THE UNIVERSITY OF HULL

THE DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHER EDUCATION IN THE CARIBBEAN, WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO ANTIGUA, GRENADA AND THE UNITED STATES VIRGIN ISLANDS

Being a thesis submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy of the University of Hull

by

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INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this thesis is to try to examine teacher education in certain Caribbean states through both field and documentary research and the use of case studies. The general history of the development of this sector in the Caribbean is broadly known, but only detailed local work can illuminate the general through the particular.

But the aims of this study are not primarilly historical. Fundamental issues within the education and training of teachers are considered and the views of many practitioners and trainees have been gained. It is hoped that the stock of information has been enhanced and that others will care to examine some of the outcomes of the research.

With these aims in mind, the structure plan of the thesis moves from the general examination of teacher education to a series of case studies, and back to comparative comment and recommendations for development. The core of the study is the succession of chapters on Grenada, Antigua and the U.S. Virgin Islands. There are many points of similarity and contrast to be gained from the comparative approach, and an attempt is made to carry through such an objective. Various factors are brought under scrutiny, in addition to the historical, for example: social, economic, geographical and political. The different colonial experiences also provide interesting points for consideration by way of explaining some of the features encountered.

Having compiled and compared the idiosyncratic patterns of the three case studies, the writer attempts to bring the discussion back into the realm of educational theory and practice in a more universal sense.

Numerous appendices are provided for reference, as indicated within the main text, and a selected bibliography concludes the thesis. This contains only the more significant published sources used by the writer and as a matter of policy does not repeat all of the references placed already at the end of the various chapters.

Finally, it is hoped that this study will make a contribution not only to the field of teacher education in international perspective, but also to the emerging literature on the study of educational provision in small states.

CHAPTER ONE

THE EDUCATIONAL CONTEXT OF THE COMMONWEALTH CARIBBEAN

1.1 Introduction

Any meaningful discussion of the educational context of the Commonwealth Caribbean demands of necessity, its historical background and geographical description. As Brock rightly pointed out:

> "Non-education factors induced by colonialism may well have profound effects in educational terms, for education is in many respects sub-ordinate to context." [1]

The term 'educational context' can, therefore, suggest the physical as well as the emotional milieu in which education in the Commonwealth Caribbean has had its origin, and in which it has been developing. If this position is accepted, then all the factors or circumstances which have facilitated or militated against that process of educational development should be examined in this discussion, because to exclude any of them could invalidate conclusions eventually arrived at. This viewpoint, however, should not lead to an interpretation of the above position as implying that educational development in the Commonwealth Caribbean has been wholly internally generated and controlled. To impose such an interpretation would be both misleading and fallacious. It is hoped that through a combination of description, analysis and the use of relevant quotations, the context in which education has been 'developing' will unfold itself for scrutiny and evaluation.

It seems useful and appropriate at this point to define and clarify certain concepts and terms which are central to an understanding of the issues raised and considered in the following sections of the thesis. The two terms which will now be clarified are:

a) Commonwealth Caribbean

b) Education: (i) Formal
(ii) Informal

1.2 Clarification of Terms

To many Caribbeanists, the Caribbean is simply a modern term which refers to all those lands which Christopher Columbus had named the 'West Indies'. There are those, however, who would disagree with such a definition of the Caribbean, mainly because it is limited and, to a certain extent, vague. In his attempt to define the 'Caribbean World', Brock suggests that it is made up of:

> a)"the Caribbean Basin, which means the Caribbean sea and the lands bordering on it.
>
> b) the circum-Caribbean, which means the land and sea areas surrounding the Caribbean Basin, and
>
> c) Caribbean Communities Overseas which represent an extension of the Caribbean World in so far as they maintain their links with home." [2]

Of course, the third prong of Brock's tripartite definition of what the Caribbean World is can generate an interesting debate as to

whether it is part of the Caribbean World at all. Nonetheless, what is interesting about the third dimension is that it points directly to the issue of national and cultural identity, something which has formed the contents of the many calypsos, poems [3] and plays [4] of Caribbean artists over the past thirty-five years and more.

The 'Commonwealth Caribbean in this thesis refers to the nation states and British dependent territories that are members of the Commonwealth but that are situated within, bordering and proximate to the Caribbean sea. Present within this world are people of many different religious beliefs, races, languages and cultures, who are linked through shared traditions and the wide use of English. [5] It is hoped that Table 1.1, and the maps comprising Figures 1.1 and 1.2, will help one to locate the 'Commonwealth Caribbean', and to enable a better understanding of the concept.

To the academically unconditioned mind, the term 'education' can mean simply 'formal schooling': a classroom setting in which there are students and a teacher. However, those who are apt to 'see' education in this way are warned that:

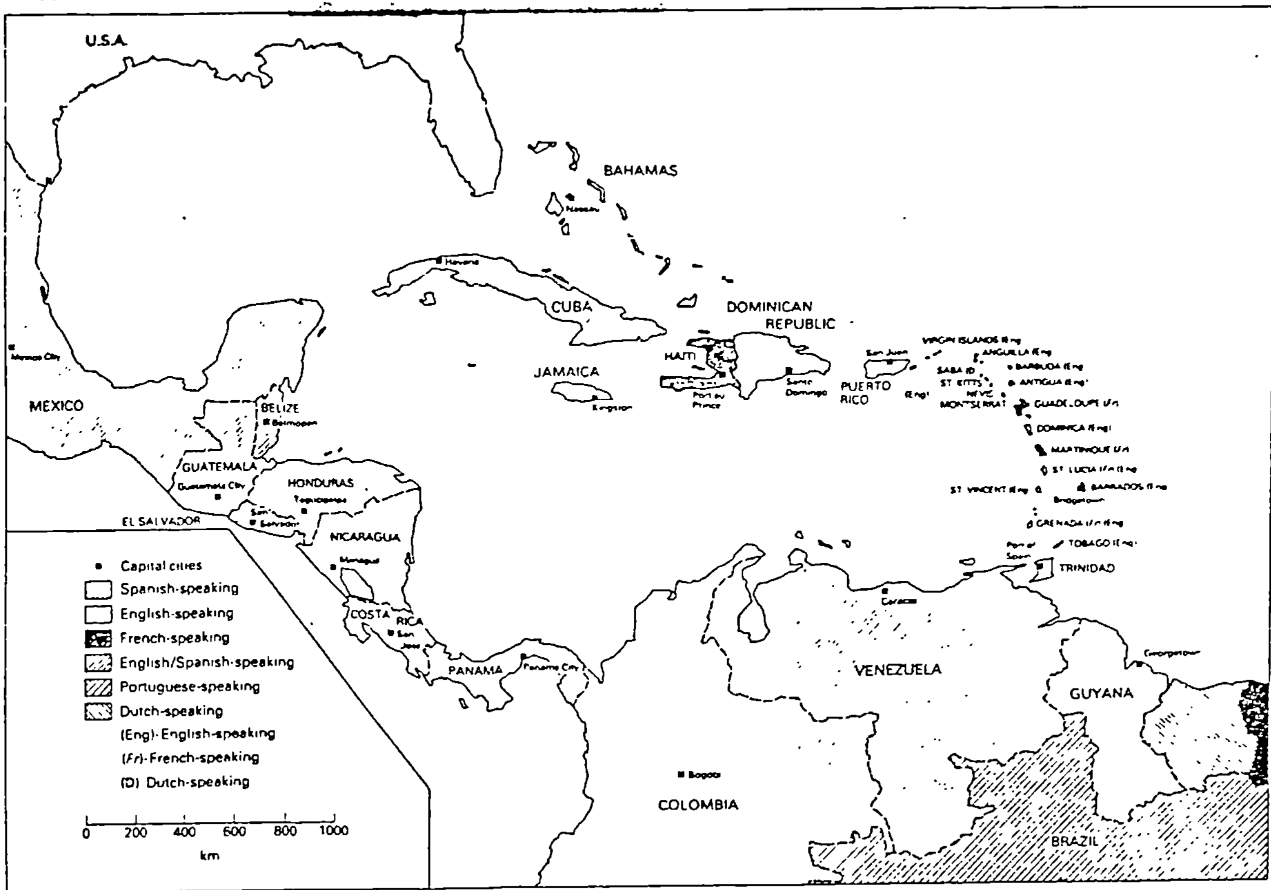
> "We ought not to suppose that 'education' of a people is something that can be relegated to a set of institutions that we call schools." [6]

If, as this view seems to suggest, 'education' is more than that which takes place within a formal setting, then 'education' also implies an

TABLE 1.1 POPULATION FIGURES AND SURFACE AREA OF THE COMMONWEALTH CARIBBEAN, 1984

Country	Surface Area	Mid-Year Population (1984)
	Sq. Kms	(Thousand)
Antigua and Barbuda	280	79.3
Bahamas	13940	228.0
Barbados	430	252.0
British Virgin Islands	153	11.8
Cayman Islands	264	19.0
Dominica	790	82.5
Grenada	345	110.0
Guyana	214969	
Jamaica	11425	2180.0
Montserrat	100	11.8
St. Kitto/Nevis	262	46.0
St. Lucia	617	134.1
St. Vincent and GN.	389	108.0
Trinidad and Tgo	5128	1168.0
Turks and Caicos Islands	435	8.4
Anguilla	90	6.7

FIGURE 1.1 THE POLITICAL AND LINGUISTIC BACKGROUND OF THE CARIBBEAN



Source: Ashdown, Peter (1979) Caribbean History in Maps, Longman, p.2.

FIGURE 1.2 COUNTRIES AND THEIR LOCATIONS WITHIN THE CARIBBEAN WORLD

Source: Brock, Colin (1978) Caribbean World, Macmillan, p.3.

informal component, so logically one may conclude that 'education' can be both 'formal' and 'informal'. Seen in this way 'education' may be thought of as a relative concept, though it is mainly the formal discussion with which the writer is concerned, that is to say:

> "the introduction of the child to the universalistic meanings of public forms of thought" [7]

inside schools. However, references to informal education are inferred to experiences that individuals have outside schools and which can affect their behaviour while in school; and after they would have left school. In a temporal sense 'education' is also thought of here as 'lifelong education', [8] for it can serve either to enslave or to liberate the individual. [9]

In a comment on education, Richard Pring observed that:

> "There is a tendency...to treat education as a 'thing' or a package of things that one acquires or attends, or simply swallows as a means to some further end. 'Education' gets you a job or enables you to be useful to society or is important for keeping industry going or is the means for creating a more equal society. It is like a commodity that can be bought and sold, distributed equally or unequally, used or not for personal advantage" [10]

One of the impressions one gets sometimes, and it seems to be partially implied in the quotation above, is that students contribute very little

(or nothing) to the educational process; they are, as it were, passive consumers, sucking in what is offered. This writer, however, maintains that education lives only when students are actively engaged in the teaching-learning process. With such an engagement education, if it exists, does so outside of the student. Viewed in this way 'education' is a dynamic process, and is considered as such in this thesis.

1.3 Background To Regional Instability

It can be argued that the apparent "unsettled political history" [11] which seems to characterise the Commonwealth Caribbean, and "the tension and problems of the region" [12] are rooted in the circumstances which brought into being the West Indies. Europe, at the time of Columbus, was:

> "experiencing fundamental, social and political changes. European feudal society was disorganised and 'over-mighty' lords were challenging the authority of kings...There was a tendency to stress national differences and to forget the international concept of christendom.
> ...National kings sought to maintain power...and to project the status of their new status. To do this, the acquisition of new territory suggested itself." [13]

It was against this background that Europeans colonised the 'New World'. It is no wonder, therefore, that the 'emotional trauma' experienced in Europe was 'passed on' to its colonies, thus having contributed to making "the Caribbean area in 1969 one of the most unstable areas in our unstable world." [14]

After Spain was given the right by Pope Alexander VI to occupy all new lands situated 50 degrees West longitude, 'all hell broke loose', because from the 1530s there was no peace in the region of 'those new found lands'. Francis I, the Catholic king of France at that time, voicing his displeasure at the Pope's declaration:

> "The sun shines for me as for others. I should very much like to see the clause in Adam's will that excludes me from a share of the world." [15]

From the early part of the sixteenth century, therefore, the West Indies became the scene of bitter tension and rivalry, where European nations fought for supremacy, conquering and re-conquering Caribbean lands. A close look at Figure 1.3 may help to explain Brock's comment about:

> "incomplete and fragmented acquisition of European cultural elements during the formative colonial period." [16]

One can argue that these 'cultural elements' have not only frustrated past educational endeavours, but continue to plague educational development in the twentieth-century Commonwealth Caribbean. Brock attempts to illustrate this when he says:

> "During this stage of colonialism there was considerable competition for territorial possession as between the various European powers, and it was not uncommon for islands to change hands.

FIGURE 1.3 CHANGES IN OWNERSHIP: THE IMPACT OF EUROPEAN RIVALRY (WEST INDIES)

Source: Ashdon, Peter (1979) op.cit.

> This further complicated the linguistic problem, especially if the colony ended up under a colonial power which had not been dominant there before. For example, Dominica and Saint Lucia were for most of this formative period French colonies, but became British in the post-Napoleonic nationalisation. Consequently, their people have a patois vernacular, but are required to undertake their schooling in standard English. Even where the vernacular is English based, there is still often a conflict between the language of home and school, especially as the local languages are often unwritten." [17]

Research work done in the United States [18] and Britain [19] strongly suggested that where the language of the student does not match the language of the school (materials and teachers) then the child experiences difficulties in comprehension, and in consequence under-achieves. Although one can argue that the situation or teaching context in the Caribbean is vastly different from either the United States or Britain, and ought to have less damaging effects on the child's ability to learn, the research evidence referred to above may have some relevance to, and implications for, education in the Commonwealth Caribbean, more so because of

> "the sometimes ill-disguised contempt displayed by some members of the educated, and therefore more colonised, elite who have held responsibilities for educational policy and administration." [20]

1.4 A 'Mark of the Beast' - The Stamp of Colonialism

At this point, it seems fair to suggest that the coming of the Europeans has left an indelible mark on the Caribbean and Latin America, not only in terms of the atrocities that were meted out to the indigenous Amerindian population, and the barbarism displayed to African slaves, and, to a lesser extent, the indentured East Indian labourers, but in terms of the diversity of races and cultures resulting which have affected the system of education that the Caribbean has inherited from them. Even the past one hundred and fifty years of 'full-freedom' of African slaves in the 'British West Indies' seems unable to erase such a mark. The question, of course, which one is tempted to ask is: why has the process of education in the Commonwealth Caribbean failed to create the necessary institutions that could truly eradicate what may be rightly called, the 'mark of the beast', and in its place create the 'stamp of Caribbean consciousness and identity'?

Some writers may argue that education cannot compensate for the 'deficiencies' that West Indian colonialism and slavery have created in the British West Indies. If this is true, then the situation appears to be a helpless, even hopeless, one. But, is it? This question will be addressed later. What may be more pertinent at this stage is to examine the circumstances that have helped to create this apparently culturally dependent situation, as it may contribute to the understanding of the nature of the problem facing education in the Commonwealth Caribbean.

By the time the Africans were forcibly brought to the Americas, the Spaniards had almost completely liquidated the indigenous population.[21] Though the number of Amerindians killed as given by different writers[22] seem to vary, no doubt influenced in some way by personal prejudices, they all agreed that "Genocide is applicable to the Spanish treatment of the Arawaks".[23] The estimated population figures for Amerindians given below support the above conclusion.

TABLE 1.2 THE RATE AT WHICH AMERINDIANS WERE LIQUIDATED

Year	Location		
	Hispaniola	Jamaica	
1492	300,000	60,000	* Data unavailable
1507	60,000	*	
1509	40,000	*	
1517	14,000	*	
1548	5,000	*	
1655	*	NONE	

Source: Greenwood R. and Hamber S. (1979) Arawaks to Africans, Macmillan.

It can be argued, therefore, that the extinction of the Amerindians led directly to the importation of other races and ethnic groups, and to the present multi-cultural/multi-ethnic situation which exists in the Commonwealth Caribbean today.

TABLE 1.3 DEMOGRAPHIC TRENDS ILLUSTRATING THE EFFECTS OF THE SUGAR REVOLUTION ON THE POPULATION, 1639-1724

a) BARBADOS

Year	Total Population	White	Black	Landowners
(Before	Sugar)			
1639	30,000	29,000	1,000	7,000
(Sugar	Revolution under way)			
1645	46,000	39,000	7,000	12,000
(After	Sugar)			
1666	70,000	18,000	52,000	760
1685	66,000	20,000	46,000	700

b) JAMAICA

Year	White	Black	Total
1673	8,000	10,000	18,000
1723	8,000	75,000	83,000
1741	10,000	100,000	110,000

c) THE LEEWARD ISLANDS

Year	White	Black	Total
1654	30,000	5,000	35,000
1707	8,000	25,000	33,000
1724	12,500	45,000	57,000

This 'demographic revolution', as reflected in Table 1.3 above, brought about as a result of the agricultural innovations of plantations, especially for the production of sugar, which took place in the Caribbean during the nineteenth century, transformed what was a:

> "Simple population pattern at the end of the eighteenth century...became a heterogenous mixture which included Indians, Chinese, Javanese and Portuguese, with all the infinite gradations, shadings and mixtures produced by miscegenation." [24]

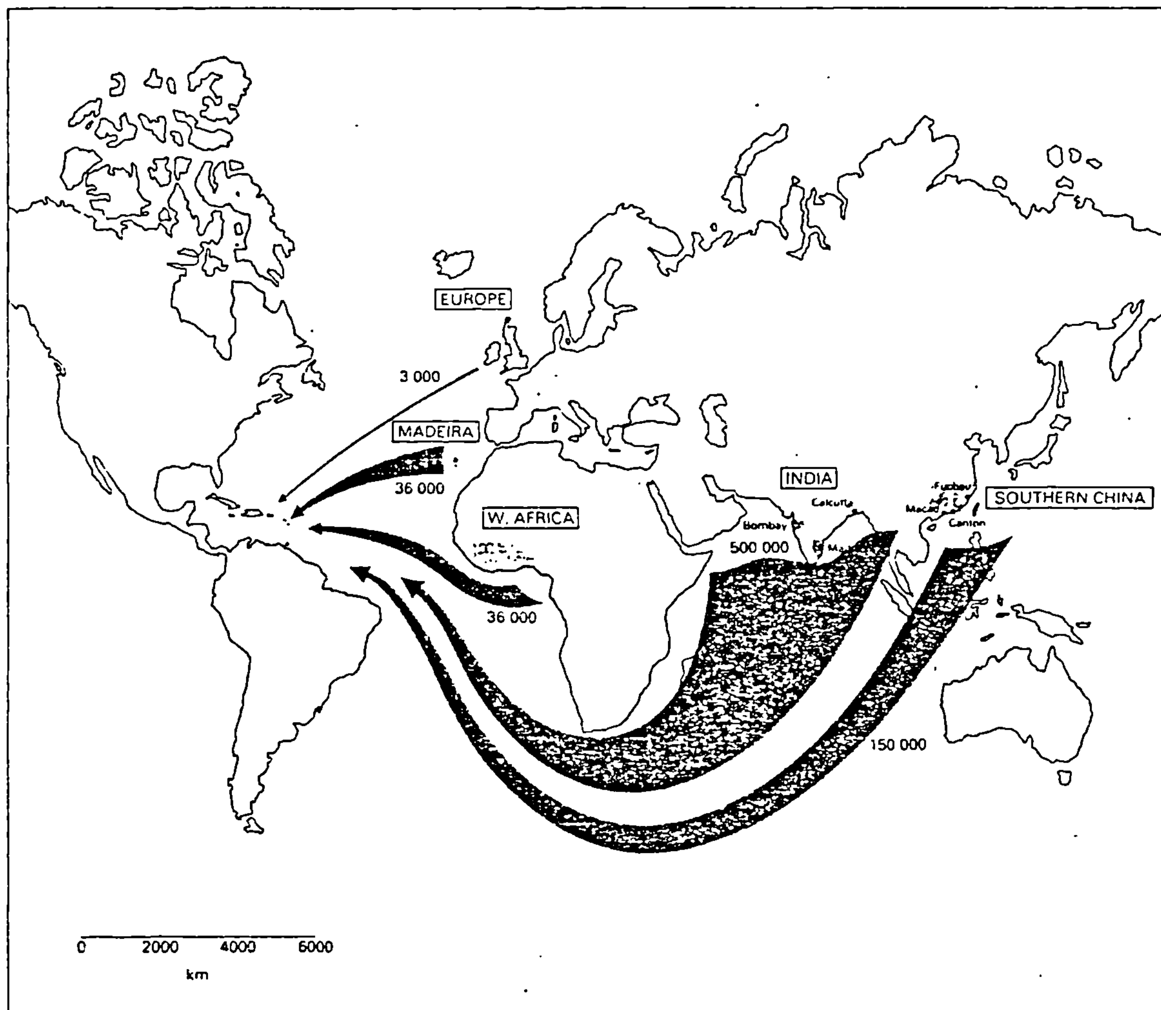
The above quotation gives relevant application here to the argument that:

> "Cultures cannot any longer be understood by contemplation of their navels. None is intelligible in isolation, apart from its adaptation to others in the world cultural net,...it becomes commonsense and necessity to learn how to interpret as much from the outside, from their environmental contexts, as from their inner values." [25]

1.5 The Coming of the East Indians

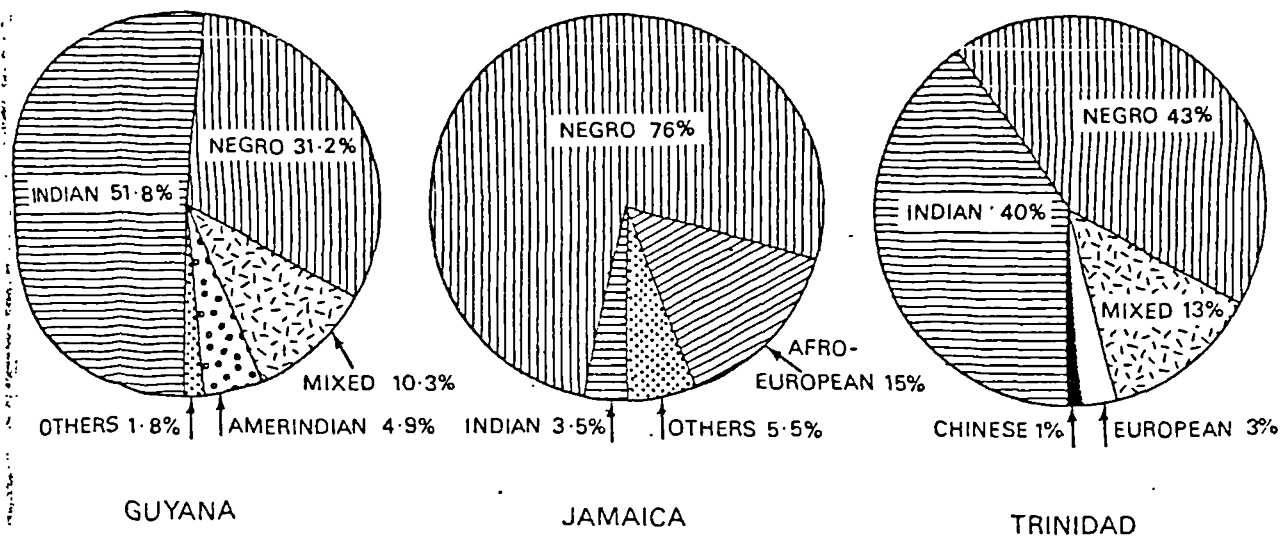
The great demand for cane sugar in Europe during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries led, not only to the arrival of West Africans in the New World but to the coming of the East Indians from 'British' India (See Figure 1.4 and Figure 1.5). The circumstances which 'necessitated' their arrival here are well documented and dealt with by Dookhan, Eric Williams , Augier and Gordon, J.C. Jha and others.

FIGURE 1.4 IMMIGRATION SCHEMES TO THE WEST INDIES 1835-1917

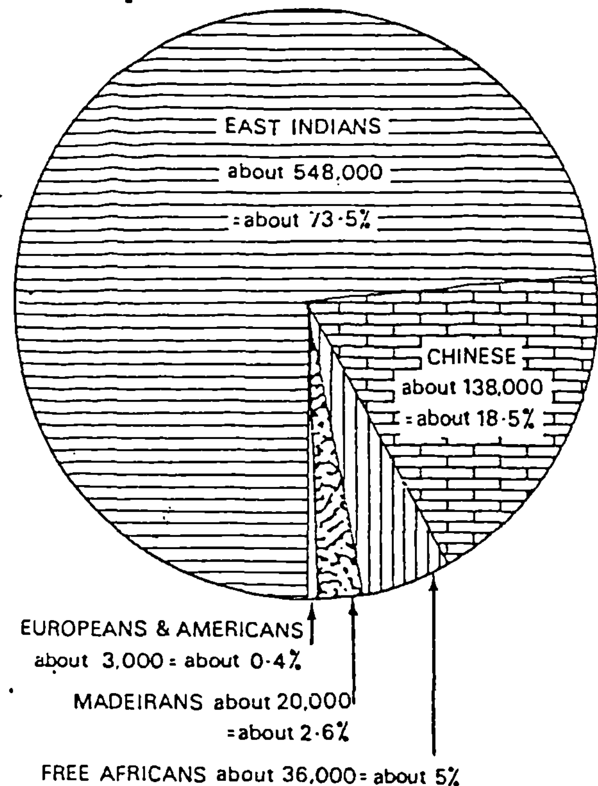


Source: Ashdown, Peter, op.cit., p.31.

FIGURE 1.5 IMMIGRATION INTO THE WEST INDIES (1838-1917) AND THE ETHNIC COMPOSITION OF THREE MAIN, AND OTHER COMMONWEALTH CARIBBEAN NATIONS



Guiana	(almost) 90 000	238
Jamaica	4411	21.5
Trinidad	1864	145
Dominica	290	
St Lucia	238	1.55
Barbados	166	nil
St Vincent	150	1.82
Grenada	120	2.57
Kitts-Nevis	68 50	0.3
Tobago	116	
Antigua	108	
Montserrat	38	nil



Source: Watson, Jack (1979) The West Indian Heritage, Cox and Wynian, pp.121, 123, 185.

Because of this, it may be sufficient to state here that the coming of the East Indians contributed to the pluralism and heterogeneity of the Commonwealth Caribbean, which Brock and Farrel examined in separate articles.

While the creation of a multi-cultural/multi-ethnic Caribbean society has richly diversified the culture within the region, and at times has generated a degree of religious and racial conflict (such as Guyana in the 1960s and Trinidad in the 1970s), it has contributed in a significant way to the racial and religious tolerance of Caribbean people. The existence of the many religions and denominations in the Commonwealth Caribbean, (as is reflected in Figure 1.6) bears testimony to this fact.

1.6 A Policy of Divide and Rule

One can argue that, in spite of the existence of religious and racial tolerance within the Commonwealth Caribbean, the level of tolerance would be higher had it not been for the negative forces which filter through from outside the region into the 'Caribbean World'. These forces and influences seem to be designed to hamper the establishment of harmonious relationships among Caribbean people, so that those who 'benefit' from disharmony in the region will continue to dominate, and so be better able to exploit it politically and economically. It is basically the old 'divide and rule' strategy that is being applied to the twentieth century Caribbean. According to Samaroo:

Figure 1.6

SELECTED RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS IN THE COMMONWEALTH CARIBBEAN, 1975/1984

	HINDU	MUSLIM	METHO-DIST	7th-DAY ADVENT-IST	MORA-VIAN	ROMAN CATHO-LIC	ANGLI-CAN	BAPTIST	EVANGEL-ICAL	SALVA-TION ARMY	RASTA FARIAN-ISM	SHANGO	PRESBYT-ERIAN
ANTIGUA			✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓			
BAHAMAS			✓	✓		✓	✓		✓	✓			
BARBADOS			✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓			
BELIZE		✓		✓		✓	✓		✓	✓			
BRITISH VIRGIN IS.			✓	✓		✓			✓				
DOMINICA			✓	✓		✓	✓		✓				
GRENADA		✓	✓	✓		✓			✓			✓	✓
GUYANA	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓			✓
JAMAICA			✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
MONTSERRAT				✓		✓	✓		✓				
ST KITTS-NEVIS			✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓				
ST LUCIA			✓	✓		✓	✓		✓				
ST VINCENT			✓	✓		✓	✓		✓				
TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓

Information abstracted from

Source: (a) 'Handbook of Churches in the Caribbean', (1975) ed. by Joan Brathwaite, CADEC

(b) Colin Brock 'Education and the Multicultural Caribbean', in Education in Multicultural Societies, edited by Trevor Corner, (1984) p. 178, St. Martin's Press.

> "In the very manner in which African slaves were kept in check by the policy of divide and rule (house slave, field slave, factory slave), so that united black protest could be made difficult, so too was racial antagonism between this new immigrant (Asian) and the African actively cultivated by planters, missionaries and the media, so as to maintain racial separateness and thus prevent joint uprising against European dominance." [26]

This policy is as current in the Caribbean and Latin America today as it was over the past three hundred and fifty years. But the policies and strategies at work in the region today appear to be far more subtle, and perhaps more devious. One of those strategies that has been at work is, what has been identified as the 'dependency syndrome'. This, it would seem, is created and maintained through a well-organised aid and trade system, which literally forces governments in the region to adopt policies that lend support to the process of economic fragmentation and regional disintegration. Two contemporary movements which seem destined to fulfil this purpose are the 'International Monetary Fund' (IMF) and the 'Caribbean Basin Initiative' (CBI), a foreign policy strategy being employed by the United States of America.

It is also reasonable to suggest that the action taken by individual territories to 'woo' firms from outside the Commonwealth Caribbean to set up branches and subsidiaries in their respective territories by offering them incentives and concessions, such as rights to beaches and rights to exploit mineral resources, is part of the 'dependency syndrome'. In this way, the territories become not only 'dangerously dependent' on the non-Caribbean world, but create an

atmosphere of 'territorial competition' which serves to weaken the bargaining power of each individual territory.

According to Tony Best, at a fairly recent Miami Conference on the Caribbean, [27] George Bush, then Vice-President of the USA, criticised many countries of the Caribbean Basin for:

a) having tax rates that far exceed those of the United States; this deters new investment -

b) maintaining poor collection procedures, which leads to a loss of revenue -

c) having too much red tape for entrepreneurs to wade through, which frustrates -

d) extremely inefficient Customs Services.

The logical conclusion one may want to come to here is that countries within the Caribbean Basin are responsible for their poor economic conditions, and should therefore pull themselves up by their own bootstraps. Such a conclusion, however, would be far too hasty and simplistic. While it is true that many Caribbean states require some cutting of red tape, the evidence [28] suggests that, in order to attract investors,

> "Foreigners often receive easier treatment by being exempted from having to comply with regulatory procedures." [29]

Further, Bush's criticism about taxes, red tape, port charges and import duties, can easily suggest that:

a) the Caribbean states should open their doors to American businessmen without requiring some responsibility to their host communities - [30]

b) the United States is 'above board' in its trade relations with Caribbean states.

The views expressed by Bernard St. John at the aforementioned Miami conference suggest that the 'protectionist forces in Washington' do all they can to stunt any growth of trade between the U.S and the Caribbean. Best observes:

> "The US maintains considerable regulatory procedures, particularly in the area of agribusiness. The rules and regulations which Caribbean exporters must satisfy before they make a single shipment of agricultural produce to America often require the hiring of specialists to advise them on getting around the red tape." [31]

While this quotation and Bush's criticisms above clearly demonstrate the plight of the Commonwealth Caribbean, as far as the metropolitan countries are concerned, it also points to the need for an educational system that 'should not be rekindled in the service of patriotic goals', but whose role should be:

> "Conceived...as a liberating force, which attempts to break open closed societies and to encourage democracy." [32]

Perceived in this way, any educational system that is to be 'effectively functional' within the Commonwealth Caribbean must be deeply rooted in

'Caribbean reality', and must also have the ability to produce West Indians, who, apart from obtaining a world's view of life, subscribe first and foremost to a shared 'Caribbean perspective'. Does the educational system in the Commonwealth Caribbean possess the necessary ingredients to facilitate such an outcome? But more importantly, does it see this as one of its goals or responsibilities?

1.7 Education, Race and Identity Within the Caribbean

During the days of slavery in the West Indies, there was a relentless battle between the missionaries and the planters; the former eager and willing to 'educate' the slaves and ex-slaves; the latter extremely reluctant towards any effort aimed at 'instructing' them. Many reasons have been advanced for the attitude of the planters towards an 'education' for the slaves and ex-slaves. The most commonly cited reason is that the planters feared that:

> "teaching might unsettle the minds of the slaves and make them contemplate alternatives to slave labour. Consequently, they expressed resentment at the efforts of the various missionary societies which sought to teach blacks." [33]

Two admissions are implied here: Firstly, that education is a powerful force, and secondly, that the negro has the ability to benefit positively from education, and that when that happens it becomes more than a tool - it becomes a defensive weapon in his hands. Whether the negro saw the potential of education in the same way as the planter did, and whether the negro recognised and accepted the planter's admission that he (the negro) has abilities which he can develop and use 'positively'

and 'effectively' is another matter.

1.8 Identity Crisis: Real or Imagined?

Caribbean literature is overburdened with the issue of the 'identity crisis' of the Caribbean person, and the inferiority complex which, it is claimed, is an inherent part of him. Richmond writes:

> "While the colour conflict elsewhere takes the form of a struggle for power between the white man and the black, the conflict in the West Indies is the struggle going on within the personality of the Negro himself. Here more than anywhere, the legacy of slavery is to be observed.... Legal emancipation was not social or economic emancipation, still less was it psychological emancipation?..." [34]

While 'evidence' can be derived from the actions of many West Indians, which may lend support to this theory, to accept it uncritically is to take a fatalistic view of life, thus becoming more dependent as a 'legally free person', than as a slave. Even in slavery the slaves revolted with the hope and determination of being freed through their own efforts. Why then is it assumed in the latter half of the twentieth century (over one hundred and fifty years since slavery in the British West Indies has been abolished legally) that West Indians are not emancipated socially, economically and psychologically? Is this a modern attempt to condition the minds of West Indians into believing that they are the 'slaves' of the twentieth century?

A possible explanation for the above assumption can be that the enslaving and colonising agents at work in the twentieth century are far more subtle than those of the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries, and as a result the effects on present day West Indians ought to be more damaging. Eric Williams argued that:

> "Dependence on the outside world in the Caribbean in 1969 is...economic... cultural, institutional, intellectual and psychological." [35]

Is Williams' concept of 'dependence' identical to Richmond's 'absence of emancipation' among West Indian Negroes? Beckford writes:

> "...the greatest affection of dependent societies is the 'colonised condition of the minds of the people'. This is no mere whimsical irritant to do with parrots and pieces-of-eight, but a latter-day bondage, more subtle and enduring than physical slavery. Almost the entire educational scene in the West Indies is a legacy of colonialism..." [36]

If we accept the view that education can 'positively unsettle the mind' by causing someone to be more aware of his/her situation, and if we further agree that education in the twentieth century has been more stimulating than it has ever been in the nineteenth century, and if it is accepted that West Indians are 'normal' and as 'educable' as any other people, then it seems logical to conclude that, in a general sense, West Indians of the twentieth century 'ought' to be better equipped to 'deal effectively' with the legacy of slavery and colonialism, even though the 'new slavery' and twentieth century colonialism

might be "more subtle and enduring than physical slavery".

In spite of the 'ought', it is useful to look at what is considered the 'reality' of the 'entire educational scene in the West Indies', for therein lies the heart of the problem. Put briefly and simply, 'education' can be used either to liberate or subjugate a people. Which of these two functions it is designed to perform may be 'seen' or 'felt' in its curricula, including the 'agents' (teachers and administrators) who operationalise them. If, therefore, the curricula, apart from being inconsistent and at least partly irrelevant to the cultures of the recipients, are geared to 'produce' imitators rather than creators, 'dependency' in place of 'independence', then one may indeed have in that society the kind of 'Mimic Men' about whom Naipaul [37] wrote.

Césaire summarises the situation very well when he says:

> "West Indian education, like West Indian life, began without a positive philosophy so fundamental to its existence. With negative, self-defeating, oppressor-oppressed, exploiter-exploited, superior-inferior contradiction manifested in every aspect of the system, so that the complete lifelong lesson for a student (and he learns it thoroughly), is that he is intellectually inferior. Even for those who have excelled in the system, it becomes a lifelong struggle to disprove this MYTH." [38]

Implicit in the above quotation can be one of the following suggestions:

versity
rary

a) that the Afro-Caribbean person has virtually no control over his perception of himself, and therefore, there is no hope of breaking the vicious cycle of subordination and second-class citizenship, even in his own native land;

b) that education programmes, whether internally or externally generated, have not succeeded, and might never succeed in erasing the West Indian slave and colonial part;

c) that the Commonwealth Caribbean citizen will, and can never be truly free, or independent; or

d) that for education to be a real 'cleansing' and liberating agent, the people of the Commonwealth Caribbean must experience a true educational revolution, engineered by Caribbean 'revolutionary' educators whose perceptual development has not been tainted or 'destroyed' from past contact with countries who still 'see' and treat Caribbean nationals as racially, politically and culturally inferior.

In the view of the writer, the last position above (d) seems to offer the best, probably the only hope for the Commonwealth Caribbean. If education is to play the role that planters in the West Indies believed it had the potential to play, namely, that of 'unsettling the minds' of people in a 'positive' way, then those who have responsibility for educational development in the Caribbean, and are serious about ensuring that education is geared towards that purpose, should consider the suggestion stated in (d) above as an alternative.

One of the problems with this suggestion is that it can appear to the political directorate in most Commonwealth Caribbean countries to be too radical an alternative to consider, because it can mean, as far as they are concerned, 'political suicide'. Whether or not this attitude towards radical alternatives has been fostered by the colonial education system, has been suggested elsewhere in this thesis. What needs reinforcing at this point is the view that everything in the Commonwealth Caribbean that seems to depart from the mould cast by metropolitan countries is 'looked' at with suspicion and may even be labelled 'subversive'.

1.9 Educational Development and Dependency: An Overview

It is not unreasonable to argue that all Caribbean territories seem 'hooked' on the acquisition of modern technologies which are developed by the metropolitan countries, and which when acquired by third world countries, make them more dependent on these 'advanced' countries. The expectations of a higher standard of living and social services are indeed rising, but the required attendant education which would guarantee the attainment of those expectations, and more, does not appear to be receiving the necessary attention. One writer recently charged that:

> "Caribbean countries are still searching for models outside their shores. West Indians are failing to create and strengthen their models to suit Caribbean reality... Instead the region is continuing to look outside for systems and policies to copy." [39]

This view is echoed by George Lamming when he argues that though

> "These institutions of the 1930s (political parties and trade unions) were native, a genuine creation of peoples' power, their leadership retained a special loyalty to the old imperial guidance...The last fifty years, since 1938, must be regarded as a period of transition...the political directorates have changed complexion, but they operate within the same basic institutions. There has been no great structural change in the pattern of ownership and control; and the new political directorates have never been a part of the old ruling clan. They govern but they do not rule. The transnational corporation has assumed a novel dominance in all regional affairs." [40]

This certainly is a true picture of the Commonwealth Caribbean of the 1980s: a world in which a dependence on 'wholesale' borrowing has become endemic. Of course, one can argue that nothing is wrong with searching for, or borrowing, systems from outside the region, if it is done as the Japanese did: [41] borrow only those 'aspects' which would accommodate and encourage the development and enrichment of Caribbean established institutions. If this is not done in conjunction with the creation of West Indian institutions, it would be foolhardiness on the part of leaders in the region to look to education in its present form to transform Caribbean societies.

Those who are genuinely concerned about the 'liberation' of the Caribbean world must accept, as a precondition, that:

> "A vision of the new society or a new Caribbean person would have to begin with a transformation of the school at all levels of learning. But this would require a political mechanism which changed the role of the school from being an agent of social control to becoming a force of social transformation." [42]

This writer maintains, however, that in spite of the inherent weaknesses of the colonial education system, it has 'thrown up' from time to time, Caribbean men and women with high levels of academic competence, creativity and intellectual independence, who have used their 'insights' to challenge the very system which gave them birth. Some of these are: Alexander Bustamante, Grantley Adams, Arthur A. Ciprani, Uriah Butler, Eric Williams, Hubert Critchlow, Eric Gairy and Maurice Bishop, to name a few. Bearing this in mind, in the search for 'indigenous' institutions those features of the present system which are relevant and adaptable to Caribbean 'reality' should be retained and made more functionally effective. The attempt in Grenada, during the life of the revolution, 1979-1983, to transform the education system failed, not only because of the debilitating effects of the ruthlessness of the tentacles of twentieth century colonialism, but also because of the refusal of the political directorate of the Peoples' Revolutionary Government (PRG) to recognise and utilise those 'elements' of the existing system, which could have bridged the gap between the 'old' and the 'seen' system. The new system was based on the premise that:

> "There is no such thing as a neutral education process. Education either functions as an instrument which is used to facilitate the integration of generations into the logic of the present system and bring about conformity to it, or it becomes the practice of freedom, the means by which men and women deal critically and creatively with reality and discover how to participate in the transformation of this world." [43]

Although the system tried in Grenada failed to realise its ultimate goals, it is the only ex-British colony in the Commonwealth Caribbean to demonstrate in a practical and radical way the 'courage' and the 'will' to challenge, the system imposed on it by colonialism and bequeathed by slavery.

Later in this thesis, a detailed analysis of 'Teacher Education' and general educational development in Grenada will be attempted. At this stage, attention will be turned to the general development of education in other territories comprising what is now termed the Commonwealth Caribbean.

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CHAPTER TWO

THE DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PROVISION IN THE COMMONWEALTH CARIBBEAN

2.1 Introduction

Available literature on the development of education in the Commonwealth Caribbean seems to suggest that serious discussion of formal education in the Commonwealth Caribbean ought to begin with the year 1834, because prior to that there was very little in terms of education in the then British West Indies. This is due to the fact that formal education and slavery were deemed incompatible by the plantocracy and colonial authorities. Africans, it would appear, were not enslaved to be 'educated' even though this was part of the rationale used to justify their enslavement. Keeping them in ignorance was later claimed as supporting the rationale that it:

> "would unsettle them and give them ideas beyond their station in life." [1]

The implicit assumption was that Africans were destined to slave on plantations.

While this view clearly illustrates the intention of the 'master planter' to keep the African in ignorance through illiteracy, so that control would be easy, it also points to the inability and/or the unwillingness of the plantation masters to perceive the moral worth

of a more humane method of social control. The history of slavery in the New World bears testimony to this and to the fulfilment of the planters self-created fears. Most of the slave revolts in the Caribbean were led by individuals who were exposed to some form of 'book learning', among whom were Cuffy (1763), Boukman (1792), Toussaint 'L' Ouverture (1794) and Samuel Sharpe (1831). The achievements of such men bear witness to the awareness of the planters that to educate is to liberate. As a result "nothing in the form of education was provided for blacks".[2]

2.2 Early Education For Whites

When slavery existed in the New World, those whites who could afford it paid private tutors to educate their children. This tuition was initially carried out in the West Indies but later sons in particular were sent to England or North America to boarding schools and universities. Daughters were generally kept at home to finish their studies under private tuition, or in endowed schools, where such existed, in the islands. Endowed schools, sometimes referred to as 'charity schools', had been established, with the exception of Codrington School in Barbados, as a response to the pressing educational needs of poor whites who were unable to send their children to school overseas, or to afford high tuition fees locally. Such schools:

> "offered an English grammar school type of education in the classics for fees or a general elementary school education without fees."[3]

Three of the most famous endowed schools were Harrison's Free school and Codrington in Barbados, and Wolmer's School in Jamaica. So the main focus of schooling was the white population, and although the money left by Christopher Codrington (1710) was intended:

> "to found a school for slave children ...when it was opened as Codrington Grammar School in 1743, the first pupils were white....The first intake of coloured and black pupils was not made until the next century." [4]

Whatever educational deprivation poor whites might have experienced, it was based only on their inability to pay school fees, and "because colonial legislatures neglected to make provision for education." [5] The fact is that education was not considered, in the Caribbean, an economic investment. As Lewis argues:

> "Whatever productive values the social services have, and this certainly includes education, basically they are consumptive...not investment." [6]

2.3 The Early Development of Education for Blacks

With such a view prevailing in the British West Indies, the idea of providing a formal schooling system by planters or legislatures was unrealistic. Profit was the motive of the colonial exercise, and anything considered likely to reduce profit, directly or indirectly, did not have a place in the scheme of things. But the Sterling report of May, 1835 stated:

> "There was before abundant proof of the eagerness of some of the slaves for knowledge...All the writers of the returns which form the basis of this paper declare that there has been since the 1st of August a great increase of the desire for knowledge." [7]

This 'thirst for schooling' was partly created by the nature of the slave society, and also by the missionary activities among the slaves which generated 'spiritual heat' intensifying that thirst. The Marxist view that:

> "It is not the consciousness of men that determines their environment, but rather the environment that determines their consciousness..." [8]

may be applicable here. The atmosphere created was not the intention of the missionaries' educational efforts during slavery. The 'education' offered was essentially of a religious nature, and similar to the pattern used in England,

> "for children who worked in factories and had Sundays as their free day. In addition to reading and catechism, some of them were taught Arithmetic and Writing." [9]

Although the aim of this form of schooling was essentially to enable the slaves to read the bible, it had the effects of making them, in general, "more obedient and reliable workers." [10] So while there was no systematic formal education for blacks prior to emancipation,

both private and mission schools did in fact operate in the British West Indies.

