	Total
1957–58	456	285	741
1958–59	502	285	787

[19] The description of these programs is based largely on a summary sheet of the *Collège Technique* entitled "Rentrée Scolaire, 1958–1959: Comment Orienter les Candidats."

The need for additional vocational education and training facilities, particularly in the outlying areas of Martinique, so that all those seeking this kind of training will not be funneled into Fort-de-France, has been noted by educational officials. On the other hand, they have observed that the *Collège* has not been popular with the people of Martinique and has tended to get those who fail to be admitted to the *lycées* or the complementary course. They have also noted that not all those completing programs at the *Collège Technique* have been able to find employment and that some have left Martinique for France or French African areas. It appears that part of the problem here may be one of achieving a better balance between the skills being produced and the changing needs of the rapidly growing population for various types of mechanical and vocational abilities. The urban area of Fort-de-France has been growing in population disproportionately to that of the rest of Martinique, presumably entailing additional needs for certain skills. For example, with the increasing number of motor vehicles, the comment has been heard of the shortage of competent automobile mechanics.

With respect to vocational education in the other French Caribbean Departments, there is also a public *Collège Technique*, as well as a Catholic vocational school, in Guadeloupe. Such instruction is also given in vocational sections of the two *lycées*. In 1958–59 the programs were similar to those in Martinique, although there was no Training Center for Apprentices as in the *Collège Technique* of Martinique. The total number receiving such education in 1958–59 was less than in Martinique. In French Guiana vocational education was offered in separate sections of the *lycée*.

Another source of vocational training for Martinique and the other French Caribbean Departments has been, as for the other European affiliated Caribbean areas, the aforementioned Caribbean Training Program in Puerto Rico. Down through 1958, of the total of 779 students from all these areas who had received training under this program since its inception in 1950, 163 had come from the French areas, 51 being from Martinique, 69 from Guadeloupe, and 43 from French Guiana.[20]

Teacher Training

As elsewhere in the Caribbean area, there are problems in Martinique with reference to maintaining an adequate supply of certificated, i.e., trained, teachers for the elementary schools. In 1958 it was estimated that 240 new teachers a year were required, whereas it was not possible to train and certificate that many teachers annu-

[20] *The Caribbean*, 12: 65, October 1958.

ally. Consequently, it has been necessary to resort to substitutes (*suppléants*) or assistants (*remplaçants*) to meet the need as they complete their formal educational and training requirements while teaching or between periods of teaching. In 1958–59 it was estimated that 16 percent of the elementary teaching positions were not filled by certificated teachers. Although by the standards prevailing in certain other Caribbean areas this appears to be a relatively favorable situation, it was stated that the tendency was for the number of substitute or assistant teachers to increase in proportion to qualified, or certificated, teachers. At the same time, it was noted that there was a sufficient number of candidates for the teaching profession because teachers are relatively well paid, enjoy prestige, and have a high degree of employment security on a heavily populated island of limited employment opportunities and relatively low per capita income. Practically all elementary teachers were locally recruited. Women constituted about 72 percent of the total in 1957–58.[21]

To become a qualified elementary teacher it was necessary in 1958–59 to obtain the Certificate of Teaching Aptitude (*Certificat d'Aptitude Pédagogique*). In general, there were two methods of obtaining this certificate in Martinique. One of these was by entering the 3-year teacher-preparatory program of studies on the modern side at the *lycée*, after completing either the first 4 years of the *lycée* program, or the 4-year program of the complementary course. In 1957–58 and 1958–59, 128 and 124 of the students, respectively, in the two public *lycées* were pursuing this course, which leads to the *baccalauréat* examination. Success on this examination, after completion of 12 years of elementary-secondary schooling, qualified one for the entrance competition to the 1-year program of professional training at the Normal School (*Ecole Normale*).