As was mentioned, private schools catered essentially for 'free blacks' (blacks who were manumitted either through their own effort or the goodness of their master's heart), and 'free coloureds' (a group of mixed African and European ancestry). Mission schools, on the other hand, sought primarily to Christianise blacks. One may well assume that it was for this reason that they were 'taught' to read. Whatever the interpretation one may choose to place on the intentions of the educational activities of these religious bodies in the British West Indies (Moravians, 1756; Baptists, 1792; Anglicans, 1794; Methodists, 1789) it is true to say that the idea of formal schooling was introduced by "religious bodies with a missionary purpose", [11] but that it was also considered an effective tool for human development. D'Oyley gives support to this view when he writes:

> "...the stronger nonconformist groups, Baptists and Moravians, identified formal education as an integral part of village development. Such a pattern gave rise to many small, often cottage-type training centres which nurtured a close community spirit, benefitted from community labour for the building of the normal and day schools, and in turn educated the neighbours to better methods of planting and carpentry." [12]

The fact, therefore, that the Anglican clergy, because of its firm support of the 'establishment', and its hostility to non-

conformist missionaries at that time, has been described as having little impact on education in the West Indies (except Barbados), should not suggest that some religious bodies did not play a 'positive' role in West Indian educational development, pre-emancipation. They did not merely inhabit the British West Indies, as can be seen in Figure 2.1, many of them were actively engaged in education, because they saw it "as a priority concern".[13] The work of the Presbyterian mission among the East Indians in Trinidad and Guyana lends further support to this view.

2.4 Significant Educational Issues in the British West Indies and Commonwealth Caribbean

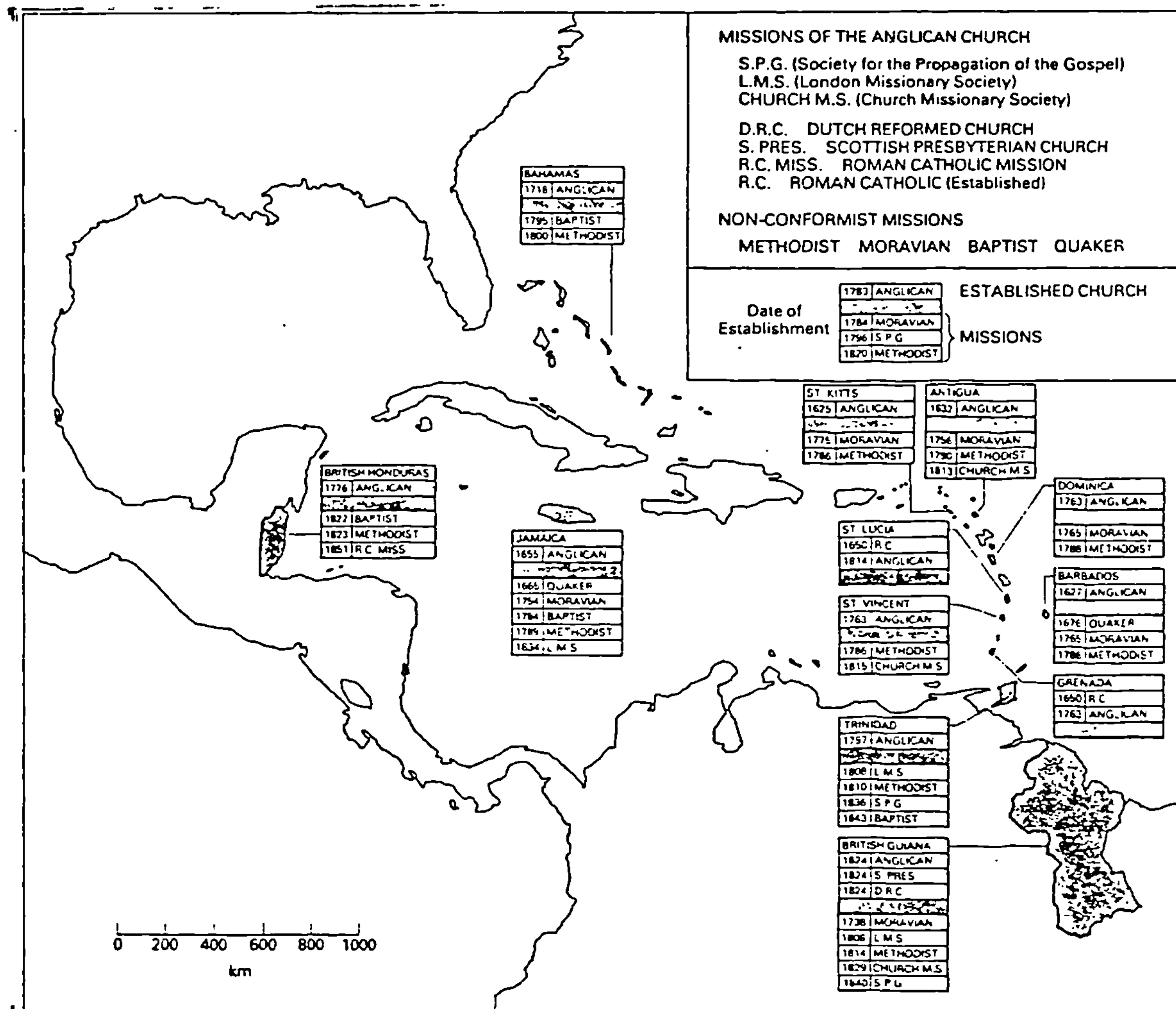
It is hoped that by a closer examination of some of the educational activities and programmes which have been implemented in the Commonwealth Caribbean from 1835, the issues raised above can be clarified and put into proper perspective, and the relationship that exists between the past and present systems of education in the British West Indies and the Commonwealth Caribbean will be established.

2.4.1 Post Emancipation Issues and Developments:

It is claimed that "the idea for a public system of universal education[14] in the British West Indies was born in 1833", following the resolution in the House of Commons:

> "That His Majesty be enabled to defray any such expense as he may incur...in providing upon liberal and comprehensive principles for the religious and moral Education of the Negro population to be emancipated."

FIGURE 2.1 CHURCH AND MISSION IN THE BRITISH WEST INDIES (1783-1860)



Source: Ashdon, Peter, op.cit., p.25.

As a result of this resolution, the British Government voted £25,000 a year in 1835 and 1836, and £30,000 a year thereafter until 1841. That sum of money was distributed among the Moravian Society, the Wesleyan Missionary Society, the Baptist Missionary Society, the London Missionary Society, the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, the Church Missionary Society, and the Ladies Negro Education Society. It was "to be used to construct schools and, after 1837, to assist in paying teachers." [15]

The decision to allow the churches to administer the Negro Education Grant was based on a recommendation by Rev. John Sterling. Sterling, who was asked to recommend what policy should be adopted in initiating 'Negro Education', was chosen for that task on the basis of what was considered his

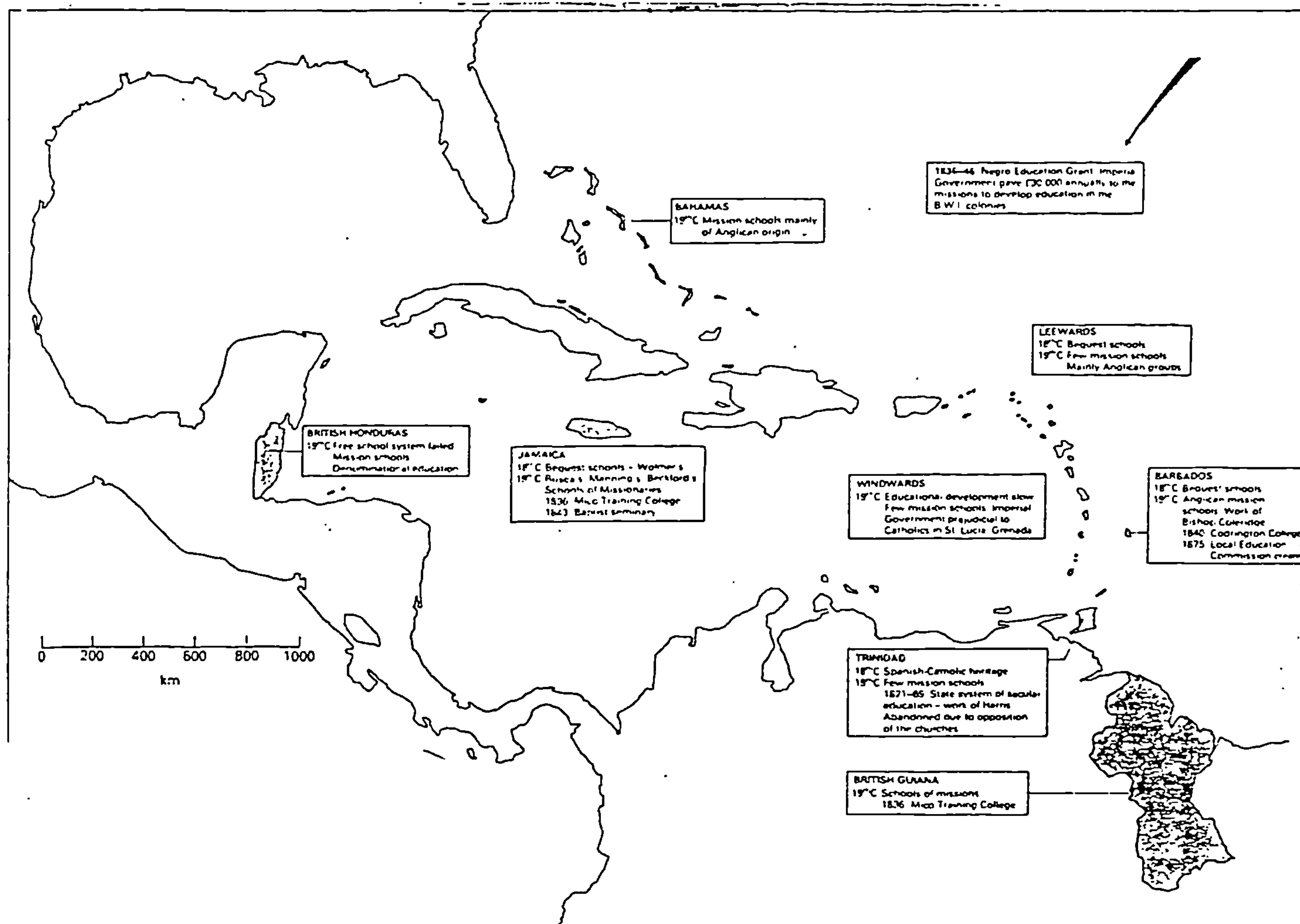
> "...practical acquaintance with the state of the Negro population, and his knowledge of educational enquiries in England and Europe." [16]

Sterling reasoned that, in spite of the weaknesses of the churches' system of education, they were the most suitable group for two reasons:

a) because of their previous 'success' with instructing the slaves;

b) because "a new and distinct system would tend to interfere with their operations without deriving any assistance from their group." [17]

FIGURE 2.2 THE BEGINNINGS OF INSTITUTIONALISED EDUCATION IN THE BRITISH WEST INDIES, (1836)



Source: Ashdon, Peter, op.cit., p.32.

Following the emancipation of the slaves in 1835, therefore, "the prospects of education for the ex-slaves looked bright". [18] Many mission schools were set up. (See Figure 2.2). The Roman Catholic church, however, not being perceived favourably by the metropole country, was forced to set up its own schools (with help from the Mico bequest) in the predominantly Catholic territories of Trinidad, St. Lucia and Grenada. This was an example of discrimination in the British West Indies and as a result it can be argued that, even at that point in time, whatever was offered to the territories was not based on purely humanitarian grounds, but mainly on what was beneficial to the 'mother country'. One can also argue that the offering of formal schooling to the ex-slaves was not without 'strings' being attached.

Whether or not this set the standard of behaviour for the granting of aid in the latter half of the twentieth century is open to discussion; what appears to be a reasonable conclusion is that such 'conditional giving' contributed to the limited progress in education in the British West Indies over the years by apparently setting the 'rules of the game' for Caribbean administrators. Religion, race, and later social class, were factors which determined who received the education that was offered in the nineteenth and first half of the twentieth century British West Indies. Today, in the Commonwealth Caribbean, it would seem that political ideology and social class are major determinants in the distribution of educational services and opportunities. The United States' negative attitudes towards Grenada when a Socialist government was in control, as opposed to its present 'positive' attitude under the Blaize administration illustrates the point clearly.

In spite of this 'negative' effect on the growth of education in the Commonwealth Caribbean, the Negro Education Grant, it is claimed, "gave a great impetus to education in the British West Indies." [19] Through this grant

> "38 new elementary schools were created in 1835 and 52 in 1836, while 'normal' schools were established in Jamaica, the Bahamas and Antigua." [20]

In Jamaica, for example, the number of schools "increased from 36 in 1833 to 307 in 1836." This revolution in the establishment of schools has been labelled as 'considerable progress'. If progress in education is measured only by the number of school buildings built, and the enrolment figures, and not by other more 'human criteria', then considerable progress in education in the British West Indies was indeed made.

But should progress in Education be measured simply in terms of building? What really is progress in education? The Marriot-Mayhew report (1931-32) reminds us "that education ought not to be enforced until it is, in the true sense of the term, effective." [21] This reminder can be instructive, for while buildings are necessary, and high enrolment figures important in universal education, the quality of instruction may be considered the most crucial ingredient in the teaching-learning process. Describing the quality of teachers operating in the early nineteenth century British West Indies, the Sterling report states:

> "Those who enter on the employment of teaching are commonly persons who have failed in every other pursuit....From the greater ignorance and the lower state of mental cultivation of all kinds in the West Indies, the situation among teachers, in relation to quality, must be extremely poor." [22]

Implicit in this comparison is the suggestion that although the quality of life in Britain at that time was 'good', or rather better than what it was in the British West Indies, there was, however, great ignorance and a low state of mental cultivation present in that society. If this condition may be attributed, in part, to the absence of universal education then it might be useful to look briefly at what the educational situation in Britain might have been at that point in time. For the purpose of illustrating relationships, it might be helpful to continue, for a short while, a comparative approach.

According to Watson, the pattern of development of schools in the British West Indies was

> "similar to that in Britain. The earliest schools were run by religious bodies and were financed from legacies...In 1833, the same year that the Act of Emancipation was passed, the British government took its first interest in schools in Britain, granting £20,000 to them to help meet their costs. Two years later, a grant of £25,000 was made towards the education of Africans in the West Indies...." [23]

By 1870, a national system of state primary schools was introduced in England and Wales and paid for out of public funds; and soon afterwards Britain experienced, not only free and 'compulsory' elementary

education, but secondary education as well in the early twentieth century, although the secondary (grammar) schools arising from the 1902 Act were highly selective and elitist. Universal secondary education in Britain was not in fact achieved until the 1944 Education Act.

The provision of a state system of education in Britain, by a British Government, after such a system was introduced in the British colonies can easily suggest an apparent neglect of its own people in favour of the ex-slaves; and of course on the surface there can be a certain logic in that line of argument, for one may ask: why should any country set about establishing popular education for another people before its own? But surely this can be looked at from a different standpoint, whereby one can suggest that the apparent greater educational concern for the ex-slaves stemmed, not from the goodness of the British government's heart, but from 'pangs of conscience'. This argument would be based on the fact that the funds which were used to provide popular education in Britain and the British West Indies were in any case, at least in part, generated from the labour of African slaves in the West Indies.

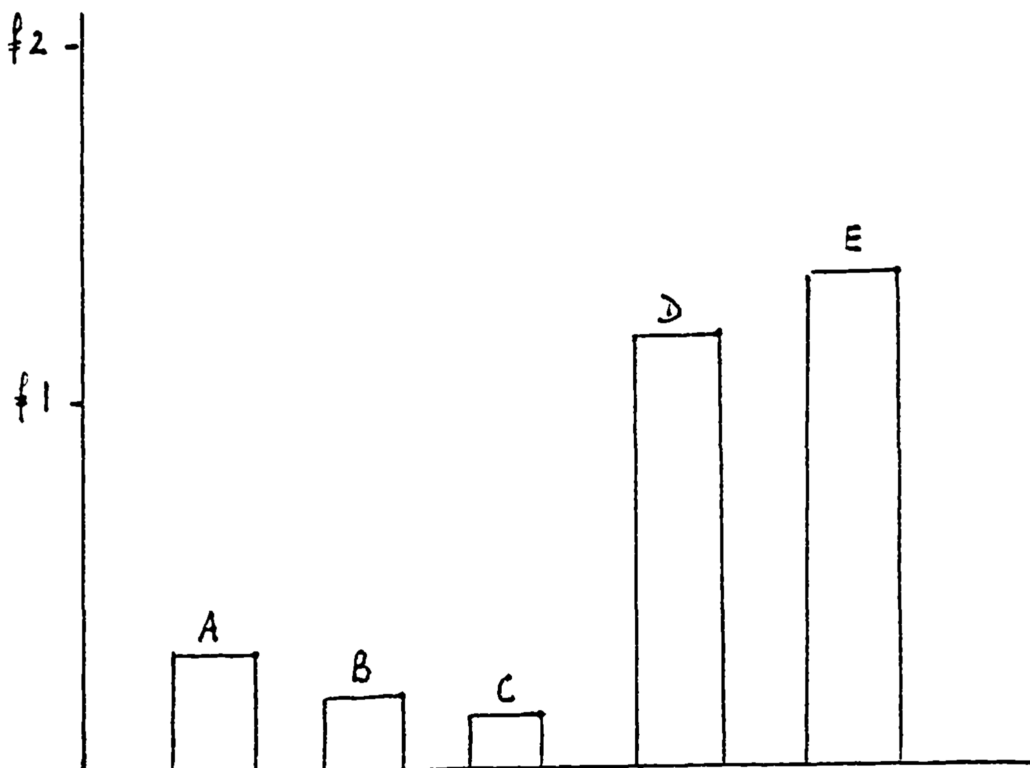
Using expenditure on education in the British West Indies, in 1931-32 to disprove any suggestion of greater genuine British concern for the education of ex-slaves than for people in Britain, Eric Williams showed that:

> "Allowing for the difference in the cost of living, the English expenditure per child remained about six times as large as the expenditure in the West Indies." [24]

TABLE 2.1 EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION PER HEAD OF POPULATION, 1931-32

Location	Allocation
Trinidad	6s. 10d.
Grenada	3s. 5d. approximately
St. Lucia	2s. 8d. approximately
Huntingdonshire	£1. 7s. 0d.
Bedfordshire	£1. 11s. 1d.

FIGURE 2.3 EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION BASED ON LOCATION, 1931-32



Key: A Trinidad
B Grenada
C Saint Lucia
D Hampshire
E Berkshire

Source: The writer, based on data from Williams, Eric, op.cit.

One could argue, however, that 1835-1931 is a very long period of time, and the consciences of politicians in England towards West Indian education might have hardened during that period. Because of this possibility, to conclude that there was not a greater genuine concern for the education of the ex-slaves in the British West Indies than for the lower classes in Britain at that time could be difficult.

The progress that was claimed to have been made in West Indian education during the first few years after emancipation was shortly to be retarded. The early enthusiasm for schools soon declined, and "prospects for a rapid spread of primary education throughout the region dimmed." [25] The reasons advanced for this unfortunate development are several:

a) the difficulty experienced in acquiring titles for land sites on which to build schools;

b) religious bodies, who had to meet the running costs of schools (such as teachers salaries and books), began to find it increasingly difficult to meet their financial obligations;

c) the phased withdrawal of the Negro Education Grant (1842-45);

d) the unwillingness of colonial legislatures to make adequate financial provision for education;

e) severe economic problems after 1846, and recurring depressions in the sugar industry;

f) a supply of poorly prepared teachers.

2.4.2 East Indian Education: A Special Case:

It is claimed both by Dookhan and Brereton that

> "the education of East Indians in Trinidad and Guyana created special problems which required special attention." [26]

No education system seems able to function in isolation from the society it serves; the nature of the society and its existing social climate, at any time, will permeate the atmosphere within the educational system. Therefore, it must have been expected that the social, political and economic climate which existed in the Caribbean at the time of the East Indians arrival, and the background from which they came, would have created special problems for the 'newcomers' and for the society of which they were to become a permanent and significant part. According to Watson:

> "To the old problem of how to develop societies which contained whites, blacks and mulattoes was now added the further problem of integrating newcomers who were mostly brown. This was perhaps the most important result of the Asian immigration: it was a lasting result." [27]

When the East Indians came to the Caribbean they brought with them, and kept, their religions, languages and other aspects of their culture, a culture which some people may argue did not experience the same organised and violent attack as was the culture of the West African slaves. Some writers believe that differential treatment was meant to set the two groups apart. Ron Sanders, for example, wrote:

> "Moreover, the Indians were allowed to maintain their religion and customs which were strengthened by the arrival of every new batch of indentured labourers and which were very strange to the African community who had been forced to adopt the religion and practices of their former masters. Both in physical and cultural terms, the Indian indentured labourers became an enclave society - separate and distinct from the Africans." [28]

For that 'privilege' the Indians paid a price, 'willingly'. When the Indians arrived, Christianity was the only socially acceptable religion in the British West Indies. It seems logical, therefore, that the religions of any non-Christian group would, at that time, not simply be looked upon with suspicion, but would be despised and opposed. To many observers that may appear to be a contradiction, but that was the situation which the Indians encountered. Yet, they held on to their religious practices. As a result their marriages were considered illegal, their children illegitimate, and inheriting property and land from parents and spouses was made extremely difficult. But their suffering went beyond this. Their decision to remain an isolated community, within British Guyana and the British colony of Trinidad, had not simply segregated them culturally, but also resulted in societal neglect in the education of East Indian children, and difficulties in securing teaching in Christian schools.

Claypole [29] points out that Indians "were almost never encouraged to set up their own schools", because they were regarded as the backbone of the sugar industry, as far as a reliable labour force was concerned, and:

> "when the Guyana government passed a law for compulsory primary education in 1876, it was agreed that Indian children should be exempted." [30]

As a result of that decision, Trinidad experienced an illiteracy rate of 97% among the East Indian population in 1911, in spite of the fact that the Canadian Presbyterian Mission (1868), which had proven to be "the most important exception to the neglect of Indian education", [31] had set up a network of primary schools in Trinidad and Guyana. By 1911, that mission "opened sixty-one free primary schools for Indians, as well as two high schools and a teachers' college" [32] in Trinidad. They (Canadians) had also established in Guyana, eighty-four primary schools by 1930.

Although further barriers to Indian education were removed in 1933, "when education was made compulsory for all Indian children", [33] thus doubling the number of Indians attending school, that number was still far less than the percentage of black children who did attend school. Many reasons have been advanced for the existence then of that situation. But the one that seems to be given the greatest significance is the unwillingness among parents to send their children to school outside the estate because they feared:

a) that the church schools would seek to convert their children to Christianity;

b) that creole pupils and teachers would abuse them;

c) many Indian parents "objected to their daughters getting any education at all, and when times were hard the children were needed to earn wages or mind the babies at home." [34]

Any attempt to applaud the continued effort of the Canadian Presbyterians may be justified, for no doubt some of the achievements of Indians, especially women, in Guyana and Trinidad must be credited to their success in enabling some barriers to be broken down. Their occasional use of Hindi in the classroom, and their policy of employing Indian women as teachers could be accepted as effective and creative educational strategies. What may be useful to remember though is the observation made by Brock that may be instructive to Caribbean educators that:

> "The school was the right arm of Presbyterian Evangelism and was instrumental in opening the door of many homes to the gospel." [35]

Although the impact of the coming of the Indians differed from one territory to another, it can be argued that today, in terms of numbers, economic strength and educational achievement, the East Indians have really proved right the view that "cultures never stand still and what may be a shadow today can be a substance tomorrow." [36] The weaker cultural impact of the East Indian immigration on Jamaica and the Lesser Antilles is explained by the details given in Figure 1.5.

2.5 From the Mid-Nineteenth to the Mid-Twentieth Century

The situation which existed in the Commonwealth Caribbean between 1838 and 1938 is vividly described and re-created by Brereton in the following quotation:

> "Peasants and labourers were faced with low wages, unemployment....and little demand for what they could grow. They could afford school fees or even (where primary education was free) to clothe their children decently enough for school. They needed their children to work on the estates where they could earn a few cents, or to help on the family 'farm', and with the weekly marketing. The girls often had to stay at home to mind babies, while their mothers worked. At the same time, the depressions in the sugar market, especially between 1846 and about 1865, and between 1884 and 1903, reduced the colonial governments' revenue. This gave them a good EXCUSE to cut funds for primary education." [37]

The reluctance on the part of the colonial legislatures to educate the ex-slaves is understandable if one subscribes to the theory that education in the hands of the poor and black is always a destructive instrument against the plantation system and commercial agriculture. However, the evidence in the late twentieth century does not seem to suoport that view. The unwillingness of those charged with the responsibility to provide education for blacks might be the best explanation for the inadequacies in quantity, and the "woefully deficient quality in the education provided". As one planter put it:

> "Give them some education in the way of reading and writing, but no more. Even then I would say educate only the bright ones; not the whole mass. If you do educate whole mass of the agricultural population you will be deliberately ruining the country." [38]

It was felt that as long as the Caribbean remains an agricultural society, education will be of no use to blacks. Basically, it was a fear that book learning will make blacks feel that they were too good for field labour.

Few Caribbeanists in the latter half of the twentieth century will dispute the view that most West Indian youths with some book learning do not 'see' agriculture as a worthy and viable career option. There is no doubt that such an attitude has its roots in plantation slavery and the inhumane experience of the African slaves at the hands of the white planter class. This has been reinforced over the years, not only by the low status and poor rewards and conditions that agricultural workers in the Caribbean have experienced, but also by the school curricula which students have been 'fed'. In order for agriculture to be an attractive alternative for students in the Commonwealth Caribbean, it must offer meaningful rewards in social and economic terms. The words of Eric Williams are pertinent here:

> "It is of little use to educate for a good life on the land if the people have none or cannot live by it." [39]

In a real sense, therefore, the attitude of the planters towards educating blacks, and the blacks negative attitude, then and now, to agriculture is a product of the "double historical yoke" [40] - i.e. slavery and colonialism.

There was a feeling current in the British West Indies and Commonwealth Caribbean up to the early part of the 1970s that only bright students should be given "a chance to win as many scholarships as they can...." [41], of course this was not applicable to blacks at first because the suggestion was based on the myth that in the British West Indies "parental income was synonymous with scholastic ability." [42]

This further reflects the strong and passionate desire among the ruling class to ensure the continued existence of a society in which the planter class and the wealthy dominate Caribbean society, and that 'people of colour' remained in complete ignorance and subjection. It is no wonder, therefore, that many black parents, having seen the apparent potential of a 'colonial education' in the Caribbean, made the necessary sacrifices to enable their sons and daughters to acquire such. How useful or productive that education has been, in a Caribbean context, is debatable.

What seems quite certain, as is evidenced in the literature on Caribbean education, is that there was always a

> "conflict between education and sugar, and between the rights of the child and the privileges of the sugar planter." [43]

Child labour was encouraged, and to a certain extent justified. A special education commission sent to the colonies from England in 1931 wrote:

> "We are not convinced that children under 12 years old are necessarily worse off under these conditions (i.e. on sugar and cotton estates) than they would be in the over-crowded badly staffed schools which the introduction of compulsion without heavy additional expenditures would perpetuate and extend." [44]

The obstacles which stood in the way of blacks in their efforts to obtain 'some schooling' were many and varied. The negative and

reluctant attitude of the colonial administrators manifested itself in many different forms, from the 'three hours education' a day to what has been described as "the neglect and abuse of educational facilities." [45] What might appear strange is that in spite of the many commissions that were sent to the Caribbean there appeared to have been no significant improvement in some crucial areas in education. Writing in 1969, Norman Maynard said that " for many parts of the West Indies today, the historical is real." [46] Dookhan [47] and the Marriott-Mayhew report painted similar pictures.[48]

But Barbados and Trinidad seemed to have been, in many aspects, "a class apart from and above the Windward and Leeward groups" by 1931-32. Several reasons have been offered to explain why they enjoyed that position:

a) they were financially better off than the other colonies;

b) the 'guardians of public funds' were more willing to allow money to be spent on education;

c) there were more competent and devoted educationists in those two territories;

d) the unique nature of the history of both Trinidad and Barbados;

e) Barbados was used as the entry port to the Caribbean by Britain, and this has helped to give it a more diversified economy;

f) because of the limited land space in Barbados, a more liberal attitude by the White Plantocracy towards the masses developed after emancipation;

g) Barbados, fortunately or unfortunately, has had the British as its only colonial master for over three hundred years. This situation made possible donations and endowments to Barbados (e.g. Codrington) which have contributed largely to educational progress there, but which other Caribbean nations did not enjoy in the same way, or at least not the same degree.

As if they were disturbed by the abandonment of the West Indies by those who made their fortunes there, Mayhew and Marriott wrote:

> "We were left wondering why there is so little record in buildings or foundations of the real prosperity when fortunes were being made and opportunities for showing gratitude to the country of their origin must have been frequent." [49]

Almost every report on the status of education in the West Indies attributed the main cause of the relative lack of progress to limited financial resources in the islands. But are financial resources the main reason for the almost 'zero growth in education'? Of course money is needed because formal education is an expensive undertaking. But is the type of education that is being 'bought' the most relevant and effective for the development' of the Commonwealth Caribbean?

No doubt considerable sums of money have been spent on education in the Caribbean. The question is: Have the returns matched the sums invested? If not, why not? There is every reason to believe that investment in education in the Commonwealth Caribbean continues to show a deficit in returns, in spite of all the rhetoric on "structurally relating the education of the region to its socio-economic goals". [50]

The suggestion by Michael Gilkes that "Caribbean societies tended to be 'folded arms' societies" [51] may help to account, not simply for the 'greater talk' and 'little action' but, for the continued loss of revenue sustained through investment in education.

The curriculum has been an aspect of education that has been 'crying out' for help for a very long time. Even though Caribbean governments and educationists have responded vigorously and generously in terms of funds and dedication, and in their heads are desirous for fundamental changes within the curriculum, deep within their hearts they are very reluctant to seek and implement what Brock considers 'radical alternatives'. [52]

One renowned Caribbean writer maintained that:

> "The curriculum, especially at the secondary level, was, as a matter of course, based very largely on foreign materials that bore no relation to the lives of the pupils or their environment....that the educational system of the Caribbean violated the fundamental principle that education should proceed from the known to the unknown." [53]

The above sentiment found expression in one of the art forms of the Caribbean, the calypso, and one of its greatest exponents, The Mighty Sparrow, has expressed it as he experienced it (See Appendix 2A for lyrics).

The dissatisfaction voiced by the man dubbed 'the Calypso king of the world' has found supporters among present-day politically and

socially conscious West Indians. Unfortunately, most of the times they are not the ones who can really 'effectively' change the curriculum. The point made in the last line sums up quite well the 'plight' of the 'modern day' Caribbean man who has totally internalised the controlling influence of a colonial education system. And if one accepts Carnoy's argument that

> "the primary purpose of (colonial) schooling was control (and) .... to build a cultural dependency among the educated and ruling classes so that revolutionary overthrow would never be a likely alternative..." [54]

then the Calypsonian 'Chalkdust' is right when he said, in his calypso, "white man laughing at we", because the continued use of curricula that condition a people to behave in the ways described by 'Chalkdust', can produce nothing else but 'super mimic men'.[55] The lyrics of this calypso by 'Chalkdust' comprise Appendix 2B.

2.6 The Particular Case of Secondary Schooling

Before the relevance of irrelevance of school curricula in the Anglophone Caribbean is examined, a 'look' at the emergence of secondary schooling in the 'British West Indies' will help to throw some light on the educational context of the Commonwealth Caribbean. The literature on secondary schooling in the Caribbean supports the view that

> "quite a number of secondary schools for boys and girls were opened or re-organised in the region between 1838 and 1938, and the number of students attending them did gradually increase, especially in the larger colonies." [56]

Yet, it is reported that by the 1930s only "a tiny proportion who passed through primary schools ever got to secondary school." [57] The question is: Why did this situation exist?

Any attempt to answer this question should focus on two related points:

a) the objective(s) of secondary education at the initial stages;

b) the target population for which secondary education was intended;

It has been claimed that:

> "the question of public support for education beyond the elementary stage arose with the extension of popular education after emancipation..." [58]

and that there was a consensus of opinion among those directly involved. Prior to 1870, the two main bodies concerned with education (Church and State) had apparently different reasons for supporting the move towards secondary education. While missionaries wanted West Indians trained for the ministry and teaching positions, the governments wanted an educated cadre of upper-class West Indians (i.e. a compliant elite) who would guarantee its hold on influential positions in society.

Whether religious denominations, government or private organisations initiated the move towards the establishment of secondary

schools, it did not much matter. For example, when the Anglican church in Guyana founded Queen's College in 1842, the government's support was given; while in Trinidad the government's initiative in establishing Queen's Royal College in 1859 stimulated the setting up of Catholic colleges on the island. On the other hand, Codrington's Grammar school in Barbados which was initially established from private funds was kept in existence with governmental assistance. A similar situation existed in the Leeward and Windward islands and Jamaica, where governments used some of its resources to develop secondary education from the late nineteenth century.

The problem which Caribbean governments faced at that time was justifying spending large sums of public funds on small high schools, with an intake that was selective, when the need for primary education for the vast majority of children was so pressing. Eric Williams [59] defined a secondary school as a school giving a particular sort of post-primary education, where the emphasis was predominantly literary, and where the needs of the intelligensia are paramount. Whether or not this definition has any relevance to secondary schools in the 1980s can be debated, but what is quite certain, despite the wide variety and many shades of secondary schools that have surfaced in the Commonwealth Caribbean over the past one hundred and fifty years, is that the main functions of secondary education remain the same in the minds of people. These are:

a) to prepare students to benefit from a college or university education;

b) to enable those who may not go on to college or university to secure white collar jobs at home, either in the civil service or in the business sector;

c) to emigrate to find progressive jobs elsewhere.

The functions just stated may be thought of as being too 'student specific' and, therefore, very limited. No doubt they are rooted in the 'past' colonial days. Secondary education, it would seem, is not being thought of by parents and students in national development terms, and maybe they can't given the colonising influences. Therefore, any fundamental

> "changes in schooling aimed at economic development...(may) conflict with student and parent perceived interests; and there is a tendency for erstwhile colonial peoples to resist an education which suggests that their children might become hewers of word and drawers of water." [60]

The conflict, therefore, seems real, and one ought to recognise and admit that formal education is limited in its contribution to societal development because of 'other powerful social forces'.

So although the mass of British West Indians had come to realise that:

> "much more than primary education was needed to free the lower class from their bondage to the soil", [61]

an implied negative function of education, the fee-paying 'charity' schools were well beyond their means, and most of them were further excluded by the colour bar. According to Layne:

> "Although, in principle, blacks had a chance of attending the top grammar schools towards the end of the nineteenth century, in practice black scholarship-winners were often denied the opportunity to enter such schools on the grounds that illegitimate children were not welcome. Principals such as those at Lodge School in Barbados and York Castle in Jamaica, made it very clear to the education committees that the awards were really intended for the children of the 'middle-classes'. [62]

The curricula of the early secondary schools were almost exclusively limited to one kind of school, the academic, college-preparatory type which pointed towards the classical, official and professional calling. The curricula were based on the newest English public schools, and the yardstick of the schools' achievement was the local examinations of the Cambridge syndicate. Schools like Queen's Royal College in Trinidad, Grenada Boys' Secondary School, Lodge School in Barbados, Wolmer's in Jamaica, St. Kitts Grammar School, and Queen's College in Guyana fell under the umbrella of the 'English School'. The fact that these schools wrote examinations which were set in England, and marked by English examiners, made it impossible to emphasise anything but the requirements of the syllabus. One had a situation whereby the examination determined the curriculum, rather the curriculum determining the examination.

The existence of this situation in the British West Indies for over one hundred and thirty years severely restricted and limited curriculum innovation during that time. The emergence of the universities of the West Indies (1948) and Guyana (1963), and the

Caribbean Examination Council (CXC) (1972) have encouraged Caribbean educational administrators and educators to look at alternatives in terms of curriculum development and more relevant school programmes. Although the observations made by Brock [63] and Fergus [64] about CXC merit serious consideration, the fact that CXC 'hold' workshops for secondary school teachers on a fairly regular basis, and the fact too that some of those teachers are the examiners and assistant examiners for the Caribbean Examinations Council must make CXC a more relevant and viable institution offering far greater hope for educational development in the Commonwealth Caribbean than any non-regional examination council may hope to offer.

One alternative that has been tried during the second half of the twentieth century is the Junior Secondary school. In his comparative analysis of the Junior Secondary innovation, Brock stated that the reason(s) for the emergence of "this phenomenon....varies from place to place". He wrote:

> "...the motivation for a major development of junior secondary schools was part educational and part political. There was a genuine desire....to improve educational levels and opportunities and also to combat the urban/rural dichotomy. Traditional selective secondary schools had worked in favour of the capital city and its expanding middle class, and against the bulk of the peasantry. ....there was...a community education element in the decision to develop junior secondary schools." [65]

If Brock's observations of the junior secondary school innovations in Jamaica and St. Lucia are correct, as certainly for the Grenada Junior secondary school experiment, then the point made above about the 'backward-forward march' in education in the Anglophone Caribbean might be a valid one. The introduction of the 'modern secondary school' is another example of the 'backward-forward march' in education. In their report, Mayhew and Marriott put forward proposals for a new type of secondary school, the 'modern school'. They maintained that such a school was needed to provide "courses of instruction that are practical in the broadest sense..." [66]

While it is true that this type of school has generated a significant increase in the number of secondary school places for a wider cross-section of the student population - students who might not have gotten the opportunity to experience a secondary education -, it is also true that the modern secondary school experiment, like the Junior secondary school innovation, has been absorbed (in Grenada at least) in what Brock terms "the joint grip of a received educational tradition and increasing economic constraint." [67]

There is no doubt that there is a strong tendency among the 'new' secondary schools towards academic curricula. It is a tendency that is rooted in the system of 'payment-by-results' and the 'grant-aided' system. When the Negro Education Grant was terminated in 1845, colonial legislation began to supplement the effort of the churches. This financial contribution to education, in a time of shortage of funds,

> "made control somewhat imperative. Accordingly, Boards of Education or Education Committees were set up to supervise education grants and to formulate policies relative to education....governments appointed inspectors of schools to ensure that their contribution was spent in conformity with policy....According to the results, schools were placed in one of three classes and for the sake of efficiency grants were awarded to the various schools according to their class." [68]

This system which was tried first in Barbados in 1866 and later in the other British West Indian colonies was the system which is referred to as 'payment by results'. This system has influenced educational policy from its inception to late into the second half of the twentieth century in most territories in the Commonwealth Caribbean. The crux of the matter is that secondary schools, 'old' and 'new', feel that they must prove that they are as 'good' as any other school. Unfortunately, the yardstick which is most commonly used to determine success or failure are the results of the General Certificate of Education (Oxford and Cambridge) and now the Caribbean Examination Council.

2.7 Conclusion

Today, when one examines the 'offerings' of the primary and secondary schools (more so the 'new society related' secondary schools) and the provisions made within these schools (in terms of quality of staff, equipment and facilities) for implementing their programmes, one is forced to conclude that education in the Commonwealth Caribbean is moving 'forward' in a 'backward fashion'.

The debate over the influences of colonialism and slavery, in their old and new forms, continues. Writers such as Keith Watson [69] and Ulrich Fanger, [70] while admitting that colonialism might have had limited negative effects on educational development in the 'host' countries, suggest that the real weaknesses are rooted in the nature of the societies themselves. Referring to the validity of the criticisms levelled at colonialism, Watson asked:

> "Can all the problems of educational development be laid at the feet of the colonial powers when countries like Afghanistan, Iran, Liberia, Nepal and Thailand, which were never directly colonised, share so many of these problems?" [71]

The assumption here is that colonialism affects a people only when they are 'directly' colonised. Of course, writers like Fanon, [72] Brock [73] and Freire [74] who 'look' at the process of colonialism with very different analytical 'eyes', would question Watson's implied perception of that process. What Watson should be conscious of is that "colonialism distorts the personalities of the colonised and colonisers alike" [75] in very subtle ways.

All the issues raised in this chapter may easily suggest that West Indian education is in a state of crisis because of how it came about, and who brought it, into being. Whether such a state exists, and whether those who share the same West Indian context are also victims of an identity crisis as suggested in poems [76] and songs, [77] is still open to discussion. West Indians whose educational experiences, racial or cultural heritage and Caribbean setting might have contributed

in any way to doubts about who or what they are, should find a message hidden in the following quotation:

> "There can be no Mother India for those whose ancestors came from India.... there can be no Mother Africa for those of African origin....there can be no Mother England....and there can be no Mother China....no Mother Syria or no Mother Lebanon..." [78]

. . . .

Teacher education, which this writer considers an extremely vital part of any educational system, has not been examined in this chapter. However, because it is the heart of this thesis, the following chapter will be devoted to an examination of its role and development in education in the British West Indies and the Commonwealth Caribbean States, except Antigua, Grenada and the United States Virgin Islands, as these constitute case studies for special investigation in the thesis.

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CHAPTER THREE

TEACHER EDUCATION IN THE BRITISH WEST INDIES AND THE COMMONWEALTH CARIBBEAN

3.1 Introduction

Any serious decision to introduce formal education on a meaningful scale must of necessity consider the availability and suitability of a cadre of teachers. This has to be so for several reasons. Firstly, the nature of formal education implies a teaching 'force' - a person or persons who must serve as facilitator(s) and interpreters of society, and the 'coolers' of the hotbed of confusion and contradictions [1] inherent in the educational process and in society itself. Secondly, formal education, especially in 'developing countries' is generally offered with a strong belief that recipients will generate, at some future date, economic returns beneficial to the development of the donor country. [2] Both Dove [3] and Farrant [4] reinforce this point.

Thirdly, if education is to play the role of 'social equalizer' then the agents' of the education system who man the classrooms must be selected and educated to perform that function. If we share the view that:

> "Teachers operate in four areas of responsibility: acculturation, preparation for economic production or work, political education and the integration of school and community," [5]

then the selection process and the preparation of teachers for the

nation's classrooms becomes critical. It is no wonder, therefore, that critics, like Francis Griffith, maintain that the classroom teacher is the heart of the problem in education. Griffith argues that:

> "the improvement in education must begin with the selection and education of prospective teachers....Good teachers make good schools. Poor teachers damage kids, sometimes irreparably, and make the public lose confidence in public education. Teachers who are badly educated, intellectually sluggish, and culturally arid cannot stimulate their students to work to the limit of their abilities." [6]

Implicit in this view is a warning to those who are charged with the responsibility for public education that they can no longer pay lip service to the business of teacher preparation. The notion of 'whosoever will may come' into the teaching profession must not simply be banished from the minds of all those who are ill-informed about the nature of teaching, concrete steps must also be taken to guarantee that teaching is no longer a 'free for all'. One such guarantee would be to ensure that appropriate selection procedures are established, and a relevant and effective teacher education programme is instituted.

The literature on teacher education reminds the reader of the continuous and rapid changes taking place in society and education, suggesting that the role of the teacher, and hence the preparation of teachers, must change if teachers are to be productive in the school and in the society. One of the proponents who holds this view

is Errol Miller. He maintains that vicious cycles exist in education, and that any "strategies for breaking many of these vicious cycles should be concentrated at the level of teacher education." [7]

The above discussion seems to lend support to the view that the teacher is the heart of the classroom, and ultimately the education system and the wider society and that "we cannot have quality education without teachers of quality." [8] If this is even partially accepted as a correct analysis of the place of the teacher in the formal education process, then concern about an adequate supply of teachers with skills pertinent to the demands of the educational system is justified, and the whole issue of teacher preparation merits serious attention.

Implicit in the above position, however, is the assumption that teacher education is truly an effective process of preparing trainee teachers to become 'teachers'. But, is it? What really is teacher education? How different is teacher education from other forms of education? What is teaching, and what is a teacher? What types of persons 'opt' to teach? Is 'teacher training' the same as 'teacher education'? Which is the most effective form of teacher preparation? The writer maintains that these are fundamental questions which should be addressed, as they are central to any form of teacher preparation. With this in mind, a significant part of this chapter will be devoted to examining most of these questions. It is hoped that through this examination teacher preparation, as a critical factor in formal education in the Commonwealth Caribbean and the United States Virgin Islands, will receive greater professional attention, more financial

support and some respect from those persons who are in a position to do so.

3.2 Clarification of Terms

Teacher education, like other areas of education, is not homogeneous, and as such does not lend itself to an absolute definition. However, although the "nature of professional teacher education needs clearer definition," [9] the idea that teachers should be 'prepared' in some way to teach has found a fair degree of common support among educators and educational administrators generally.

It seems reasonable to say that before one attempts to define or explain 'teacher education' as a concept, one should have a fair idea as to who or what is a teacher. For, understanding 'what is a teacher' may place one in a better position to understand the kind of education that might be best suited to that type of person. Of course, in response to the question 'what is a teacher?', one can simply say that a teacher is someone who teaches. While this can be accepted as a (simple) definition, the further question: 'what is teaching', must be raised. Teaching is an elusive concept; how it is defined will depend on individual perceptions, biases and interpretations. While such impositions on 'teaching' as a concept have caused it to suffer the indignities of all kinds of definitions and speculations as to whether it is an art or a science, they have helped to give to education the positive dynamic controversy it enjoys.

The view that teaching by its very nature is conflict generating

may have something useful to offer. In explaining a model on teaching, Geer says:

> "In this model teaching is an assault on the Self, and resistance to it can be explained as unwillingness to upset one's inner status quo." [10]

Of course, there are weaknesses in this model. For instance, teaching does not necessarily have to be an 'assault on the self'; it can rather be in unison with 'the self', because 'the self' can be predisposed to accommodate what is taught. In spite of this and other weaknesses cited, the model offers some useful insights into the nature of teaching. For one thing, it shows that one of the competencies the teacher will have to develop is to be able to manage "the conflict his effort may provoke" so that it produces positive results, thus making conflict in teaching a functional matter.