The other method of qualifying for the Certificate of Teaching Aptitude was being used more frequently in 1958–59, since the demand for teachers is appreciably greater than the number available through the aforementioned programs of the *lycées* and the Normal School. It has been observed that in Martinique, and the other French Caribbean Departments as well, holders of the baccalauréat are reluctant to enter elementary teaching.[22] A decree of October 1952 authorized the recruitment as substitute teachers of holders of the elementary certificate (*brevet élémentaire*) and the lower secondary certificate (*brevet d'études du premier cycle du second degré*).[23] Such teachers attend general education and training courses on their off days over a period of several years. In the process they

[21] "Education in Martinique," *op. cit.*, p. 127.
[22] UNESCO, *op. cit.*, p. 402, 404, 409.
[23] *Ibid.*, p. 409.

progress to the rank of assistant teacher, and their preparation culminates in a period of several months' training at the Normal School before taking the examinations for the Certificate of Teaching Aptitude.

Normal School facilities in Martinique for the preparation of teachers for certification were restored in 1957, when a new Normal School was opened. Between 1946, when Martinique's colonial status came to an end, and 1957 there was no Normal School on the island. *Baccalauréat* holders who wished to continue the teacher-preparation program were sent to France for professional training. In 1957 the Normal School of Croix-Rivail was opened in an old mansion overlooking the plain of Fort-de-France about 10 miles from the city. Equipped with full living quarters for students, the School was offering in 1958–59 a 1-year post-*baccalauréat* program of teacher training, which included practice teaching and observation in the special laboratory and other schools in the nearby town of Lamentin. Following this year, the program called for students to spend 1 year as supervised teachers in the elementary schools prior to examination for the teaching certificate. In 1957–58 and 1958–59, there were, respectively, 46 and 41 students undergoing this 1-year program of full-time training, divided about two to one between women and men. In addition, 40 assistant teachers were undergoing their formal period of training at the Normal School in 1958–59.

With respect to teachers for secondary and vocational education in Martinique, the standards of recruitment and training are officially stated to be equivalent to those of France.[24] Approximately two-thirds of the teachers in the two public *lycées* in 1958–59 were sent from metropolitan France. It was stated in 1958–59 that, in general, such teachers are not as high in the educational hierarchy in the matter of formal qualifications and education as their colleagues in France. There were reported to be more *licenciés* (graduates of 3- or 4-year university programs) proportionately in Martiniquan *lycées* than in *lycées* in France, where it was asserted that one must usually have higher standards of qualification.

The same methods of teacher staffing and preparation have been followed in Guadeloupe and French Guiana as in Martinique. Guadeloupe has a Normal School performing the same function as that in Martinique. According to statistics supplied covering the school year 1958–59, Guadeloupe elementary teachers numbered slightly more than half those of Martinique, despite the fact that its population of legal school age was almost as great. Teacher recruitment was noted as one of the urgent problems facing Guade-

[24] "Education in Martinique," *op. cit.*, p. 127.

loupe. Along with the need for more classrooms it was a factor in the higher average number of students per classroom than in Martinique, even though the ratio of school enrollment was lower.

In French Guiana training facilities and programs for elementary teachers have been limited. There is no Normal School. Those who pursue the teacher-preparatory program at the *lycée* may go to France to complete professional training. French Guiana also has sent a few teacher candidates to the Normal School in Martinique. Most elementary teachers are locally recruited from holders of the elementary or lower secondary certificates and receive training through special courses after starting to teach.

Secondary teachers in Guadeloupe and French Guiana are generally recruited from France.

Martinique and the other French Caribbean Departments generally require more teachers than the number of teaching positions, owing to the system of administrative leave (*congé administratif*) in France provided teachers at government expense. In Martinique up to 10 percent of the teachers at all levels are on leave in France at any given time. Fully qualified teachers recruited in France, whether French or Martiniquan, receive 4 months' administrative leave every second year, as do French civil servants generally. Those recruited in Martinique receive 6 months leave every 5 years. Full return travel expenses and salary during this period are paid. This arrangement raises the problem of classrooms without teachers at times, particularly in the *lycées* with their high proportion of teachers recruited in France.