On the question of whether teaching is an art or a science, Ohles writes:

> "If teaching is an art, is there any reason to believe that teachers can be educated in the art? Study alone cannot make artists of all those interested in the art." [11]

No doubt Ohles is hinting further to the debate as to whether teachers are born or made. The point raised by Ohles, therefore, has implications not only for what takes place in institutions where teachers are 'prepared', but what happens in classrooms in schools. How one perceives one's role or function as a teacher would greatly determine

one's actions in the classroom might differ greatly from another who is convinced that teaching is skills plus the 'personal process'.[12]

This writer shares the view that

> "Teaching is more than a skill....(that) it consists to a great extent of intuitive, subjective and spontaneous reactions....It is as if an inner timing, an inner sensitivity exists within the teacher which helps her to move and respond to the needs and behaviour of children."[13]

Whether this 'human aspect' of teaching can be developed through formal teacher preparation, and how this is to be done, would be examined later.

Having defined 'teaching' as above, 'teachers' are therefore considered in this thesis as social agents, hired by society with the primary responsibility to ensure the capacity of pupils to survive in adult society.[14] Ensuring survival of the students demands of the teacher, an effective orientation both in respect of academic training and in professional teacher education. 'Teachers' must be seen then as persons in the "formal educative process of schooling"[15] who have developed that commitment which serves as the internal driving force, propelling them, as it were, to seek unique solutions to problems as they arise in the classroom. Teachers, thus perceived, can never be individuals who 'accept' a bundle of competencies that have been given to them to dispense to students in the classroom. Teachers, therefore, must be people who have developed the ability

> "to raise, however temporarily, the awareness of the students and to exhibit to them something of the human situation they had not previously grasped...." [16]

According to this school of thought, any preparation that is to be labelled 'teacher education or training', therefore, must be able to ensure that kind of 'teacher product'. Yet the literature on teacher preparation in the Commonwealth Caribbean as well as North America and Europe seems to suggest otherwise. This matter will be taken up later in this chapter.

3.3 Teacher Education versus Teacher Training

Part of the controversy surrounding the quality of the 'teacher product' after completion of the initial teacher preparation seems to be based on whether the teacher is 'trained' or 'educated'. The suggestion here is that 'teacher training' and 'teacher education' produce totally different 'products' for the demands of the classroom. The reason(s) for the existence of such differences in concept and perception might be found in the underlying social, political and ideological realities dominant in the society.

During the late 1960s and early 1970s, 'Competency Based Teacher Education' and 'Performance Based Teacher Education' were popular movements. It was felt at that time that any teacher preparation programme should be spelt out in specific, well-defined teaching competencies. Research into teachers' classroom behaviours were conducted, and ways of acting which were considered desirable were

"written as the competencies teachers required".[17] These desirable competencies having been ascertained were 'fed' to teachers in training until they demonstrated mastery of these competencies. Meyers explains how competencies in teacher training are made to 'stick':

> "Teachers are taught through the model-lead-test procedure, instruction is recycled until 100 per cent mastery is achieved, the trainer obtains attention quickly and proceeds at a brisk pace, reinforcement is frequent and specific... Any mistakes the teachers make are corrected by the training...." [18]

This position assumes:

a) complete knowledge of all competencies teachers require;

b) that classroom situations are homogeneous - no unique situation will ever emerge;

c) the trainee teacher has nothing to contribute - but is just a passive recipient of the programme.

In this model of teacher preparation, there seems to be no room for teachers' input or the development of initiative or creativity. The right of the student to ask for reasons and to "make well-founded independent judgements" [19] is denied. It is a classic example of B.F. Skinner's theory of conditioning. 'Teachers' who have been victims of this approach to teacher preparation cannot 'teach', for teaching demands more than that.

An alternative form of teacher preparation which has received a justifiable amount of attention from teacher educators is the 'teacher education' approach. In this approach, skills and beliefs, together with the "justification and rationale associated with education" [20] are offered. With this approach to teacher preparation, the trainee teacher is to be perceived and treated as a real partner, and helped to develop the consciousness necessary to become the social interpreter of the students' reality. When such level of 'teacher competence' is arrived at, he or she can be said to possess the flexibility and creativity necessary to be a 'teacher of survival' who can now teach "education for liberation". [21] The key role of teacher education must, therefore, be to help the teacher trainee "to understand himself in relation to his society" [22] so that he is able "to develop confidence and assurance in a wide range of social settings." [23]

Whether or not teacher preparation does what the public and the trainee teacher expect it to do continues to be a real hotbed of contention. Those who subscribe to the view that teacher education programmes have not kept abreast of changes and events in society 'see' these programmes not simply as 'bookish' but as irrelevant and ultimately ineffective.

3.4 Teacher Effectiveness: A Relative Concept

The questions one ought to ask are:

a) How is the effectiveness of a programme measured or determined?

b) What criteria are used to arrive at conclusions concerning effectiveness or ineffectiveness of teacher preparation programmes?

c) What is the orientation or predisposition of the evaluators of those programmes?

d) Why are teacher preparation programmes evaluated?

While there may not be any conclusive evidence to justify answers to these questions, they are, however, posed to suggest that determining 'effectiveness' of teacher preparation programmes is based on tangible (i.e. empirical data) as well as intangible [24] and therefore subjective criteria; factors which may positively affect teaching, but which elude behavioural criteria of good teaching. Some of the intangibles or aesthetic aspects of teaching have been given as smoothness, humour, liveliness, and teachers' relationship with the community, and the community's perception of the teacher.

Although the empiricist can argue against this position, what appears to be fairly certain is that the educational theory in current use possesses aspects of knowledge that cannot claim to have an empirical base. Added to this, the values and philosophical beliefs of the 'evaluator' are not necessarily based on 'objective reality'. In other words, a programme which may be considered effective and successful by evaluators who subscribe to the maintenance of the status quo, may be termed a failure by those who argue that college preparation programmes must be a dynamic and revolutionary process if only because the

> "decisions about the quality of teaching are based on values, opinions and beliefs as well as on empirically derived knowledge." [25]

Teacher Effectiveness Research conducted by researchers such as Flanders, [26] Rosenshine and Furst, [27] Medley [28] and Berliner [29] have focussed specifically on the ability of the teacher to effect intended learning outcomes. What this can suggest is that any analysis or evaluation of teacher preparation programmes is inevitably an evaluation of teaching, for teaching is the avenue through which the effectiveness of teachers' college programmes are demonstrated.

The skills and teaching behaviours which are considered worthwhile, and which are used as criteria in the process of evaluating teachers must, therefore, be explicitly stated. If this is not done, it can be interpreted to mean that once intended learning outcomes are realised, irrespective of whatever negative and painful measures that might have been enforced to aid such realisation, the teacher, and the college programme experienced by that teacher can be said to be effective.

Another factor which merits serious consideration when discussing the effectiveness of teacher preparation programmes is the lack of a clear definition of the nature and scope of professional teacher education. Teacher educators, in the Commonwealth Caribbean, who maintain that teacher education can play a more dynamic role in changing Caribbean society, argue that the scope of teacher preparation should be greater, less theoretical, more practical, and community-based. In a word, 'revolutionary'. This is implicit in the writings

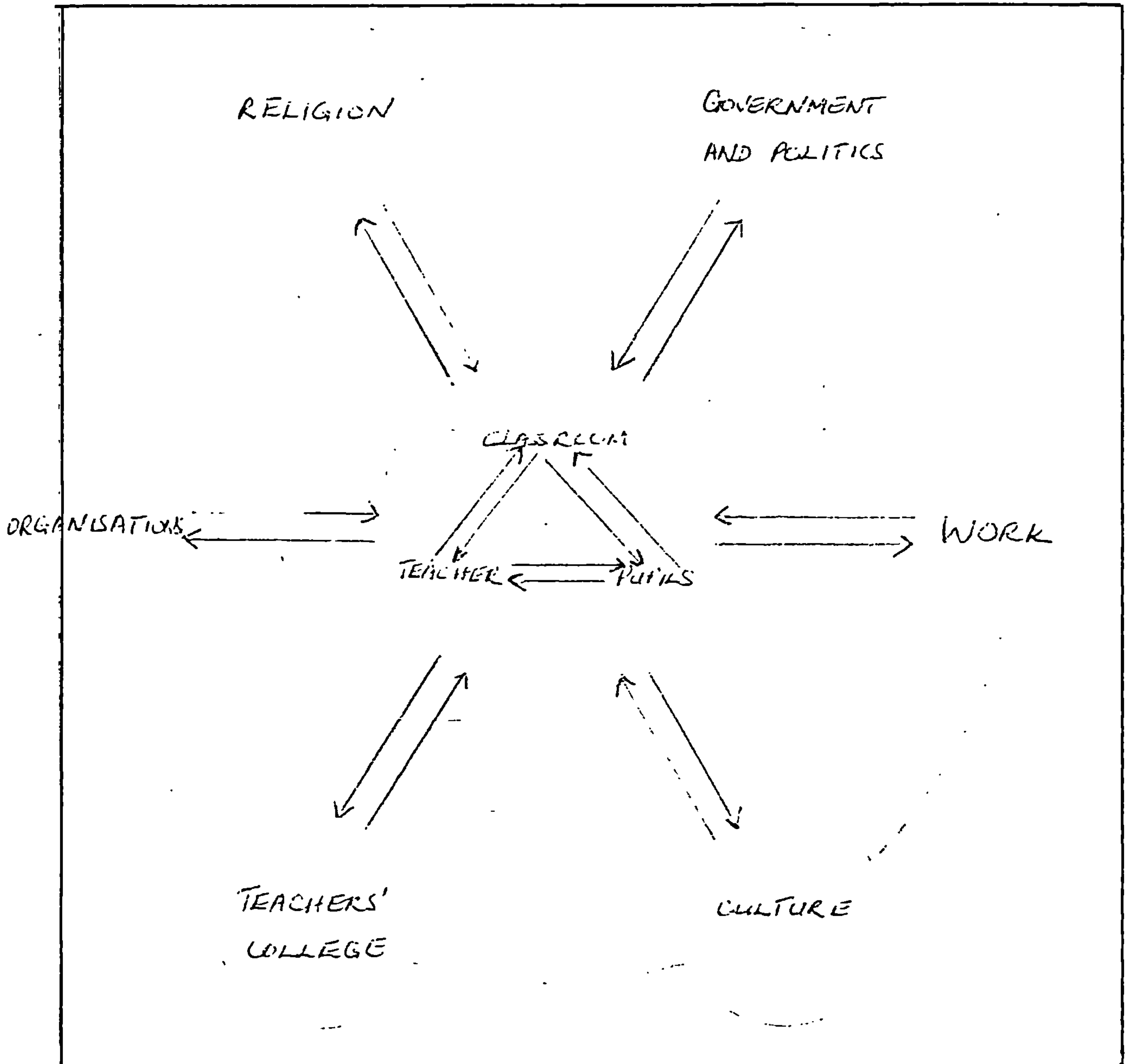
of Persaud,[30] Jennings-Wray,[31] Broomes,[32] 'total programme' concept, and brought out clearly by Miller when he said:

> "Teacher education must enable the teacher to understand the ways in which education interfaces with the society. It is of vital importance that the teacher understands that the educational system.... is nothing else but an agent of the social order. The teacher must understand this if he is not to be the unwitting pawn in the promotion of the retention of elements of the social order which perpetuate its injustices....the primary responsibility of the teacher should not be to facilitate the economy or the social order, or the political system...."[33]

How effective or successful a teacher (and indirectly the college preparation) is, or has been, cannot, therefore, be limited to the 'students' success in internal or external examinations. There are ways in which a teacher might have 'touched' his or her students that gave new meaning to their lives but for which credit was never given. The effectiveness of any programme (or teacher) can only be meaningfully discussed and measured against the needs or the demands of the society or group it serves, and the philosophy and objectives behind the programme (refer to Figure 3.1).

It is the view of this writer that the hot debate on the effectiveness of teacher education programmes and teachers in the classroom will continue until the use of traditional standards, methods and the accompanying values of the dominant groups in society cease being used as the sole criteria for measuring success; criteria which seem to frustrate positive and meaningful changes, and kill initiative and creativity among conscientious educators.

FIGURE 3.1 FACTORS/VARIABLES IMPACTING ON TEACHERS' COLLEGE PROGRAMMES AND TEACHERS' ULTIMATE EFFECTIVENESS IN THE CLASSROOM



Source: Devised by the writer

The literature on teacher education in the Commonwealth Caribbean points clearly to a serious state of dissatisfaction with current teacher education programmes, [34] an apparent helplessness among eminent teacher educators, [35] and a somewhat inherent conflict and contradiction [36] within this critical area of educational development in the Commonwealth Caribbean.

Sometimes the reader gets the impression from the said literature and from discussions with teacher educators from several territories in the Commonwealth Caribbean that although the need to innovate is admitted and the desire to 'break away' from the traditional approaches is felt, the support systems are just not in place. [37] Yet, teachers and teacher educators are projected by all sorts of persons, even ministers of education, as being the catalyst for creating the climate if real and meaningful change is to take place.

The problem here, however, might be because there is a difference in perceiving what is meaningful change, and in creating the 'right' climate for change. Teachers and teacher educators must be given a true mandate to create what they consider the most suitable climate even if such a climate goes 'against the grain' of the status quo and the dominant groups. Of course, teachers and their educators can, if they are not given that mandate, use teaching as a truly subversive activity, as is described in chapter two, but this will be short-lived in the Commonwealth Caribbean context. Teachers and teacher educators receive the greatest rewards when they are perceived by their administrative superiors to be performing the role of "gate-keepers" and "system-maintenance" [38] efficiently. The suggestion

here is that there seems to be no available evidence in the history of education in the Commonwealth Caribbean to show that educators have been rewarded for initiating changes that were regarded as disruptive to the status quo. And as Dove argues:

> "But no government can encourage the development of a teaching force dedicated to fundamental changes in the status quo." [39]

3.5 The Development of Teacher Education in the British West Indies and the Commonwealth Caribbean

One of the main concerns of the British government, when it decided to provide universal primary education for the ex-slaves in the British West Indies in 1835, was a supply of teachers. Those available at that time had, what Sterling described as "the very moderate measure of knowledge and capacity" [40] of practising teachers. Moved by what he saw, he recommended that training institutions for teachers be established. These institutions were to be set up with basically two conditions:

a) those institutions were to be non-denominational;

b) whosoever were to be placed in charge of these schools should be persons whose major tasks would be:

> "to train beginning teachers and to motivate and aid them to teach well, and to manage a school efficiently." [41]

That recommendation brought into being in the British West Indies 'Normal' or 'Teachers' schools, which were modelled on schools already operating in England. Despite the fact that many of the non-conformist churches operating within the British West Indies then had been using 'teachers' to 'educate' the slaves since the latter half of the sixteenth century the programme of education, as conceived by the British government, demanded better prepared, and a greater number of teachers than those that were available. Of course, the 'new freedom' of the ex-slaves demanded a 'new' kind of teacher if the 'new' education programme was to succeed in the new society. It seems to follow logically, therefore, that whenever social, political and economic changes are brought about within a society, educational institutions must not simply adjust to accommodate those changes, but, having examined their potential, should immediately develop programmes and strategies designed to equip educators with the skills necessary to 'service' those changes.

However, one can argue that more than that is required. For instance, there should be a mechanism set up within educational systems with the necessary capacity to anticipate those changes and having anticipated them to set in motion a programme of action that would guide, and if necessary, enhance those changes. The history of teacher preparation in the British West Indies and Commonwealth Caribbean does not seem to suggest full support for such a position because of an apparent tendency to 'act' long after those changes have occurred. And the work of Shirley Gordon,[42] Howard Fergus,[43] Vincent D'Oyley,[44] Reginald Murray,[45] and Carl Campbell,[46] would

seem to suggest this. Of course, many reasons have been suggested for the existence of such a tendency, ranging from limited, indeed scarce financial resources, to the lack of political will and support.

The legislatures in the British West Indies, and, to a lesser extent, in the Commonwealth Caribbean, seem always very slow and unwilling to finance teacher education. This attitude has led to the sporadic character of nineteenth-century development of teacher education ab ut which D'Oyley [47] writes and to which twentieth-century development of teacher education is also no stranger. Furthermore, the churches which championed the aspect of education 'rivalled' each other and at times 'opposed' the limited efforts of government.

Yet, the history of education in the British West Indies shows that in spite of this, nineteenth-century teacher education, with the exception of the Mico funded college(s), depended almost wholly upon religious denominational support. This, of course, was not done purely from unselfish motives. Each religious body wanted to exert influence in the society, and teacher education was an effective way to do that. Training institutions, therefore, were established by the churches wherever the social and political climate permitted.

Spring Gardens Training College (Antigua), set up in 1840 by the Moravians, and Rawle Training Institute (Barbados), started informally in 1852 and formalised by the Anglican church in 1912,

were among the earliest educational institutions established to prepare teachers for teaching. While Spring Gardens trained teachers for the Leeward islands, Rawle Training Institute catered to the needs of male teachers initially and then to all teachers in Barbados and the Windward and Leeward Islands until 1945. Antigua and Barbados, therefore, can boast of having the longest history of teacher preparation in the Eastern Caribbean, and although normal schools were started also in Jamaica, Trinidad and Guyana, their existence was short-lived in Trinidad and Guyana, and they were closed by 1840.

It can be said here, however, that unlike the nineteenth century, with its haphazard approach to 'teacher training', the twentieth century ushered in a revival in, and a somewhat systematic approach to, teacher preparation, so that during the 1930s the British West Indies saw the establishment of ten teacher training centres. Because the 'Pupil Teacher System' seems to have had the greatest effect on teacher preparation in the British West Indies, the following sub-section will be devoted to it.

3.5.1 The Pupil Teacher System: An Alternative:

One of the legacies from the nineteenth-century system of preparing teachers was the pupil teacher system. It has been suggested that "the failure of the normal school to produce enough teachers fostered the growth" of that system. And from the 1850s to as recently as 1982, the pupil-teacher system, as an in-service teacher preparation method, proved to be extremely popular in the British West Indies

and

> "became the accepted means of selecting
> and educating boys and girls of promise
> who would ultimately be admitted for
> full professional training." [49]

In order to be appointed a 'pupil teacher' a student had to satisfy three basic conditions. He or she was required to:

a) attain standard seven of the All-Age elementary school at least six months before his first appointment;

b) be of good health and be within the age range fifteen to seventeen years;

c) be of sound moral character, and demonstrate a predisposition and aptitude for teaching.

Started by missionaries in the British West Indies as an apprenticeship system in teaching, the more able pupils were chosen to work in schools as "auxilary teachers or teacher-aides, while observing lessons given by the master teacher." [50] Under the Churches' direction, this system operated in a somewhat haphazard manner. But when it became clear that the Negro Education Grant would end in 1845, the local legislatures (1850s) instituted Education Acts and Regulations to formalise and regularise the pupil-teacher system.

In spite of its popularity and apprent strengths or advantages, the pupil-teacher system, as one form of in-service or on-the-job training, has been subjected to all forms of criticisms. Both locally appointed and foreign commissions on education in the West Indies as well as individual educators have pointed to weaknesses in that

system. The findings of some of these commissions, including Michinson, [51] Marriott-Mayhew, [52] Moyne, [53] and S.A. Hammond, [54] reported negatively on the pupil-teacher system. These may be summarised in the following way:

a) that teachers with a bare minimum of knowledge could offer no more than the little they have;

b) the curriculum of the pupil-teacher programme was inadequate;

c) there was too great a reliance on the pupil-teacher system: the percentage of pupil teachers to others in all the islands was far too high, having an average of 41%;

d) pupil teachers were considered a "permanent and integral part of the staff"; [55]

e) the damage done to pupils by some 'pupil teachers' can be irreparable.

Maybe D'Oyley's criticisms of that system sum up best some of these criticisms and give an insight into the system. He writes:

> "The pupil-teacher program suffered from an inadequate curriculum, and it remained a narrow apprenticeship scheme with its quality trapped within the limits of the capability and willingness of individual masters and within the opportunities for further education available to these aspiring apprentices. It offered no progression from the then customary emphasis on rote learning. However, the written examination did offer some standardisation, and the emergence of the teachers' association between 1880 and 1920 ensured forums for teachers, inspectors, and managers to discuss details for improvements." [56]

Faced with those weaknesses, steps were taken to rid the system of them by modifying it and by searching for alternative approaches to teacher preparation. The steps taken are well documented and described by many Caribbean educators including R.N. Nicholson [57] and Reginald Murray [58] and therefore does not merit any further description here.

It may, however, be useful to state that despite the weaknesses attributed to the pupil-teacher system, and despite the fact that that system might have contributed to the negative growth of education in the Commonwealth Caribbean, the pupil-teacher system as operated seem to have produced a great number of leaders who have made a worthwhile contribution to Caribbean society.

From interviews and discussions with several retired elementary school principals, education officers and civil servants in the British Virgin Islands, St. Vincent, Jamaica, Guyana, Grenada and Anguilla, on the pupil-teacher system, it would appear that that system effectively 'trained' personnel not simply for the elementary schools, but "for every key position in the public and private sector." [59] According to one retired principal:

> "Although the pupil-teacher system at times frustrated many of us, it gave us a foundation on which we were able to build solidly. I don't know where education in the Caribbean would have been today had it not been for the existence of the pupil-teacher system." [60]

The writer of a fairly recent paper (April, 1981) had this to say:

> "Because Pupil Teachers must study a wide range of subjects over a three-year period, they are reaching college with a better base for the college programme than the students who were recruited from Secondary schools with a narrow range of academic pursuits. There is also the professional orientation which is built into the Pupil Teachers' programme that tends to increase their effectiveness over that of the Secondary recruits." [61]

Is this an attempt to defy the pupil-teacher system? Hardly! A conversation with more elementary school principals in 1987 in the Commonwealth Caribbean may provoke similar responses. Based on this it therefore seems reasonable to state, in the absence of any other hard empirical evidence, that the pupil-teacher system has provided some degree of commitment and stability to education in the Commonwealth Caribbean; because as a method of preparing teachers, it has not only "constituted virtually the sole source of recruitment to elementary school teaching and used for a longer period of time than any other method, but appeared to have been economical, productive, practical and easy to operate or manage. Therefore, in the present search for more cost-effective, practical and relevant approaches to teacher education, it might be useful to re-examine the potential of the pupil-teacher system, one form of in-service teacher education, not with the intention of using it in the same way as it has been used in the past, but with the hope of finding within it positive features which can be put to more effective and creative use.

The literature on teacher preparation in Third World countries seems to suggest that the traditional approach to teacher education is not producing the kind of teacher that is required in these societies and that more innovative and practical ones are urgently needed. One of the issues in this ongoing debate is that there has not been a close enough relationship between what takes place in schools and what goes on in the community and teacher education institutions. There is, as it were, no:

> "organic linkage between classroom and teachers' college....A major complaint in teacher education circles in the Eastern Caribbean is that on their return to the full-time job of teaching, teachers do not tend to maintain the behaviours which were advoced during training and which they may have even demonstrated during that time."[62]

In the view of this writer, one of the most compelling explanations advanced for the present poor performance of the traditional methods of teacher preparation is its insistance on the 'formal, one-shot' type of teacher preparation for 'all seasons'. The view is that because of "changing educational ideas and development strategies"[63] teachers become dated and obsolete. What is being suggested as a solution is an unending lifelong programme of on-the-job teacher education.

3.5.2 In-Service versus Pre-Service Teacher Education:

The controversy on the best form of teacher preparation is not a creation of the latter part of the 1980s. What is current is the focus of that debate, and it can be said to embrace the following:

a) quality and scope of teacher education programmes and the types of programmes that may produce the best teacher product;

b) background experience, qualifications and capabilities of those persons who prepare teachers to teach - tutors;

c) type/quality of students selected to pursue courses in teacher education;

d) criteria used to evaluate the quality of a programme.

Naturally, as it is with other issues in education, opinions and research evidence on this issue vary. An examination of the views of a few leading experts on teacher preparation may help to bring into sharp focus the nature of the current debate.

According to one school of thought, what is needed if the quality of teacher preparation is to be improved is not an extension of the period of preparation at teachers' colleges, rather, it is a critical examination and objective analysis of the general academic education received by the prospective teacher trainee: his or her academic background. It is felt that "the problem with general education is its quality and coherence, not its length." (Refer to Table 3.1)

While this can be interpreted to mean that all that is necessary to be a suitable candidate for the teaching profession is the 'right' academic background, it can also suggest, as is stated by David Clark, [64] that when a teacher trainee with the appropriate academic orientation is admitted to a teacher education programme far more time can be devoted to professional development [65] rather than

trying to understand basic concepts in some content areas, as is the case in the Commonwealth Caribbean. And Goodridge implies this when he says:

> "No longer would we even attempt to use initial training to transform the neophyte, Eastern Caribbean teacher, with all his constraints of meagre academic background and limited resources, into the finished product." [66]

However, one can argue that because the financial incentives and working conditions attached to the teaching profession in the Commonwealth Caribbean are so very poor, and worse than any comparable position in the private sector, persons who have secured a bachelors degree in a highly marketable content area are far less likely to spend more time studying to become a school teacher. It would seem to follow, therefore, that if only prospective teachers with sound academic background are to be 'wooed' into the teaching service, attractive financial incentives and improved working conditions must be offered.

Those critics like Scannell [67] and Smith [68] who support some form of extension in the period of pre-service or initial teacher education maintain that that is necessary because of the crowded curriculum with which teachers in training are made to work. Such extension they argue would make it more practicable for the teacher trainee to be given 'time off' from his college classroom to gain real needed teaching experience in the classroom of an experienced and successful teacher.

TABLE 3.1 STUDENT-TEACHERS ACADEMIC PROFILE WHEN ADMITTED TO TEACHERS' COLLEGE

	Teachers' College	Student Intake	ACADEMIC QUALIFICATION					
			Less than 4 G.C.E 'O' Levels		4 G.C.E 'O' Levels		More than 4 G.C.E. 'O' Levels	
			No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
1982 - 1983	ERDISTON	126	-	-	28		98	
	ST.KITTS	35	-	-	15	42.8	20	57.1
	ST.VINCENT	35	6	17.1	15	42.8	14	40.0
	ST.LUCIA	56	41	73.2	9	16.0	6	10.7
1970 - 1971	ERDISTON	121	-	-	86		35	
	ST.KITTS	28	3	10.7	13	46.4	12	42.8
	ST.VINCENT	29	-	-	19	65.5	10	34.4
	ST.LUCIA	52	3	5.8	24	46.1	23	44.2
	TOTAL	482	53	11.0	209	43.4	218	45.2

Some Caribbean teacher education experts like Broomes,[69] Miller and Persaud,[71] have gone even further in arguing for more job-related experience while in training. As Persaud argues:

> "We cannot educate teachers as to the need for working in urban slums and depressed rural areas by giving them a course in the Sociology of Education. Teachers need to be taught to empathise with such conditions by on the job training in the actual setting."[72]

The motion of a 'critical period' in teacher education has also surfaced in the debate on teacher education programmes and their effectiveness. The idea is that there are phases in the career of a teacher that demand some forms of intervention in terms of professional development, but that those interventions must be spread over a period of time.

What this does suggest is that teachers are more 'set' (or ready) at some stages than at other stages to accommodate within their being 'professional injections', and that those who administer or decide who must administer the dosage of injections known when these critical periods have come. What this theory fails to explain though is what are the signs or symptoms that signal the advent of these periods. Therefore, while this position can help to stimulate thought on the current debate, it does not seem to offer a sufficiently viable alternative to traditional approaches to teacher education.

In fact, one can argue that while the very nature of teacher education is problematic, and programmes might demonstrate areas of

weaknesses, one should also look to other areas in education that might be neutralizing the effects of teacher education. For instance, Kirst [73] argues that 'teacher impact' will be greatest if conditions in schools are made more amenable to both students and teachers. As far as Kirst is concerned, it is not the expansion of initial teacher preparation that is the issue, rather it is the suitability of school conditions (namely, small classes, suitable curricula and appropriate instructional resources) that is the controlling factor.

By this time the reader would have come to the obvious conclusion that there seems to be no unanimity on the various issues on teacher education. However, one assumption that is unanimously accepted in the literature reviewed is that teacher preparation can bring about significant changes in teachers' behaviours, whether or not those behaviours are negative or positive. But, is it really the college programmes, per se, that are the crucial factor in significantly changing teachers' behaviour, or is it rather the use that is made of those programmes by the implementors and the 'implementees'? The point being suggested here is that in the absence of any systematic empirical research evidence given the 'correct orientation' and 'right' kind of consciousness, relevant and adequate academic and professional education, and the freedom to be creative and innovative, the College tutor or teacher educator is the single most effective factor in teacher preparation. If this is accepted, who becomes a teacher educator is, therefore, critical in teacher preparation.

If the tremendous influence of the teachers' college tutor, in the making of a teacher, is recognised, then to discuss teacher

preparation without examining the tutor himself/herself, is to invalidate any analysis of teacher preparation. The task of the 'educated teacher' as distinct from the 'trained teacher' has been discussed. If, as has been suggested in this thesis, that the 'educated teacher' is preferred to the 'trained teacher', then it follows logically that any tutor who is to be engaged in teacher education must be an 'educator' not a 'trainer'.

This demands much more than competence in subject matter and knowledge of methodology, which, of course, is necessary. But knowledge of content and methods does not guarantee an ability on the part of that tutor to communicate them in a manner that is creative and alive. Unlike the educated teacher, the methods used by 'teacher educators' must not only be heard, but must be seen and felt by the teacher trainee, for it is by feeling what is offered can it truly become a part of the recipient, in this case, the teacher. This implies an ability to teach content and methods, as an integral part of the whole process.

Yet, available information on the professional and academic backgrounds of many college tutors in the Commonwealth Caribbean still seem somewhat off the mark of what is required to produce efficient and effective classroom teachers. (See Table 3.2). And two independent reports on teacher education in the Eastern Caribbean, and research evidence on teacher education in Jamaica, add some support to this view. In one report, it is pointed out that:

> "Some tutors at teachers' colleges who had a sound knowledge of the content of the particular subject were not always capable of instructing student teachers in methodology of teaching that subject." [74]

Almost fifteen years later, Goodridge expressed the same sentiment. He noted that the serious defects which exists among staff of teachers colleges throughout the Eastern Caribbean hampered the work of the staff of the School of Education, thus making fundamental change in the content, processes and organisation of our teacher education programmes [75] painfully slow. Of course, this position does not consider the possible weaknesses of the numbers of the School of Education. However, the questions that one may want addressed are:

a) How many college tutors in the Commonwealth Caribbean are really formally prepared for the task of teacher education?

b) If teacher preparation is meant to be a specialised field, requiring Master Teachers, why aren't the necessary steps taken to prepare prospective teacher educators to function effectively in this critical area before they are appointed. One seems to see in the recruitment of some college tutors a similar process as one used under the old pupil-teacher system: you learn while doing the job.

Naturally, the lack of funds and the unavailability of better qualified persons within the region may be used as possible explanations as to why the composition of college staff has been the way it is. When a comparison is made between the salaries of degreed persons in less critical areas of the public service and the private sector with the salary of a graduate tutor, it is easy to understand why better quality candidates may not even consider the position of college tutor as a career.

TABLE 3.2 ACADEMIC AND PROFESSIONAL PROFILE OF COLLEGE TUTORS IN FIVE TEACHERS' COLLEGES

	COLLEGE	MATHS. TUTOR	ACADEMIC/ PROFESSIONAL BACKGROUND	ENGLISH TUTOR	ACADEMIC/ PROFESSIONAL BACKGROUND
1978 - 1979	ST.LUCIA	1	B.A.	1	B.A.,Dip.Ed.,Dip. E.T.D
		2	Dip.Ed.,Dip. P.E	2	Dip.Ed.,Cert Ed.
	ST.VINCENT	1	B.A. Cert.Ed.	1	B.Ed., Cert.Ed.
				2	B.A., Cert.Ed.,A.C.P.
	ST.KITTS	1	B.A., Dip.Ed.	1	Cert.Ed.
				2	B.A., Dip.Ed.
	ERDISTON	1	B.A., Dip.Ed.,	1	B.A., A.C.P.
		2	B.A., Dip.Ed., A.C.P.	2	B.A., B.Ed., A.C.P.
	DOMINICA	1	B.A.,B.Sc., Dip.Ed.		B.A.,Cert.Ed.,Assoc. in Arts
				2	Dip.Ed., Cert.Ed.
1982 - 1983	ST.LUCIA	1	B.A.	1	B.A., Cert.Ed.
		2	B.Sc.	2	L.C.P.
	ST.VINCENT	1	B.A.,Cert.Ed.	1	B.Ed.
		2	B.Sc.,Postgrad. Cert.Ed.	2	Dip.Ed., B.Phil.
	ST. KITTS	1	B.Sc.,Cert.Ed.	1	B.A., Dip.Ed.
		2	Cert.Ed.,Dip.Ed.	2	
	ERDISTON	1	B.Sc.,Dip.Ed., M.Sc.	1	B.A., A.C.P., M.S. Ed.
		2	B.A.,Dip.Ed., A.C.P.	2	B.A., Dip.Ed.
	DOMINICA	1	B.A., B.Sc., Dip.Ed.	1	B.Sc., M.A.

The absence of many suitably qualified tutors and the total lack of incentives within educational systems for college tutors may help to partially explain why teachers perform as they do at teachers colleges, and after they have graduated in their schools. Furlonge reiterated this point when he reported that some Mathematics topics at teachers' college

> "appear to be taught as ends in themselves and not as a means of producing an understanding and appreciation of mathematical process." [76]

While this indictment may point to some deficiency in either the Mathematics tutor's content or methodology, it ought also to turn one's attention to the academic backgrounds of the students at the teachers' colleges.

One of the problems facing college tutors is "the wide variation in abilities and attainments of students" [77] who are selected to attend teachers' colleges. This variation, it is claimed, makes it difficult for tutors to complete syllabuses. But the problem is probably exacerbated when tutors lack the knowledge and skills necessary to deal effectively with this 'wide variation'.

3.5.3 A Matter of Perception:

A contention of many teachers, however, is that some of the knowledge and skills which they are forced to acquire and develop are not necessary for their classroom practice. They, therefore, argue

that the time spent on those highly abstract and esoteric concepts and contents might be better spent in activities which they consider more relevant to what takes place in real classrooms. One of the frightening things of that phenomenon is that most of the teachers who utter that thought are generally the ones whose background in the content area is very limited. One of the implications here is that, later in the career of those teachers, many of them will expect to be promoted to key positions in the educational hierarchy, and because the history of many educational systems in the Commonwealth Caribbean can attest to a tendency to reward 'years of service' rather than 'very fruitful years of service', the vicious cycle of negative educational growth can be further encouraged.

This, therefore, while highlighting some of the inherent conflicts and contradictions present within teachers' college programmes in the Commonwealth Caribbean, it also crystallizes the differences in perceptions between college tutors and some college students as to what is truly necessary for classroom practices.

If it is true, as is stated, that the University of the West Indies School of Education plays a pivotal role in teacher preparation in the Commonwealth Caribbean, then it can be argued that part of the responsibility for the apparent weaknesses in teacher education programmes can be laid at the feet of what is now called the 'Research and Development Section'. And Goodridge implies this when he wrote:

> "Teachers' training institutions can hardly achieve a central position in the development strategy if the School of Education behaves as if the real problem of teachers' colleges will disappear when the School of Education runs ad hoc courses for College staff; if the School of Education and the staff from International agencies operate as if the Colleges exist primarily to facilitate their staff in conducting their research projects; or if co-operation and collaboration are defined as existing only when Teachers' College staff do what School of Education staff wish them to do." [78]

3.5.4 Research and Development Section - U.W.I:

The Education Faculty, at the Cave Hill campus of the University of the West Indies, was established around 1965

> "to perform important developmental functions in Eastern Caribbean Educational systems in general and in teachers' colleges in particular." [79]

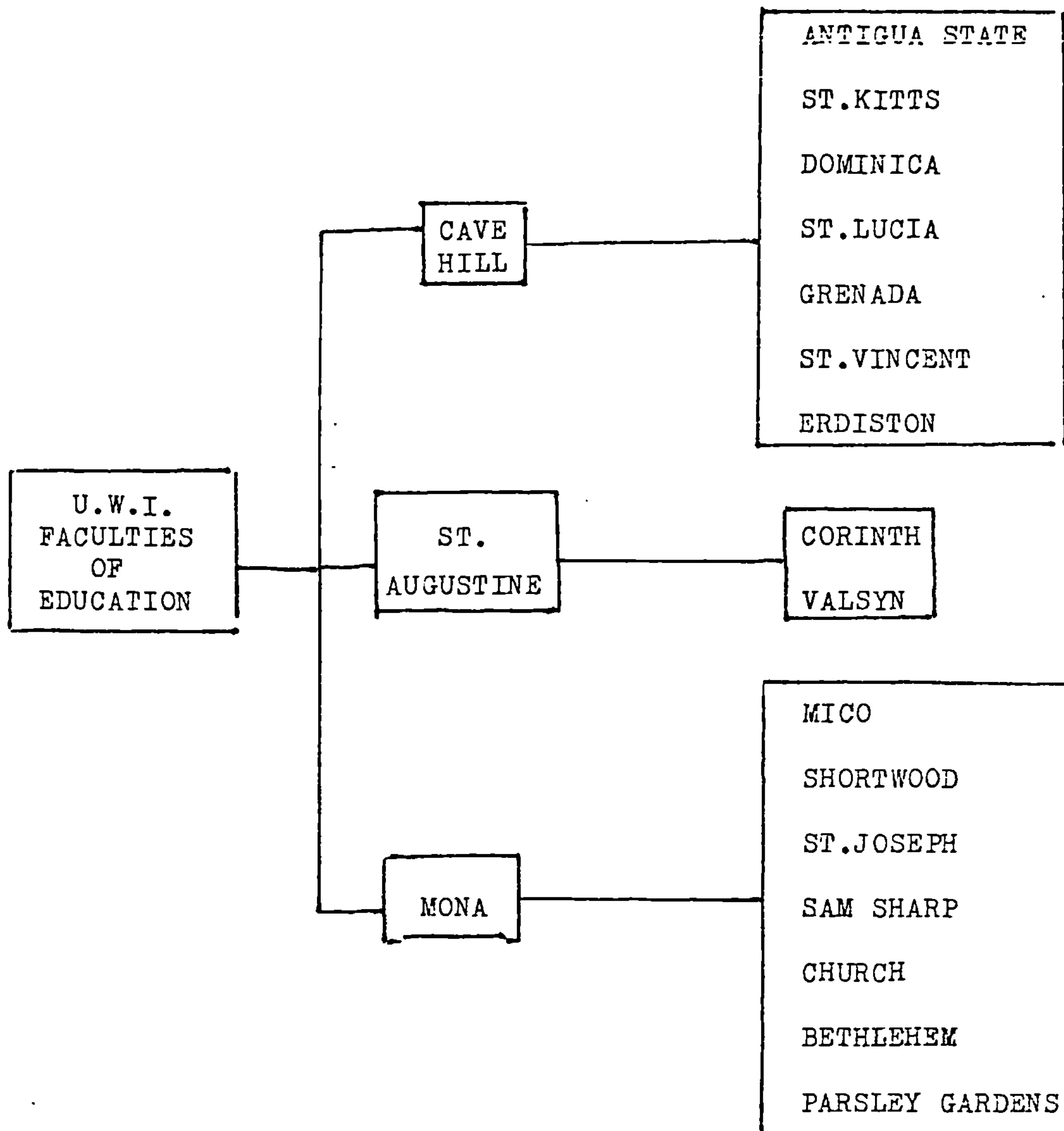
From its inception, therefore, like the faculties in Jamaica, Trinidad and the U. of G., it has been servicing teachers' colleges through its outreach programme (Refer to Figure 3.2). This servicing has been done mainly through

a) organised conferences and workshops for college tutors and school administrators;

b) moderating scripts of teachers' college final examinations;

c) assessing teachers in their final practice teaching exercise;

FIGURE 3.2 TEACHERS' COLLEGE SERVICED BY THE U.W.I FACULTIES OF EDUCATION



Source: Devised by the writer from information gained from interviews.

d) consultations, and curriculum development activities.

The philosophy underlying the particular function of the Research and Development Section is based on the motion that

> "the classroom teacher, by definition, should be involved in the training of teachers and that teaching occurs in classrooms that are part of schools that are part of an educational system." [80]

With such a practical philosophy and such varied and deep involvement in the life of the colleges over twenty years, one may wonder why the impact of the Research and Development Section has not been greater on teachers' colleges in the region. Are the teachers' colleges in the Commonwealth Caribbean ready for such a practical approach to teacher preparation? The Dominica (1982) and Grenada (1980) experiments may be instructive here.

The literature on teacher education in the Commonwealth Caribbean are full of possible explanations as to why the Research and Development Section may not be having the kind of impact it should. These explanations range from the quality of staff and students at the teachers' colleges, to the more 'physical' of resources including lack of access to educational technology, lack of teaching material, library facilities and learning resources. As far as one University administrator is concerned, many of the problems in education in the region stem from four factors:

a) lack of resources;

b) lack of clarity of purpose;

c) confused and ill-defined missions;

d) poor use of resources.

He sums up the situation by saying that in spite of the School of Education's efforts over the past twenty years, "the needs in teacher education, and in educational development in general, are legion." [81]

Although the above discussion and the review of the literature might easily suggest that many teachers and teacher educators in the Commonwealth Caribbean are not ready for the profession of teaching and teacher education, one should avoid such a hasty conclusion for the following reasons:

a) the nature of teaching is relative;

b) teacher education programmes in the Commonwealth Caribbean seem grossly inadequate and irrelevant, highly esoteric and abstract and riddled with conflicts and contradictions;

c) there is an almost total absence of empirical data on teacher and tutor effectiveness in the Commonwealth Caribbean.

. . . .

The following detailed analysis of the programmes of three teacher preparation institutions (Grenada Teachers' College, Chapter 4, Antigua State College, Chapter 5, and the Teacher Education Division of the University of the Virgin Islands, Chapter 6) may help to inform statements on teacher education in the Commonwealth Caribbean and the United States Virgin Islands.

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CHAPTER FOUR

EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN GRENADA : 1835-1988: WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF TEACHERS

4.1 Introduction

'Grenada' will, undoubtedly, mean different things to different people; what it means to someone might be influenced, not simply by whether or not that person is Grenadian, but by more potent factors: one's level of Grenadian or Caribbean consciousness, the quality and nature of the experience one might have had on the island, one's factual knowledge of the State and its people, one's hope and aspirations for Grenada as a truly independent and sovereign nation state, or one's purpose in expressing one's perception of that country.

As far as F.M. Coard was concerned, for instance, "Grenada is a thing of beauty and a joy forever." To him, as it was with T.A. Marryshow, one might see Grenada and not die, but live. [1] The verbally painted picture of the Geography of Grenada shows it as an island of immense natural beauty, with its rugged coastline, lofty mountain peaks, lush vegetation and cool running springs of fresh water, and having an annual rainfall ranging from 125 cm to 400 cm depending on the part of island. Frank Trippits' reference to Grenada seems to summarise best the physical appearance of that place, as being

> "so pretty, so lush, so quaint, so balmy, so easy-going, so gaddam picturesque." [2]

This chapter, as with the following two chapters on the cases of Antigua and the United States Virgin Islands, comprises two parts. The first is a documented description and discussion of the development of education, including the teacher education and training dimension. The second is an account and analysis of empirical research conducted by the writer in situ in each of the three locations.

4.2 Location and Size

The smallest and most southerly of the Windward Islands, the 'State of Grenada', which comprises Carriocou (13 sq. miles or 35 sq. km) and Petit Martinique (197 hectares) boast a combined area of 133 sq. miles or 344 sq. km. Grenada, which is situated 12 degrees latitude and 61 degrees west longtitude, is, at its longest and widest points, 21 miles (44 km) and 12 miles (19.2 km) respectively. Its nearest neighbours are Trinidad and Tobago to the south (85 miles) and St. Vincent to the north (75 miles).

4.3 Demographic Factors and other Socio-Economic Considerations

While Grenada might not be able to claim as Trinidad does that it is highly cosmopolitan, its population does reflect a mixture of races and cultures. A cursory look at Figure 4.1 would reveal that the population is made up of people of African descent, East Indians, Americans, Mixed and Whites, with the highest percentage being of African descent. A detailed explanation of this can be found in the work of Beverley Steele. [3]

MAP 4.1 THE CARIBBEAN WORLD

Source: Brock, Colin (1978) Caribbean World, Macmillan, p.3.

MAP 4.2 GRENADA - MAIN SETTLEMENTS, PARISHES AND ROADS

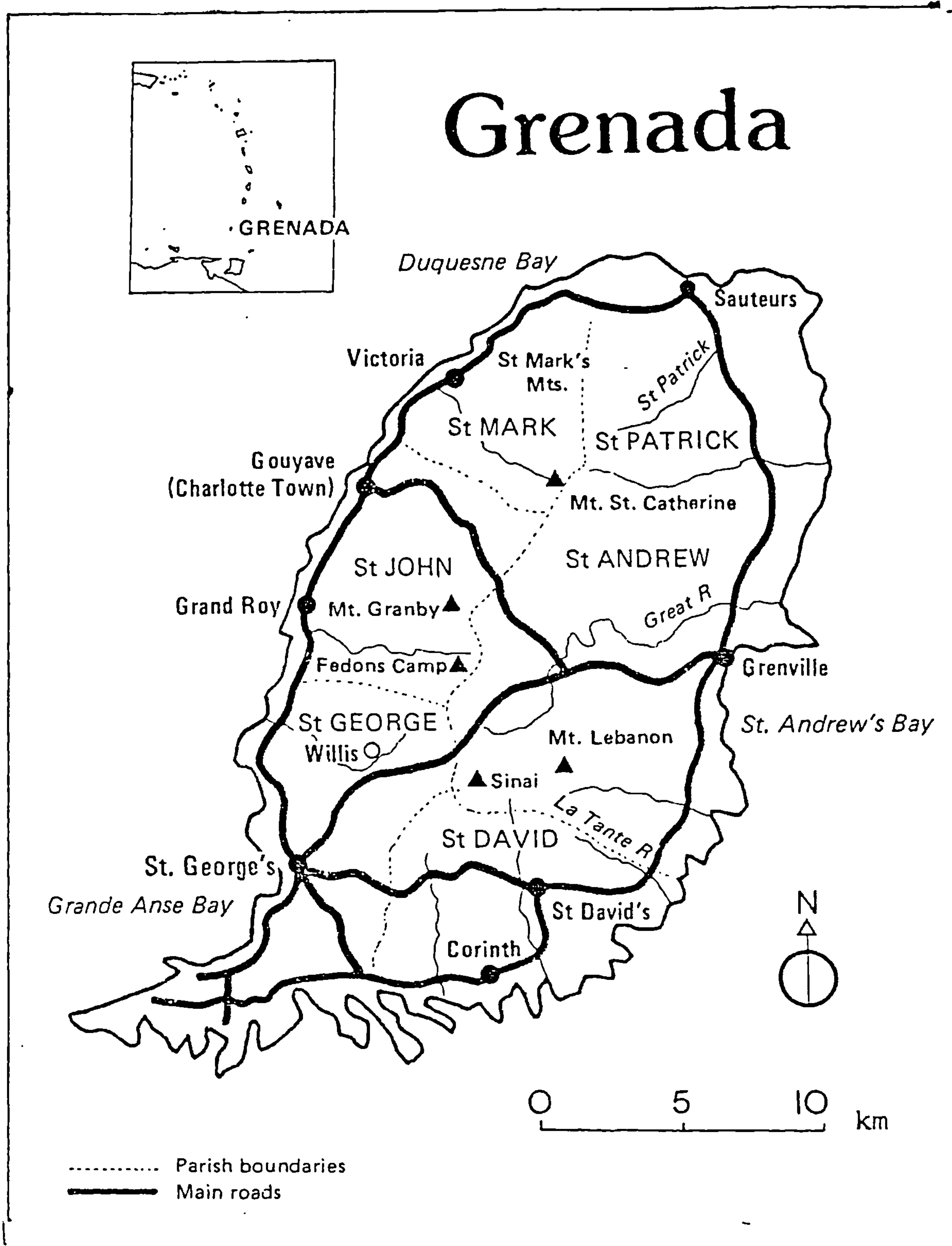
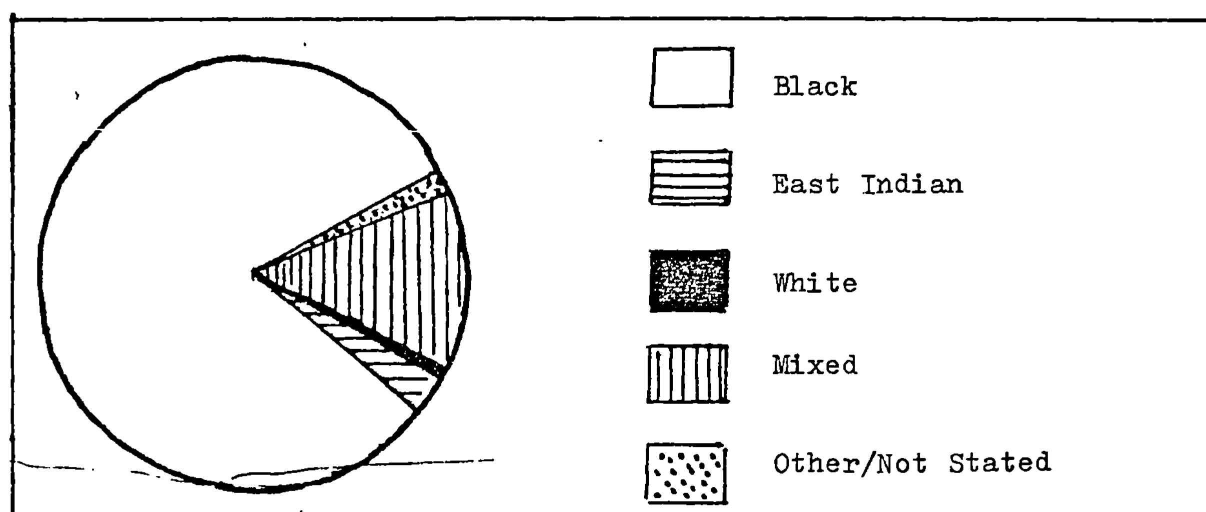


FIGURE 4.1 POPULATION BY RACE, GRENADA



In 1960 with a population of 88,700, Grenada was considered the most densely settled island in the Southern Caribbean, with the exception of Barbados. However, when one compares the population for 1984 (latest available population figures) with other Commonwealth Caribbean countries, it would appear that Grenada experienced a zero growth rate in population in 1983 and 1984.

TABLE 4.1 GROWTH RATE IN REAL GDP AND POPULATION (CHANGES IN PERCENT), GRENADA 1984

Year	Real GDP	Population
1982	4.7	-
1983	-2.0	0.0
1984	-1.6	0.0

So between 1960 and 1970, Grenada had an average birth rate of 35.1% and a death rate of 9.3%, and in 1972 a birth rate of 28.26% and death rate of 6.35%, a situation which lasted up to the end of the decade of the 70's and led to an estimated population of 110,000 in January 1981. [4] The situation, however, changed drastically as the 1980's settled in and the 'effects' of the 1979 Grenada Revolution seemed to begin to touch the population. From 1981, therefore, one saw a reversal in the trend of the 1960's and 1970's and the single factor which might best explain such a reversal in population could be emigration. While one is not necessarily suggesting here that the 1979 Grenada Revolution had negative effects on the country *per se*, it seemed to have 'encouraged' migration.

For a detailed discussion on the social, political and economic impact of the 1979 revolution on Grenada, one may refer to Brigan [5] and others. [6]

4.4 A Brief Note on Political History

The history of Grenada can easily be referred to as a 'history of conflict', a conflict which peaked and dipped at different times from the arrival of the Europeans in 1650. Some of those incidences of conflict which left their mark and character on the social, political and economic institutions of Grenada are the following:

a) clash of cultures between the French colonists and the indigenous Amerindian people, which resulted in the massacre of the Amerindians;

b) the struggles between the French and British for supremacy of Grenada between 1756 and 1846, a period when it is claimed "Grenada's prosperity....was to make it a prize of war." [7]

This conflict was to be ended with the Treaty of Paris (1763) and the Treaty of Versailles (1784). However, the years between 1756 and 1846 saw the occurrence of the Fedon Rebellion (1795) or Brigand's War. It has been claimed that the 1791 Haitian Revolution encouraged Fedon's 1795 rebellion and, in turn, inspired the 1979 Grenada Revolution. [8] Certainly, for years after 1795 there was no peace between the Catholic Church and the Protestant British authorities on the island. The British attempt to Anglicanise the island, and the confiscation of the Roman Catholic Church property by the Government, and its sharing of that property between protestant churches and the Crown, intensified the already bitter feelings that existed between the established colonial Church and the Roman Catholic Church. Therefore, although France was not officially and legally in control of Grenada from 1763, the roots of its influence in the form of religion, language, cuisine and folklore had been buried so deep within the fabric of the society that the British needed much more than the 1763 and 1784 Treaties to gain real control. And so that relationship, coupled with French cultural influences, were to have later debilitating effects on the development of education in Grenada, mainly because of the colonial Government's refusal to give any support to educational programmes that were initiated by the Roman Catholic Church. [9]

4.5 The Development of Education in Grenada

4.5.1 Introduction:

It was in that climate of conflict that popular education was offered to the Grenadian working class. If this is understood and accepted, then it would seem logical to argue that popular education, like conflict, was not internally generated, but, rather, was externally motivated and supported. And because the climate was right for both conflict and education (conditions created and nurtured by the plantation system and slavery), they flourished under the most adverse conditions. [10] Implicit in that 'syndrome' could be the assumption that anything worthwhile that had to be achieved by the mass of the Grenadian people had to be put in a framework of conflict. And the events of 1795, 1823, 1885, 1951, 1974, 1979 and 1983 seem to bear testimony to this position. [11]

4.5.2 General or Elementary Education:

The history of educational development in Grenada can be readily likened easily to educational development anywhere in the Commonwealth Caribbean, with few exceptions. This part of the thesis will, therefore, focus on only those aspects of educational development that are specific to Grenada, though at times, for comparative purposes, references might be made to other territories.

Prior to 1835, two forms of schooling were offered: one fee-paying for the children of whites and free coloureds, and another for the slaves. While the pattern might have been similar elsewhere, a difference lay in the dominant role of the Anglican Church, as far as

Grenada was concerned. For here, it was the Church of England and the Grenada Benevolent Society, more than any other religious group, that provided (between 1824 and 1835) any real form of 'schooling' for the slaves. During that period, the Anglican Church provided funds to establish seven schools for children of the 'labouring classes'. [12] Nine more public schools were added by the Anglican Church between 1835 and 1838, and those functioned as 'day' and 'Sunday' Schools. Around the same time, the Methodist Church registered its first two schools in the territory.

During that time the Roman Catholic Church, which later became the most powerful provider of educational facilities on the island, was denied the usual financial support given by Government, and was, therefore, able to establish only one school. That created hardship for the section of the population who were members of the Catholic Church. So, whereas by the end of the apprenticeship period (1834-1838) 1234 children or 10% [13] of all children within school age were enrolled in schools, the number, one could argue, might have been greater, and access to 'schooling' easier if conflict between the Roman Catholic Church and the State had not existed. Yet, when La Trobe (1838) [14] pointed to the several obstacles which militated against effectiveness in the 'education system', the presence of the Roman Catholics on the island was given as one such obstacle.

Although progress in education continued steadily after 'full freedom' was granted (1838), some significant events occurred between 1838 and 1900 which influenced the nature of educational development

on the island. To begin with, the termination of the Negro Education Grant and the Mico Charity Fund (1845) led to serious hardship on schools and religious bodies, and even when the local legislature was forced to assume financial responsibility for education (1846), the meagre grant given retarded educational progress between 1846 and 1853. And even though there might have appeared to be a significant increase in the number of students of school age attending school, the percentage remained the same (8%) over fifteen years. Of course, at times while 3,421 children of school age were enrolled at schools, about 3,310 were employed on sugar and cocoa estates in Grenada.[15] So, in spite of an overall increase to 37 in the number of schools and a total enrolment of 7,128 students by the turn of the century, real progress in education up to 1900 appeared to be far from satisfactory, although the report by an inspector of schools at that time suggested that 81% of the 37 schools were performing satisfactorily.[16] No doubt that perception, one can argue, was in keeping with the little that was expected of the children of the labouring class.

In the meantime, however, the Roman Catholic Church, which up to 1846 had received no financial support from Government, was by 1853 commanding the spiritual life of about two-thirds of the population on the island. With that kind of support and the steady growth in Roman Catholic schools, government was forced to give an annual grant to the Roman church.

TABLE 4.2 SCHOOLS BY DENOMINATION/AGENCY: 1838-1887

Administrative Body	No. of schools Established			
	1838	1866	1878	1887
Anglican	8	9	16	16
Catholic	2	7	10	10
Methodist	2	5	5	5
Government	0	0	0	6
Mico	12	0	0	0

From an examination of the data in Table 4.2, it would seem that despite the obstacles which plagued educational development during the first fifty years of popular education in Grenada, some progress in establishing some sort of educational foundation was made. This was not done by setting up 'building structures' only, but also by setting in motion, from the second half of the nineteenth century, a flow of legislation (Acts and Ordinances) which was to form the legal basis of education in Grenada.

4.5.3 Secondary Education:

The first serious attempt at providing secondary education in Grenada was in 1858, when a Grammar School for boys was established. The educational climate at that time, however, proved unsuitable for the novelty of having a secondary school, and in 1859, because of poor attendance, the school was closed. It was reopened in 1911. In the

interim, in fact in 1876, the religious Sisters of St. Joseph's Convent established a Catholic Secondary School for Girls in St. George's. That school was followed, fifteen years later, by the Anglican High School for Girls, also in St. George's. Of course, all three secondary schools were established to meet the needs of the middle and upper classes. Ability to pay 'high fees' or to obtain government grants to secondary schools (1852) were the gateways to secondary education. Yet, for a secondary school to qualify to receive students on scholarships, certain conditions had to be met by the school. Two of these conditions were government's right to

a) approve the curriculum of the school;

b) examine the school annually.

The exclusive nature of secondary education reinforced the class structure because of the high status that was bestowed on those who were privileged to receive such an education. It was like a passport to many opportunities, occupations and social organisations. Conscious, therefore, of the benefits that could be derived from a secondary education, many ordinary folks began to seek opportunities for their children to obtain a secondary education. As one report stated:

> "....there is an increasing demand for opportunities of secondary education which the progressive community should welcome and encourage." [17]

With all secondary schools located in St. George's during that period, any attempt by poor parents in the 'out-districts' to enable their children to obtain a secondary education was a sacrifice only few could make. And from its inception up to the late 1960's, the obstacles preventing most able students from poor economical backgrounds from receiving secondary education were far too great to be overcome. Some of the obstacles included:

a) the availability of only a limited number of free scholarship places at secondary schools;

b) inability of parents from economically deprived homes to pay school fees, and at the same time, meet the additional cost of board and lodging, or the monthly transportation cost, cost of textbooks and equipment, and appropriate clothes.

This situation, however, could not continue indefinitely. With the growing demands for secondary school places by parents, [18] the expressed need by the society for secondary school graduates, the religious and political ambition of churchmen and politicians respectively, and the numerous recommendations by Commissions [19] for adequate provision of secondary education for a greater percentage of students within the secondary school age group, positive action had to be taken to satisfy those demands. As Toffler pointed out:

> "There seems to be an unquestioning faith in the power of school education, which is seen by the pupils and their parents and teachers alike as the chief and almost the only means of advancement on the social and economic ladder." [20]

As a result of those demands there was a gradual, though, what can be called, a significant increase (50%) in the number of secondary school buildings and places during the period 1945 to 1952. No doubt such an expansion could be viewed by many people as, among other things, a change in Government's policies. But was it? The changes which took place in secondary education during the 1940's and 1950's were only part of some wider changes which were sweeping the educational system at that time, but which had its roots in earlier educational events, namely the Moyne Commission recommendations (1939) and subsequent establishment of a Colonial Development and Welfare Schemes, [21] part of which was concerned with educational reforms in the British West Indies. In fact, the arrival of H.J. Padmore in 1942 from the United Kingdom as part of the Colonial Development and Welfare Scheme (CD & W) for education in Grenada, led to what has been described as "the beginning of a new era in educational development." [22]

In 1946 and 1958, meaningful attempts were made to extend secondary education to a large number of students based on the principle that every child should have equality in educational opportunities, irrespective of parental background. Yet, the literature on education in Grenada seems to suggest that students who had the ability to pay school fees and came from middle-class backgrounds benefitted far more from the provision of secondary education generally than students from poor economic backgrounds. [23] And while deficit theorists like Bernstein [24] would agree with the argument that:

> "early selection weighted the scales against pupils from social backgrounds that were not oriented towards schooling and scholarship", [25]

in Grenada it was found that:

> "some poor children even after passing this selective examination scoring very high marks, may be prevented from entering the Secondary Schools due to the inability of their parents to support them, thereby giving additional opportunities for the rich children with poor performance to get admitted to these privileged schools." [26]

The evidence in Grenada seems to further suggest that, unlike Britain and the United States, a student's social class background does not necessarily prevent that student from obtaining maximum benefit from the highest educational opportunities provided, for it was found that:

> "Despite the fact that children from the lower classes were outnumbered in Secondary Schools, 50% of the Island scholarships awarded between 1930 and 1951 were won by boys from the lower classes, three of whom were from very poor homes." [27]

Apart from Government's and the churches' efforts to expand secondary educational opportunities to a greater number of students within secondary school age, through the erection of more buildings by the churches, and increase in Government's grants to church schools, Grenadian nationals in Grenada and overseas began to offer scholarships to secondary schools for pupils who did well in the Common Entrance Examinations, but were financially unable to attend secondary schools.[28] That contribution to educational development in Grenada by Grenadians at home and abroad also took another form: contributions through books, service and sporting equipment and donations to expand and

repair school buildings.[29] The 1950's and 1960's was a time in the development of education in Grenada when Grenadians were willing to strengthen the educational base of the society, irrespective of some of the irrelevancies of the curriculum and the inherent social class structure within the educational system. As one Grenadian educator puts it:

> "Developments which started in the forties and fifties gained momentum in the sixties. Indeed, the sixties may be regarded as a period of consolidation and progress."[30]

As testimony to this view, one can refer to the new school building programme that was drawn up, and the establishment in the 1960's of

a) the Grenada technical wing;

b) the Commercial and Domestic Arts Institute;

c) the provision of facilities for the teaching of handicraft and home economics in centres and departments in all-age primary schools;

d) the opening of Grenada Teachers' College, MacDonald College, Bishop's College and St. John's Christian Secondary School.

No doubt the constitutional changes which took place during the late 1950's and early 1960's were, in part, responsible for the 'educational boom' of the 1960's. For example, from January 1, 1960 elected ministers to the Legislative Council were given full responsibility for their

ministries. (See Figure 4.2). What that really meant, for example, was that the Minister of Education had to answer to Cabinet if he failed to:

a) promote the education of the people of the State and to establish institutions devoted to that purpose by means of which he shall thereby foster the spiritual, moral, marital, social and physical development of the community;

b) frame and execute effectively and efficiently an educational policy designed to provide a varied educational service related to the changing needs of the community;

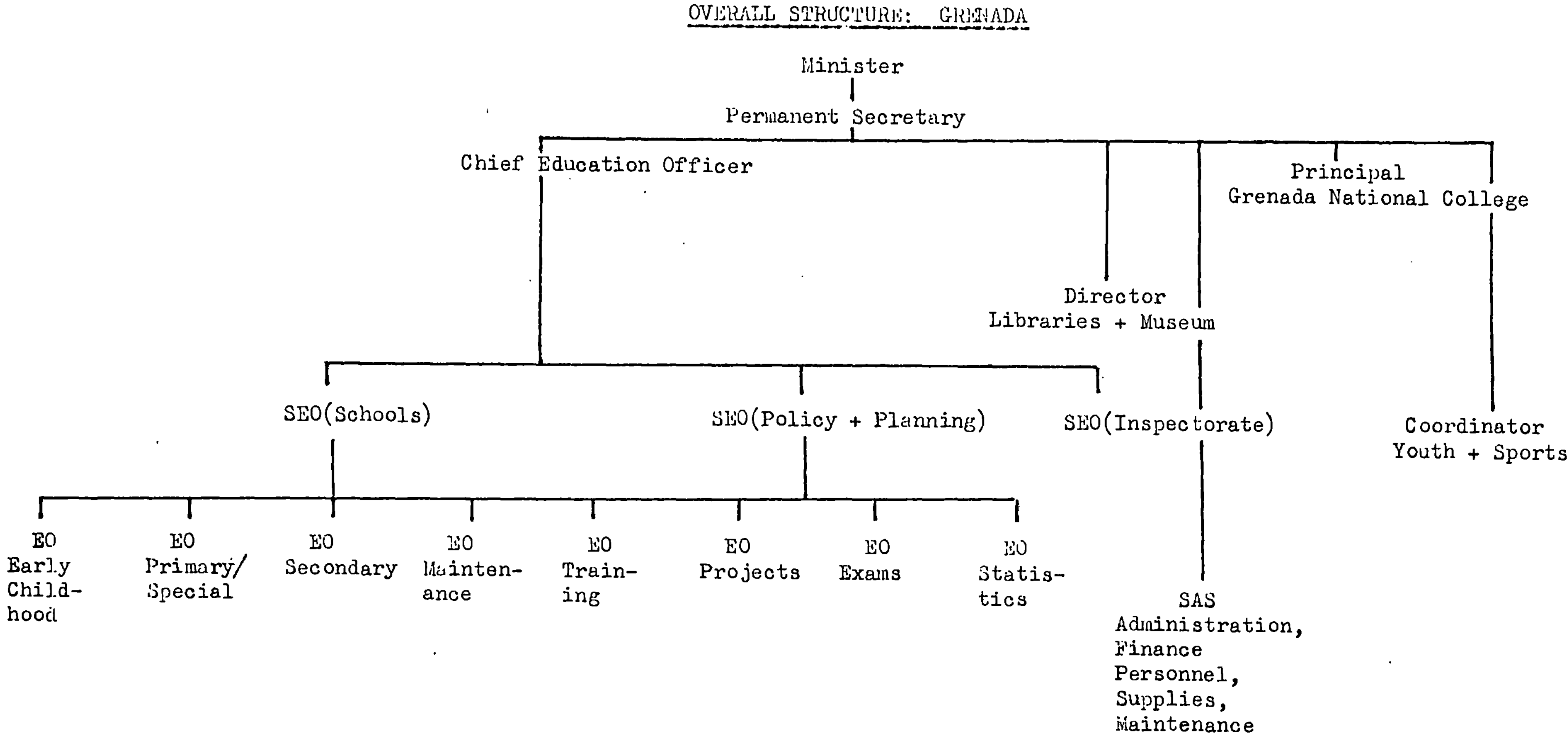
c) establish a co-ordinated educational system devised as far as possible to meet the needs of all children with specific reference to their abilities, aptitudes, interest and ages.[31] (Refer to Figure 4.5).

With that kind of power and responsibility, but also with his great dependence on the electorate to maintain his office, the Minister had been 'forced' to respond positively within the limits of financial provision, to the demands of the electorate for the expansion of educational provision. The policy statements on education for the late 1960's and early 1970's seem to reflect Government's consciousness of the community's educational hopes and aspirations, and its desire to hold on to its source of power: the people. (See Appendices 4A, 4B, 4C, 4D for samples of Throne Speeches).

4.5.4 Curriculum:

When popular education was introduced in the British West Indies, Grenada, like the rest of the territories, was 'given' a curriculum

Figure 4.2



Source: <u>Ministry of Education</u>, St George's, Grenada (1988)

to be used. The nature of that curriculum and all its negative aspects have been discussed in Chapter One. What might be useful to mention is that the procedure used in arriving at the type of curriculum to be used in schools up to 1964 followed the same pattern as that which was used in 1835: Curricula were prescribed and given to schools without any 'teacher input'. (At the secondary school level the curricula were determined, to a great extent, by external examinations). And one is told, for example, that:

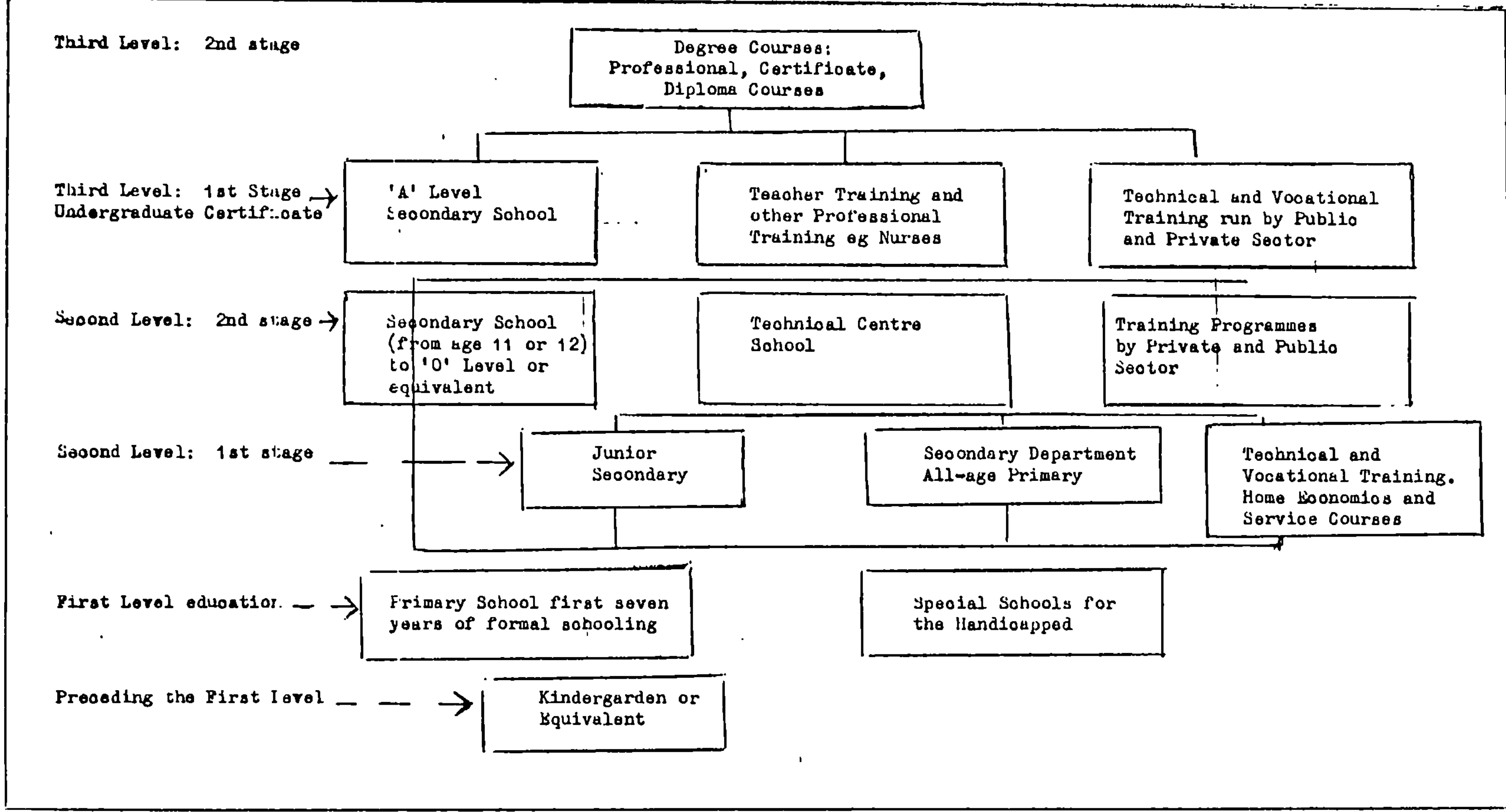
> "In 1957, a syllabus covering the entire school course was issued. The Acting Education Officer....met a large assembly of teachers to explain the content and spirit of the syllabus prior to its introduction in the schools." [32]

While the writer is aware that the curriculum is wider than the syllabus, the attitude of educational administrators and curriculum 'officers' towards teachers involvement in syllabus formulation and curriculum development was, up to that period, one of non-involvement of teachers.

The year 1965, however, signalled a change in that approach with the revision of the 1959 syllabus. Sub-committees comprising education department personnel and school representatives from the Infant, Junior and Senior Departments of schools met to give more substance, relevance and meaning to syllabus formulation and curriculum development in Grenada. [33] That initial positive step created the sort of climate that was later to revolutionise the whole process of curriculum development in Grenada, beginning with the introduction of the Carnegie Project in 1968. Described as "the most significant changes in

Figure 4.3

FLOWCHART - EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM, GRENADA (1987)



curriculum development"[34] in Grenada to date, that 'Caribbean Plan' was introduced to re-organise instruction at the elementary level. In outlining the new curriculum plan, Maraj explained:

> "The plan is no more than an attempt to develop a rational organisational framework within which progressive ideas in education can get a chance to show their effects and more realistically provides for the achievement of such educational objectives as catering for individual differences, individualising instruction, developing special abilities and providing fundamental training."[35]

This, however, should not be taken to mean that from 1965 the curriculum development process in Grenada was free of all obstacles, and totally homegrown. That could not be, for several reasons, chief among which were negative parental attitudes to anything that is given indigenous flavour, and the overseas GCE examinations. And that is why Palmer and Brathwaite, writing in 1972, admitted that:

> "neither the existing all-age schools nor the academic secondary schools are equipped to provide the education which can satisfy all our needs and the needs of the majority of children in the 12-15 age group. The curriculum, at this stage, should be varied with a strong pre-vocational bias."[36]

So even after the Carnegie Project was tried, the strong academic bias of the primary school curriculum continued. One of the many steps that was taken in the early 1970's was the introduction of Junior Secondary Schools. It was hoped that the curriculum of these schools would satisfy the need for a strong 'pre-vocational bias' and cater to a

wider range of abilities, aptitudes and interests of the 12-16 year old. (See Appendix 4E for objectives of Junior Secondary Schools, and Appendix 4Pi). However, recent research findings suggest that Junior Secondary Schools in Grenada have failed to realise the goals for which they were established. [37]

To any educator in the system who was serious enough to assess what was really happening in Junior Secondary Schools, those findings would not have provided any new information, for the following reasons. Firstly, the goals which those schools were expected to achieve were unrealistic in light of the nature of the programme and the school population to which it was targetted. In other words, all students who were sent to Junior Secondary Schools, initially, were students who were 12 years old and over, and who had failed to obtain a pass in the Common Entrance Examination to secure a place in either a comprehensive or grammar school. [38] Although a feeble attempt was made in one such school to offer a programme similar to what was offered in the lower forms of comprehensive schools, the programme offered in junior secondary schools was essentially the same as that offered in the senior department of all-age primary schools. Thirdly, although the intention was to staff the junior secondary schools with only college/professionally trained teachers and subject specialists, over 73% of the teachers who taught in those schools were untrained as Table 4.3 demonstrates. (Refer also to Appendix 4J).

TABLE 4.3 TEACHERS IN JUNIOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS BY GRADE AND SEX, 1983-84

School	No.	Trained	No.	Untrained	%	%
	M	F	M	F	Trained	Untrained
Buca	1	5	7	5	33.3	66.7
Waltham	2	6	2	2	66.7	33.3
Grenville	2	1	3	12	16.7	83.3
Hillsborough	1	0	10	7	5.6	94.4
TOTAL	6	12	22	26		

Finally, those schools lacked some of the basic equipment necessary to carry out effectively any programme with a pre-vocational bias.

This situation seems to have been made worse by Government's decision (1986) to convert the four Junior Secondary schools to full comprehensive secondary schools. The Acting Principal of one Junior Secondary (new Comprehensive) school commented:

> "I just don't understand how the Administration can, with the stroke of a pen, and without any prior preparation, convert the junior secondary schools to full comprehensive schools." [39]

Whereas it would seem that junior secondary schools have failed to satisfy the practical and pre-vocational bias for which they were

established, it would be misleading to suggest that there has been no significant and meaningful shift in emphasis in the nature of school curricula (from purely academic orientation to more practical activities), as there were some tangible and qualitative results between 1965 and 1979. The introduction of practical subjects like Agricultural Science, Home Economics and Industrial Arts does imply a shift in emphasis.

4.5.5 Tertiary Education:

Tertiary education in Grenada is designed to give post-secondary school students skills for the job market. With government's plan to encourage and support industrial development and the growth of local industries, attempts were being made to ensure the necessary skills demanded by the agricultural, commercial and industrial sectors were met through the establishment of a national college. This college comprises all the tertiary-level institutions and programmes which previously operated as independent units. (See Figure 4.4).

The institutions which are merged to create the National College are:

a) the Institute for Further Education. IFE)

b) the Grenada Technical and Vocational Institute. (GTVI)

c) the Grenada Teachers' College. (GTC)

d) School of Nursing.

e) Mirabeau Agricultural Training Schools. (MATS)

f) Continuing Education Programme. (CEP)

g) Grenada Science and Technology Council. (GSTC)

h) Domestic Arts Institute. (DAI)

i) Grenada National Institute of Handicraft. (GNIH)

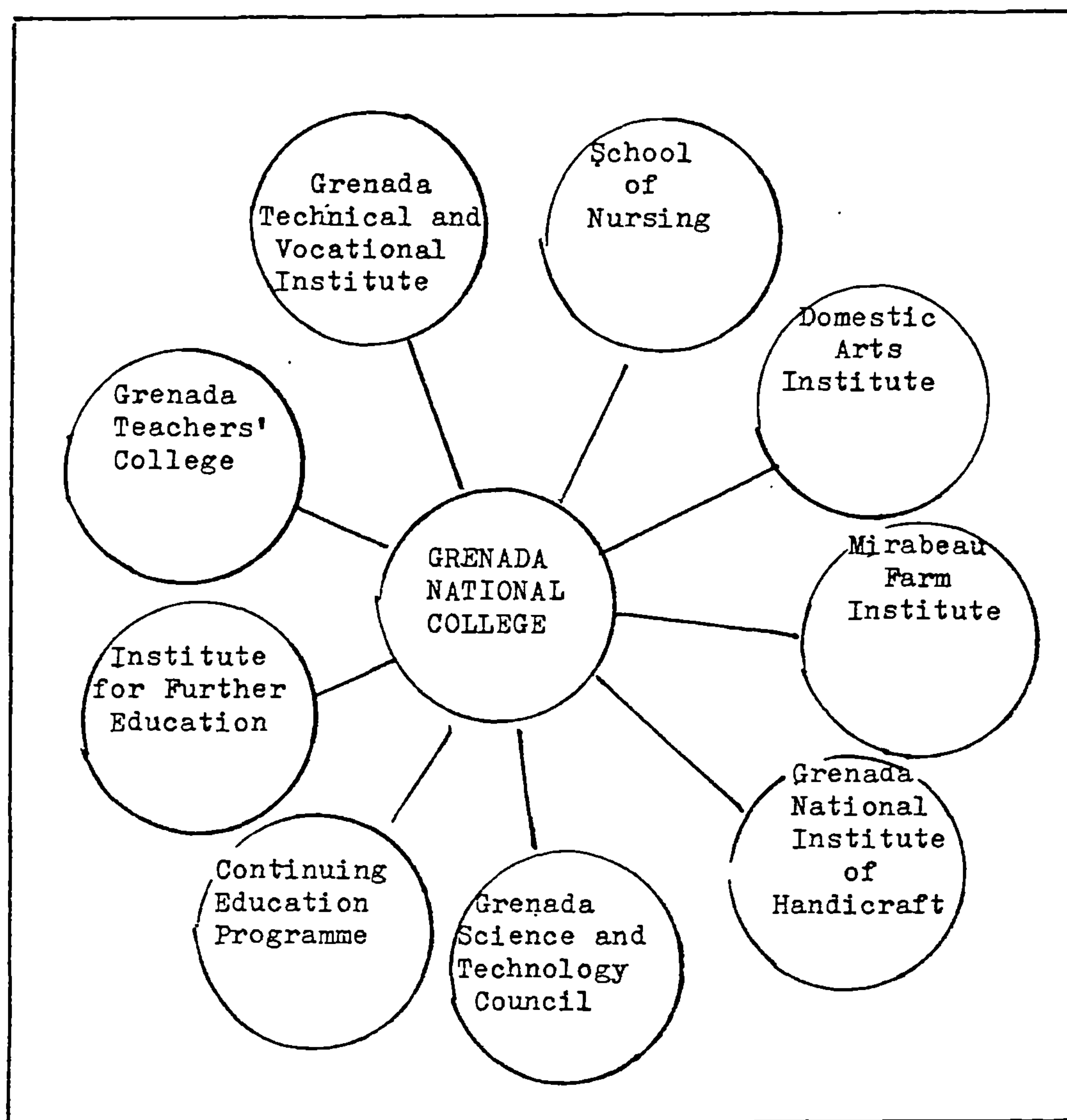
Because the main focus of this thesis is teacher education, detailed discussion on the above mentioned tertiary-level institutions in this chapter is limited to the Grenada Teachers' College only. For this reason, no attempt is made to look at either the programmes or operations of those institutions.

4.5.5 Teacher Education:

Prior to the establishment of its own teachers' college in 1962, Grenada made use of various methods and avenues in the process of preparing its teachers for the nation's classrooms. Like the other British territories, when popular education came to Grenada teachers had to be found, and the much criticised but over-used, pupil-teacher system had to be used, and indeed survived into the 1980's. This, one can argue, was the first widely used 'in-service' teacher education programme in Grenada.

In 1946, Teacher Training Centres were established in five of the six parishes in Grenada, including Carriacou. These centres were used to enhance the teaching competence of pupil teachers in the educational

FIGURE 4.4 COMPOSITION OF GRENADA NATIONAL COLLEGE



Source: Devised by the writer from Ministry of Education Information (1988).

system. The persons used in that training scheme were 'supervising teachers' who were sent to Government Training College (GTC) in Trinidad from 1945 for the purpose of becoming able to supervise pupil teachers at the teacher training centres. Parallel to the pupil teacher training scheme was the 'Intending Teachers Scholarship Programme'. Through that programme 'suitable' pupils from the primary schools were given scholarships to secondary schools with the expressed purpose of becoming teachers after completing secondary education. It was hoped that in time that plan would produce such an adequate supply of teachers for the educational system that the pupil teacher system would become unnecessary. Unfortunately that hope was in vain, for most of the students after graduating from secondary school sought better paying jobs than teaching. [40]

The preparation of teachers was not restricted to Government Training College in Trinidad and the Teacher Training Centres in Grenada. Grenadian teachers were also sent to the United Kingdom (e.g. the University College of Hull, 1945-46), Puerto Rico, and the United States. By the late 1950's, in-service teacher training was "expanded and intensified" [41] because of financial assistance received from the Colonial Welfare and Development Grant.

During that same period, wheels were set in motion to train specialist teachers in such areas as: handicraft, home economics and infant education. All this was in keeping with the attempt to broaden the base of the curriculum, making it, as it was hoped, less academic and more practical. And, as if to demonstrate in a practical way its

commitment to specialist teacher preparation, the Ministry of Education appointed an infant education organiser (Evelyn Hordatt) during the early 1960's, so as to ensure the multiplier effect within the system.

But the desire to better prepare classroom teachers was not singular to Grenada. It was something that was sweeping the Commonwealth Caribbean at that time, which led to the first Conference on Teacher Education in the Eastern Caribbean for college tutors and educational administrators, in Trinidad, in 1957. [42] Teacher educators from Grenada participated in that conference.

Teacher Education could not escape the effects of the 1960's general thrust in education in Grenada. Between 1962 and the end of the decade, events which had not previously occurred in teacher preparation were beginning. (See Appendix 4L). For the first time, in one year, (1962) fourteen (14) teachers were given training scholarships to Erdiston College, Barbados (8), the United Kingdom (3), Toronto (1) and the University of the West Indies (2). [43] And, as has been stated earlier, the in-service programme for pupil teachers was intensified, with emphasis not only on the professional growth, but also on the academic development of the teachers concerned. Bearing in mind the limited academic background of pupil teachers in the system at the time, and conscious of the main objective of the in-service programme, to 'certify' teachers who completed the programme satisfactorily, action had to be taken to correct the 'academic deficiency' in the teacher.

When the governments of the Windward Islands failed in 1962 to establish a teacher training college in St. Vincent to serve the Windward group as a whole, Grenada took the significant step to establish its own teacher training college in 1963, with the support of the governments of the United Kingdom and Canada. How appropriate that decision was, will emerge from discussion below on the work of the College.

With its own teacher training college, Grenada's educational system seemed poised to revolutionise and hasten the pace of teacher preparation. A 'bursary teacher training scheme' was launched in 1964, with the aim of obtaining better prepared teachers for the primary and all-age schools, and ridding the system of the pupil teacher system. Under that scheme thirty students, who were already in secondary schools, were selected and maintained by Government at secondary schools. After writing the Senior Cambridge or the General Certificate of Education examination, they were admitted to the teachers' college, where they spent one academic year.

That scheme too failed because it could not retain its products in the educational system, because other careers offered more attractive salaries, and because most teachers who were the recipients of 'teaching bursaries' lacked the high level of commitment and professionalism that was common among products of the pupil teacher system. [44] In attempting to replace the pupil teacher system by the 'bursary scheme', the Ministry of Education was also trying to change the method of preparing its teachers from an 'in-service' approach to a 'pre-service

full-time in-College' approach. Of course, changing from one method of teacher preparation to another demands much more than the idea or the decision, it demands the availability of suitable and adequate resources.

The introduction of the one year pre-service teacher training course at the teachers' college, and, later, the admission requirement stipulated by the School of Education, University of the West Indies (U.W.I.), created some imbalances and dissatisfaction within the teaching service. There were in the system at that time many 'long serving' untrained primary school teachers who did not satisfy college admission requirement, but who, nonetheless, were desirous of becoming college trained/qualified teachers. At the same time they were witnessing many young and inexperienced teachers becoming 'qualified' teachers, and receiving much higher salaries than they were earning. They were naturally disgruntled.

As an attempt to rectify what appeared to some educators, Ministry, and Grenada Teachers' Union officials an 'injustice', the nature and scope of the on-going in-service teacher education programme was modified in 1965 to accommodate Certificated Teachers, Probationers and Student Teachers. (See Appendix 4F). It was now possible for those new categories of teachers to pursue a two-year in-service training course under the combined direction of the Institute of Education, U.W.I. and Grenada Teachers' College and become qualified/ trained teachers. Like previous innovations in teacher preparation that too failed after the first batch of nineteen (19) teachers completed the programme.[45]

One might be tempted to argue that the discontinuity of three (3) teacher training programmes after completing one cycle, when, initially they were created to run for longer periods, could suggest fundamental weaknesses in the conceptualisation, planning and execution of teacher education programmes in Grenada during the early stages of its development. Yet, one might concede that because of the relative newness of preparing teachers locally, the nature of teaching, and the dynamic nature of society, teacher education, by its very nature becomes problematic. And therefore, when the administration in Grenada in 1967 took the decision to discontinue in-service teacher education in the latest form, and to introduce a two-year full-time in-College teacher education programme, one could reasonably conclude that it was simply a search for more effective methods of teacher preparation. So, except for the National In-Service Teacher Education Programme (1979-1983), Primary and Junior Secondary School teachers in Grenada (from 1967) have been prepared for periods of two years at Grenada Teachers' College, in conjunction with the School of Education, U.W.I. Grenada, however, never stopped sending some of its teachers to receive initial or specialist training abroad.

The period 1979 to 1983 could be considered a special period in the history of educational development and reform in Grenada. It is special because it ushered in an almost complete departure from the traditional values upon which the aims of education in Grenada were based. The aim of the revolution was to create a socialist state, and if education was to play its part in that process its base had to be socialist in nature, and based on socialist principles.

According to Walter Rodney, a socialist educational system has three essential elements. It

a) is related to the productive base;

b) must be non-elitist;

c) must have community participation. [46]

As far as the Peoples Revolutionary Government was concerned, these elements were diametrically opposed to the existing Grenada educational system which was

> "made, packaged and wrapped in England.... carried the stamp and postmark of England, so that those few who received it would copy and learn to mimic all those camo-flaged vices from the metropolis, which were behind the economic and mental oppression of the Caribbean people." [47]

It was, therefore, clear that there would have been a

> "revolutionary transformation in our schools and right through the institutions of our new society to finally eradicate the damaging scars on the minds of Grenadians, which years of Colonial rule had left." [48]

And so to achieve this objective, emphasis was placed on teacher education, Curriculum development and Adult Education programmes.

In January 1980, an education seminar was held over a period of two weeks for all primary and junior secondary school teachers within

the state of Grenada, Carriacou and Petite Martinique. It has been claimed [49] that the reports from working groups at that seminar unanimously recommended a mass education programme for teachers. As a result of that recommendation, the National In-service Teacher Education Programme (NISTEP) was born. The overall task of that programme was

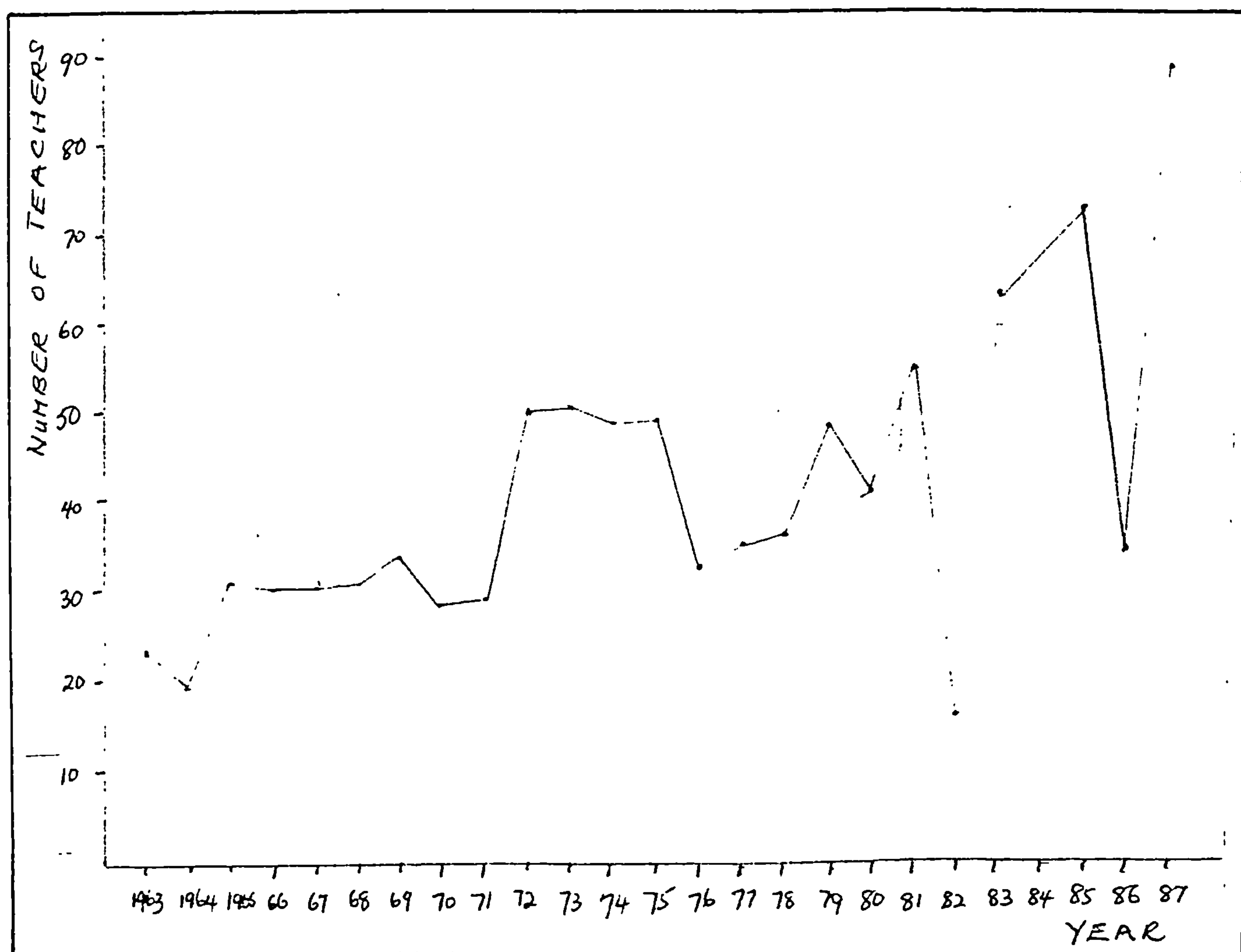
> "to train at one blow the mass of 500 untrained teachers in the primary and all-age schools." [50]

The rationale used for replacing the two-year full-time in-college course with NISTEP was based on the view that it was 'ridiculously impractical' to train in college on a full-time basis, in a relatively short time, over 500 untrained teachers, at the rate at which trained teachers were being produced, as is illustrated in Figure 4.5 and Table 4.4.