Higher Education

There is one university-type institution in the French Caribbean Departments. This is the Institute of Juridical Studies, or Law School (usually referred to as the *Ecole de Droit*), in Martinique. It is affiliated with the University of Bordeaux and prepares students for the latter's law degrees. In 1958–59 it had about 240 students enrolled and also offered extension courses in Guadeloupe. Legal training and the legal profession have high prestige value in Martinique, despite limited professional and other opportunities in the French Caribbean. The French civil service, especially in French African territories, has provided an outlet in the past for those receiving legal training in Martinique.

Adult Education

In 1955 the UNESCO representative who prepared the study on fundamental, adult, literacy, and community education in the West Indies for the Caribbean Commission stated "it would appear that there is a need for increased provision of basic education for adults

throughout the French Caribbean."[25] With respect to Martinique, he made the comments previously noted on the problem of illiteracy and lapses from literacy, and went on to summarize the status of its adult education activities at that time as follows:

> Since 1944, the idea of adult education courses has made progress and is a topic of general discussion. A movement began which led to the establishment of centres in Martinique; during the period April 1944 to January 1955, 22 centres for adult education and rural education were established. The classes numbered 94, and the number of students 2,182. In all centres * * * the minimum curricula offered is reading, writing, arithmetic, drawing and civics. The larger centres provide classes in domestic sciences, child welfare, sewing, choir singing, reading aloud of French texts with comments, and also English. A library is provided and, from time to time, there are gramophone record playings and film shows. Nevertheless, it is clear from the enrollment that there is room for marked expansion * * *.[26]

Adult education activities in Martinique since the time of Dr. Howes' study do not appear to have changed the picture substantially. The aforementioned report on education in Martinique prepared for the 7th Session of the West Indian Conference in November 1957 made no mention of adult education. It was stated in 1958–59 that night and continuation classes in Fort-de-France constituted an important part of the program, the majority of those attending being in the 18 to 25 age bracket.

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[26] *Ibid.*

APPENDIX A

Summary of Recommendations of the Regional Conference on the Training of Teachers in the British Caribbean, 1957

(Reprinted from Teacher Training Conference *Report*, p. 40–43)

1. That Governments should accept the long-term aim of having a fully-trained teaching service.
2. That Governments should, during the next ten years, direct their efforts to giving at least two-thirds of all teachers either a two or three-year course, or an emergency one-year course, in a training college.
3. The conference notes with satisfaction that the Governments of Jamaica and Trinidad are planning to achieve the aims of recommendations 1 and 2; and it recommends that they should continue to give high priority to their plans to train all teachers.
4. That the Government of British Guiana should increase still further the planned expansion of its training college, if necessary by establishing one-year courses.
5. That the Government of Barbados should expand its training college, if necessary by establishing a one-year course, as the proportion of trained teachers will not otherwise rise above one-third in the next decade.
6. That the Governments of the Leeward Islands should consult together about expanding the Spring Gardens Training College to provide more trained teachers.
7. That the Governments concerned should ensure the continuation of arrangements for teachers from the Windward and Leeward Islands to be trained at the Erdiston College, Barbados, which have been carried on so far with financial assistance from the West Indies General Allocation of Colonial Development and Welfare funds. This would be an interim measure before more far-reaching changes could be made.
8. As the Windward Islands have less than 10% of their teachers trained, and have no training college of their own, the Governments of the Eastern Caribbean should consult about the urgent need to train more teachers from the Windward Islands. It is recommended that the problem should be referred to the Federal Adviser on Education in due course.
9. That the basis of selection of students for admission to training colleges should be twofold:
   (i) general educational background, including at least School Certificate or its equivalent; and
   (ii) potentiality as a teacher, which may be judged with the help of reports by Head Teachers and Education Officers and of interviews.
10. That the responsibility for selecting students for admission should rest mainly with the Principal of the Training College, working with a small selecting panel having a representative of each of the Board of the College, senior members of staff, and the Department of Education.