TABLE 4.4 NUMBER OF TEACHERS TRAINED AT GRENADA TEACHERS' COLLEGE, 1970-1987

Year	Annual Output	Year	Annual Output
1963	23	1973	51
1964	19	1974	49
1965	31	1975	49
1966	30	1976	33
1967	30	1977	36
1968	31	1978	37
1969	34	1979	49
1970	28	1980	42
1971	29	1985	73
1972	50	1986	35
		1987	89

FIGURE 4.5 NUMBER OF TEACHERS TRAINED AT GRENADA TEACHERS' COLLEGE, 1963-1987



Source: Devised on the basis of data obtained from the Ministry of Education and Teachers' College Records, St.Georges, Grenada, (1987).

It is argued that the situation was further aggravated when many teachers left the teaching profession shortly after they entered it.[51] Tables 4.5 and 4.6 and Figure 4.5 illustrate aspects of the teaching force.

The National In-service Teacher Education Programme (NISTEP) operated in three centres (St. George's, St. Andrew and Carriacou) on different days in the school week, thus making it possible for the same tutors to move from one centre to another, if or when the need arose, to teach, especially in cases where 'quality' staff was in short supply. That arrangement, however, put a strain on some members of NISTEP staff, and limited the number of contact hours those tutors had for carrying out on-the-job training during any one week. The gravity of the situation becomes clearer when the tutor-student ratio and other factors are considered as are brought out in Tables 4.7, 4.8 and 4.9. (See also Appendix 4N).

Teachers who were being trained through the National In-service Teacher Education Programme were supervised in their school classroom not only by assigned tutors from the teachers' college, but also by the school's principal, and by trained teachers within the school who functioned as 'teacher partners'.[52] Their role as 'teacher partners' was to give professional support where necessary and to evaluate the student-teacher's performance. Implicit in this role are a number of assumptions:

a) that the teacher-partner is sufficiently competent and committed to perform that role effectively;

TABLE 4.5 TEACHING FORCE AT (A) PRIMARY, ALL-AGE AND (B) SECONDARY LEVELS, 1980-1987 (GRENADA)

PRIMARY AND ALL-AGE SCHOOLS

(a)

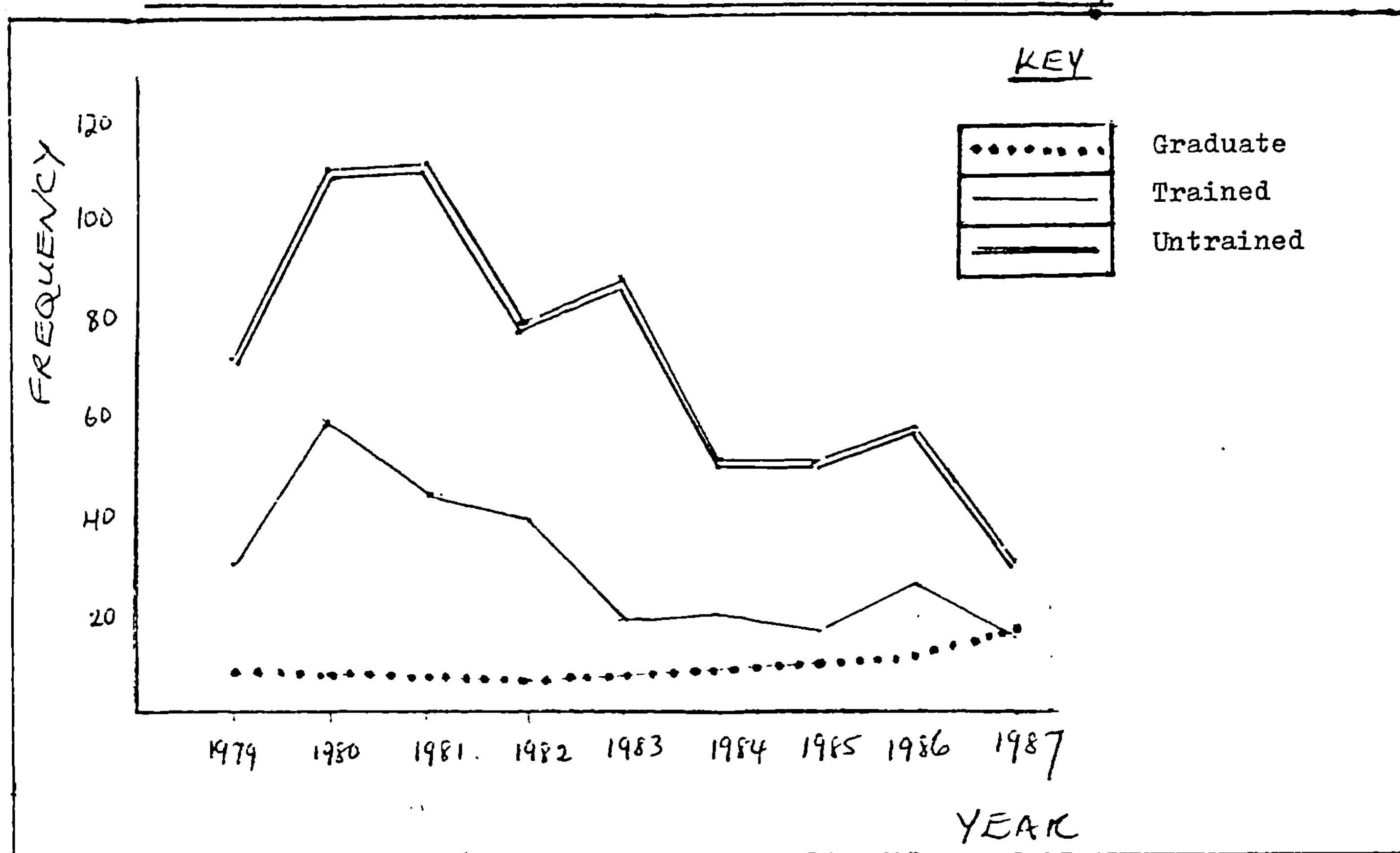
Year	No. of Teachers			Trained Teachers		Pupil/Teacher Ratio
	M	F	Total	No.	%	
1980-81	270	506	776	297	38.3	1:28
1981-82	260	500	760	294	38.7	1:27
1982-83	243	505	748	235	31.4	1:27
1983-84	237	498	735	236	32.0	1:27
1984-85	244	512	756	300	39.7	1:26
1985-86	210	514	724	305	42.1	
1986-87	208	487	695	296	42.5	

SECONDARY SCHOOLS

(b)

Year	Teachers			Percentage Trained	Student Teacher Ratio	Trained Teachers Student Ratio
	M	F	Total			
1980-81	83	86	169	15.38	1:23	1:150
1981-82	84	93	177	16.38	1:24	1:146
1982-83	90	94	184	15.21	1:27	1:176
1983-84	114	105	219	20.54	1:26	1:126
1984-85	166	147	313	13.14	1:21	1:155
1985-86	111	123	234	28.63		
1986-87	148	138	286	31.69		

FIGURE 4.6 REFLECTING DIFFERENT GRADES OF TEACHERS LEAVING THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM OVER THE PERIOD 1979-1987 (GRENADA)



Source: Devised by the writer based on data obtained from the Ministry of Education, St.Georges, Grenada.

TABLE 4.6 TEACHERS LEAVING THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM, SEPTEMBER 1, 1978 - AUGUST 31, 1987 (GRENADA)

School Year	Teachers By Grade		
	Graduate	Trained	Untrained
1978-1979	8	31	73
1979-1980	8	60	112
1980-1981	7	45	113
1981-1982	6	40	80
1982-1983	*	20*	90*
1983-1984	*	21*	54*
1984-1985	*	18*	53*
1985-1986	11	27	59
1986-1987	17	16	33
TOTAL	57+	278+	667+

*Data for secondary schools for those years are unavailable

TABLE 4.7 DISTRIBUTION OF NISTEP TUTORS AND STUDENTS BETWEEN 1980 AND 1983 (GRENADA)

Year	Student-Teachers	Tutors	Tutor/Student Ratio
1980-81	550	16	33.8
1981-82	380	21	18.1
1982-83	320	24	13.3

TABLE 4.8 DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS, CENTRES AND CLASSES, NISTEP 1980/81 (GRENADA)

Centre	No. of Classes	Size of Classes	No. of students
St.George's (A)	7	42	294
St.Andrew's (B)	5	42	210
Carriacou (C)	1	46	46
TOTAL	13		550

TABLE 4.9 TIME DISTRIBUTION WITHIN NISTEP, 1980-1983 (GRENADA)

Course	Life of Course in Years	Contact Hours Per Week	No. of Classes Per Term	No. of Classes During Vacation	Total Contact Hours
Language Arts	2	$1\frac{1}{2}$	60	60	180
Mathematics	2	$1\frac{1}{2}$	60	60	180
Education	2	$1\frac{1}{2}$	60	60	180
Science	1	$1\frac{1}{2}$	30	30	75
Social Studies	1	$1\frac{1}{4}$	30	30	75
Agricultural Science	1	$1\frac{1}{4}$	30	30	75
Health Education	1	$1\frac{1}{4}$	30	30	75
TOTAL					840

b) that the support systems in the schools are in place;

c) that the perceptions of the teacher-partner, trainee, school principal and college tutors, as far as what constitutes competence, are in harmony with each other: Based on the assigned role of the 'trained teacher', and the principal who oversees the whole operation within the school, it could be claimed that NISTEP was designed to embrace all teachers within the primary, all-age and Junior Secondary Schools.

Parallel to the NISTEP were the activities of the Curriculum Development Unit. The stated objectives of that unit was to seek to

> "lay the basis, through material production workshops and piloting schemes, of a completely transformed curriculum to be developed..." [53]

All this was in keeping with the main focus of the plan for educational transformation. From the observations of this writer, and from personal interviews and discussions with principals and college tutors, one got the distinct impression that curriculum reform during the period 1979 to 1983 was guided more by 'ideological considerations' [54] than by 'sound educational principles'. Even when one concedes somewhat to Brizan's position that curriculum

> "is an exercise that has to be inextricably bound to the economic and social realities of the particular country," [55]

a principle that was demonstrated in the 'Work Study' and 'Community School Day programmes', one could also argue that to tie curriculum only to the realities of a particular country can serve to seriously

limit and retard the rate of 'progress' of that country, more so if:

a) that country is socially, economically or politically 'backward', and

b) if the educational system in that country is still limited to external examinations that carry a portion of 'foreign-grown content'. Further, when one examines the performances of Secondary and Primary School students on the Common Entrance, CXC and GCE examinations pre-1979, during and after the period of educational transformation, (1979-1987), one might be able to make statements with some degree of accuracy as to how effective or ineffective curriculum reforms in Grenada might have been. (See Table 4.10 and Appendix 4G).

For a more detailed description of NISTEP and its supporting programmes, Community School Day Programme (CSDP), Work-Study programme, Mass Education for Women and the Centre for Popular Education (CPE), see Brizan [56] and Creft. [57]

Whether it was purely a 'politicaly ploy' or a genuine act of social welfare, 'free' secondary education, which seemed to have been only a dream of previous administrations was made a reality under the Peoples Revolutionary Government (PRG) in 1980, despite the attendant cost. To facilitate that decision a new secondary school was built by government, bringing to two the number of government senior secondary schools in the state, the first being the Grenada Boys Secondary School (GBSS). There was also at that time a dramatic increase in the number of scholarships that were offered to young Grenadians to pursue professional training in Eastern as well as Western block countries. In a sense, one can argue, that the Grenada

TABLE 4.10 EXAMINATION RESULTS FOR THE PERIOD 1970-1987, (GRENADA)

Internal

(a)	Common Entrance			(b) Primary School Leaving		
Year	Number Sat	Number Passed	Percentage Passed	Number Sat	Number Passed	Percentage Passed
1970	2739	190	7	944	206	22
1971	2822	216	7.6	1028	134	13
1972	3082	239	7.7	1004	254	25
1973	3878	244	6.2	1140	279	24
1974	*	*	*	1119	248	22
1975	3518	260	7	1113	201	18
1976	3462	270	8	1076	296	28
1977	3439	277	8	1102	260	24
1978	2937	302	10	969	28	3
1979	2794	360	13	874	66	8
1980	3179	1030	32	821	172	21
1981	3000	1156	38.5	852	70	8.2
1982	3109	1137	36.5	900	295	32.7
1983	3234	1183	36.5	1046	246	23.5
1984	3189	1206	37.8	922	51	5.5
1985	2934	1156	39.4	814	119	14.6
1986	2943	1250	42.4	737	116	15.7
1987	2850	1251	43.8	701	89	12.6

* Not available

TABLE 4.10 (Continued) EXAMINATION RESULTS FOR THE PERIOD 1970-1987 (GRENADA)

External

(c) G.C.E. O'Level				(d) C.X.C.		
Year	Subject Entries	Subject Passed	Pass Rate	Subject Entries	Subject Passed	Pass Rate
1970	3867	1417	43%			
1971	5274	1885	36%			
1972	4550	1540	34%			
1973	5908	1775	30%	Caribbean Examinations Council Commenced Exams in May-June, 1979		
1974	5578	1525	33%			
1975	5423	1810	32%			
1976	5933	1877	33%			
1977	5892	2024	33%			
1978	6418	2087	33%			
1979	6965	2172	31%			
1980	6282	1902	30%	316	106	33.5%
1981	5611	1829	32.5%	437	99	22.6%
1982	4516	1592	35.2%	567	179	31.5%
1983	3510	1305	37.1%			
1984	5294	1513	30%	1031	330	32%
1985	5239	1441	29.6%	1385	569	41%
1986	4800	1544	34%	1770	693	39.1%
1987	4833	1560	33.8%	1989	687	34.9%

revolution appeared to have been taking on, at least educationally, the flavour of the Cuban revolution.[58]

The PRG seemed bent on proving that education was not simply a 'right' or an 'imperative', but a 'must', something that was necessary for a country's growth and development. And to translate further that belief into reality, programmes like 'Work Study' and CSDP were instituted. That great emphasis on education was rooted in the belief that 'education implied production'.[59] Klucgynski, for example, suggested that the growth of socialist countries in Europe during the post-war years was heavily influenced by the development of education there.[60] Although studies done by Weiss,[61] Carnoy and Thias,[62] and Henry,[63] tend to support the relationship between 'schooling and earnings', one wonders whether that relationship is inevitable, or whether there are more subtle forces at work in the societies where that was found to exist. However, convinced that such a relationship existed, the political directorate of the PRG set to work with the hope of obtaining similar results in Grenada.

Because of the 'sudden' fall of the Peoples Revolutionary Government in October 1983, it is difficult to make any firm statement on the success or failure of the attempt to revolutionise the Grenadian Educational system. The time for that experiment was too short, when one considers the political, social and economic pressures and obstacles with which the system had to deal at the same time. Yet, by examining the performance of students on internal and external examinations, and the educational provisions made during the period

1979 to 1983, one should get some insight into, and be able to make an assessment of, the potential inherent in that educational thrust. (See Appendix 4Q).

But how really different were the educational goals and aspirations of the Peoples' Revolutionary Government from those of previous administrations? Whether or not one admits that essentially there was no difference in educational goals and aspirations, what seems quite certain to this observer is that the perceptions of the PRG and previous administrations of how educational goals were to be realised were totally different, as Brock seems to suggest. [64]

The restoration of the Westminster model of government in Grenada, however, as a result of the invasion of Grenada by the United States in October 1983 has led to a return of the educational system to the traditional mode of development to which it has been accustomed, and which has been labelled the 'plantation syndrome'. [65] Yet, between October 1983 and 1988, the educational system in Grenada has embraced a return by the teachers' college to its former two-year full-time in-College training programme, the establishment of a National College, a modified form of adult and continuing education, and a model education project at Crochu Primary School, where 210 of the 479 students in the school received computer-assisted instruction mainly in Mathematics and Language Arts.

The Grenada National College (GNC), which was initially scheduled to open in January 1987, but which actually commenced operation in

July 1988, was 'created' to be the integration of all tertiary educational institutions in Grenada.[66] (Refer to Figure 4.4). Whether or not this amalgamation will serve to give direction to, and help to enhance future educational development in Grenada, can only be, at the time of writing, a matter of speculation.

4.6 Empirical Research Section

4.6.1 Introduction:

At this stage of Chapter 4, as is also the case in the research sections in Chapters 5 and 6, the focus is turned to the key issue, which is: 'Is the Programme of the Teacher Preparation Institutions in Antigua, Grenada and the United States Virgin Islands suitably geared/adequate to prepare teachers to deal effectively with the pressing classroom demands of a rapidly changing Caribbean society?' The first system that has been subjected to an investigation and evaluation, and dealt with in this chapter, is the Grenada Teachers' College. (G.T.C.).

4.6.2 Purpose of Evaluation:

Before this writer offers any working or operational definitions of the key concepts in the above stated research question, and in order to put into proper prospective the study under consideration, it might be useful to state briefly the purpose of evaluation if only because the question of evaluation is generally viewed as problematic and controversial. That feeling exists because there seems to be a genuine concern among educators that judgemental criteria are sometimes applied to information provided, before it is 'objectively'

evaluated. Yet, one might want to argue that because a central part of evaluation is 'giving worth or value', something which the evaluator cannot escape, then the question of 'objective evaluation' must be thought of in relative terms.

A feature which is common to institutions that prepare teachers for classroom is the use of objectives. They are used because they seem to give purpose, or indicate direction. The realisation of objectives, therefore, can be taken as a valid evaluation criterion. However, because the 'objectives' chosen or set might not always be 'appropriate', their usefulness as a criterion has been questioned.[67] To give validity and reliability to the evaluation process, one of the first tasks of the evaluator should therefore be, not only to ensure that judgement is not applied to information before it is objectively evaluated, but rather to guarantee that 'appropriate' objectives are selected.

Following from the above position one might expect that before this study set about evaluating the college programme, the objectives of the College curriculum should be stated and analysed. This approach, however, has not been used in this study. Instead, the 'goal free' evaluation approach [68] has been tried. 'Goal free evaluation' refers to the situation whereby the evaluator does not study initially the stated goals of the curriculum that are being evaluated, instead a comparison is made at the end of the study with actual <u>realised</u> goals and <u>set</u> goals.

4.6.3 Clarification of Terms:

Because most terms/concepts could be subjected to a variety of meanings and interpretations, it is essential at this stage to provide clarifications/working definitions of what could be thought of as the key terms/concepts in this research:

a) 'Programme' in this study refers to:

i) the courses taught/offered - their relevance to the 'needs' of the society, their emphases and duration, and their potential for practical application within the society;

ii) the instructors who 'teach' the courses offered: their professional experience, academic profile, and their orientation to, and perception of teacher education;

iii) the support system provided to facilitate and enhance effective teaching and learning at the institution, for example, library services/ provisions and physical facilities/amenities.

b) Teacher Preparation Institutions: These are Grenada Teachers' College (GTC), the Department of Teacher Education at the Antigua State College (ASC), and the Division of Teacher Education at the University of the Virgin Islands (UVI).

c) Suitably Geared/Adequate: The concern here is whether what is being offered in terms of course content, methodology and instruction has within it the pertinence, substance and potential to enable the teacher product to cope with the varied educational demands -

academic, emotional and social - that are constantly being made by classrooms, school and community.

d) Deal Effectively - having a repertoire of pertinent skills that enable teachers to know how to search for, and to find and apply workable solutions to classroom, school and related community problems, without suffering from frustration, and the attendant 'under-production'.

e) Pressing Classroom Demands: These refer to:

i) the accelerated rate at which knowledge has increased in all areas, especially in Science and Technology, and the need for teachers to keep abreast of the growth in knowledge;

ii) a greater need for teachers to be 'parents' to the students they teach, as far more mothers are working outside the home;

iii) the need for teachers to deal with the increase in drug use on school campuses and in the community, and the related increase in criminal activities associated with the drug trade;

iv) freer use of sexual intercourse among teenagers, and the resultant rise in the number of teenage pregnancies. Teachers' guidance and counselling role has become more complex, demanding greater skills and flexibility and understanding in approach to those problems;

v) an increasing lack of motivation among students to engage in learning for its own sake, and the competition offered to teachers by electronic devices and television make 'teaching' in the 'traditional' sense a non-starter.

4.6.4 Purpose/Objective of the Study:

> "The educator who deems himself a professional must have a systematic observation tool for observing, monitoring and gauging the impact as well as the utility or non-utility of his efforts in helping learners learn." [69]

Apart from aiming to make educators conscious of what is stated in the above quotation, it is hoped that this study will help to:

a) sensitise persons concerned with the preparation of teachers in the Commonwealth/American Caribbean to some areas of weaknesses and strengths inherent in the current teacher education programmes, and to stimulate among those persons pertinent discussions that would lead to a total evaluation and reorganisation of teacher education programmes in the Commonwealth Caribbean and the United States Virgin Islands;

b) highlight similarities and differences which exist among key educators within an educational system in the areas of evaluation techniques used, and their perceptions of what are the ingredients of successful/effective teaching;

c) show the need for college tutors, education officers/supervisors, curriculum specialists, and faculty of education personnel to engage in more meaningful consultations with practising teachers on matters pertaining to classroom practices, problems and demands so that there would be a greater and more broad-based input in the many disciplines which 'make up' the teachers' college programme;

d) suggest a 'teacher preparation model' that should be flexible enough to "give teachers a broad repertoire of skills," [70] which would always be 'on call' in the classrooms of a rapidly changing Caribbean society.

4.6.5 Research Design:

a) Pilot Study

In planning the study, it was decided to have it in three phases. Phase I was used to carry out a pilot survey to obtain a list of competencies/qualities deemed by education officers and principals to be significant. The British Virgin Islands' School principals and education officers were used for this. Table 4.18 shows the list of competencies/qualities was based on the following assumptions:

i) the duties and responsibilities of principals and education officers place them in a position where they are forced, as it were, to assess/evaluate teachers on a regular basis. To be able to do this effectively seems to demand of principals and education officers a clear perception of some performance criteria to be applied.

ii) 'required' teaching competencies and qualities are developed or realised through a period of training or education at institutions which prepare teachers for classrooms. This further assumes that when teachers demonstrate these qualities and competencies, the college programme to which they were exposed could be labelled relevant and effective. At the same time, when teachers fail to show through their classroom behaviours that they possess those competencies and qualities, the teacher preparation institution through which they passed should be held partly responsible for

their incompetence and ineffectiveness.

The pilot survey might be thought of as unique, if only because it was not intended to be a 'test run'. To realise the objective of the pilot survey one question was asked, namely: 'What do you consider to be the competencies and qualities of a successful or effective teacher?' After a list of competencies and qualities were obtained, 45 teachers, 20 from the British Virgin Islands High School, and 25 from a cross-section of primary schools on Tortola, were asked to divide those competencies and qualities into two broad areas of instruction: the technical ingredients of teaching, and the human/personal qualities which enhance and complement the technical competence. (Refer to Appendix 4K).

There were, at the time of the pilot study (July 1987), 20 principals in active service in the British Virgin Islands. Of these, 4 are considered Secondary school principals (Bregado Flax Educational Centre, Secondary Division; Anegade Education Centre; Literacy and Skills Programme, LASP; and British Virgin Islands High School); the remaining 16 principals head primary and infant divisions. Attempts were made by the writer to interview all 20 active principals, plus 3 that were recently retired, and 4 education officers. Unfortunately, three (3) principals were out of the territory at that time and could not be contacted; another principal was 'too busy' to respond to the single question. So, of the 24 educators contacted, 23 responded to the question.

Two methods were used to contact respondents; telephone and face-to-face contact. In trying to obtain a response, 97% of the sample demanded of the researcher two telephone calls or two visits to their houses. Two factors could account for this: firstly, schools were closed for the Summer vacation, and secondly, the respondents needed time to consider the question before responding.

b) Results of Pilot Study

As is suggested elsewhere in this chapter, the main purpose of the pilot survey was to do one thing: obtain a list of competencies/ qualities that were perceived by practising teachers and other educators as necessary for successful/effective teaching. That list has been obtained and appears as Appendix 4G. But apart from having obtained the list of teaching competencies and qualities, the pilot survey helped to prepare the researcher, psychologically, for the main study, giving him a foretaste of possible difficulties and disappointments.

One can argue that a 'test run' of the questionnaires within the British Virgin Islands might have been useful, as it could have provided some guidance on the "adequacy of the questionnaires". [71] While there might appear to be some validity in such an argument, the results of the surveys of the main study seem to suggest that a 'test run' would not have changed the findings obtained significantly.

4.6.6 Empirical Research Section (Grenada):

a) How the Study was Conducted

The researcher, having elicited from principals and education officers in the British Virgin Islands a list of competencies and

qualities of the successful/effective teacher, sought first to have them tested in Grenada. The attempt to have the questionnaires completed marked the advent of Phase II of this study. Armed with questionnaires, the researcher selected in Grenada the target groups and succeeded in having the questionnaires filled.

The samples chosen comprised persons who were directly involved at some point in time with the implementation of the curriculum/ programme of the teacher preparation institution in Grenada (as has been the case in Antigua and the United States Virgin Islands). Those persons included student teachers, 'trained' teachers, principals of elementary and secondary schools, education officials/supervisors and tutors at the training institutions.

The decision to select those persons were based on the assumption that if anyone was qualified to provide feedback on the suitability and effectiveness of the programme in use at those institutions, it had to be those educators for they operated the system on a day-to-day basis. And since principals and teachers were more directly in the 'line of fire' daily, how effectively they dealt with the demands of the classroom and the school should reflect, to a great extent, the effectiveness of their preparation for the task.

In regards to Grenada, the survey was conducted over a period of four weeks, July-August 1987, when schools in Grenada were closed for the Summer vacation. The part of the survey which required student teachers in 'training' to fill out questionnaires was

completed during the month of January, 1988. Because its focus sought 'new' information, it is dealt with independently.

During the first week of the survey, around 80% of all questionnaires distributed to tutors, principals and qualified teachers were returned. This was due to the fact that, during that week, workshops and seminars for principals and teachers, were conducted at Grenada Teachers' College and Grenada Boys' Secondary School. The fact that these two institutions are situated within a distance of about one hundred metres of each other, made it convenient to distribute and collect the questionnaires, and to personally interview a sample of principals, tutors and teachers.

The co-operation received from local and foreign personnel conducting the workshops and seminars was excellent. Apart from using the 'coffee' and 'snack' breaks to talk with principals, tutors and teachers, this researcher was given time to distribute questionnaires and explain to the samples why they were being asked to compete the questionnaires. They were told that an attempt was being made to evaluate the effectiveness of the teachers' college programme with a view to providing feedback to the teachers' college staff and Ministry of Education on areas of strengths and weaknesses, and that because they were the most suitable persons to provide such important information.

The task of having the remainder of the questionnaires completed and returned, and of locating the rest of the sample population to

interview, proved somewhat more time consuming. That part of the research took this writer to the six parishes within Grenada. The decision to travel to the six parishes was taken in order to maintain a 'balanced representation of respondents', which the researcher felt was necessary.

On no occasion was there any refusal, or visible signs of unwillingness by respondents to respond to an item in the questionnaire, or to answer a direct question asked by the interviewer. That was encouraging, and could suggest that the three requirements for a successful interview (accessibility, cognition and motivation), as given by Cannel and Khan, [72] might have been met.

b) Description, Evaluation and Justification of Questionnaire Items

For the purpose of describing, evaluating and justifying the types of questions used, many questions in the 'Teachers only' questionnaire (QB) have been combined with questions in questionnaire (QA) according to the purpose of the questions and main focus of the study. The questionnaires referred to as QA, QB, QC, QD, QF can be found as Appendix 4H in the list of appendices. For convenience, items I and II in QB have been combined with items I, II and III in QA. These items were designed to establish the status of the educators concerned, namely principal, college tutor, education officer/supervisor and teacher, and the level at which the teacher operates.

Items IV, VI, VII, VIII, IX in QA and XII, XIII and XIV in QB have been structured to elicit, indirectly, information on the effectiveness of the Teachers' College programme. The assumption was that all other school conditions being satisfied, the success or failure of a 'trained' teacher implied the success or failure of the training institution; in this case the teachers' college. The Items V in QA and XV in QB focussed on evaluation techniques, and were designed to highlight whatever similarities and differences that might have existed between those respondents.

Although Items IV, V, VII and VIII in QB were intended to provide information on the college programme, when combined with Items III, IX, X and XII in QB, they provide data on the professional and academic background of each teacher in the sample. In light of the discussion in Chapter 3 on the 'poor quality students' that are admitted to a teachers' college programme in the Commonwealth Caribbean, it was necessary to seek hard evidence on the situation in Grenada and Antigua so as to determine whether there was any correlation with this study and data from other countries.

To ensure that most, if not all, teachers in the sample were prepared at Grenada Teachers' College, Item VI in QB was included. If most of these teachers interacted with the college programme, then they should be in a position to inform this study.

It was stated earlier that the 'personal interview' was the other method used by this researcher to obtain from the chosen sample

their perception of the effectiveness of the teachers' college programme. The question asked was: "If there are weaknesses, which two weaknesses in the college programme would you like to see strengthened?."

c) Limitations of the Questionnaires

Items III(ii) in QB proved to be the most problematic in respect of provoking the desired response. The fact is that 40% of the respondents interpreted that question as asking how many years of formal training they underwent, whereas what was being sought was information on the year the training was pursued. In QA, Item IV was targeted to principals only. That should not have been so. All categories of respondents named in that questionnaire should have been asked to respond to that item. Responses obtained could have been useful for comparative purposes.

Five items on the questionnaire might be considered 'opinion questions'. This writer hoped, however, that the responses given to those items were based on 'objective observation' or facts garnered from experience. From the consistency/inconsistency in the data, it might be possible to detect a pattern, and based on that, deduce how valid or reliable the responses to those 'opinion questions' might be.

This researcher is aware that the information by some respondents might not be as accurate as it should be. Many factors could be responsible for that. For instance, some of the respondents were

'trained' a long time ago, and therefore, might be unable, through memory problems, to recall information very accurately. And that is where Item III(ii) on the 'Teacher only' questionnaire would have been useful. The expected response to it would have indicated the year the teacher was formally prepared for the classroom. Armed with that piece of information on the year of training, a comparison could have been made between the responses of the earlier 'trained' teachers with those who were prepared later. Any significant disparities observed in their responses might have provided a reliable basis to draw some kind of conclusion.

There are, however, two possible means through which accuracy could be verified: responses given to Item IX in QB and those in QC (the questionnaire filled by Teachers in Training, January 1988).

The thirty (30) concepts which might be labelled 'effective teaching behaviour', (See Appendix 4I) and which seemed to be taken by the 'donors' as given, could lead to a number of questions being posed on the validity of those concepts in relation to whether they are really 'the' ingredients of effective/successful teaching. Of course, while the donors might argue that the 'offerings' are derived from their repertoire of successful teaching behaviours in the classroom, it could also be assumed that those were the 'offerings' handed out to them initially by teacher 'training' institutions. This is where a danger lies: the perpetuation of traditional criteria in determining what might be considered effective/successful teaching behaviour. The point being raised is whether these criteria are

adequate to determine teacher effectiveness in a society that demands so much of the teacher today.

The decision to structure a separate questionnaire for 'teachers in training' was based on the need to:

i) obtain more direct information on the perceived effectiveness of the college programme from a group of teachers who were experiencing the programme in its present form and were therefore in a position to provide, as it were, instant feedback on what they thought of the College programme;

ii) compare the perceptions of teachers in training with those of teachers who were 'trained', on an average, over fifteen years ago.

The questionnaire for 'Teachers in Training', which is referred to as 'QC' has been thought out in two broad areas: Questions I, II, III, IV, V and XIV sought to establish the background of the student teacher. The intention here is to obtain some insight into the kind of person who is admitted to the College programme, because it is being assumed that what one brings to a programme in terms of attitude, experience or predisposition can influence or determine what one gets out of that programme.

The remaining questions aim at the heart of the College programme. Each of these questions is designed to obtain specific bits of information on particular aspects of the College curriculum. For example, while questions VI and VII try to elicit whether the

support systems, in relation to tutor and resource materials, are in place, questions XI, XII, XIII and XV attempt to find out, not only if student teachers are satisfied with the teaching-practice system as it is, but the form and duration of an alternative that they would prefer. Question X might be considered a 'summary question' and at the same time a 'test question' for it is structured to do two things:

i) to obtain an overview of the respondents' perception of the entire College programme, and

ii) to detect any contradiction in the responses of the respondent.

From reviewing the scope of the questions posed in QC, the writer concludes that the absence of a question seeking to determine the overall academic background of the students, especially in Mathematics, might have been a weakness in this questionnaire. One such question might have helped to explain the performance of student teachers in their final examinations of the teachers' college, especially in Mathematics and English Language.

The data obtained from the questionnaires and personal interview have been presented, analysed and interpreted, and an attempt has been made to draw inferences from the results of the product of the data analysed. This, therefore, is Phase III and the final phase in the three phases of this part of the main study.

d) <u>Results of Survey: Existing Professionals (Grenada)</u>

Two approaches have been used in presenting the findings of the study. Because three questionnaires, targeted to different groups, have been employed, some of the questions posed are inevitably different. As a result, in the case where the same questions are raised, as in QA and QB, the findings have been reported together. Other questions in QA and QB have been treated, and reported, on an individual basis. The questionnaire filled out by 'teachers in training' has been dealt with separately.

The questions in QA and QB which sought to reveal the status of the respondents show that although there was a concentration of females within the total of 104 educators who filled questionnaires, males dominated every significant position within the educational hierarchy, as can be seen in Table 4.11. While it is true that the number 104 is merely a sample of a teaching force of 785 primary

TABLE 4.11 DISTRIBUTION OF EDUCATORS WITHIN SAMPLE THAT RESPONDED TO QUESTIONNAIRES QA AND QB

Categories of Educators	Male	Female
Teachers	9	42
Principals	22	18
College Tutors	6	2
Education Officers	5	0
	42	62

school teachers (1987), a look at the breakdown of all persons directly involved with classroom teaching might point to a similar pattern in the system, where there were more females overall, and yet men dominated management positions. (Refer to Table 4.11). However, what seems more significant and disturbing to this writer, is, that out of a total of 64 'trained' teachers present at a workshop [73] aimed at enhancing teacher effectiveness, only 11 teachers were males, yet from a total of 40 principals present at a workshop [74] for principals, 22 were males. A look at the distribution of male and female principals throughout the state of Grenada might show how serious the implication for staff development in schools could be, and might point to the need for a form of teacher education that should actively involve all school principals.

When this writer asked whether the poor attendance at workshops and seminars of male teachers was the general pattern, one teacher-educator remarked that most male teachers do not show as great an interest as female teachers in attending any kind of workshop or seminar on education. And the workshops and seminars at which the above questionnaires were distributed supported that position.

If this is a true indication of what the position in the teaching service has been, and if as the data seem to suggest that there is indeed a bias towards making more male teachers principals in preference to female teachers, then there would appear to be some serious implications for staff development in some schools, and teacher effectiveness in the classroom. How can a principal, who

during his life as a classroom teacher resisted, as it were, continued professional growth, later motivate teachers to grow professionally? This is not to suggest that professional growth with teachers is guaranteed only through attendance at workshops and seminars, but it can be an effective means of ensuring that teachers keep abreast of/ with developments in education, if those workshops and seminars are relevant, and well done.

90% of the 35 'trained' teachers with whom this writer spoke, stated that they had read no serious professional literature since they graduated from Teachers' College over 10 years previously. Yet, 87% of that same sample claimed that they would regard themselves as effective/successful teachers, and even though this does not correlate quite well with the responses given by school principals as Table 4.12 for QA IV and QB XIV suggests, 82.5% of principals sampled rated their teachers as successful.

TABLE 4.12 A COMPARISON OF RATINGS OF 'TRAINED TEACHERS': QUESTIONS IV (QA) AND XIV (QB).

Ratings by Principals	No.	Rating by Teachers	No.
Under 25%	3	Not successful/effective	0
25% - 50%	2	Average	9
50% - 75%	24	Successful/effective	36
75% -100%	9	Very successful/effective	6
No response	2	No response	0

In other words, when one compares the percentage of teachers in the system principals perceived as effective/successful, it correlates, on an average, with the percentage of teachers in the sample that perceived themselves as effective/successful.

Although the units of measurement used to indicate success or effectiveness in QA IV might appear to be different from those used in QB XIV, they have been weighted and matched solely for the purpose of verification and comparison. Table 4.12 has been structured to illustrate that comparison. Of course, one can argue that the range of the category (25%-50%) 'average' has been placed too low, and might be more useful at a higher range, for example, 40% to 50%, but it was put at the 'low level' to encourage response from even those who 'see' themselves as functioning at that level.

The incidence of correlation between principals' and teachers' perception might be due to what could be described as exposure to common evaluation criteria during their preparation at teachers' college, or from workshops and seminars. See Table 4.13 showing responses by educators to evaluation criteria used.

TABLE 4.13 RESPONSES OF EDUCATORS TO EVALUATION CRITERIA USED (GRENADA, 1987)

	Teachers	Principals	College Tutors	Education Officers
Observation	-	36	7	4
Student's Evaluation	25	35	6	2
Student's Grades	23	22	7	1
Peer Assessment	-	5	1	-
Principal's Evaluation	26	-	-	-
Self Evaluation	31	-	-	-
Other	8	3	2	1

The datq obtained through QA V and QB XV on evaluation techniques suggest that among the common techniques used by teachers, principals, college tutors and education officers, 'observation' was the most popular, with 'student evaluation' and 'student grades' as the second and third most commonly used respectively. However, when each population sample was analysed separately, a few differences emerged. For instance, the evaluation technique most used by 62% of the teachers was 'self-evaluation', 'student evaluation' by 52%, and 'students grades' by 50%. 'Observation', as a method of evaluation continued on the individual level to take first place with principals (90%) and education officers/supervisors (80%), though in the case of College tutors, 'observation' shares the first position with 'students' grades' (87%).

It seems clear, therefore, that whereas teachers rely very heavily on 'self evaluation', and less on 'student evaluation' and 'students' grades', to know whether they are successful/effective, principals, college tutors and education officers/supervisors depend more on 'observation', and less on 'students' grades', as is brought out in Table 4.13.

Question XII in QB asked teachers in the sample if they thought they were well prepared to teach. Of the 64 teachers who responded, 88% said they were. When one examines the responses to Question XI in QB, which showed that 92% of the teachers taught Language Arts and Social Studies, and that 98% taught Mathematics and Science, it could easily suggest that those subjects are well taught in Primary and

Junior Secondary schools throughout the system. The results of external and internal examinations, however, tell a different story (Table 4.11).

That, however, does not seem to be the case. When principals, college tutors and education officers/supervisors were asked what percentage of the formally trained teachers that they supervised they rate as successful/effective (QA IV), 66% of trained teachers in the system were rated as successful/effective. From the responses to questions VII, VIII and IX in QA, which focussed on the subjects which students 'did' best and worst, and on the subject which deserved further teacher training in order to enhance its teaching, Mathematics and Language Arts emerged as the two subjects that seemed to need most urgent attention, as Table 4.14 illustrates.

TABLE 4.14 THE PERCEPTION OF PRINCIPALS, COLLEGE TUTORS, EDUCATION OFFICERS/SUPERVISORS ON THE SUBJECT DONE BEST, WORST, AND NEEDS FURTHER PREPARATION OF TEACHERS

Subject	Best Performance	Worst Performance	Further Preparation
Mathematics	8	37	43
Language Arts	15	16	26
Social Studies	22	3	10
Science	12	4	15

Although the evidence on the academic background of trained teachers in the sample (QB X) suggests that 70% possessed more than the minimum requirement for admission to the teacher preparation programme, a mere

18%, or 6 of the 'trained' teachers interviewed, had obtained a pass in Mathematics at CXC (General) or G.C.E. Ordinary level; 21 students, out of a total of 35, or 60% of that sample, had not done Mathematics beyond the third form level in secondary schools, while 22% or 8 students had studied Mathematics up to form five in the secondary school, but had failed to secure a pass at GCE/CXC level. The results of the CXC and GCE examinations for 1986 and 1987 point to poor performance in Mathematics among private candidates, as well as among secondary school students. Table 4.15 bears this out.

The findings on the 'ingredients of good teaching' suggest that 85% of the population sample that responded to Question XIII in QB agreed on the same number of qualities/competencies that were deemed by B.V.I. principals and education officers as essential for successful/effective teaching. However, there was an absence of consensus among teachers, principals, college tutors and education officers/ supervisors in Grenada as to whether the remaining items/ingredients were really important or necessary for effective/successful teaching. Tables 4.16 and 4.17 try to reveal some form of agreement and disagreement by respondents - disagreements which might have implications for what is perceived as necessary components of the teachers' college curriculum.

Among the technical competencies and human qualities which some respondents indicated are not necessary for effective classroom teaching, Items No. 7, 11, 13, 14, 17, 23 and 25 merit some discussion, not because of the percentage of respondents that disagreed with their inclusion, but because of the nature of those items. (See Table 4.16).

TABLE 4.15

(a) G.C.E. 'O' LEVEL RESULTS IN ENGLISH AND MATHEMATICS FOR TWO YEARS - 1986 AND 1987 (GRENADA)

Subject	No. of Entries	No. of Passed	% Passed
Mathematics 1986 1987	202	32	18.7
English 1986 1987	1138	338	30.3

(b) CXC RESULTS IN ENGLISH AND MATHEMATICS FOR TWO YEARS 1986 AND 1987 (GRENADA)

Subject	No. of Entries	No. of Passed	% Passed
Mathematics 1986 1987	256 228	99 90	38.6 39.4
English 1986 1987	395 398	162 138	41.0 34.6

The question that readily comes to the writer's mind is: If those technical competencies/human qualities are not necessary ingredients of effective teaching, why are they not? Should divergent thinking, for example, be encouraged in the classroom? In response to that item 10% of teachers, 17.5% of principals, and 25% of college tutors in the population sample indicated that it should not. While only 8% of the 'trained' teachers considered competence in the subject one teaches as essential for effective classroom teaching, 37.5% of college tutors did not think it was sufficiently necessary to be included among those they regarded as necessary. One tutor did not only remain neutral on items numbered 2, 6, 9, 14, 15, 17, 18 and 26, but disagreed that

i) co-operation with peers, parents and community

ii) being a very patient listener and keen observer

iii) competent in subject areas

iv) always seeking new knowledge and being open to suggestions were sufficiently important criteria for determining effective/successful teaching.

The fact that this is being reported here is not to imply that all teachers and college tutors must agree on all the visible ingredients of the effective/successful teacher. It does seem, however, reasonable, to this writer, to expect that because the business of the college tutor (like the education officer) is preparation of teachers for effective performance of their duties, in and out of real

TABLE 4.16 LEVEL OF AGREEMENT AMONG PRINCIPALS, EDUCATION OFFICERS/SUPERVISORS AND COLLEGE TUTORS IN RESPECT OF DESIRABLE TEACHER COMPETENCIES (GRENADA, 1987)

Competencies/Qualities	Agree	Disagree	Neutral
1. Love of teaching and children	50		
2. Dedication/commitment to the profession	47		2
3. Motivator/catalyst/inspires and stimulates	45		1
4. Sociable/approachable/has a sense of humour	41		3
5. Good communicator/explains very well	46		2
6. Thinks positive of self and students	45		4
*7. Innovator/Initiator/is creative	41	1	3
8. Flexible/Adaptable re teaching (techniques/situations)	47		2
9. Kind, Fair, Friendly, Firm	45		1
10. Evaluates self and students regularly	49		
*11. Co-operates with peers, parents, community	39	2	4
12. Prepares work thoroughly	49		
*13. Competent in subject area(s)	43	1	2
*14. Demonstrates sound, mature judgement in reaching decisions	42	1	3
15. Uses a variety of methods/approaches in teaching	46	1	3
16. Sees and treats students as individuals	47		1
*17. Enables students to compete with self so as to realise fullest potential	39	2	7
18. Respects the views of students, peers, parents	44		2
19. Very patient listener and keen observer	45	1	2
20. Tactful/a strategist	43		1
21. Makes maximum use of available resources	50		
22. Uses rewards and punishment effectively	42	1	3
*23. Accepts and nurtures divergent thinking	34	2	6
24. Knows the children that he/she teaches	48		
*25. Sees and uses the class as a resource unit	24		8
26. Sets realistic goals which challenge students	48		1
27. Has effective class control	36		1
28. Always seeks new knowledge/open to suggestions	44	2	1
29. Sensitive to students needs	48		
30. Instils feelings of self-worth within students	48		

Table 4.17 LEVEL OF AGREEMENT AMONG TEACHERS IN RESPECT OF DESIRABLE TEACHER COMPETENCIES (GRENADA, 1987)

	Competencies/Qualities	Agrees	Disagrees	Neutral
1.	Love of teaching and children	48	1	
2.	Dedication/commitment to the profession	49		
3.	Motivator/catalyst/inspires and stimulates	43		1
4.	Sociable/approachable/has a sense of humour	44	1	1
5.	Good communicator/explains very well	47		
6.	Thinks positive of self and students	43		2
7.	Innovator/Initiator/is creative	41		3
8.	Flexible/Adaptable re teaching (techniques/situations)	44		1
9.	Kind, Fair, Friendly, Firm	45		
10.	Evaluates self and students regularly	45	1	
11.	Co-operates with peers, parents, community	45		3
12.	Prepares work thoroughly	48	1	
13.	Competent in subject area(s)	41	1	2
14.	Demonstrates sound, mature judgement in reaching decisions	41		4
15.	Uses a variety of methods/approaches in teaching	48	1	
16.	Sees and treats students as individuals	48		
17.	Enables students to compete with self so as to realise fullest potential	44		1
18.	Respects the views of students, peers, parents	44	1	3
19.	Very patient listener and keen observer	43	1	3
20.	Tactful/a strategist	39	1	3
21.	Makes maximum use of available resources	46	1	1
22.	Uses rewards and punishment effectively	45		
23.	Accepts and nurtures divergent thinking	36		5
24.	Knows the children that he/she teaches	44	1	1
25.	Sees and uses the class as a resource unit	27		4
26.	Sets realistic goals which challenge students	47		
27.	Has effective class control	35		
28.	Always seeks new knowledge/open to suggestions	48		1
29.	Sensitive to students needs	45		2
30.	Instils feeling of self-worth within students	43	1	2

classrooms, then there are some human behaviours (qualities and competencies) which teacher educators within the same teacher education institution ought to agree to develop within the teacher. Further, it would seem, to this writer, unrealistic to expect college tutors to perceive certain classroom behaviours as irrelevant to effective/successful teaching and still believe that those tutors would strive to develop within their students, within the limited time set aside for teacher preparation, those behaviours. While this might appear to some theorists as possible, it seems to the writer highly improbable, if only because 'teacher education' demands of the teacher educator total commitment to what he teaches.

In all this, however, it might be useful to reflect on the words of Medley (1983):

> "No evidence has yet been published that ratings of teacher effectiveness made by superiors have any relationship to teacher effectiveness, and no one seems to be making the question." [75]

e) <u>Results of Survey: Teachers In Training (Grenada) (1987-88)</u>

Out of a total of 53 'teachers in training', selected from 34 primary schools within the State, (Refer to Appendices 4L and 4M), 53 filled questionnaires. Of that number, there were 36 females and 17 males, with a spread of teaching experience that ranged from 2 to 15 years. An examination of Tables 4.18 and 4.19 would reveal that while 36 teachers or about 68% have had less than 7 years of teaching experience, 46 teachers or 87% were 30 years of age and younger, with

a concentration between 20 and 30 years old. If this is broken down in more detail, it puts 22 teachers or 42% between 20 to 25 years

TABLE 4.18 YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE OF 'TEACHERS IN TRAINING' (GRENADA, 1988)

Years of Experience	No. of Teachers
2 - 5	36
7 - 10	13
Over 10	4

old, and 24 or 45% between 26 and 30 years old.

TABLE 4.19 AGE DISTRIBUTION OF 'TEACHERS IN TRAINING' (GRENADA, 1988)

Age (Years)	No. of Students
Under 20	1
20 - 25	22
26 - 30	24
Over 30	5

While one can argue that less than 7 years teaching experience might not be adequate to fix permanently within a teacher any teaching behaviour that might have developed in the classroom over

those years, one could not be sure that later exposure to college preparation would rectify or enhance the negative or positive aspects of those earlier classroom behaviours. Some research evidence on teaching [76] suggests that teaching habits developed from impressions garnered from how a teacher was taught as a student in secondary schools, and from one's own practical teaching experiences in school classrooms, coupled with the late age at which one was exposed to educational theories, might make later attempts at instilling correct teaching attitudes and developing more effective teaching skills by a college education more or less difficult.

In the case of 'teachers in training' at Grenada Teachers' College, the previous professional exposure to teaching no doubt might have contributed positively to the later professional exposure at the teachers' college. For instance, from a total of 53 teachers in training, 100% had been exposed to an In-Service course which lasted for between 2 to 4 years. See Table 4.20 showing a breakdown of QIV and QV.

TABLE 4.20 PRE-COLLEGE COURSES TO WHICH 'TEACHERS IN TRAINING' WERE EXPOSED (GRENADA)

Course	Teachers		Course Duration
	No.	%	
In-Service	53	100	2-4 years
Induction	26	49	3 weeks
Workshops	30	57	1-3 weeks

What is significant is that when one compared the results of the final examinations of the teachers' college for 1982-1987 with any previous year, except 1978, one would find 100% passes in practical teaching, even among the 89 students who were presented for the examinations in 1987. (See Table 4.21 showing final examination results over the past 10 years). All those students were teachers prepared solely through the National In-Service Teacher Education Programme (NISTEP) 1980-1985.

In response to question VI in QC 50, student-teachers indicated that the library facilities and available resource materials at the Teachers' College were inadequate. That finding supports a position held by Goodridge [77] when he discussed some of the problems faced by teachers' colleges in the Eastern Caribbean. It would seem logical that if the Support System is not in place, all the effort expended by staff at the College might not produce the results aimed at, and the level of frustration experienced by members of staff could be counter-productive.

For example, in what appeared to the writer to be a mood of total frustration, a senior member of the Teachers' College staff in Grenada (Summer 1987) expressed great dissatisfaction with the unrealistic and irrelevant demands by the U.W.I. School of Education on teachers in training. That senior member of staff argued that the 'School' was too abstract, and too remote from the realities of the classroom, and charged that the 'dismal' performance of the teachers, who were prepared through the National In-Service Teacher Education

TABLE 4.21 RESULTS OF TEACHERS' COLLEGE STUDENTS IN THEIR FINAL EXAMINATIONS OVER THE PERIOD 1977-1987 (GRENADA)

Year	No. of Students	Pass	Referral	Fail	Referral and Failure by Subject				Teaching Practice
					English	Maths	General Science	Social Studies	
1977	49	43	3	3	1	4	-	-	1
1978	44	39	5	-	2	4	-	-	-
1979	49	29	19	1	12	11	1	-	3
1980	54	43	9	1	4	5	1	-	1
1981	55	36	18	-	7	11	-	-	2
1982	17	10	2	5	3	3	-	-	-
1983	63	25	33	3	15	20	7	7	1
1985	73	29	35	6	21	20	7	7	-
1986	35	19	16	2	10	8	-	-	-
1987	89	40	47	2	40	14	-	-	-

Programme (NISTEP) in the 'School's' final examination (1987), was due to that abstractness and remoteness. In an earlier piece of research, Glean (1973) found that student-teachers in Grenada perceived college preparation as being too theoretical.

Fortunately for the College, however, the frustration felt by College tutors did not seem to negatively affect, in most cases, the guidance they gave to teachers in training. To the question, 'Are you satisfied with the guidance given to you by College tutors?', 39 students or 73% expressed satisfaction, while 13 students or 34.5% were dissatisfied.

TABLE 4.22 STUDENTS REACTIONS TO ITEMS VI, VII, VIII AND XIII IN QUESTIONNAIRE C (GRENADA, 1988)

Item No.	Item	Yes	No
VI	Are there adequate library facilities and available resource materials at the teacher's college?	2	50
VII	Are you satisfied by the guidance given to you by the college tutors?	39	13
VIII	Is the college programme meeting your most pressing needs as a teacher?	47	5
XIII	Principals and Education Officers/ Supervisors should assist College Tutors in assessing/evaluating student-teachers when on teaching practice.	23	30

Of course, to offer effective guidance demands of the 'giver' not only the absence of frustration within, but a certain mental 'set', relevant knowledge and appropriate skills, for they are essential as buffers when dealing with situations that generate frustration.

The fact, therefore, that most students can express satisfaction with tutors' guidance is encouraging, especially when 47 student-teachers or 88.6% (See Table 4.22) responded positively to the question: 'Is the College programme meeting your most pressing needs as a teacher?' No doubt one can argue that 'teachers in training' do not know what their most pressing needs are as teachers. But, can they? It was pointed out earlier in this part of the study that 53 of those student-teachers or 100% have undergone 2 to 4 years of In-Service training, a type of training which has been described and analysed in an earlier section of this chapter. One could assume, therefore, that from such total emersion into the act of teaching for such a relatively long period of time, with limited teaching skills, they ought to have a fairly accurate idea of what their most pressing needs are.

The interesting thing though about their responses to what they considered their three most pressing needs (out of four 'given') pressing needs), is that only 9 student-teachers (or 16.9%) saw the need for more content as a pressing need, (See Table 4.23) which demonstrates very clearly the priority of that group of 'teachers in training'. One female respondent, as a comment at the end of her

completed questionnaire wrote:

> "I think that the college programme should be aimed at aiding how to teach more effectively in the classroom. At the moment, it seems to me that we are being prepared to write G.C.E. O'levels more than actual teaching." [78]

A similar comment was made by another female respondent when she stated that "more emphasis should be on methodology." [79]

TABLE 4.23 'TEACHERS IN TRAINING' REACTIONS TO ITEM IX IN QC (GRENADA, 1988)

QC IX: Which of the following do you consider as your three most pressing needs as a teacher?	
	No.
(a) makes you better at imparting knowledge to pupils?	33
(b) need for more content	9
(c) to be better able to understand pupils and deal effectively with classroom problems as they arise	42
(d) make me a teacher for all seasons - flexible and adaptable	37

When one compares then the findings on the most pressing needs of teachers with the last two quotations, one could easily conclude that that sample of teachers either do not 'see' or 'feel' the need for some of the 'content courses' taught, because they are not sufficiently challenging,

or because they are not relevant to teachers' perceived needs. Another conclusion one could come to is that the content base of those student-teachers is so rich and varied that the content offered by the College is unnecessary.

If those conclusions are valid, then the present cohort of students at Grenada Teachers' College has signalled a significant improvement in the calibre of teachers entering the teaching service. Comments made on the quality of persons recruited to the teaching service, [80] and the results of the teachers' college final examinations (especially in Mathematics and Language Arts) over the past ten years (See Table 4.21) seem to tell a story that does not seem to support the feelings of the students in training. A brief look at the final examinations results of the teachers' college in Grenada between 1978 and 1987 may help to inform the discussion.

What might also be pertinent at this point are the reactions of this same sample of student-teachers to six statements in QC X which sought to obtain the perceptions of 'teachers in training' on five compulsory courses offered at the College. The teachers were asked to indicate their reactions to the statement by putting a 'tick' under one of the five codes used in the question. The results obtained from question X QC, and which are presented in Table 4.24 strongly suggest that the content in the four academic subjects pursued by students at the teachers' college is not only challenging and suitable, but is also necessary. For example, out of a total of 53 teachers in training who responded to statement/item X Ci in QC, 52 of them, or 98.1%

admitted that the General Science content (as is also admitted for Social Studies, Mathematics and Language Arts) was suitable and challenging.

Such an admission could be interpreted to mean that students put a fair amount of effort into understanding those courses; and that the courses are necessary in order to broaden their content base. The fact that only 16.9% of the student body felt a 'pressing need' for more content than they had, and the fact that the critical comments made on the tendency of the College to emphasise content support the general reactions of the student body to content as not being a 'pressing need', could suggest a serious disparity in perception of student-teachers and those responsible for the programme at the teachers' college - a disparity which might be a contributing factor to students' performance at the teachers' college.

However, one may want to pose two questions which might help to clarify what appears to be a 'conflict of interest'. Firstly, is it possible that the 44 student-teachers (83% of the student body) who did not consider content at the College a 'pressing need' did so because the demands imposed on them by such content were perceived as too great, and therefore frustrating? Secondly, could the student-teachers knowledge of the primary school syllabus have given them the notion that there was no need on their part to know more content than they had already known? Reflection by professional teachers on the view that the more one knows about the nature of a subject is the

better able one should be to teach that subject, [81] might be useful here.

Yet, one can interpret this apparent contradiction within 'teachers in training', in Grenada, as a signal to teacher-educators to search for alternative approaches to broaden the content base of 'teachers in training'. It is the view of this writer that 'teachers in training' are aware of their content deficiencies; what they seem unwilling to do is to try and cope (at the same time) with, what might appear to them to be, a massive dose of content and an equal amount of methodology. A happy blend of content and methodology should be sought. As one 'teacher in training' put it:

> "Teachers should be allowed to specialise in subject areas of their free choice and not be required to do all." [82]

Another part of the findings in this study which merits some attention here is based on students' perception of how well courses at the college are taught, as well as the opportunities given to students by tutors to provide feedback to them. This is significant, because how well a course is taught in an institution which prepares teachers to teach in schools, might well have serious implications for the success/effectiveness of teachers in the classroom.

It has been reported earlier in this section that the evidence obtained from Questions VII, VIII and IX in QA strongly suggested that while students in the schools/educational system did best in Social

Studies, Mathematics was the subject in which students did worst, with Language Arts as the 'second worst'. Logically, therefore, Mathematics and Language Arts were the two subjects in which principals, education officers/supervisors and college tutors felt teachers needed further training. When one examines the findings on 'teachers in training' reactions to how well courses at Grenada Teachers' College were taught, some degree of correlation seemed to be suggested. (See Table 4.24).

Should one, therefore, conclude that the inability of some teachers to teach certain subjects effectively throughout the educational system reflects a similar weakness at the teachers' college level? Or, does it reside in the limited content of the students' background? While there is no conclusive evidence here to answer either of the two questions posed, one might argue that the findings are still suggestive of the presence of deficiencies in both groups. Further, when one examines students' responses to what might be described as limited opportunities given by tutors for feedback on how well courses were taught, one might also be tempted to conclude that that too could be considered a contributor to students' performance at the College as well as their later performance in the schools. Such reasoning could be based on the view that with adequate opportunities for feedback, any weaknesses in the instructional process could be arrested early and the necessary actions taken to improve those weaknesses. Adequate opportunities for feedback by students might therefore become a crucial factor that is related to how well a course is taught.

TABLE 4.24 STUDENT-TEACHERS' REACTION TO COMPULSORY COURSES AT GRENADA TEACHERS' COLLEGE (1988)

	SA	A	U	D	SD
A. LANGUAGE ARTS:					
1. content challenging and suitable	13	36	2	4	-
2. methodology applicable to real classrooms	12	30	6	3	-
3. course is well taught	3	27	17	7	-
4. objectives of lessons always clear	7	26	9	8	1
5. adequate opportunities to give feedback on how course is taught	4	25	10	7	6
6. course is necessary	26	18	3	-	-
B. MATHEMATICS:					
1. content challenging and suitable	19	31	2	-	-
2. methodology applicable to real classrooms	15	32	4	1	1
3. course is well taught	10	26	13	2	-
4. objectives of lessons always clear	4	36	9	4	-
5. adequate opportunities to give feedback on how course is taught	5	27	11	9	2
6. course is necessary	30	18	1	-	-
C. GENERAL SCIENCE:					
1. content challenging and suitable	24	28	-	1	-
2. methodology applicable to real classrooms	16	29	4	3	1
3. course is well taught	12	27	9	5	-
4. objectives of lessons always clear	13	30	8	2	-
5. adequate opportunities to give feedback on how course is taught	12	23	11	4	3
6. course is necessary	26	20	4	-	-
D. SOCIAL STUDIES:					
1. content challenging and suitable	36	15	2	-	-
2. methodology applicable to real classrooms	21	24	5	3	-
3. course is well taught	30	16	5	2	-
4. objectives of lessons always clear	23	22	6	1	1
5. adequate opportunities to give feedback on how course is taught	15	22	11	3	1
6. course is necessary	32	17	2	1	-
E. EDUCATION:					
1. content challenging and suitable	17	33	4	-	-
2. methodology applicable to real classrooms	15	31	8	-	-
3. course is well taught	3	23	15	9	4
4. objectives of lessons always clear	4	23	16	8	3
5. adequate opportunities to give feedback on how course is taught	10	17	16	5	1
6. course is necessary	23	21	1	1	-

The four questions (XI, XII, XIII and XV) which tried to elicit how students felt about teaching practice sessions, the data for two of which are given in Table 4.25, gave results which suggest that:

i) the majority of the teachers in training at that time (34 teachers or 64%) would prefer to practise teach in real classrooms, only during the third and fifth terms of the two year period of preparation, for a total of 9 weeks. Of the remaining 19 teachers in training, 15 indicated a preference to 'practise teach' for periods ranging from 3 to 8 weeks.

ii) slightly over 56%, or 30 teachers, felt that education officers/ supervisors and principals within the schools where practice teaching sessions are being held, should not assist college tutors in assessing/ evaluating student-teachers when they are out in the field practising how to teach.

iii) 'Full-time In-College' teacher education has been offered as the most effective form of teacher preparation by 40 student-teachers, or 75% of the sample.

TABLE 4.25 A BREAKDOWN OF RESPONSES TO ITEMS IN QUESTIONNAIRE QC, ITEMS NO. XI AND NO. XII, (GRENADA, 1988)

Question XI		Question XII	
Preferred Time for Practice Teaching	No. of Teachers	Preferred Duration of Practise Teaching Time	No. of Teachers
Every Term	9	Nine Weeks	33
3rd, 4th, 6th Term	6	Twelve Weeks	4
3rd and 5th Term only	34	Sixteen Weeks	0
Other	2	Other	15

The fact that 100% of the students concerned, in that sample, have experienced some aspects of both In-Service and Full-Time In-College teacher preparation might imply some degree of credibility in their responses, but experiencing a system of 'training' might not necessarily be a sufficient condition to come to any firm conclusion about the effectiveness of that system; other factors operating within the environment might be responsible for what could appear to be effectiveness of the system in question. Of course, this comment could apply equally to any part of the study, one might argue, but at this stage it might be more useful to focus attention on the context of the second teacher preparation institution, Antigua State College, and the Antigua Educational System.

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8. This was a belief shared by many members of the New Jewel Movement (N.J.M).

9. Brizan, G. (1984) Grenada Island of Conflict: From Amerindians to People's Revolution, 1498-1979, Zed Books.

10. This would appear to be the case since both conflict and education have progressed steadily, with each 'feeding' the other, as it were.

11. These are periods in the history of the country when attempts were made through the use of force to effect certain fundamental changes.

12. Brizan, G., op.cit., pp.146-147.

13. The Blue Books, 1838, 1840.

14. La Trobe Report (1838), as cited by: Brizan, G., op.cit.

15. Keate to Colonial Office, in: Report on Blue Books for 1853, (September 1854).

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17. Ministry of Education (1969), Educational Adviser to the Comptroller for Development and Welfare (1946), in: A Review of Historical Development in Grenada, 1969-72, Grenada.

18. These demands were reflected in the number of 'private' candidates seeking places in secondary schools for the first time. (Ministry of Education Statistical Unit, St.Georges, Grenada).

19. For example, The Royal Commission (1884), Vol.II, p.61.

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26. Fernando, W.D. ( ) Perspectives for the Development of Educational Programmes, 1974-1983, Grenada, p.93.

27. Brizan, G., op.cit., p.289.

28. An example could be found in the awarding of a 'scholarship' by 'Pioneers' Club' to a poor student who today is a medical practitioner in the town from which the scholarship was given.

29. West Indians living in England and the United States have sent, on a regular basis, these donations, either directly to the schools they attended, or to the Ministry of Education.

30. Ministry of Education, op.cit., (1969), p.47.

31. 1976 Education Act (No.13), p.81.

32. Ministry of Education, op.cit., (1967), p.45.

33. At this time more importance was given to active teacher participation, since the Grenada Teachers' College 'presence' was beginning to be felt.

34. Review, op.cit., p.51.

35. Cited in: Braithwaite, N.A. and Palmer, R.V., (1974), The Development of Education in Grenada, pp.51-52.

36. ibid.

37. Based on the author's discussion with Ministry officials, and the administration of the four schools, 1987.

38. From the 'practical' knowledge of the author.

39. From an interview with the Acting Principal of one 'Junior' (now Comprehensive) school, 1987.

40. From an interview with R.O. Palmer, Retired Chief Education Officer (1987).

41. Palmer, R.O., et.al., op.cit., p.45.

42. Conference Report (1957), cited in: ibid.

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49. The Minister of Education justified the introduction of this programme with this claim at rallies and meeting with teachers; see also: ibid, p.52.

50. ibid, p.52.

51. ibid.

53. ibid, p.53.

54. Grenada, Prime Minister address at the National Education Seminar, July 2, 1979.

55. Brizan, G., op.cit., 'The Education Reform Process in Grenada, 1979-81', p.15 (1981). (Institute for Further Education (IFE), Grenada).

56. ibid.

57. Creft, J., op.cit., pp.49-60.

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CHAPTER FIVE

EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN ANTIGUA

5.1 Introduction

For reasons of facilitating comparison, this chapter is similar in approach to Chapter Four. The main focus here is on the educational experiences of Antigua, especially teacher education, during the period in question. A brief description of the physical features, as well as the socio-economic background of the country is provided, so that the reader may not only form a mental picture of the context of the educational experiences, but also be able to perceive some relationships between them and the political and economic events which have been strong formative influences in the evolution of educational provision in Antigua.

5.2 Location and Size

Antigua, unlike Grenada, is one of the Leeward group of islands. However, like Grenada, the state of Antigua is multi-island. In addition to the main territory of Antigua, there is also Barbuda comprising 62 square miles of flat coral island, and Redonda an uninhabited island peak of a mere half a square mile. With the combined area of the three islands, the State of Antigua and Barbuda has a total area of 170.5 square miles or 440 square kilometres.

Antigua, which is situated between 61° West Longitude and 17° North Latitude is one of the most northerly states of the Commonwealth Caribbean. From east to west, it is a maximum of 24 km in extent and

MAP 5.1 ANTIGUA: MAIN ROADS AND SETTLEMENTS

Source: Collins Caribbean School Atlas, p.16.

19 km from north to south, with an area independent of Barbuda of 108 square miles, or 280 square kilometres. (Maps 5.1 and 5.2).

With no significant rivers and an average annual rainfall of between 43 and 45 inches, Antigua is susceptible to severe droughts. The maximum daily temperature varies from 72°F to 87°F in summer, but experiences a slight drop in winter to between 72°F and 83°F. For all practical purposes, therefore, there are no significant seasonal differences.

The island of Antigua, which is partly volcanic and partly coral, can be described as relatively flat when compared with Grenada. Its highest peak, Boggy Peak, is 1319 feet above mean sea level. The coastline is perhaps the greatest physical asset. The 'typical' Antiguan boasts of Antigua as having the most numerous and beautiful beaches in the Commonwealth Caribbean, one for each day of the year. While this may well be an exaggeration, it is true that Antigua does possess many beautiful white sandy beaches which are sheltered by the deeply indented coastline. Not surprisingly, therefore, tourism continues to be the main industry, and the biggest money earner in the country. [1] This is not purely because of the quality of the beaches, but also because it is well located relative to other Caribbean tourist destinations, and has for longer had an international airport capable of taking the big jets than other comparable islands such as Saint Lucia and Grenada.

MAP 5.2 ANTIGUA: HOTELS

Key
● Villages/Towns
◆ Hotels/Apts.
• Points of interest

0 1 2
Miles

5.3 Demographic and other Socio-Economic Considerations

The latest available figure given as the population of the State of Antigua and Barbuda is approximately 79,000 (1984). [2] Of that number, 77,700 live in Antigua, with an estimated 1,300 in Barbuda. St. John's, which is the chief town, has a population of about 28,000. In 1981, Antigua experienced a crude death rate of 4.9% and a crude birth rate of 15.5%. Between 1983 and 1984, there was a growth rate in population of 0.1% (from a rate of 1.3% to 1.4%). [3]

Up to the 1950s, agriculture played the most significant role in the economic life of that country, offering employment to as much as a third of the labour force. [4] But during the 1960s and 1970s, that sector experienced a serious setback in its level of productivity and therefore in its employment capacity. In 1977, it was possible to offer only a mere 11% of the potential labour force real employment. [5] Sugar cane, for example, which occupied in the 1950s an area of some 12,000 acres in plantations, and Sea Island Cotton, which used to have an annual output of up to one million pounds weight, felt the negative effects of the challenge of the tourism industry which ideally should have completed the agricultural sector. And Table 5.1 attempts to illustrate the downard trend in some areas of the agricultural sector during the 1970s.

It could be argued that a five year development plan by Government, with a heavy emphasis on agriculture, implies that the political directorate have become very much aware of the damage done to the agricultural sector, but more so to its potential in bringing in revenue and providing employment opportunities, especially for school

TABLE 5.1 THE PRODUCTION OF THE AGRICULTURAL SECTOR DURING THE LATTER PART OF THE 1970s

	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980
Cotton lint (000 lbs)	208.4	178.8	149.6	174.4	12.3	34.9
Bananas (000 lbs)	2.7	5.0	0.5	10.2	6.7	6.0
Vegetables, Food and Free Crops (000 lbs)	3231	3657	2560	2605	1087	977.8
Milk (000 litres)	7000	7100	8300	11000	12000	8500
Cattle	5000	5800	7600	8000	7325	6108
Oranges (boxes)	98	69	96	101	66	46
Grapefruit (boxes)	100	102	128	100	130	27
Corn (000 lbs)	212	162	102	77	66	12

Source: Antigua Agricultural Services and Government Statistical Yearbook. (Quoted from a UNESCO Report on the State of Antigua and Barbuda, May 1982).

TABLE 5.2 BREAKDOWN OF AN AGRICULTURAL PROJECT DURING THE FIVE YEAR SOCIO-ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT PLAN 1981-1985

Project	Funding	Source	Cost EC$ millions	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	Balance
Beef Production	Loan/ Grant	Unknown	13.3	-	5.0	3.5	3.5	1.5	-
Corn/Sorghum	Loan	T+T [1]	5.4	-	1.0	0.8	0.5	1.0	?
Communal grazing	Grant	Unknown	0.5	-	0.2	0.2	0.1	-	-
Body Ponds Farming Unit	Grant	Unknown	0.8	-	?	0.2	?	?	?
Mini Dams	Grant	BDD [2]	2.3	-	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.8	-
Agricultural Laboratory	Grant	Unknown	0.1	-	-	0.1	-	-	-
Tree Crops	Loan	CDB [3]	1.9	-	0.7	0.7	0.5	-	-
Orange Valley Pineapple II	Grant	Unknown	0.8	-	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	-
Fence Post Population	Grant	BDD	0.8	-	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	-
TOTAL			26.1 [4]	-	7.8	6.6	5.5	3.7	-

Source: Government of Antigua (1981) Five-Year Socio-Economic Development Plan (revised and updated to cover the period 1981-1985).

leavers. Table 5.2 seeks to give a breakdown of that five year plan in relation to the projects, types and sources of funding.

In spite of the unfortunate experiences of the agricultural sector during the period stated above, the economy of Antigua seems to have developed quite well, reaching an all-time high growth rate of 8.1% in the late 1970s (See Appendix 5A); and going on to experience a growth rate in real Gross Development Product of 5.4 in 1983 and 6.5 in 1984. In fact, of all the Commonwealth Caribbean countries surveyed, "Antigua and Barbuda recorded the highest rate of growth..." [6]

5.4 A Brief Note on Political History

Antigua was sighted by Christopher Columbus on his second voyage in 1493, and was named after a church in Seville, Spain, called Santa Maria de la Antigua.

Apart from the successful British attempt in 1632 by Thomas Warner to establish a colony at Willoughby Bay, there were two other attempts at settling the island of Antigua: the first by the Spaniards in 1520, and the other by the French, under d'Esnambuc in 1629. One of the reasons for the failure to settle the island before Warner was because it was perceived as being 'too dry'. From 1632 Antigua remained British, even through the Napoleonic Wars, a time when West Indian islands, being 'prix de querres', changed hands frequently. Unlike Grenada, therefore, Antigua was not fortunate (or unfortunate) to experience a variety of European ownership, cultural influences and conflicts. The result is that there is no trace of either Spanish or French influence on the island.

After experiencing 'total' colonial rule from the early seventeenth century, Antigua became a member of the Leeward Islands Federation, and headquarters of that federation from 1870 up to its dissolution. Following the dissolution, Antigua became a unit, like Grenada, of the short-lived West Indian Federation from its inception in 1958 to its dissolution in 1962. When Britain decided to grant Associate Membership to the 'Little Eight', Antigua, like Grenada, accepted Associated Membership with Britain in 1967. The island retained that status until November 1, 1981 when it became the independent nation of Antigua and Barbuda.

5.5 Development of Education (Antigua)

5.5.1 Introduction

Although the process of educational development in the State of Antigua has followed a path similar to Grenada and other Commonwealth Caribbean countries, its political and socio-economic differences from 1834 gave it a unique context within which the educational system has developed a distinctive profile. In tracing the general development of education in Antigua, attention is given to all three sections: General or Elementary Education; Secondary Education; Tertiary Education. (Refer to Appendix 5D).

5.5.2 General or Elementary Education

If 'to help prepare the semi-freed slaves for full freedom in 1838' was one of the justifications for introducing popular education in the British West Indies, then that was not applicable in the case of Antigua. For unlike almost all other British West Indian territories, Antigua chose "the apparently enlightened decision" [7] not to have a

period of apprenticeship between 1834 and 1838, and instead gave full emancipation to all its slaves in 1834, because of the 'good relationship' which existed between planters and slaves. In fact, it is claimed that:

> "Of the British colonies, Antigua did most, even before emancipation, to promote religion and morality (an objective of education then) among the slaves. They were thus more prepared for the changes which took place in their condition." [8]

Whether the apparently 'good relationship' which existed between planters and slaves influenced educational provisions for ex-slaves after 1834 is debatable. However, reports and observations between 1838 and 1860 painted a picture of education in Antigua where students did not only attend school "with so little difficulty", [9] but also where

> "the effort to educate the masses have been more preserving and better directed in this than in other islands." [10]

During the 1860s, there were 37 Sunday schools and 52 day schools that catered to over six thousand 'scholars' between the ages of 5 and 15 years old. These were run by the Church of England, the Moravians and the Methodists.

What is significant though, is that because at that time all schools were voluntary and run by religious denominations, there were

no formally established systems for regulating and inspecting education. That came into being in 1875 when an Education Act became operative. [11] It is reasonable to assume that the Act in question was instituted because a grant-in-aid system to schools was established by government at that time. The Education Act of 1875 was followed by a Code of Regulations which spelt out the conditions to be met by schools if they were to qualify for such a grant.

One of the immediate effects the Code of Regulations had was the 'opening of schools' to be inspected by government-appointed 'Inspectors of Schools'. The Inspector of Schools had the authority to cause a grant to a school to cease, if in the judgement of the Inspector a teacher's moral conduct was questionable, or if the school's examination results were generally poor. The power of the Inspectors of Schools up until the early 1960s was supreme. Their presence in the vicinity of the school could be seen and felt in many ways: from 'the extremely quiet tone of a school' to the trepidation of the Headteacher and members of the staff in respect of a visitation. That sort of school behaviour seemed to have been an indication of 'effective education'. Antigua was not singular in this respect; it was a phenomenon of the British West Indies.

Another piece of legislation which influenced education in Antigua and Barbuda was Act 14 in 1890. This Act which became effective during the last decade of the nineteenth century made elementary education for children under nine years compulsory. The Act was designed to:

a) cause parents to ensure that their children of school age attended school;

b) bring into being 'Educational Districts', thus trying to ensure that an adequate supply of school buildings would be erected for each locality on a 'district basis'. [12]

Apart from having the desired effects of, for example, a significant increase in enrolment and attendance in schools, the said Act triggered a series of demands for more school places and greater administrative competence among denominational bodies, since the churches still owned and managed the schools at that time.

The new 'burden' on the denominational bodies, which Act No. 14 initiated worsened when, in 1906, terrible drought conditions and a sustained economic depression led to a reduction in government grants to the schools of Antigua. The effect of all this on the churches was catastrophic, and they 'broke' under the pressure. Unable to cope, the churches 'handed over' their schools to government, forcing them, as it were, in 1914, to take on all responsibilities for the provision of education. Faced with what appeared to be no acceptable alternative, government dealt with the problem by combining many of the small schools where it was feasible to do so.

Although when the economic conditions improved some denominational schools tried to re-establish themselves, the social and economic experiences of the previous years had already led to a turning point in the provision and control of public education that was not to be reversed.

Between 1914 and 1945, Antigua, like the rest of the Caribbean, experienced two world wars and a serious economic depression that

adversely affected the whole of the Western World. Poverty and unrest was the order of the day, especially during the 1930s. And although the entire Caribbean seethed with discontent and was held hostage by poverty, one writer claimed that:

> "Of all the islands in the West Indies, Antigua was possibly the hardest hit... Ruin stared many people in the face... Antigua was a land of misery and depression, an island of slums and hovels, of barefooted, unkept people." [13]

But those terrible social and economic conditions were, in fact, common to the Caribbean at that time, and so when Lord Moyne was sent to investigate and make recommendations, Antigua benefitted educationally along with Grenada and other Commonwealth Caribbean countries. Most of the recommendations alluded to above in respect of Grenada, are also applicable to Antigua. However, it is necessary to state here that the school building programme which was set up with the aid of Colonial Development and Welfare Funds and other funding agencies in the 1940s (as a direct result of Moyne's recommendations), has helped to lay the foundation for the accelerated growth and expansion in school buildings and related educational programmes right on into the 1980s. A listing of schools built over the years can be seen in Table 5.3.

Although Act No. 14 made education for children under nine years compulsory, no mention was made about provision for pre-school education then, nor is it made in the current Education Act of 1973. The 1973 Education Act stipulates that education is compulsory for children between the ages of 5 and 16 years. Implicit in that stipulation is

TABLE 5.3 SCHOOLS BUILT IN ANTIGUA, 1946-1980

Period	School
1946-50	All Saints Primary Green Bay New Winthorpes Potters
1950-53	Bolan Ottos Primary Pares Primary Princes Margaret Sea View Farm Swetes
1956-60	Buckleys Cobbs Cross Freeman's Ville Liberta Old Road
1961-65	All Saints Secondary Betheseda Freetown Golden Grove Jennings
1966-70	Bindals Cedar Groves Five Islands Glanvilles John Hughes Pares Secondary Villa
1971-75	All Saints Secondary Bolans Clare Hall Ottos Comprehensive Pigotts
1976-80	Newfield Willikies
1980-88	Ottos Primary Urlings

Source: Based on information from "Historical Notes on Education in Antigua", 1837-1984.

the suggestion that Government does not assume any legal responsibility for the education of children under the age of 5 years, that is to say, for the pre-school sector. However, while there is no established supervisory arrangement by the Department of Education to ascertain standards and to monitor the relevance of programmes offered in existing pre-schools, owners of such schools are expected by law to register them with the Department of Education.

The refusal of the Ministry of Education to assume legal responsibility should not suggest that the Department of Education is not involved in any way. Support has been given to programmes undertaken by the institutions for the under-fives, and the Department plans to be more directly involved in their programmes in the future.[14] One may, however, question the Ministry's delay in incorporating formally and officially the pre-school sector within the general educational system, when officials in the Department of Education recognised that the quality of pre-school education that is given greatly influences the foundation for successful primary and secondary schooling. The Department expressed this vividly in the following words:

> "Aware that many handicaps which become evident mainly in the junior school can be identified and possibly corrected in the pre-schools, this Ministry has decided to make a bold effort to identify early and remedy, if possible, those handicaps which thwart growth in the primary school be it physical, social, cognitive or otherwise."[15] (Refer also to Appendix 5.D)

The continued inability of the Ministry of Education in 1988 to fulfil that pledge might be due, not to its lack of interest, but, to the

numerous demands that are made on the limited budget that is given for educational financing. (See Appendix 5B).

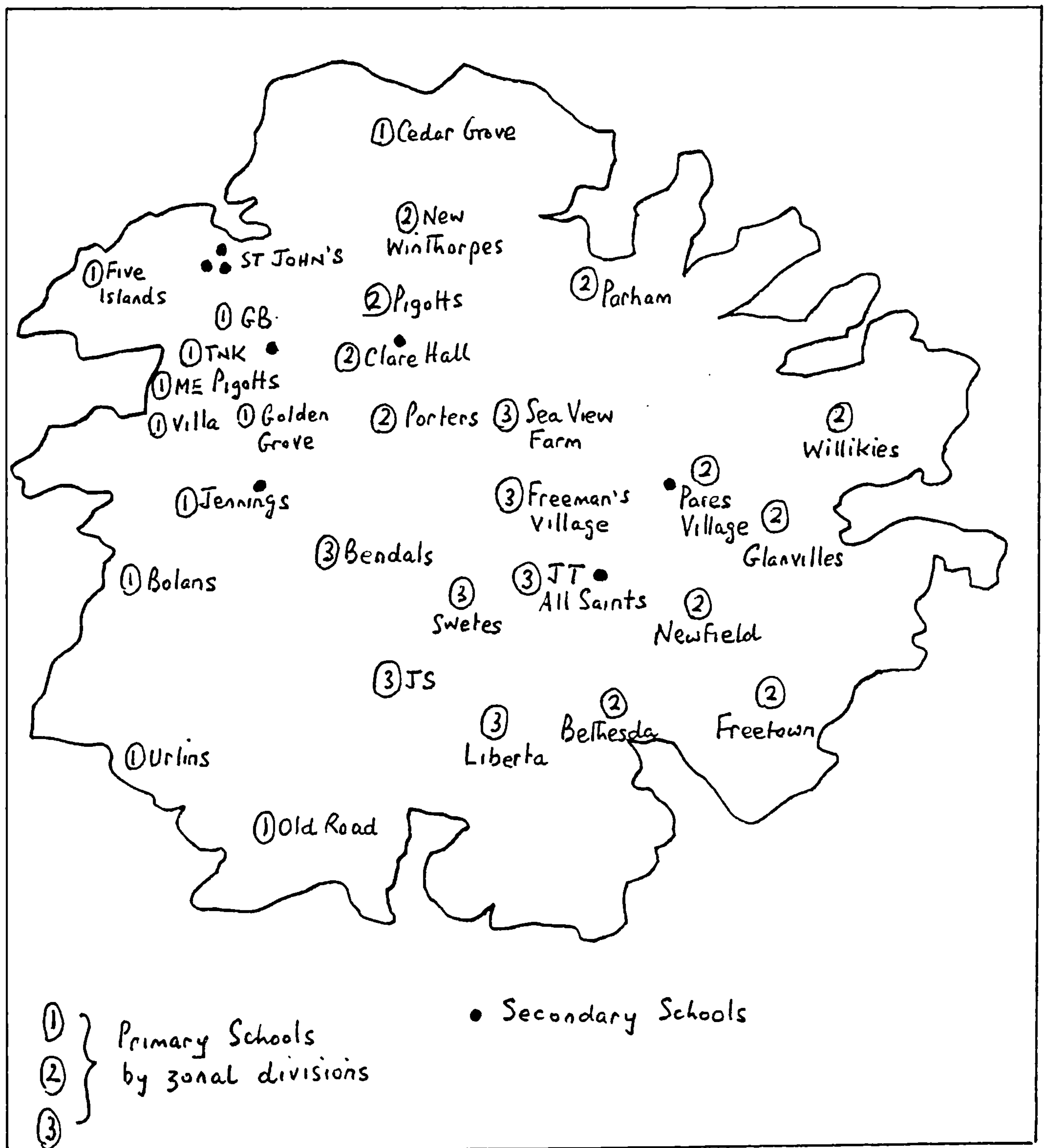
In keeping with the 1973 Education Act, Government must ensure that adequate physical provision is made for all students of compulsory school age. In an effort to do this, 31 government primary schools have been established, in addition to which there are 12 that are privately owned and operated. An examination of the school map (Map 5.3) will show the distribution of primary schools throughout the State, and the supervisory arrangements along 'zonal' lines. (Refer also to Figure 5.1).

During the early 1970s, a decision was taken to divide the 31 primary schools in the State into three zones "for the purpose of easy administration." [16] At that time, it was also decided to transfer all zone II students automatically to secondary schools in the area where they live. Although they wrote the primary examinations:

> "the results serve merely as a means of internal classification of students in a Secondary school and not as a Selective Examination as obtained in Zones I and III." [17]

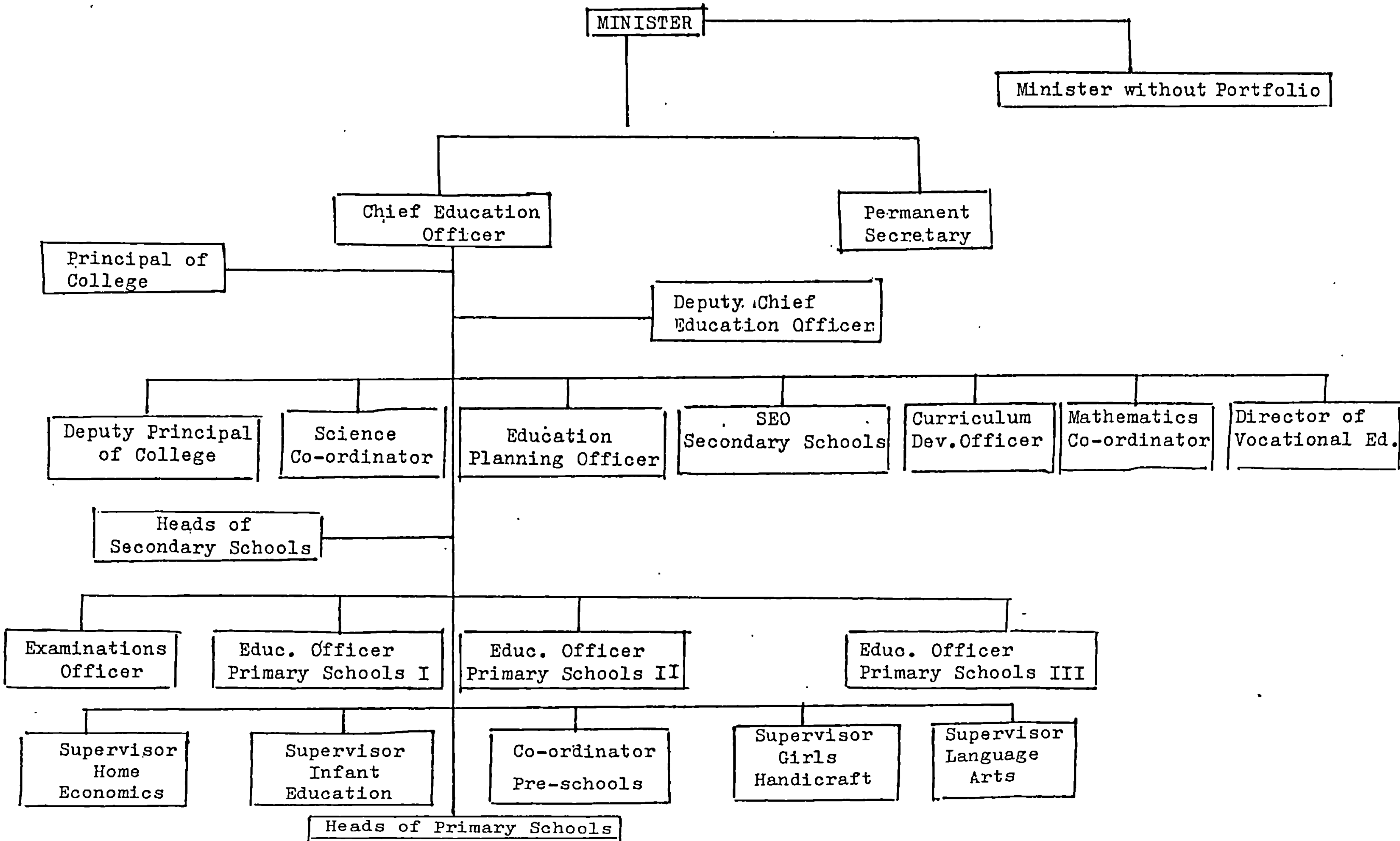
That experiment, however, was terminated in the early 1980s not only because it went against the Antiguan concept of equal opportunity for all, but also because:

MAP 5.3 ANTIGUA SCHOOL MAP



Source: Devised by the writer from official information.

FIGURE 5.1 ANTIGUA: ORGANISATION OF THE EDUCATION DIVISION, MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE, 1988



Source: Ministry of Education and Culture, Antigua.

> "the teachers, pupils and parents of pupils in zone two take the automatic promotion very much for granted, and become too lackadaisical with regard to their respective roles. As a result, the quality of pupils moving into the secondary schools by means of the automatic route leaves very much to be desired." 18

TABLE 5.4 ZONAL DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS BY QUALIFICATION, AND PUPIL-TEACHER RATIO (ANTIGUA, 1987-1988)

Teacher Qualification	ZONES					
	I		II		III	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Trained	20	113	8	57	7	54
Untrained	10	27	3	19	2	18
TOTAL	30	140	11	76	9	72
Pupil:Teacher Ratio	24.7:1		18.5:1		18.9:1	

Source: Department of Education Statistical Report, 1987/88.

Many educational systems in the Commonwealth Caribbean are trying to indicate, through the provision of more school places, through curricula with a bias towards practical subjects, and through automatic promotion/transfer to secondary schools, a commitment to equal educational opportunities for all. But the concept of equality in the provision of educational opportunities is not determined only by those actions, but also by other more crucial factors like quality of staff, pupil-teacher ratio, adequacy of equipment, physical facilities,

resource material and the quality of supervision provided by advisory staff from the Department of Education itself.

If one should examine Table 5.4 which tried to illustrate the distribution of teachers within the three zones of the elementary school system, one would notice that there is no disparity in the provision of trained teachers to schools on a zonal basis. Between 74.7% and 78.2% of teachers in each zone are trained, yet reports on the primary and post-primary school examinations results show that there is disparity in performance of schools on those examinations when one considers it on the basis of zones. The question is: 'why?'.

Although this research does not seek to provide an answer to that question, it is still of great importance to the context within which the research is operating, if only because the main focus of this study (teacher preparation and the 'teacher product') is directly related to students' performance. And because 'students' grades' is a popular indicator of teacher effectiveness (in Antigua), it assumes even greater importance.

When the results of the primary and post-primary examinations for all schools and zones are considered as a whole (Table 5.5), it might become clear that there are negative factors at work in the system which militate against the effectiveness of the trained teacher, but of which the teacher training department is either unaware, or unable to neutralise through its training programme.