11. That Governments should wherever possible make training residential because of the advantages offered by the corporate life for personal and social education and for developing the qualities of a good teacher.
12. That the staffing of training colleges should be the equivalent of at least one full-time member for every twelve students; and that two-thirds of the staff should be full-time, and residential (in residential colleges).
13. That members of the staffs of training colleges should have good academic and professional qualifications, and be good teachers with varied experience.
14. That the responsibility for framing the curriculum and syllabuses of a training college should lie mainly with the Principal and his staff.
15. That a manual should be written on the Training of Teachers, with the assistance of the University College of the West Indies, embodying the substance of discussions at the conference. It should enunciate principles to guide those engaged in the training of teachers, and in the planning of new colleges or courses of training.
16. That the planning of one-year courses should ensure that they are self-contained and not part of a longer course, and take in a homogeneous group of students, preferably with a good academic background and some maturity. The needs in respect of residence, staffing and facilities would be the same as for two-year colleges.
17. That Governments should consider the contribution which can be made by one-year courses at a training college, as an emergency measure, to reach the objective of having at least two-thirds of their teachers trained within the next ten years.
18. That Governments should take action to increase the proportion of graduates (at present less than 50%) and of trained teachers (at present less than 15% have a Diploma in Education or equivalent post-graduate qualification) on the staffs of secondary schools.
19. That Governments should ensure that teaching shall be attractive enough, in salary and in other respects, to compete effectively with other openings available to graduates.
20. That Governments should increase sufficiently to meet future needs the number of scholarships, with a reasonable bond if considered necessary, to enable intending teachers to take a degree and a Diploma in Education.
21. That Governments should give sufficient financial reward to teachers with a Diploma in Education to encourage graduates to gain this qualification.
22. That the University College of the West Indies should arrange for an early increase in the number of students reading for the Diploma in Education to at least fifty.
23. That the University College of the West Indies should provide a one-year course similar to the Diploma in Education, involving a study of local educational problems, for a limited number of non-graduate teachers holding or capable of holding positions of responsibility.
24. That the University College of the West Indies should offer advice on the training of teachers, and assessment of the work of training colleges, on request and with full consultation.
25. That the University College of the West Indies should develop, in consultation with Governments and Training Colleges, an Institute of Education with functions which would include the following:
    (i) research on educational problems;

(ii) short courses and conferences;

(iii) advice and assessment of the work of training colleges, to assist in the improvement of the training of teachers, and in developing a regional system of qualifications for teachers.

26. That specialist teachers in wood and metal work, rural science, home economics, art, music and physical education should be trained as teachers and not merely in the techniques of their specialist subject.

27. That Governments with Technical Institutes should provide facilities in them for students of training colleges who wish to become specialist teachers of woodwork and metalwork.

28. That teachers of rural science should have a practical training in agriculture as a part of their training college course.

29. That Governments which are forced by circumstances to employ pupil teachers should provide courses for them in academic subjects during at least one full school day a week.

30. That all teachers seeking certification be given a course of tuition in preparation for the academic and professional examinations which they are required to pass.

31. That Governments ensure that all uncertificated teachers receive guidance in the class-room from trained teachers as a normal part of their in-service programme.

32. That Governments should simplify the process by which teachers become certificated. For those with a good academic background, such as a School Certificate or General Certificate of Education, there should be only one examination, covering professional knowledge and proficiency in teaching, leading to certification. For others there should be not more than three examinations, the first at the end of the period as a pupil teacher, the second a test of academic knowledge and the third of professional knowledge and proficiency in teaching.