TABLE 5.5 RESULTS OF PRIMARY AND POST-PRIMARY EXAMINATION

YEAR	PRIMARY				POST-PRIMARY			
	No. Sat	No. Pass	Failure No.	Failure %	No. Sat	No. Pass	Failure No.	Failure %
1984	905	598	307	34	370	61	309	83.5
1985	931	509	422	45.3	346		258	74.5
1986	983	631	352	36	381	133	248	65
1987	1053	470	583	55.3	402	105	297	74

However, while the reports referred to above, and the results given in Table 5.5 can easily suggest a level of unsatisfactory performance within the elementary school system, it ought to be remembered that there is a 'cut-off point' at which scholarships are no longer awarded by government. While it is true that a certain mark must be obtained by a student to be awarded a government scholarship, when government's annual scholarship quota is reached, other students having a 'pass mark' might not be awarded a scholarship. Therefore, when between 34% and 55.3% of all students writing the primary school examinations between 1984 and 1987 'failed', it does not necessarily follow that they failed to obtain a pass in the subjects taken. 'Failure' then becomes relative, as far as securing a place in a secondary school is concerned, based on government's scholarship quota.

Students at the primary level who 'fail' to secure a secondary school place must remain in the post-primary division of the elementary

system

> "where they are expected to pursue a three-year programme similar in content to the first two years of secondary school." 19

At the end of that three-year period, the students' eligibility to enter the third form of secondary school is ascertained through the post-primary examination. From the results shown in Table 5.4, one may conclude that something appears to be wrong with that programme.

5.5.3 Secondary Education:

Although Government's direct involvement in Secondary Education began in 1955 (when the Princess Margaret Secondary School was established), the year 1884 marked the beginning of Secondary Education in Antigua, thereby ushering in a new phase in the process of educational development there.

Like Grenada, the first non-governmental secondary school in Antigua was established to cater to parents of children who could, and were willing, to pay fees for post-primary schooling. However, as the need for more secondary school places became greater, the churches, individuals and the Government responded, based on their respective perceptions of the situation and individual reasons developed from those viewpoints.

The churches acted, it would seem, purely from being under pressure to provide opportunities for teaching their own doctrine; individuals,

from a conviction that there was a need in the society for their skills, and as a result they created the situation to use those skills. Government's involvement in secondary education began because of purely economic and political considerations. The idea of 'setting up' a secondary school in Antigua with the expressed purpose of financial gain has never been advanced. It appeared that it was 'need' rather than 'greed' that motivated the expansion of secondary education in Antigua, for it is claimed that up to 1954 the secondary school sector was so tiny "that 3% of the elementary school population barely could gain a place."[20] In fact, when the 'Thomas Oliver Robinson Memorial School' was opened in April 1899, the aim was

> "to provide higher education to those unable to pay the fees of the other secondary schools and to encourage all to fit themselves to help themselves and serve others."[21]

However, it is correct to say that the observation made in Chapter Four on the relationship among secondary education, social mobility and the class structure apply to the same extent in the way secondary education was perceived and used in Antigua.

5.5.4 Curriculum:

From the beginning of secondary education in Antigua, up until the 1980s, the system has 'flirted' with many different types and modes, in a search for relevance and effectiveness.[22] This has been against a background where the objective of secondary education was

given as providing secondary schools of two types; one being for general (pre-vocational) education, and the other for purely academic courses. [23] However, as far as government experiments in the structure of secondary provision are concerned, it can be said that essentially three types have been tried: Senior Secondary, 'Junior Secondary' and Full Secondary. It must be noted here that the concept of 'Junior Secondary School' in Antigua is different from that in Grenada. [24] Yet, it can be argued, as it has been, that in the final analysis it is really "one mode that characterises the Government Secondary school system: Forms I-V and admission by selection", [25] even though secondary schools offer a wide range of options as Table 5.6 seeks to demonstrate.

After looking carefully at the subjects offered, it would become clear that Antigua Grammar Schools (AGS) has the greatest tendency to follow a totally academic curriculum. An examination of time distribution at Antigua Grammar School (AGS) and a slightly less academic secondary school might help to better inform any further discussion on types of programmes offered and emphasised. (See Tables 5.7 and 5.8).

Prior to 1983, the year when Antiguan secondary school students first wrote the examinations of the Caribbean Examinations Council (CXC), secondary schools there were prepared to write examinations that were set by Examination Boards in England, namely, the Cambridge Examinations Syndicate, the London General Certificate of Education, London Chamber of Commerce, and Royal Society of Arts. Although

TABLE 5.6 SECONDARY SCHOOLS CURRICULUM WITH THE RANGE OF OPTIONS OFFERED IN 1985. (REFER TO APPENDIX FOR FULL NAMES OF SCHOOLS)

	SCHOOLS								
	AGS	AGHS	PMS	ASS	JSS	CHS	HTS	OCS	PSS
English Language	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
English Literature	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓
Additional Mathematics	✓								
Mathematics	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Chemistry	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓
Physics	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓
Biology	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓
Integrated Science	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Agricultural Science			✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
History	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Geography	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓
Spanish	✓	✓	✓			✓			✓
French	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓	
Social Studies	✓	✓							✓
Library Science		✓	✓	✓				✓	✓
Music		✓						✓	
Typewriting		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Bookkeeping		✓	✓	✓				✓	✓
Accounts			✓	✓	✓			✓	✓
Shorthand		✓	✓	✓					
Office Practice		✓	✓	✓					
Commerce				✓	✓		✓		
Principles of Business			✓				✓		
Food & Nutrition & Clothing		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Woods		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Management		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Art & Craft	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	

Source: Reports on the Education Division, 1983-1985
Ministry of Education, St.John's, Antigua.

TABLE 5.7 TIME DISTRIBUTION AT ALL SAINTS SECONDARY SCHOOLS (ASS), 1981-1982 (ANTIGUA)

SUBJECTS	Form I	Form II	Form III	Form IV	Form V
English Language	9	9	8	4	5
English Literature	-	-	-	3	(4)
History	3	3	3	4	4
Geography	3	3	3	4	4
French	4	4	4	(4)	(5)
Mathematics	8	8	7	7	8
General Science	4	4	-	-	-
Art	2	2	2	(4)	
Home Economics/Industrial Arts	3	3	3	3	6
Library	1	1	1		
Chemistry	-	-	2	(4)	(5)
Physics	-	-	2	(4)	(4)
Human Biology	3	3	3	3	(4)
General Biology	-	-	2	4	(4)
Typing	-	-	-	(4)	-
TOTAL	40	40	40	30+(8)	27+(13)

Source: All Saints Secondary School (A.S.S).

Note: Periods in brackets indicate elective subjects.

TABLE 5.8 TIME DISTRIBUTION AT ANTIGUA GRAMMAR SCHOOL, 1981-1982

SUBJECTS	Form 1 Streams 1-4	Form 2 Streams 1-2	Form 3 Streams 1	Form 3 Streams 2	Form 4 Streams 1	Form 4 Streams 2	Form 5
English Language	6	6	4	5	4	4	4
English Literature	3	3	3	3	4	4	4
Spanish	4	4	4	4	5	5	1+(4)
French	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
History	2	3	3	3	(2)	4	(4)
Geography	2	3	(3)	3	(2)	4	(4)
Mathematics	5	5	5	6	6	6	6+(4)
General Science	3	3	-	-	-	-	-
Chemistry	-	-	(3)	-	(2)	-	(4)
Physics	-	-	3	-	(2)	-	(4)
Biology	-	-	4	4	4	4	4
Art	2	2	2	2	-	-	-
Music	2	2	-	-	-	-	-
Home Management	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
Library	1	-	1				
TOTAL	35	35	32+(3)	35	31+(4)	35	23+(12)

Source: Antigua Grammar School.

Note: Periods in brackets indicate elective subjects.

other Commonwealth Caribbean countries also wrote those examinations, Antigua was different in that it was the last independent Commonwealth Caribbean nation to formally recognise the CXC as the official examining board for the Commonwealth Caribbean. This in itself provides a sense of the traditional tendencies at work in the territory.

As if to justify or rationalise the Ministry of Education's preference for secondary schools in Antigua to follow curricula and syllabuses that were developed and examined outside the Caribbean, an official pointed out that those examinations

> "allow the student the opportunity to acquire, for international assessment, acceptable High school standard as well as documentary proof of attainment for employment purposes." [26]

Can this, and Antigua's initial hesitation to opt for CXC in place of the G.C.E. examinations, give the impression that local relevance and focus in respect of curricular content are deemed less important than certification that has high international currency?

Like Grenada, but unlike the United States Virgin Islands, Antigua does not issue to its graduates a formal high school diploma. Many persons may argue that this is an unwise decision for several reasons. Others may feel that the disadvantages of issuing a 'local' diploma outweigh the merits. What seems fairly certain to this writer is that an apparent obsession by a Ministry of Education to satisfy international markets by havings its students be overtly concerned with

acquiring 'overseas certification', can help to destroy a teacher's creativity and initiative in the classroom, and help to inculcate within a people that anything 'local' or 'regional' is inferior, including both human and physical resources. This could ultimately 'cause' students in general, to perform unsatisfactorily in those overseas examinations. (See Table 5.9).

This view must not, in any way, be taken to mean that curricula by themselves can cause results like those in Table 5.9 to be produced; the quality and experience of the teaching staff executing the programme is equally, if not more, important. And even in this area there appears to be a degree of problem. Available reports and evidence seem to clearly suggest that lack of suitably trained staff to teach certain newly introduced subjects, rapid staff turnover and attrition in the service (about 8% per annum) [27] are major factors contributing to the level of students' performance in secondary education in Antigua. And this has been a recurrent theme in the Department of Education reports over the past decade. One report sums it up in this way:

> "Lack of continuity in staffing and teaching methods have continually plagued the instructional machinery. It is not unusual to have, particularly at junior secondary school level, a different teacher each term to teach a single subject for the school year to the same group of students." [28]

Yet, when those 'normal fluctuations' are set aside, one begins to witness an improvement in the staffing situation within secondary education in Antigua, both in quality and distribution among schools.

TABLE 5.9 RESULTS OF OVERSEAS EXAMINATIONS, 1984-1987 (ANTIGUA)

	1984			1985			1986			1987		
	Subject Entries	Subject Passes	%	Subject Entries	Subject Passes	%	Subject Entries	Subject Passes	%	Subject Entries	Subject Passes	%
Cambridge GCE 'O' Level	1545	651	42.1	1082	431	40.0	1017	447	43.9	991	412	41.5
London GCE 'O' Level	895	167	18.6	1048	167	16.0	587	161	27.4	336	84	25.0
Cambridge GCE 'O' Level	82	53	64.6	128	55	42.9	141	49	34.7	119	34	28.5
London GCE 'A' Level*	6	0	00.0	7	3	42.8	13	4	30.7	32	18	56.25
Caribbean Exam. Council	964	584	60.0	1517	836	55.0	1120	525	46.8	1186	587	49.4
London Chamber of Commerce*	1233	345	28.0	945	234	24.8	NOT AVAILABLE					
Royal Society of Arts*	572	223	39.0	420	109	25.5	NOT AVAILABLE					
City and Guilds*	32	25	81.25	23	14	60.8	NOT AVAILABLE					

Source: Adapted from Antigua Department of Education Statistical Reports, 1984 - 87.

* Results obtained by the Antigua State College

TABLE 5.10 QUALIFICATIONS AND DISTRIBUTION OF SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN ANTIGUA, 1985-1986

School	Graduates Trained	Graduates Untrained	Subject Specialists	Asst. Teachers	P.U.T/ S.T.
Antigua Grammar	7	3	-	5	2
Antigua Girls	7	4	-	10	1
Princes Margaret	8	7	3	14	6
Clare Hall Secondary	6	2	1	8	1
Ottos Comprehensive	4	5	2	14	6
Jennings Secondary	4	2	2	8	3
All Saints Secondary	10	2	2	13	5
Pares Secondary	5	3	2	9	1
Holy Trinity	2	5	1	8	5
TOTAL	53	33	13	89	30

Source: Department of Education, St.John's, Antigua, 1985/86.

Based on an analysis of the data given in Table 5.10, it would seem that at the end of the 1985-1986 academic year, approximately 142 (or 65.1%) of teachers in government secondary schools in Antigua were considered professionally trained. When that figure is combined with the number of teachers in private secondary schools (113), [29] the percentage of professionally trained secondary school teachers in Antigua averaged 61.9% or 199 out of a grand total of 331 secondary school teachers in the education system (1986).

However, when one pits the rate of teacher turnover and attrition in the teaching service (8%) against:

a) the significant rate of economic growth and prosperity which Antigua has enjoyed up to the middle of 1988 (over 7%); [30]

b) the claim that "daily more and more qualified Antiguans are returning from abroad to settle permanently in Antigua", [31]

one might, in the absence of more 'solid' evidence, conclude that the problems associated with staff in secondary schools in Antigua are likely to lessen by the end of the 1980s or early 1990s.

5.5.5 Tertiary Education (Antigua):

Any discussion on Tertiary Education in the 1980s must be, generally speaking, a discussion on 'The Antigua State College', for it is in this institution that almost all the life of this level of education is controlled. But prior to 1977, the focus would have been on either Spring Gardens Teachers' College or The Leeward Islands Teachers' Training College and the Technical College. With the merging of those institutions, both having been situated on the same compound, five departments were brought into being. In 'looking at' tertiary education in Antigua, however, the emphasis will be focussed specifically on Teacher Preparation as this is the main concern of the writer's research. Allusion, however, might be made to other aspects after examining the growth of teacher preparation.

5.5.6 Teacher Education

Teacher Education in Antigua was started by the church as early as 1840 when the Moravian Missions Spring Gardens Teachers' College first admitted "five girls who desired to become teachers in the school established by the Moravian Church." [32] In a sense, therefore, it

could be said that the Moravian Church was in the vanguard of that activity. That college, however, catered initially to female teachers only, first to teachers in Antigua, and later to female teachers throughout the Leeward Islands, Dominica and the British Virgin Islands.

Apart from being fortunate to have had the Moravian Teachers College, Antigua was one of the two countries in the Commonwealth Caribbean where a Mico Teacher Training College was set up in 1838. That college was established essentially to meet the training needs of male teachers in the Leeward Islands, and it performed that role until its closure around 1898. Male teachers were then sent to Jamaica for professional training but when they began to experience 'serious travel problems' that practice was discontinued. [33]

The termination of training in Jamaica led to the giving of awards to male teachers to pursue training at the Rawle Training Institute, Codrington College, Barbados. Those awards were made possible through a 1922 Act (Act No.3). Just at that time, the Government of Antigua made available to the Moravian College an annual grant of £240 to assist with the training of female teachers. But, in spite of the modest developments that had taken place in preparing teachers for the Antiguan educational system between 1835 and 1935, an investigation into that system in 1936 identified, among other things, "the efficient training of an adequate number of teachers", [34] as one of the outstanding educational needs in Antigua at that time.

It would seem that after one hundred years the system was not 'feeling' the effects that the expenditure on teacher preparation should have generated. In establishing the causes of this situation, it appears that the answer might not be found in any one contributing factor alone. Indeed, several possible reasons have been offered, some of which it might be useful and relevant to consider even in the 1980s. Among the explanations advanced were:

a) a rapidly increasing school population; [35]

b) the loss of trained and experienced teachers to more developed countries, and to better paying local jobs; [36]

c) the inability of the education system in those days to effectively utilise trained personnel in the system to produce the multiplier effect in teacher preparation;

d) the failure of teacher training institutions to give back to the system 'efficient' teachers.

As a direct response to the findings of the 1930s Education Commissions, A.C.G. Palmer was appointed Federal Education Officer in 1942, under a 'Colonial Development and Welfare Scheme' to advise governments on many pressing educational matters, including "the recruiting and training of a sufficient number of teachers." [37] When Palmer left Antigua in 1950, his recruitment and training plans were fairly well grounded in the system. An annual vacation course to enhance the professional competence of a 'certain level of teachers' was firmly established. Later, in 1952, that course was expanded and adapted to meet the needs of two categories of teachers of the lower

levels, namely uncertificated teachers and pupil teachers. Table 5.11 gives a breakdown of the Antiguan teaching force in 1950 by level of qualification and status.

TABLE 5.11 TEACHERS EMPLOYED IN THE PRIMARY SCHOOLS, (1950) ANTIGUA

Grade of Teacher	Number
Supervising teachers	2
Certificated teachers, Grade I	23
Certificated teachers, Grade II	69
Uncertificated teachers	71
Pupil teachers	109
TOTAL	274

Source: Colonial Office Report on The Leeward Islands for the years 1949 and 1950, p.28.

It is immediately evident from Table 5.11 that uncertificated and pupil teachers, the last two grades of teachers accommodated in the Annual Vacation course, were the largest single and combined groups of teachers in Antigua primary schools at that time. Further, information given suggested that between 1948 and 1950 there was an overall increase of 33 teachers in the system. This increase in staff seems to explain the greater need for training, since the new recruits were likely to have been at the pupil-teacher level. What this has also done is to confirm that there was indeed a growing school

population: "an increase of over 600 places" [38] between 1948 and 1950.

The Government Training College (GTC) in Trinidad was another teacher training institution used by the Government of Antigua in preparing its teachers. But that service was short lived, for it shut its doors to Antiguan teachers in 1955, [39] the year when Spring Gardens 'all female teachers college' admitted, for the first time, a small group of Antiguan male students. By that time too, the college had begun to develop, what might be called, a greater orientation towards the Leeward Islands in its courses. At that time there was, among its population, a good cross-section and blend of 'Leeward Islanders'.

In the early 1960s, the Spring Gardens College was moved to Golden Grove, the present site of the Antigua State College, and renamed The Leeward Islands Teachers' Training College (LITTC). It operated under that name until 1977 when it was amalgamated with the Technical College to form what is today the Antigua State College, [40] an institution which in 1988 comprises five departments, one of which is the Teacher Training Department. (Refer to Figure 5.2).

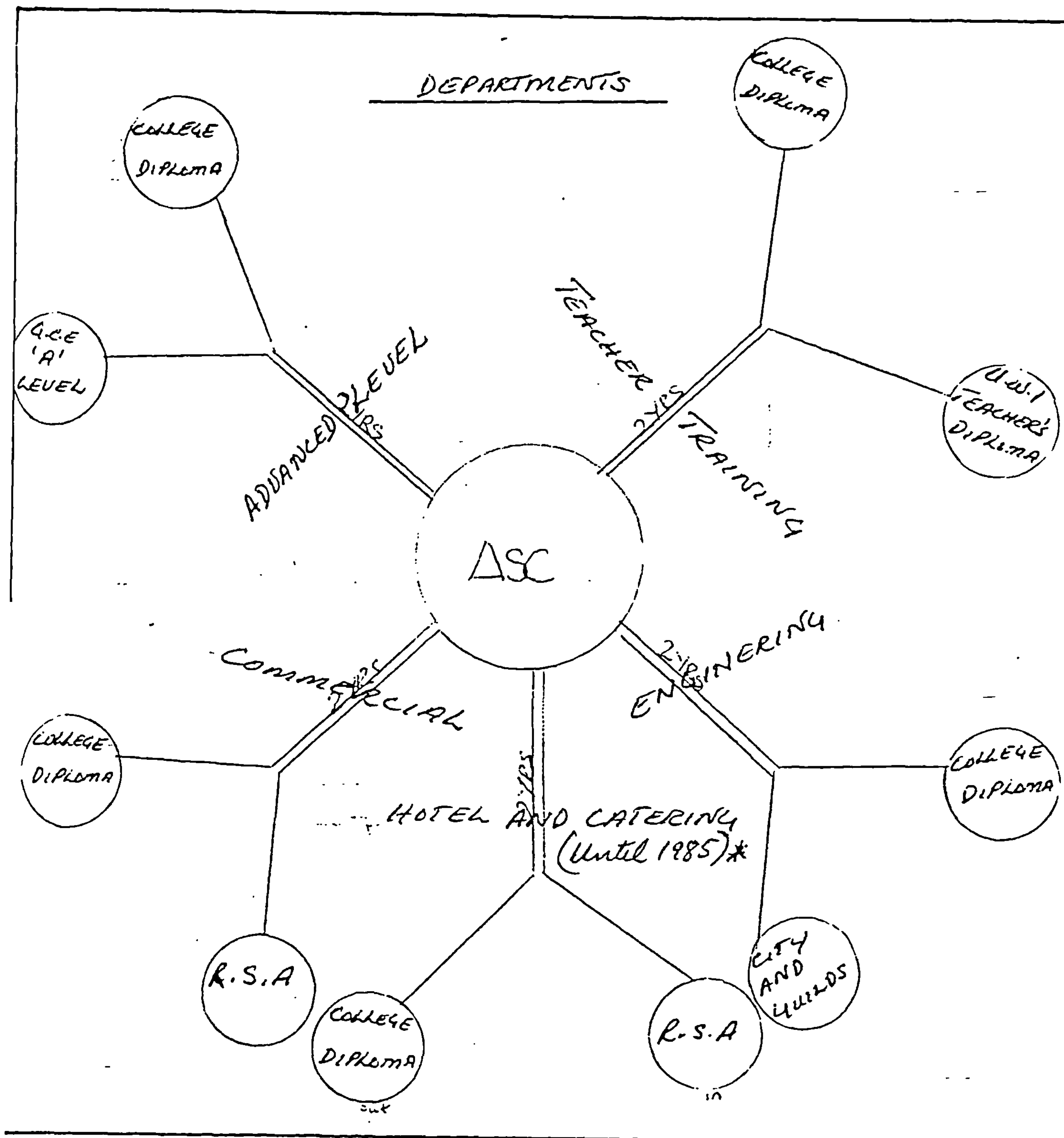
Admission requirements to teacher training institutions in Antigua, like Grenada, have never been rigidly applied, and could not be, for the simple reason that there was almost always a shortage of suitable academically qualified candidates who really wanted to make teaching a career. Because of this, the admission requirements have always been 'bent' to ensure that the needs of the educational system were satisfied. [41]

Although from the time the School of Education of the University of the West Indies became formally involved in the teacher education process in Antigua, that is to say in the 1960s, the minimum entry requirement for admission to the training college has been given as 4 GCE 'O' Levels, or 4 CXC subject passes, with English Language as a compulsory subject, there have been occasions when teacher trainees with less than the basic requirements have been admitted to the two-year college programme. [42] R.M. Nicholson remarked:

> "The crux of the problem was that in their attempt at achieving a significant increase in the number of trained Primary school teachers, several of the non-campus countries had had to relax the requirements of four 'O' levels, including English Language." [43]

Although there is no available empirical evidence in Antigua (as far as the writer is aware) that suggests a direct link between teachers academic background at the point of entry for initial training, and pupils performance in primary schools, the overwhelming view among Caribbean teacher-educators, [44] (and the limited research available in the Commonwealth Caribbean [45] and Britain) [46] seems to strongly suggest that the admission of teacher-trainees with poor/limited academic background to teacher education programmes adversely affect the performance of that teacher-trainee in the pursuit of the training programme. It also hampers the teacher's ability to transmit accurate information to pupils, unless the training programme can overcome the initial deficiency in the course of its programmes. In a piece of research conducted by Cuthbert Joseph, for example, 'a significant positive relationship' was observed between the

FIGURE 5.2 THE STRUCTURE OF ANTIGUA STATE COLLEGE



Source: Adapted from Department of Education Reports, 1977-1985.

* Has since moved to Dutchman's Bay as an independent institution.

student-teacher's level of achievement in a specific subject area and his/her competence in teaching that subject during the practice teaching sessions.[47]

What is somewhat reassuring about the Antiguan situation is that student-teachers, who were admitted to the college two-year programme without the basic academic qualification, were encouraged to obtain the remaining number of GCE/CXC subjects which they required in order to graduate from the college with the U.W.I endorsed teachers' diploma.

Up to the late 1960s, college programmes in Antigua, like Grenada, emphasised mainly professional courses. The rationale at that time was based on the knowledge that teachers who were selected for training were generally well grounded in all of the subjects taught in the elementary school system. This was based on the argument that many of the teachers had either obtained a senior school certificate, or had gone through the pupil teachers system, both of which afforded them the opportunity to acquire a significant store of knowledge. However, when the Senior Cambridge School Certificate Examination was replaced with the General Certificate of Education Examination, and the pupil teacher system was scrapped in the early 1960s, it was discovered that many teachers who had obtained relatively few G.C.E. 'O' level subjects, (say 2 or 3), experienced serious difficulties in trying to teach most subjects even in the elementary schools. As a result, the academic content in the teacher training programme assumed a significant level of importance.

Reference should be made to Appendix 7A, which comprises copies of the College programmes in English, Mathematics, Social Studies, General Science and Education.

The question as to whether the academic content offered at the teacher training division in Antigua is adequate to make good the deficiencies from which many student teachers seem to suffer is still open to debate. Can the College prepare teachers having this limited background to teach effectively the curriculum of the elementary schools?

An examination of the development of teacher education in Antigua suggests that a two-year full-time in-college course was not always the method used to prepare teachers there. For three years, at one stage in this process, Antigua experimented with 'a year in, year out' approach. The 'year in' was spent at the college pursuing academic and professional courses. There was no practice teaching. After completing the 'year in', student-teachers returned to the classroom to do the 'year out'. The emphasis here was principally on practice, and on-the-spot supervision by college tutors, although many student-teachers also used the 'year out' to obtain the 'missing number' of G.C.E. 'O' level subjects.

That approach was tried, according to Knowles, [48] because there was a backlog of teachers in the service to be upgraded academically and professionally. It was hoped that that approach would have provided, like the Pupil-Teacher System, an adequate supply of

competent teachers in a relatively short time. The claim is that the programme experienced a sixty percent success rate during its life time. (1971 to 1975).

Unlike that approach, the pupil teacher system was described as "absolutely effective", and that nothing had really replaced it in terms of its effectiveness in recruiting and training young teachers. [49] The question was inevitably asked: 'Why then isn't this approach to preparing teachers more generally used?' The view was expressed that that system could not work in the 1980s because it suffered from one major drawback, namely that too many years have to be spent before qualifications with international currency could be obtained. What is interesting is that the pupil teacher system as it operated in Antigua was very similar to how it functioned in Grenada, and for this reason will not be the subject of any further discussion here, having been discussed in Chapter Four.

5.5.7 Antigua State College:

The Antigua State College is a post-secondary institution which provides education through the following departments:

a) Teacher Training Department

b) Commercial Department

c) G.C.E. Advanced Level Department

d) Engineering Department

e) Hotel and Catering Department

In each case a two-year course of studies is offered, which terminates with the writing of two examinations: an internal examination that would enable a successful candidate to receive the college diploma, and an external examination, of one of the following examination boards:

a) University of Cambridge Advanced Level General Certificate of Education;

b) Royal Society of Arts;

c) City and Guilds of London Institute;

d) University of the West Indies School of Education. Trained Teachers' Certificate Examination. The academic structure of the college is illustrated in Figure 5.4.

The college was established

> "in order to integrate training at tertiary level and thus to achieve certain advantages such as economies in the use of classroom space, in library services and facilities, in administration and staffing while simultaneously providing more course options for all trainees." [50]

Whether the college has been able to fulfil the task set at its inception has provoked mixed responses from both staff at the college and at the Ministry of Education. Some, while recognising the so-called teething problems that are typical of such educational innovations, nonetheless maintained that the potential of the college was not being fully utilised. [51] A senior official of the Department of Education, commenting on the annual intake of the commercial

department of the college remarked that as "the most popular department, the annual demand for places far exceeds the supply." If one is permitted to use enrolment patterns (Table 5.12) and the results of external examinations as indicators of the State College success and effectiveness, then by examining carefully the data presented in the tables in this paragraph, one should be able to form an informed opinion of the level of efficiency of that institution.

5.6 Empirical Research Section (Antigua)

a) Introduction

An attempt is made in this part of Chapter Five to examine the 'programme' that has been offered to student teachers by the Teachers' Training Department at the Antigua State College. 'Programme' is here defined as all the educational ingredients that are combined to produce the end 'teacher product'. These ingredients are the content of the compulsory subject areas, the tutors who teach the courses, the students themselves, and the support system provided by the Ministry of Education, Educational personnel from the School of Education, U.W.I., library facilities, equipment, and the physical facilities available to students and tutors.

b) How the study was conducted

In conducting this part of the research, the assistance of key members of the Department of Education staff was enlisted. Those persons included the zonal Education Officers, the Educational Planner, the Acting Statistical Officer and the Chief Education Officer. The three zonal Education Officers have been in constant

TABLE 5.12 CURRENT ENROLLMENT OF THE ANTIGUA STATE COLLEGE (JUNE, 1988)

Departments	First Year				Second Year			
	M	F	*A-B	Others ✓	M	F	*A-B	Others
Teacher Education	5	20	25	-	2	22	24	-
"A" Levels	27	41	65	3	22	29	51	-
Commercial	13	76	84	5	11	56	67	-
Engineering	38	-	37	1	49	2	51	-

*Antigua/Barbuda ✓Other Eastern Caribbean Territories

Source: Ministry of Education, St.John's Antigua.

TABLE 5.13 A BREAKDOWN OF STAFF AT ANTIGUA STATE COLLEGE (JUNE, 1988)

Status	M	F	Degree	Non-Degree	Established	Non-Est.	Contract
Nationals	17	20	18	19	37	-	-
Non-Nationals	4	3	3	4	-	7	2
TOTALS	21	23	21	23	37	7	2

Source: Ministry of Education, St.John's, Antigua.

contact with teachers and principals in their respective areas, and as such are the persons at the Ministry who might know them best, professionally, and have a close working relationship with them. It was for that reason that they were chosen. The others were identified because they have had greater access to the information this writer needed.

The questionnaires to be completed by trained teachers, (QB) principals, education officers/supervisors (QA) were distributed and collected by the three zone education officers, who returned them to the writer through the Chief Education Officer. Those questionnaires which had to be completed by tutors in the Teacher Training Department at the State College were distributed, collected and returned by a tutor at the College. Questionnaire (QC) which is the questionnaire responded to by 'Teachers in Training' was distributed and collected by a 'non-intimidating' member of staff from the Department of Education. A tutor at the College, in her absence, permitted that person to use one of her class periods to have student teachers complete the questionnaire. That was done in keeping with the request of this writer to ensure that the necessary conditions for validity and reliability were met, and that the identity of respondents remained anonymous.

Because the criteria and rationale used in determining the nature of the Antiguan samples are identical to those used in Grenada, there is no need for any elaboration here as to why they were chosen. However, it might be useful to state that those who assisted in

carrying out the survey were asked to explain to the respondents why they were asked to complete the questionnaires. Questionnaires were delivered to the respective persons during the third week in January, 1988, and were returned at the end of February, 1988.

c) Results of Survey: Existing Professionals (Antigua)

The findings from the survey among Trained Teachers (QB), and Principals, Tutors, Education Officers/Supervisors (QA) are reported together when it is necessary or convenient. Data obtained from 'Teachers in Training' (QC) would be presented afterwards.

Of the 90 educators who responded to questions I, II, III in QA and QB, and to question IV in QB, females dominated, both in terms of overall numbers, as well as in administrative positions. This is brought out in Table 5.14 below.

TABLE 5.14 DISTRIBUTION OF EDUCATORS WITHIN THE SAMPLE THAT RESPONDED TO QUESTIONNAIRES, QA AND QB

Categories of Educators	Male	Female
Teachers	8	58
Principals	3	12
College Tutors	2	5
Education Officers	-	2
TOTALS	13	77

Based on the data given above, one may argue that if this is a true reflection of the male/female ratio in the teaching service in Antigua as Table 5.14 tries to illustrate, then the question of male models for boys in the schools, as discussed by Miller [52] in relation to a similar situation in Jamaica, becomes critical here.

TABLE 5.15 DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS, ACCORDING TO GRADE AND SEX, 1986-1987 (ANTIGUA)

SEX	GRADE AND NUMBER OF TEACHERS				
	Principal	Graduate		Non-Graduate	
		Trained	Untrained	Trained	Untrained
Male	15	75	42	35	15
Female	41			224	64
TOTAL	56	75	42	259	79

Source: Department of Education, Antigua (Adapted).

In response to question IV (QA) 11 (or 73.3%) of the 15 principals who responded claimed that between 50% and 100% of the trained teachers in their schools were either very successful or successful, while 4 (or 26.6% of the sample) felt that between 25% and 50% of trained teachers in their school should be so labelled. When the responses to question IV (QA) are compared, on a one-to-one basis, with the responses given to question XIV (QB) by trained teachers, significant differences emerge. For instance, whereas 66.6% of trained teachers rated themselves as successful/effective, only 46.6% of the principals

felt that their trained teachers be described in that way. Yet, when the two sets of responses at the upper end of the scale in QA are compared with those at the upper end of the scale in QB, there is a difference of only 6%. Table 5.16 attempts to equate the rating scales used, and to bring out similarities and differences in the responses of trained teachers and principals to an inherently similar question.

Just a cursory glance at the evaluation techniques used by trained teachers to indicate their perception of their professional competence might reveal that the greatest number of them used 'self-evaluation' and 'students' grades' as major criteria. After an examination of those criteria used by respondents of questionnaire A (QA), 'students grades' appeared to be the single most commonly used criterion by teachers, principals, college tutors and education officers for determining teachers' competence. This is shown in Table 5.17, although 'observation' is the technique most favoured by principals, and 'self-evaluation' by teachers.

When it was found from the data on Grenada that 'observation' was the technique most commonly used by more than one group, and 'students' grades' as being a highly favoured criterion, a common teacher training background was offered as a possible explanation for the similarity in preference. Can a similar explanation suffice in the Antiguan situation?

TABLE 5.16 A COMPARISON OF THE RATING OF 'TRAINED TEACHERS' BY PRINCIPALS AND TRAINED TEACHERS (ANTIGUA, 1988)

a) Principals: QA No. 4:- What percentage of formally trained teachers that you supervise do you rate as successful/effective?

Rating Category	Frequency of Response	
	No.	%
(i) Under 25%	-	-
(ii) 25% - 50%	4	26.6
(iii) 50% - 75%	7	46.6
(iv) 75% - 100%	4	26.6
TOTAL	15	

TABLE 5.16 (Continued)

b) Trained Teachers - QB No. 4:- How do you rate yourself as a teacher?

Rating Category	Frequency of Response	
	No.	%
(i) Not successful/effective	-	-
(ii) Average	13	20.6
(iii) Successful/effective	42	66.6
(iv) Very successful/effective	8	12.6
TOTAL	63	

TABLE 5.17 RESPONSES OF EDUCATORS, (ANTIGUA) TO EVALUATION CRITERIA USED

Criteria/Techniques	Teachers	Principals	College Tutors	Education Officers
Observation	-	15	5	2
Students' Evaluation	29	7	2	2
Students' Grades	33	10	6	1
Peer Assessment	-	1	1	-
Principal's Evaluation	22	-	-	-
Self-evaluation	44	-	-	-
Other	-	3	-	1

Of the 64 teachers who responded to question VI (QB), 100% underwent formal teacher training in Antigua, as well as 100% of the primary school principals, 100% of the College tutors and 100% of the education officers in the sample. Added to this, although 56 (or 84.8% of the 66 teachers in this sample), had formal teacher training for a period of two years, the form and nature of that preparation, plus the number of years teaching experience for many of them would have been different, as is brought out in Table 5.18.

Four of the five teachers in the sample who indicated having more than 2 years formal teacher preparation have had an additional year of training in England. No doubt all of the above factors, might influence educators' preferences for certain evaluation techniques and criteria. Furthermore, the fact that an education officer

TABLE 5.18 YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE, AND DURATION OF TEACHER PREPARATION (ANTIGUA)

No. of years Teaching experience	No. of teachers	No. of Years Teacher Preparation	No. of teachers
Less than 5 years	5		
6-10 years	15	1 year	5
11-15 years	7	2 years	56
16-20 years	25	3 years	4
21-25 years	6	4 years	1
26-30 years	5		
Over 30 years	3		
TOTAL	66	TOTAL	66

and three principals wrote clinical supervision, discussion with teachers, lesson preparation and feedback as other means of evaluating teachers' competence, might be supportive of this view. While each of the above evaluation techniques and criteria will obviously have its inherent strengths and weaknesses, as is suggested by several pieces of research, how effectively they are used will depend on the level of professional competence of those engaged in the evaluation process.

One of the striking features of the response to question VII (QB) is that although 100% of the trained teachers sampled were trained in Antigua, and 84.8% for a period of 2 years, the variations in the number of weeks of practice teaching sessions which they have undergone, do not seem to reflect either a common country of training

or the usual period of 2 years. Yet, when one considers that the form and nature of teacher training, and the training institutions in Antigua have undergone changes over the years, and that the teaching experience of respondents ranged from less than five years to over thirty years, one may better understand the apparent contradiction which Table 5.18 and Table 5.19 might seem to be reflecting.

TABLE 5.19 VARIATIONS IN (A) FORMS OF TEACHER TRAINING, (B) PRACTICE TEACHING SESSIONS, UNDERGONE BY TRAINED TEACHERS: 1956-1986

Forms of Teacher Training	No. of Teachers	Weeks of Teaching Practice	No. of Teachers
Full-time College	56	1-3	14
Part-time College	10	4-6	5
In-Service	0	7-9	19
Other	0	10-12	18
		Over 12	3
TOTAL	66	TOTAL	59

It would seem that in spite of the changes that have occurred in the nature of teacher preparation in Antigua over the past twenty-five years, the programmes offered seemed to have had similar positive effects on the teachers who experienced those programmes, assuming of course that the 53 positive responses to question XII (QB) are indeed a true indication of their demonstrated competencies. But if academic background is a necessary pre-condition for being 'well prepared to teach', as the School of Education, U.W.I., and recent research

evidence in the Commonwealth Caribbean seem to be suggesting, and if 'well prepared to teach' also implies the demonstrated ability to obtain better than average results in the primary schools examinations then, how 'well prepared' and how 'effective' many trained teachers are, might be debatable. It is a sobering thought that not less than 98% of the Common Entrance classes are taught by trained teachers.

While a breakdown of the responses to question X (QB) revealed that 22 (or 40% out of 55 respondents) possessed less than the minimum entry requirements to obtain the U.W.I. endorsed teachers' diploma, an examination of the answers given to question XI (QB) showed that between 54 and 57 trained teachers, out of a sample of 66, taught the four core subjects (Mathematics, English Language, Social Studies and Science), in the elementary schools curriculum.

TABLE 5.20 ACADEMIC QUALIFICATIONS OF TRAINED TEACHERS AND THE SUBJECTS TAUGHT BY THEM IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS (ANTIGUA)

Academic qualification	No. of teachers	Subjects Taught	No. of teachers
Less than 4 G.C.E/CXC	22	Language Arts	57
4 and more G.C.E/CXC	17	Mathematics	54
University/College degree	10	Social Studies	54
Other	4	Science	55
		Other	5
TOTAL	56		

What is being suggested here is that the deficiencies in the academic background of those trained teachers might well militate against teachers' ability to make effective and 'positive' use of teaching methods, a fact which was discovered during the practical teaching sessions of the University of Hull Certificate of Education programme in the British Virgin Islands (1987), and by this writer, when a tutor at the Grenada Teachers' College (1976-1978).

When principals, college tutors and education officers were asked to indicate the subject in which students in the schools or educational system did

i) best (QA VII)

ii) worst (QA VIII), and

iii) the subject in which further teacher training was needed (QA IX), the responses indicated in Table 5.21 were given.

TABLE 5.21 THE PERCEPTION OF PRINCIPALS, COLLEGE TUTORS, EDUCATION OFFICERS/SUPERVISORS ON THE SUBJECT DONE BEST, WORST, AND THE SUBJECT IN WHICH FURTHER TEACHER PREPARATION IS NEEDED.

Subject	Best Performance	Worst Performance	Further Preparation
Mathematics	0	16	19
Language Arts	15	3	6
Social Studies	4	4	8
Science	6	0	6

Whereas Language Arts was considered as the subject in which students performed 'best', Mathematics was given as the one in which students did worst, and the one in which further teacher training was needed.

All the evidence that is available to this writer lends support to these findings. Firstly, as was already stated, out of a total of 746 teachers in the education system of Antigua in 19
are female. Earlier in this chapter, reference was made to research on the relationship between academic achievement and teaching competence. That same piece of research by Joseph revealed that:

> "Although sex differences on overall academic achievement were non-significant ($t = 1.3$, $p < .10$, females were generally better than males in English Language at the end of secondary school and also in teachers' training college ($t = 2.66$, $p < 0.1$ and $t = 2.20$, $p < 0.05$ respectively), while differences in favour of males reached significance in Mathematics at the secondary school level ($t = 2.53$, $p < .01$) and in science at the teachers' training college level ($t = 2.76$, $p < .01$). All other sex differences in the academic subjects were non-significant. $p < .5$. The combined sex differences in the professional subjects were, however, significant in favour of females ($t = 3.48$, $p < .001$)." [53]

The implications for teaching in Antigua should, therefore, by clearly brought out by the evidence cited, and as such do not need any further explanation. A question such as: 'can you imagine the effects on a class of 11 year olds, being taught mathematics by a professionally skilled female teacher, whose academic background in English is excellent, but poor in mathematics' may help further to reinforce the idea of how much damage can be done when the academically incompetent are given professional skills to transmit that incompetence.

Secondly, from an interview conducted by this writer with 23 of the 66 trained teachers who filled in questionnaires, it was found that 3 (or 13%) had obtained a pass in either the G.C.E. 'O' level or CXC mathematics examinations; also that while 5 claimed to have had a "good grounding in arithmetic", [54] they "could not get either algebra or geometry done". [55] The remaining 15 teachers in that sample had dropped mathematics early in their secondary school careers, "because it was too difficult to understand" and also their mathematics teachers were "just hopeless". [56]

This writer is convinced, based on discussions with students and mathematics teachers at the British Virgin Islands High School and principals and teachers from Antigua and the British Virgin Islands, that the unsatisfactory performance in mathematics, generally, is not simply as a result of a negative attitude by students to mathematics per se, but perhaps mainly because of a fear and the accompanying deeply rooted frustration, generating a kind of mental paralysis in relation to the subject.

The observations that:

> "Most students who entered form I were ill-prepared to cope with year I Secondary School Mathematics..." [57]

and that, in as much as:

> "Mathematics was not a compulsory subject might have encouraged students not to be concerned to carry the subject beyond Form III." [58]

TABLE 5.22 LEVEL OF AGREEMENT AMONG PRINCIPALS, EDUCATION OFFICERS/ SUPERVISORS, COLLEGE TUTORS IN RESPECT OF DESIRABLE TEACHER COMPETENCIES, (ANTIGUA, 1988)

NO.	COMPETENCIES	A Agree	D Disagree	N Neutral
1	Love of teaching and children	19		2
2	Dedication/commitment to the profession	21		-
3	Motivator/catalyst/inspires and stimulates	21		-
4	Sociable/approachable/has a sense of humour	19		-
5	Good communicator/explains very well	20	1	-
6	Thinks positive of self and students	21	-	1
7	Innovator/Initiator/is creative	20	-	1
8	Flexible/Adaptable re teaching (techniques/ situation)	21	-	1
9	Kind, Fair, Friendly, Firm	20	-	1
10	Evaluates self and students regularly	21	-	1
11	Co-operates with peers, parents, community	20	1	2
12	Prepares work thoroughly	21	-	1
13	Competent in subject area(s)	21	-	1
14	Demonstrates sound, mature judgement in reaching decisions	21	-	1
15	Uses a variety of methods/approaches in teaching	21	-	1
16	Sees and treats students as individuals	22	-	-
17	Enables students to compete with self so as to realise fullest potential	20	1	1
18	Respects the views of students, peers, parents	21	1	-
19	Very patient listener and keen observer	21	-	1
20	Tactful/a strategist	20	-	2
21	Makes maximum use of available resources	21	-	1
22	Uses rewards and punishment effectively	20	1	1
23	Accepts and nurtures divergent thinking	18	2	1
24	Knows the children that he/she teaches	21	-	1
25	Sees and uses the class as a resource unit	17	1	3
26	Sets realistic goals which challenge students	22	-	-
27	Has effective class control	22	-	-
28	Always seeks new knowledge/open to suggestions	22	-	-
29	Sensitive to students needs	22	-	-
30	Instils feeling of self-worth within students	22	-	-

might suggest that 'what goes around comes around', and that, unless decisive actions are taken at all three levels (teacher preparation, elementary and secondary schools), the problem of mathematics teaching and learning could remain an 'educational cancer' within the system in Antigua.

The responses to question VI (QA) have shown that principals, Education officers/supervisors and College Tutors in Antigua have accepted, as very important for success in teaching, the 30 competencies and qualities listed in Table 5.23.

Admittedly, there are cases when respondents preferred to remain neutral, but only in seven instances is disagreement expressed, and in all, but one case, by the same respondent.

The 'ingredients' of effective/successful teaching numbered 1, 4, 11, 20 and 25 received the least positive responses (77%-86%), with No 25 being the least popular among that group of educators (77%). However, when teachers responses to the same question (QB XIII) are examined, the competencies receiving the least degree of consensus are Nos 4, 11, 14, 17, 20 and 23.