33. That Governments should regard their teachers as members of a unified service comprising five levels of qualifications as follows:—

(i) trained graduate teachers, who have both a university degree and a post-graduate diploma in education or its equivalent;

(ii) graduate teachers, who have a university degree but no teacher training;

(iii) trained teachers, *i.e.* those who have successfully completed a continuous course in a recognised training college lasting two or three years, or in present circumstances, as an emergency measure, for one year;

(iv) certificated teachers, *i.e.* those who have not received a continuous course of training in a recognised training college, but who provide satisfactory evidence of academic attainment, professional knowledge, and ability to teach;

(v) uncertificated teachers, *i.e.* pupil teachers, probationers, and student teachers.

34. That Governments should accept the principle that salary scales should be related to a teacher's qualifications and not to the type of school in which he serves; and that they should work steadily towards implementing this policy.

35. That a teacher's starting point in salary should reflect his academic and professional qualifications and previous teaching experience; and that increments should be automatic, provided service is satisfactory.

36. That a teacher who qualifies to pass from one grade to the next should then receive the status and salary of his new grade.

37. That Governments should work towards the principle that no class-room should contain more than 50 pupils.

38. That each class should, wherever possible, be given a separate class-room.

39. That Governments should ensure co-operation between educationist and architect in the planning of new schools.

40. That plans of new schools should allow for the proposed organisation and staffing, and the various types of activity which are to take place in the building.

41. That plans of new schools should take into account an expansion in numbers, first by basing calculations on numbers on roll, and, second, by attempting a forecast of the future number of children of school age in the neighbourhood.

42. That the Federal Information Officer, in consultation with the Federal Education Adviser, be asked to include within the framework of the Information Service an agency to co-ordinate and supply suitable information on educational matters and events with special reference to books for use in schools.

43. That every opportunity should be taken to encourage consultation and the exchange of experience about the training of teachers.

44. That Governments should accept the long-term goal of common qualifications for teachers in the region.

45. That the Federal Government should continue and expand the advisory services now made available by the Development and Welfare Organisation, and that, in addition to a Chief Education Adviser and an Adviser on Technical Education, a woman Adviser especially concerned with the education of women and girls should be appointed.

46. That one function of the Federal Education Advisers should be to make available to unit governments a panel of educationists to advise and assess the secondary schools of the West Indies.

47. That a Standing Committee consisting of Directors of Education (or their equivalent in each territory) and Principals of Training Colleges should be established to consider and co-ordinate developments in the training of teachers, and that it should be summoned to meet by the Chief Education Adviser every two years.

APPENDIX B

Summary of Principal Recommendations of the Mission on Higher Technical Education in the British Caribbean

(Reprinted from its *Report*, p. vi)

Detailed recommendations are given in the body of the Report. We give here a summary of the main recommendations:

1. That since the basis of all technical education is a sound general education, every effort be made
   (*a*) to strengthen the teaching force in mathematics and the sciences in secondary schools;
   (*b*) to provide opportunities for all boys and girls over the age of eleven, whether in secondary schools or not, to include practical subjects in their curriculum;
   (*c*) to train teachers of woodwork and metalwork within the area.

2. That since the most urgent industrial need in the British Caribbean region is for skilled craftsmen and workshop technicians in large numbers, the development of basic courses leading to the examinations in craft subjects of the City and Guilds of London Institute should be given first priority.

3. That at three Technical institutes advanced work should be developed to enable them to function as Regional Technical Colleges for such work. The Kingston Technical College, Jamaica would serve the Western Caribbean while two in Trinidad, at San Fernando and Port of Spain, would serve the Eastern Caribbean.

4. That the Kingston Technical College should cover a full range of subjects, including Commerce; that the College at San Fernando should concentrate mainly on subjects connected with Engineering and Building, while that at Port of Spain should develop advanced work in Commercial subjects.

5. That the University College of the West Indies should proceed to develop a Faculty of Engineering.

6. That a block of laboratories should be built, in the University precincts, to be used jointly by the University College of the West Indies for its degree courses and by the Kingston Technical College for its advanced courses in engineering; that the Governing Bodies of the two Colleges should at once set up a joint committee to work out the details of this proposal.

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