Although one can argue that those competencies which reflect popular acceptance are the ones less likely to generate controversy in terms of universal acceptance, when some of the 'least popular' competencies are examined (viz. 11, 17, 20, 23), one might find it difficult to understand why under 25% of this sample regarded them as

TABLE 5.23 LEVEL OF AGREEMENT AMONG TEACHERS IN RESPECT OF DESIRABLE TEACHER COMPETENCIES (ANTIGUA, 1988)

NO.	COMPETENCIES	A Agree	D Disagree	N Neutral
1	Love of teaching and children	61		1
2	Dedication/commitment to the profession	59		2
3	Motivator/catalyst/inspires and stimulates	54		5
4	Sociable/approachable/has a sense of humour	51		8
5	Good communicator/explains very well	59		1
6	Thinks positive of self and students	58		1
7	Innovator/Initiator/is creative	53		6
8	Flexible/Adaptable re teaching (techniques/ situation)	55		4
9	Kind, Fair, Friendly, Firm	58		2
10	Evaluates self and students regularly	57		3
11	Co-operates with peers, parents, community	49	1	9
12	Prepares work thoroughly	56	1	4
13	Competent in subject area(s)	57		3
14	Demonstrates sound, mature judgement in reaching decisions	51	1	8
15	Uses a variety of methods/approaches in teaching	60		2
16	Sees and treats students as individuals	60		2
17	Enables students to compete with self so as to realise fullest potential	47		10
18	Respects the views of students, peers, parents	53	1	5
19	Very patient listener and keen observer	53		7
20	Tactful/a strategist	49		9
21	Makes maximum use of available resources	59		3
22	Uses rewards and punishment effectively	52		7
23	Accepts and nurtures divergent thinking	48	1	7
24	Knows the children that he/she teaches	58		3
25	Sees and uses the class as a resource unit	54		7
26	Sets realistic goals which challenge students	57	1	1
27	Has effective class control	61		1
28	Always seeks new knowledge/open to suggestions	58		3
29	Sensitive to students needs	59		2
30	Instils feeling of self-worth within students	59		2

of least importance in 'a successful teaching act'. A reason that can be offered to explain this reaction is tied to the perception of 'teaching'. To some teachers and educators (as is stated in the first chapter of this thesis), 'teaching' is an act that is restricted to classroom behaviours only. According to this view, any behaviour which cannot be explicitly related to 'classroom located' teaching and learning activities are irrelevant and non-contributory to an assessment of the effectiveness of the teacher.

From this, therefore, it would seem that the importance or significance of a competence or a quality in the teaching-learning process cannot be held to be absolute or given, but instead is determined by the experience, circumstances and predispositions of the learner. In other words, it is the learner who by his/her progress gives true significance and importance to the teaching behaviours of the teacher. If this argument is accepted as being valid, then any viable teacher education programme must reflect this position.

d) Results of Survey: Teachers in Training (Antigua)

Although a few student-teachers failed to respond to some questions in a limited number of instances, a total of 38 student-teachers returned completed questionnaires. Of that number, 7 were males and 31 females who came from 23 of the 31 government elementary schools in the State of Antigua, and whose teaching experiences ranged from 1-10 years. By referring to Table 5.23, it becomes evident that most of the student-teachers, 32 (or 86.4%), have had between one and five years teaching experience, with 15 (or 40.5% having two years, and 8

(or 21.6%) having 3 years practical experience in the classroom.

TABLE 5.24 YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE OF 'TEACHERS IN TRAINING'. (ANTIGUA, 1988)

Years of Experience	No. of teachers
1-4	30
5-8	5
9-11	2
TOTAL	37

It seems reasonable to assume that 'years of teaching experience' have been determined by the age of that group of students, for when one looks at the age distribution of the 37 students who made up that sample, 26 (or 70%) were between the ages of 20-25 years, with 7 (or 18.9%) within the 26-30 year age group, and 3 (or 8%), being over 30 years old. Only one student was under 20 years old. (See Table 5.25).

TABLE 5.25 AGE DISTRIBUTION OF 'TEACHERS IN TRAINING'. (ANTIGUA, 1988)

Age (Years)	No. of students
Under 20	1
20 - 25	26
26 - 30	7
Over 30	3
TOTAL	37

When the compulsory retirement age from the government service in Antigua is taken in account (60 years), this sample of teachers in training could be regarded as relatively young, both in terms of chronological age and teaching experience.

In spite of the fact that "student teachers were 'hand picked' by the Ministry of Education and sent to the college", [59] academic considerations, mainly because of U.W.I graduation requirements, and pre-teacher training college courses (workshops and seminars) have been factors which have influenced the selection process. For instance, of the total student-teachers sample, 35 (or 94.5%), were exposed to some sort of pre-college course for varying periods, before they were admitted to the two-year full time teacher training programme at the State College.

TABLE 5.26 PRE-COLLEGE COURSE TO WHICH 'TEACHERS IN TRAINING' WERE EXPOSED (ANTIGUA)

Course	Teachers		Course Duration
	No.	%	
In-Service	12		1-2 weeks
Induction	8		1-2 weeks
Workshops	30		1-4 days
Other	2		2-3 days

It has been stated elsewhere in this chapter that 'In-service' courses mean something totally different in Antigua from how it is defined in Grenada. Because any seminar or workshop in Antigua is defined as

'In-service', all the courses listed in Table 5.26 could reasonably be categorised as 'workshops'.

In responding to question VI (QC), 31 (or 81.5%) of the student-teachers claimed that there were not adequate library facilities, and available resource materials in the Teacher Training Department at the State College, also that most of the available materials were dated. Yet, the remainder of those who responded to that question felt that available facilities and resource materials were adequate. One should bear in mind when trying to understand the responses of student teachers that their needs might vary with 'felt demands'. And in the case of those 6 students, the facilities and resource materials provided might, indeed, be adequate to fulfil the requirements of the college programme. Recent (1987) research findings, however, seem to suggest that the provision of equipment and material is a problem experienced by countries within the Commonwealth Caribbean. [60]

The failure of the administration to provide adequate support to students in the form of physical provision might be partially compensated for through the guidance given by tutors at the college, and by the ability of the college programme to meet the 'most pressing needs' of teachers, or so it might be interpreted, based on the responses to questions VII and VIII (QC) as set out in Table 5.27.

TABLE 5.27 STUDENTS REACTION TO ITEMS VI, VII, VIII AND XIII IN QUESTIONNAIRE C. (ANTIGUA, 1988)

ITEM NO.	I T E M	YES	NO
VI	Are there adequate library facilities and available resource materials at the teachers' College?	6	31
VII	Are you satisfied with the guidance given to you by college tutors?	20	18
VIII	Is the College programme meeting your most pressing needs as a teacher?	18	17
XIII	Principals and Education officers/supervisors should assist College tutors in assessing/evaluating student teachers when on practice teaching.	24	12

When asked whether they were satisfied with the guidance given to them by the college tutors, 20 (or 52.6%) of that sample expressed satisfaction; the other 18 (or 47.3%) were dissatisfied. As far as the college programme was concerned, 18 out of 35 students who responded felt it was meeting their most pressing needs as given in questionnaire C (IX); 17 felt it was not. The fact that only just over half of those who answered responded positively to questions VII and VIII clearly means that there are certain deficiencies/inadequacies in the teacher training programme that should be addressed.

In Chapter Four, above, it is stated that before quality guidance (or tuition) could be offered, it must be ensured that 'quality' is lodged in the giver. In the absence of more elaborate and objective

criteria, appropriate academic and professional qualifications and experience, relevant to the functions of a tutor, should indicate the suitability of the tutor for his defined Tasks.

It could be said that in order for one to determine whether or not a programme meets the pressing needs of students, one should be able to identify those needs. From a list of four supposedly 'pressing needs' of a teacher, the population sampled were asked to indicate which of those 'needs' they considered the three most 'pressing'. From the list of items given in Table 5.28 a), c) and d) appear to be the most pressing needs of 64.8%-78.3% of the student teachers who answered the question (QC IX). The item (b) which is the 'need for more content' is a pressing need for 10 student teachers.

TABLE 5.28 TEACHERS IN TRAINING REACTIONS TO ITEM IX IN QC (ANTIGUA, 1988)

QC IX: Which of the following do you consider as your three most pressing needs as a teacher?	
ITEM	NO
a) makes you better at imparting knowledge to pupils	25
b) need for more content	10
c) to be better able to understand pupils and deal effectively with classroom problems as they arise.	29
d) makes me a teacher 'for all seasons' - flexible and adaptable.	24

What is striking about the responses illustrated in Table 5.28 is that, like the Grenada sample, the perceived and felt need for content among a significant proportion of the student teachers (Antigua, 73%) is not 'pressing'. Because the responses to the items in Table 5.28 in Antigua and Grenada are very similar, the comments given in response to question IX (QC) in the Grenada survey are also applicable here. A close look at the results of the final examinations for teachers in training, of the School of Education, U.W.I, for the period 1978 to 1987, and a backward glance at the entry qualification of the student teachers in training (Antigua, 1988) might suggest that the need for content in the college training programme is as pressing as those needs in the professional areas.

TABLE 5.29 RESULTS OF TEACHERS' COLLEGE STUDENTS IN THEIR FINAL EXAMINATIONS OVER THE PERIOD 1978-1987 (ANTIGUA)

YEAR	No. of students	Fail	Referral	Pass	Referral and Failure by subject				
					English	Maths	General Science	Social Studies	Teaching Practice
1978	32	1	7	23	-	7	-	-	-
1979	38	-	8	30	-	8	-	-	-
1980	19	1	3	15	1	3	-	-	-
1981	36	2	14	20	3	13	-	-	-
1982	33	1	11	21	7	4	-	-	-
1983	14	-	-	14	-	-	-	-	-
1984	29	3	9	17	7	3	-	-	-
1985	49	1	8	40					
1986	34	3	10	21	5	5	-	-	-
1987	38	4	23	11	17	6	-	-	-

Further clarification of students' perception of the training programme at the college in Antigua was sought when they were asked to 'assess' five compulsory courses offered in their programme. The findings show that, for the five subject areas, 34-37, students either 'agreed' or 'strongly agreed' that the content of the courses offered was challenging and suitable. However, while only 14 and 9 students respectively expressed strong agreement for Language Arts and General Science, 19 and 21 students 'strongly agreed' that Mathematics, Social Studies and Education were challenging and suitable. This is illustrated, inter alia, in Table 5.30.

One might want to pose two questions here:

i) Can a course be challenging and yet not 'needed' in the context of teacher preparation?

ii) Is it possible that how well or badly a course content is taught can determine or influence whether that course content is perceived as challenging and suitable?

When asked to react to how well those courses were taught, responses ranged from what might be considered 'unsatisfactory' in Language Arts (with only 13 out of 38 students agreeing), to 'excellent' in Mathematics and Education, obtaining 'agreement' from 31 and 32 students respectively. (See Table 5.30). Social Studies and General Science have been rated as being 'fairly well taught' with a 27 and 22 response rate respectively.

There is no doubt that students, in a general way, were dissatisfied with the lack of, or limited opportunities for, feedback on how

TABLE 5.30 'STUDENTS IN TRAINING', REACTIONS TO FIVE COMPULSORY COURSES AT TEACHERS' COLLEGE (ANTIGUA, 1988)

SA - Strongly agree
A - Agree
SD - Strongly disagree
U - Undecided
D - Disagree

	SA	A	U	D	SD
A. LANGUAGE ARTS:					
1. content challenging and suitable	14	21	2	-	-
2. methodology applicable to real classrooms	12	23	1	-	-
3. course is well taught	2	11	22	2	-
4. objectives of lessons always clear	3	8	11	11	-
5. adequate opportunities to give feedback on how course is taught	2	5	15	12	-
6. course is necessary	18	17	-	-	-
B. MATHEMATICS:					
1. content challenging and suitable	19	16	2	1	-
2. methodology applicable to real classrooms	13	22	3	-	-
3. course is well taught	13	18	5	1	1
4. objectives of lessons always clear	3	22	8	3	1
5. adequate opportunities to give feedback on how course is taught	3	11	14	8	1
6. course is necessary	22	16	-	-	-
C. GENERAL SCIENCE:					
1. content challenging and suitable	9	24	3	1	-
2. methodology applicable to real classrooms	7	19	10	1	-
3. course is well taught	6	16	11	3	-
4. objectives of lessons always clear	3	19	10	2	-
5. adequate opportunities to give feedback on how course is taught	3	14	10	10	1
6. course is necessary	20	17	-	-	-
D. SOCIAL STUDIES:					
1. content challenging and suitable	19	17	2	-	-
2. methodology applicable to real classrooms	13	18	5	-	1
3. course is well taught	11	16	9	1	-
4. objectives of lessons always clear	8	15	10	1	-
5. adequate opportunities to give feedback on how course is taught	5	10	11	18	2
6. course is necessary					
E. EDUCATION:					
1. content challenging and suitable	21	16	1	-	-
2. methodology applicable to real classrooms	15	22	-	-	-
3. course is well taught	10	22	5	3	-
4. objectives of lessons always clear	8	21	5	3	-
5. adequate opportunities to give feedback on how course is taught	7	15	7	8	-
6. course is necessary	20	15	-	-	-

courses were taught by tutors in the teacher training department at Antigua State College. Education was the only course which, over 50% agreed, provided adequate opportunities for feedback. And although this might not be sufficient evidence to come to any firm conclusion about a direct relationship between opportunities for student feedback and students' perception of how well a course is taught, the evidence here seems to suggest that such a relationship can exist (Refer to Table 5.30, especially under the sub-heading 'Language Arts'). What is also worthy of note here is that the highest percentage of disagreement on any item in this survey was on the question of opportunities of feedback.

To the 'progressive' educator, this would appear very strange, especially as available evidence emphasises the importance of feedback to learning effectiveness and students' performance:[61]

> "If there ever arises the 'teachable moment' in class discussion or other instructional situations, it is that period following a pupil's response to a question."[62]

Of course, there are many reasons why feedback from students might be limited or non-existent. Some may have to do with the tutor's teaching style or incompetence, or lack of confidence, or still, the tutor's genuine desire to 'complete' a course within a certain time frame, and to permit time for feedback or discussion might delay the time set for completion.

In an attempt to ascertain students' opinion on the relevance of methodology courses, they were asked to respond to whether such courses were applicable to their classroom situation. When their responses are considered, a very favourable attitude towards methodology in all subject areas, is seen. For example, all 37 students who responded to this question (QC X) agreed that the methodology course in the Education 'Sector' was taught in such a way that they saw how it could be applied in their local settings. Language Arts and Mathematics fell within a positive response rate of 35 (or 94.5%) students while Social Studies and General Science were less favoured with 31 (or 83.7%) students and 26 (or 70%) students respectively.

Yet, when one compares students' response to:

i) 'Course is well taught'; and

ii) 'Methodology applicable to real classroom',

there is a more favourable response to b) than a) in all instances. Based on this difference, but consistency in response, the impression can be given that tutors, especially in Language Arts, seem less able to transmit to their students 'content' in a way that makes it real and easily understandable, as seems to be done in methodology.

Of course, one could try to explain the reason(s) for that difference by reference to three points raised earlier in this chapter, namely,

i) 81.5% of the sample are female;

ii) females do better in professional than academic subjects in terms of teacher training;

iii) the 'content base' of a high proportion of this sample is generally weak.

But is any of i), ii) or iii) above the real reason for the existence of the difference between methodology and content? Is it possible that teaching methodology through a course content could have more positive and lasting effects on students' understanding of that content, and on students' ability to better apply the methods learnt to any real situation? It is possible that the main reason for a greater difference within Language Arts is the fact that methodology and content are taught by different tutors.

Arising from Table 5.30 is the fact that all five compulsory courses offered by the teacher training department have been regarded as necessary parts of the curriculum. This is illustrated through the overwhelming positive response to each of the five compulsory subjects offered. In no instance is the positive response less than 94.5%. But such 'strong positive reaction' to the necessity for those courses might appear to be in conflict with the 'weak response' given to 'a pressing need for more content'. This, however, does not necessarily have to be a 'situation of conflict'. On the contrary; for it can mean that because four of the five compulsory courses offered are already satisfying the need for 'content', 'content' ceases to be 'a most pressing need'.

When a concept like 'Teacher Preparation' is mentioned, the thought of 'clarity of objectives' may come to mind, as objectives can be thought of as being critical to the process of teaching. It might, therefore, cause concern when as many as 22 out of 38 student teachers indicate that the objectives of lessons taught by teacher-educators are not always clear. Who should be clear about the objective(s) of a lesson can sometimes be a source of controversy as there seems to be, as yet, no consensus on this matter.

Among the many studies undertaken on stating/clarifying instructional objectives, the work of Duchastel and Brown, [63] Gagne and Rothkopf [64] and Royer [65] have found that when students are informed of instructional objectives prior to the formal beginning of a lesson, they tend generally to remember what was taught better than those who were not told. Other studies, for example, that were undertaken by Kaplan [66] have also claimed that the more specific the objectives, the more effective the learning process.

On the matter of 'practice teaching', students are divided on that issue. For example, none of the options listed in question XI (QC) received more than 35% of the students' responses. A similar situation exists with question XII (QC), except that the highest percentage response in favour of any single item is somewhat higher (45.9%).

TABLE 5.31 A BREAKDOWN OF RESPONSES TO ITEMS IN QUESTIONS XI AND XII (QC) (ANTIGUA, 1988)

QUESTION XI		QUESTION XII	
Preferred Time for Practice Teaching	No. of Teachers	Preferred Duration of Practice Teaching Time	No. of Teachers
Every term	8	Nine weeks	17
3rd, 4th, 5th	13	Twelve weeks	9
3rd, 5th only	7	Sixteen weeks	1
Other	6	Other	10
TOTAL	34	TOTAL	37

The question on closer partnership between college tutors and education officers, during the final practice teaching exercise, reflected a ratio of 2:1 in favour of joint assessment. (Table 5.27). When a similar question was posed to both college and Ministry officials, feedback similar to those of the students was given.

To conclude this questionnaire (QC), a question, eliciting students' opinion on a form of teacher training that might be most effective, was posed. Of the reactions given to the three suggested types, 'Full-time In-College' proved the most popular choice, with 21 of the 36 teachers that responded favouring it. While 'Part In-Service and Part In-College' obtained 13 positive responses, 'In-Service only' was least favoured with only 3 student teachers opting for it.

When one is aware of the fact that, unlike Grenada, Antigua does

not have a formalised in-service teacher education programme, one understands why it was a least favoured choice among student teachers. But although Antigua does not have such a programme which offers professional training leading to certification, two types described as 'one off' and 'serial' [67] have in fact been organised. The purpose of these forms of in-service training, which run for varying periods, of one to four weeks, is to enable teachers to keep abreast of new demands in education. [68]

Before any concluding statement on the findings obtained in Grenada and Antigua is attempted, the writer will examine the context of educational development in the United States Virgin Islands, and the teacher education programme offered at the University of the Virgin Islands.

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43. ibid.

44. Based on this study (data on students' performances in examinations and practical teaching performances) and on comments this writer obtained from teacher educators in Grenada, Antigua and the USVI.

45. For example, Joseph, Cuthbert (1987), "Predicting Competence in Teaching with the aid of Academic Achievement", in: Bulletin of Eastern Caribbean Affairs, 1987, Vol.13, No.1, pp.37-41; see also: Mitchelmore, M. (1984) Caribbean Journal of Education, Vol.11, No.1.

46. See: Woods, P., op.cit., also:
Wragg, E.C. (1982) A Review of Research in Teacher Education, NFER.

47. ibid.

48. Knowles, J. (1988) Educational Planner, Ministry of Education, Antigua (interview).

49. ibid: also several retired school principals and elementary school teachers in Grenada and Antigua.

50. Report on the Education Division, 1955-77, p.57.

51. Opinions expressed by the small sample of educators interviewed in Antigua.

52. Miller, E. (1988) "Marginalisation of the Black Male - Insights from the Development of the Jamaican Teaching Profession", Caribbean Contact, Vol.15, No.11, p.15.

53. Joseph, op.cit., p.40.

54. Reactions of 'trained' teachers interviewed, 1988.

55. ibid.

56. ibid.

57. Report on the Education Division, 1983-85, p.36.

58. ibid.

59. Comment obtained by this writer from an interview with senior education personnel.

60. Richardson, A. (1987) "Perceived Problems of Eastern Caribbean Student Teachers", in: Bulletin of Eastern Caribbean Affairs, Vol.13, No.1.

61. See, for example, Nuthal, G., op.cit.

62. Levin, T., with Long, Ruth: Effective Instruction, (Association for supervision and Curriculum Development), p.15.

63. Duchastel, P.C. and Brown, B.R., (1974) "Incidental and Relevant Learning with Instinctional Objectives". Journal of Educational Psychology, Vol.66, pp.481-485.

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68. ibid.

CHAPTER SIX

EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN THE DANISH WEST INDIES AND THE UNITED STATES VIRGIN ISLANDS

6.1 Introduction

The Danish West Indies and United States Virgin Islands, in this study, refer to the same physical land mass of the three saintly Virgins: Thomas, John and Croix. Although the names might imply masculinity, in the minds of Virgin Islanders there is nothing that could be further from the truth, for 'Virginity', in the 'Virgin' Islands sense is not associated with 'maleness' or manly qualities or attributes. Therefore, when one is first introduced to the 'Virgin' Islands and the story behind its 'naming', one is confronted with a paradox that is not simply inherent to the names and nature of the islands, but to the very existence and past experiences of "our islands of paradise". [1]

The claim that:

> "Artists are captured by the physical beauty, sportsmen by the glistening seas and weather, and plain working people by the promise of hassle-free living. (And that) the Virgin Islands charmed Christopher Columbus, and.... thousands of settlers ever since.... why should you be immune?" [2]

is no idle claim or boast, because the story of the United States Virgin Islands/Danish West Indies is a bitter-sweet story of the price paid by these islands, because of their invitation 'to charm',

but their unwillingness/resistance 'to being charmed'.

6.2 Location and Size

Situated almost 65 degrees West longitude and approximately 17 degrees North latitude, the United States Virgin Islands' closest neighbours are Puerto Rico, which is about 40 miles to the West, and the British Virgin Islands which are less than 10 miles from the St. John's docks. St. John and St. Thomas, which share a shorter distance from each other's sea port, are 36 and 40 miles respectively from St. Croix. Map 6.1 attempts to illustrate this clearly.

The United States Virgin Islands, which have a total land area of 132 square miles, comprise over 50 islands and cays, with St. Croix, St. Thomas and St. John being the three main islands. St. Croix, the largest of the Virgin Islands, with an area of 82.2 square miles (22.7 miles by 6.6 miles) is almost two thirds of the land area of the United States Virgin Islands. St. Thomas, the second largest has a land area of 28 square miles (13 miles by 4 miles). It is also the home of the capital city, Charlotte Amalie. St. John with an area of 20 square miles (9 miles by 4 miles) is the third largest of this group of islands. It is the United States Virgin Island that is physically closer to Tortola, one of the British Virgin Islands, than it is to any of the other two larger United States Virgin Islands. Such physical closeness has helped to engender over the decades a close emotional relationship. [3]

MAP 6.1 LOCATION OF THE VIRGIN ISLANDS IN RELATION TO EACH OTHER, AND IN RELATION TO OTHER CARIBBEAN LANDS

Source: Gloria Bourne (Ed) (1987), The Settler's Handbook for the U.S. Virgin Islands, Douglas S. Burns Productions.

6.3 Demographic factors and other Socio-Economic Considerations

The United States Virgin Islands have been described as a pluralistic society, having within people of different racial and ethnic background: Jewish immigrants, Puerto Ricans, mainland Americans (whites and blacks), Europeans, Arabs, Orientals, immigrant groups from the neighbouring Caribbean and native Virgin Islanders. [4] It is a 'melting pot' that is not really melting, but which Trollope referred to as an "Hispanic-Dano-Niggery-Yankee-doodle population." [5]

Many plausable explanations have been advanced in an effort to try to make sense of what had become a critical situation with some potentially explosive content. Migration patterns, for example, greatly influenced by the need for labour during the 1920s (when "Virgin Islanders emigrated to seek better employment opportunities elsewhere in the West Indies and in the United States..."), [6] and the economic boom in the United States Virgin Islands during the 1960s, have been given as the single most influential factors in this population 'mix-up'.

Charles Turnbull, reviewing the situation, reminded the reader that "outside labour was sought and encouraged" because

> "there was not sufficient labour to build, serve and maintain the hotels, guest-houses, housing projects and in general to shore up the infra-structure to meet the ever increasing demands of the new economic activities." [7]

Unfortunately, those immigrants who were 'sought' and 'encouraged' to go to the Virgin Islands, especially West Indian 'bonded aliens' were treated as unwelcome guests, and were likened to the 'untouchables' in the Hindu caste system. The only right they seemed to have been given without grudge was the right to labour. In describing the plight of these 'aliens', Varlack stated that they were

> "the despised and rejected of the society (....referred to as 'garrotts' and denied any civil rights and total access to community services...)" [8]

Another event that also contributed significantly to the rapid and sustained population growth, and indirectly to that 'social disease' was the Immigration and Nationality Act of 1952 which, when modified in 1956 to permit the entry of five categories of workers from the British Virgin Islands, was mistakenly extended by immigration and naturalization officials to workers from French, British and Netherland West Indies. The immediate effect of that 'mistake' was felt in every 'corner' of the society, for the period 1960 to 1975 revealed some staggering population statistics. There was a sudden shift in population density on St. Thomas from 506 persons per square mile in 1960, when the population was 31,000, to 1372 persons per square mile in 1975, an overall increase in population, in just over 15 years, of about 188 per cent. [9] (Refer to Table 6.1). With that kind of population, St. Thomas emerged as the second most densely populated island in the Caribbean. [10]

TABLE 6.1 POPULATION OF THE VIRGIN ISLANDS, 1917-80

Year	Total Population	32 Sq. miles St. Thomas	20 Sq. miles St. John	80 Sq. miles St. Croix
1980	96,569	44,372	2,472	49,725
1970	62,468	28,960	1,729	31,779
1960	32,099	16,201	925	14,973
1950	26,665	13,813	749	12,103
1940	24,889	11,265	722	12,902
1930	22,012	9,834	765	11,413
1917	26,051			

While the effects which that has had on the educational system in the territory will be examined later in this chapter, it might be useful at this stage to point to the inter-relationship among the population, the economy, the topography, and lives of Virgin Islanders. In St. Croix and St. John, agriculture has been a dominant economic activity among the inhabitants, from as early as the first half of the seventeenth century. That has been so because of the available flat lands and suitable soil for agricultural pursuit. With such ideal conditions, many estates (especially sugar cane) developed throughout the islands of St. Croix and St. John. St. Thomas, on the other hand, being mountainous and having poor quality soil, made its economic contribution through the significance of its port as a trading centre.

After assessing the economic situation of that island, Pere Rabat wrote about St. Thomas:

> "This little island has a very considerable trade, which is chiefly due to the fact that the King of Denmark is neutral in most European wars, and the port is therefore open to all nations. In peace-time it is the head-quarters of trade which the English, French, Dutch and Spaniards dare not carry on openly in their own islands, and in wartime it is a refuge for merchant ships chased by Corsairs. It is in St. Thomas, too, that prizes captured too far to Leeward to bring to the islands are sold. So the merchants profit by the misfortunes of the vanquished and share the spoils of victory with the conquerors. Apart from this, many ships owned in St. Thomas trade along the coasts of the main-land and return laden with silver in bars and specie. All this trade fills the stores with merchandise and makes St. Thomas a very rich island." [11]

But as trade flourished within the island, planters on St. Thomas who were convinced that their success lay in the field of agriculture simply moved to St. Croix.

The theory has been advanced that the difference in exposure of the islanders to two different kinds of economic activities on the respective islands have had lasting effects on the character of each island, and have produced communities with different perception, orientations and identities. The view is that Cruzans, having been exposed to a plantation economy, seemed to be more tolerant to feudal practices than St. Thomians whose livelihood was based mainly on trade. They, it was argued, tended to be "more self-respecting, self-confident and individualistic." [12] This theory, no doubt, seems to bear some relationship to the view that social consciousness is determined by one's social condition. [13]

While that theory might have been accepted as valid and unquestionable during the nineteenth century, to pretend, in the 1980s, that it does not fall in the realm of mythology, and hence could be challenged and rejected in the light of later developments, [14] is to attempt to validate that which has no basis in reality. And, although it is not the intention of this writer to debate that issue here, the fact that the Cruzans slaves, and not the St. Thomanian slaves, seized freedom in 1848 for all slaves in the Danish Virgin Islands, [15] seems to suggest a greater potential for 'self-respect, self-confidence and individualism' among the products of the plantation economy. That is, however, if one accepts the proposition that a struggle to obtain one's freedom is a struggle to demonstrate qualities like self-respect, self-confidence and individualism.

However, in spite of the argument about the social qualities and predispositions of Cruzans and St. Thomians, St. Thomas, during the nineteenth century flourished as a commercial centre simply because of its strategic position: it happened to be "the place on the way to every other place." [16] Yet, one may want to argue that because of its 'unfortunate' strategic position, St. Thomas, and not St. Croix or St. John, became a 'warehouse' for foreign values and cultures, "being host to every kind of ship and sailor on the open seas." [17]

By 1917, however, the Danish West Indies had lost, in the eyes of Danish entrepreneurs, its economic attractiveness. St. Thomas was no longer important as a coaling station and transit trading

centre, and its revenue had drastically decreased. [18] The once prosperous sugar industry on St. Croix and St. John was destroyed during the slaves' struggle for freedom, and by natural disasters. And despite the efforts made from 1848 to revive that industry, there were negative forces at work which made it extremely difficult for the industry to regain prominence.

With a somewhat bankrupt economy, all those who had previously viewed the islands as a haven left, and the islands, which had enjoyed a period of great economic prosperity, were by 1917 a great economic liability to the Danes. As a result, Denmark was quite willing and ready to rid herself of that burden. Jarvis summed up the situation in this way:

> "There was a full-grown social and economic problem reasing on its haunches, kicking, snorting and waiting for the cowboy with rope and saddle." [19]

That situation made it relatively easy for the United States to make a long-standing dream of acquiring those islands a reality. And so, having grabbed them in conditions pregnant with "unemployment, inadequate wages and even hunger", [20] the United States administration set up structures, and tried to create opportunities, to provide employment for as many 'local people' as was possible. By 1921, annual federal aid to the territory had reached about $350,000. However, most of the federal aid was funnelled through the Virgin Islands company (a company specially set up as part of the action plan to restore vibrant and lasting economic activities on the islands).

Rehabilitation programmes with emphasis on agriculture, tourism and related activities were implemented. Unfortunately, the measure of success hoped for from those programmes was not realised. [21]

Although the World War of 1939-45 created a situation that led to favourable economic conditions in the territory, those soon evaporated when the war ended. At that point it seemed to have become clear that tourism offered the best opportunity for stimulating the economy, and providing a solution to a situation that even then could be described as one in which there was "widespread and chronic unemployment of a stranded community without capital and resources." [22]

1953 was to usher in a dramatic change in that situation. The tourist industry, which in the latter part of the 1980s is still considered the most crucial economic sector (touching every facet of life in the territory), [23] gave the economy the boost it needed so badly. Employment opportunity increased significantly, and the long yearned for economic revival could be felt deep within the fabric of the society, making the 1960s the decade when "the people of the Virgin Islands achieved the greatest progress in their history." [24]

The Organic Act of 1954 also gave a shot in the economic arm of the islands for it made possible the return to the islands treasury of a portion of the money collected by the Internal Revenue Service in taxes, and "the duty-free entrance into the United States, under specified conditions, of Virgin Islands exports." [25]

A community which once exhibited widespread and chronic unemployment became by 1961 an economy of surplus employment, a situation brought about by the proper nurturing of the tourist industry and agricultural sector, experimentation with a few light and heavy industries, and by governments policy of recruiting to the public service a great percentage of the labour force.[26] The result of all this was to create a labour shortage, and the obvious need to 'import' labour.

Like all other Caribbean societies that experienced slavery, the United States Virgin Islands have not escaped the negative effects of racial and social stratification. But, unlike under Danish rule, when social positions more than race were the overriding consideration,

> "the American presence in the islands brought the harsh polarising terms of white-black dichotomy, increasing the awareness of race as a basis for invidious distinction and causing a gradual change from the pluralistic West Indian system to the simplistic American one."[27]

But even to the 'lay observer', these signs of social underdevelopment by the American empire should be no surprise, for the stated objective of the American 'occupation' was the Americanization of the islands on West Indian soil.[28] That naturally implied cultural penetration and diffusion, and is spelt out in the American idea of 'Manifest Destiny'.[29]

Research evidence points to a gradual 'submerging' of Virgin Islands traditional ways of life by American values and cherished beliefs. For example, in 1943 research findings on the character of the society claimed that while there was strong evidence to suggest "social cleavages", the existing culture was in general not significantly affected by American ideas and values, and that while traces of those values could be found in pockets within the society, the native culture dominated. [30] However, the current views point to greater and more rapid erosion of many traditional values, especially among the young generation of Virgin Islanders. [31]

Whether the destruction of Virgin Islands indigenous culture, and traditional ways of life, is the price that must be paid for 'progress' that is externally generated and controlled, is a question one might like to ponder. But another more fundamental question the true islander educator ought to consider seriously is: To what extent is the 'type of education' offered to Virgin Islanders responsible for their willingness/unwillingness, or ability/inability to resist, neutralise, accommodate or be swamped by foreign values and ideas that have the potential to destroy that which contributes towards giving one an identity? If it is true, as it has been suggested, that the process of the diffusion of American ideas and influences is made easier because of "the peculiar plasticity of Virgin Islands character", [32] what steps have been taken by the educational system to give 'constancy' and 'direction' to Virgin Islands character? If what Marvis Brady said is true, then the future can

appear to be dim. Referring to education in the United States Virgin Islands, she wrote:

> "certain events of the recent past would suggest that education has become the victim of prevailing circumstances, rather than being the change agent it can, and should be." 33

A great deal of the literature on the social climate in the United States Virgin Islands points to a situation of entrenched contradiction, and an apparent helplessness of the indigenous people. And it is all bound up in something which can be labelled 'a high standard of living', which association with the United States might guarantee, but with a docility price tag, which the islanders seem unwilling to pay. Because of this conflict, the white continental is described as being:

> "bound by the intransigent superiority complex of Anglo-Saxon civilization, which makes it difficult, if not impossible, for him ever to shed in any real sense his conviction of the innate sanctity of all things generally Anglo-American." 34

It would appear that although the Virgin Islands is 'home' to various racial and ethnic groups, white Americans, a minority group of about 10,000, have refused to melt in the Virgin Islands melting pot, and as such are perceived to be the greatest negative force in the host society. And one speaker brought this out very clearly when he accused the white American of finding:

> "little in common with native Virgin Islanders and makes no serious effort to bridge the cultural gap that separates us. He is one of many migrants from many places and has little sense of responsibility to this community....It would be difficult to find a mainland city the size of St. Thomas where the business community is as disorganized and as lacking in civic spirit as our mainland white-dominated business community here." [35]

Of course, other groups have contributed to the social and cultural tension within Virgin Islands society, but they seem more able and willing to integrate, and to accept the racial and cultural mix as natural, even when some migrant groups were being treated with open hostility, and with no respect by the indigenous population. The group that, it is said, has suffered the greatest indignities were West Indian 'bonded' aliens. [36] Even the offspring of that group found it at times impossible to obtain admission to the public school system.

Several theories have been offered to exolain why West Indian groups, more than any other, including American whites, have been the victims of Virgin Islanders hostility. One such view that for a long time the indigenous population maintained a relaxed and over-confident posture, supposedly because of their American status. And while they slept, West Indian migrant groups, conscious of their lack of status in the society capitalised on every opportunity they seized. That attitude generated great fear and insecurity among the less able section of the native population, who felt that they were "between two massive jaws - the aliens and their fairer counterparts." [37]

This writer believes that the tendency of West Indian cannibalism among Virgin Islanders might help to explain the escalation in the erosion of an indigenous Virgin Islands/West Indian culture, something which might lead eventually to the ultimate destruction of a Virgin Islands identity.

If one shares the view that some degree of West Indian cannibalism is inherent within Virgin Islands society, then economics, and not racism, might be the main cause of the social uneasiness that seemed to have troubled that society for some time. So when Gerard claimed that:

> "Racism does not exist; economic exploitation is a fact of daily island life; poverty abounds in many quarters; functional illiteracy is assuming alarming proportions; and the opportunity to participate fully in our economic and social life is not open to all members of the society", [38]

he is not only supporting the position suggested by this writer, he is also spelling out an agenda for education in the Virgin Islands. Yet, one can argue that the single most powerful factor at work in Virgin Islands society is the political factor.

6.4 A Brief Note on Political History

It has been suggested that if there are dependent territories in the Caribbean in the 1980s that appear to suffer from a 'nationality crisis', then the United States Virgin Islands can seriously be

thought of as a candidate that displays a tendency towards that malady. No doubt many Virgin Islanders who are themselves victims of that reality might be prone to claim otherwise. Yet, the history of those islands lends strong support to the above suggestion.

The United States Virgin Islands have experienced a social, economic and political history that is similar to that experienced by the rest of the Caribbean. They were victims of the same exploitative processes, and the recipients of later humanitarian efforts that were to help compensate for their earlier sufferings. [39]

On his second voyage, Christopher Columbus visited the islands on November 13, 1493 and claimed them for Spain. But Spain made no attempt to establish any permanent settlement. That might have been so either because the Caribs were perceived as too dangerous, due to a brief encounter which Columbus had with them, or because the islands offered no real prospects of wealth, which is more likely since the Caribs were later exterminated. [40]

By 1625, however, about 600 Dutch and English 'settlers' visited St. Croix and became actively involved in agriculture and trade. But between 1665 and 1667 there was open conflict between the two groups, when the Danish king assumed the right to give to Erik Neilsen Schmidt a charter to colonise St. Thomas. The British put an end to the occupation of St. Thomas by the Danes in 1667, but they returned five years later and, with an agreement between England and Denmark, carried on a very lucrative trade there from 1672. [41]

As was stated above, the unsuitability of the soil in St. Thomas for agricultural pursuit forced Danish planters to look to St. John and St. Croix for more productive lands. With both islands offering a very fertile potential, the Danes 'occupied' St. John in 1776 and purchased St. Croix in 1733 from the French who by them had sole ownership rights. [42]

The Danish West Indies experienced great prosperity up to the first half of the nineteenth century, and was therefore in no mood to accept offers by the United States to purchase the islands then. However, when the islands' tide of fortune turned and became an unbearable economic burden the Danes happily alighted them on the United States, who was willing to pay Denmark twenty-five million dollars for the strategic importance of the islands. The United States took control of them in March 1917, a few days before she entered the first World War. [43]

Under Danish rule the governor of the islands had absolute power as regards how the islands were governed. Although an advisory council with limited legislative power was set up in 1852, and residents who owned property were given the franchise in 1865 they had little influence, and could effect little or no change because of the autocratic power of the governor, and the small number of registered voters (701 from a total population of 26,000 in 1916). [44] It would seem, therefore, that under Danish rule the question of direct power-sharing by planters and the 'local people' was never

an issue that required any serious consideration by the administration. To a certain extent, when the United States assumed control a similar situation existed, at least for the duration of the First World War.

When the United States purchased the Danish West Indies, the First World War had been on for over three years. Because that purchase marked the United States entry to the war, and "because the islands had been purchased for their strategic position in naval warfare", [45] it was thought to be safe to place the islands "under the administration of officers commanding the naval station established there." [46] The decision to have the islands under a military administration could also be defended on the grounds that the United States government did not have the time at that point to work out any clearly defined policy as regards how the islands should be best governed. After some time, however, it became clear that it was not part of the United States plan to give the 'natives' a say in determining their own political future. As far as the governor at the time was concerned what was really important for the islanders, in the process of development, was "owning homes, plots of ground and bank balances, than in ballot boxes and autonomous government." [47]

Nonetheless, the question of political status for the newly acquired 'subjects' had to be settled. Apart from being enthusiastic about the anticipated improved social and economic benefits which Virgin Islanders expected of their new 'master', they looked forward to becoming American citizens. But that was not to be achieved before 1927 and not without a great struggle. Dookhan noted that the

> "the terms of the sales treaty were not intended to confer United States citizenship on all Virgin Islanders, but only on those who were Danish citizens." [48]

What that really meant was that the descendants of the slaves (the mass of the population) were not provided for in the treaty. The United States Department of State, therefore, offered that mass of Virgin Islanders "protection of the United States government, but not to the civil and political rights of citizens of the United States." [49] That reluctance to grant full American citizenship to Virgin Islanders seemed to have been based on a basic belief, and fear, among United States officials that if the utmost caution was not taken in the extension of the franchise to 'native' Virgin Islanders, there would be "political control by a class that to a large extent is irresponsible, superstitious, and backward in every way." [50]

When American citizenship was finally granted to them in 1927, it was influenced by an unsuccessful attempt to annex the Virgin Islands to Puerto Rico. That action was supported by politicians and "Danish interests on the islands were opposed to the Americanization policy of the naval administration." [51] It was felt by those involved that in as much as Puerto Rico already had United States citizenship, annexation would offer political benefits for the ordinary Virgin Islanders, as well as entrepreneurial possibilities in the area of labour and capital. [52]

The federal government, realising that Virgin Islanders were conscious of the implications of citizenship, and that the naval

administrator had outlived its usefulness, established a civil government for the islands in 1931 headed by a governor. That decision, however, did not satisfy the desire of Virgin Islanders to have a 'meaningful say' in how their lives were being affected. So, in 1936, the United States Congress passed an Organic Act for the islands which made provisions for the temporary system of government, and made it possible for Virgin Islanders to struggle realistically for some degree of political autonomy. One year later, a political party was formed to contest the 1938 Virgin Islands election. It swept the poll, winning all seats in the Virgin Islands legislature. [53]

It has been argued that, in spite of what might easily have appeared to be a new acquisition of peoples power, turned out to be less democracy for Virgin Islanders when the Organic Act was revised in 1954; for the revision of the Act, it is claimed, tied their hands. [54] As far as Lewis is concerned, the Act was nothing but "a piece of retrogressive congressional legislation." [55] What the revision of the Act did was to give a new status to the islands in the title of an 'unincorporated territory'. This meant that while the Virgin Islands maintained their status as a territory, they became totally incorporated in the United States, being subjected to all aspects of the American constitution, and federal laws. The most serious area of conflict engendered by that revision appeared to have been the post of governor. In as much as the President of the United States continued to appoint the governor, the question of responsibility to the 'local people' was bound to generate concern,

especially when the governor took directives from, and reported to, the Secretary of the Interior.

However, hope for greater autonomy surfaced in 1970 when the first local governor was elected by 'the people'. But eleven years later (1981) a political survey revealed that while 13% of a sample of the population expressed a strong desire for political independence, 75% were opposed to that idea.[56] That feeling which seemed to have been popular among Virgin Islanders found expression in the words of one senator when he advised:

> "We must continue to improve our relationship with the United States and obtain a greater measure of home rule without giving up the benefits which we now have."[57]

In 1980 a Status Commission was set up 'to produce a draft federal relation Act', dealing with United States-Virgin Islands political relations. Seven options are given the local electorate for consideration. Among them are:

a) political independence

b) free association

c) statehood

d) status quo (Unincorporated Territory)

e) Incorporated Territory

f) Commonwealth

g) Compact of Federal Relations

After a process of public education on the implications inherent within each option, a referendum is slated for late 1989, when the will of the people will be expressed. It has been suggested that from its adoption in 1917 to the present time (1980s), the political status and national identity of the Virgin Islands has been the most burning political issue in United States-Virgin Islands relationship.[58]

6.5 The Development of Education

Introduction:

Educational provisions in the United States Virgin Islands, like other West Indian territories, have been affected by economic factors, as well as social and political considerations. The fact that they too were slave colonies imposed similar constraints on the nature of the territory's educational development, although it has been claimed that educational provisions in the Danish West Indies were better than those provided in the British territories during the first two decades after emancipation.[59]

In this part of Chapter Six, a description and evaluation of educational provision and development, under Danish and American rule, will be attempted. Whether the experience imposed on the islands by these imperial governments could be credited with the strengths and weaknesses of the Virgin Islands educational system in the 1980s might be determined after a close look at the nature and quality of those educational experiences.

6.5.2 General or Elementary Education:

Education on the islands under Danish rule dates back to 1697, but education as it existed at that time was provided for the children of whites and freed people of colour, not for blacks and slaves. And although mission schools for blacks were established on the islands from 1732 by Moravians and supported by Lutheran missionaries, popular education, with the blessing of the State, became a public concern in 1787. In assessing the work of Moravian educators, Murphy pointed out that from 1732 to 1828

> "the Moravians laboured virtually alone to bring the rudiments of an education to the negroes on these islands." [60]

But the efforts of the Moravians might not have produced the results obtained had it not been for the support given to them by the governor at that time, Peter Von Scholten. Von Scholten had "worked in co-operation with the Moravians for twenty years", being deeply interested in the development of the islands and the people. Reports claimed that just before 1839, Von Scholten signed an agreement in Germany with the authorities of the Moravian church entrusting them with the responsibility of beginning free and compulsory education on St. Croix. [61] In a sense, therefore, it is reasonable to state that the legality of education was formalised in 1839, when it became compulsory for blacks attaining the age of six years to be at school until they attained the age of 12 years. However, when the School Ordinance of 1875 was passed, the school leaving age was raised to 13 years.

The onset of compulsory education led to a demand for more school places and physical facilities, and although the churches doubled as church and school house, the pressure was still being felt. As a result in 1839, Von Scholten ordered eight schools to be built on St. Croix "and turned over to the Moravians so that they could instruct the negroes more effectively." [62] Because the Moravians were effective on St. Croix, the Danish king instructed the governor, in 1840, to have schools erected on St. Thomas and St. John, and to permit the Moravians to manage the schools.

Like in the British West Indian territories, the provision of education created conflict with some planters. To ensure that students did not suffer as a result of that conflict, regulation was instituted in 1847 which held

> "Managers of estates responsible and answerable for the attendance of children, and were liable to a fine for non-compliance." [63]

Without the compulsory nature underlying the provision of free education in the Danish West Indies, many planters, it seemed, would have done anything possible to ensure its failure.

Between 1859 and 1898, a series of natural disasters (hurricanes, earthquake, tidal wave, and droughts), supported by an economic depression in the islands, created a situation that made it virtually impossible for the church to continue providing the type of educational

services that were so badly needed. Hard times had arrived, and the Moravian church, which had begun to lose its tight grip on education in 1873 when "the inspectorship passed into the hands of an Anglican clergyman", [64] was forced by the end of 1879 to turn over, to the direct control of the State, all day schools that were run by the church.

But even before that 'take over' by the State, the advent of the Roman Catholics on the educational scene in 1860, while strengthening educational provisions on the islands, struck a weakening blow to the Moravians' hold on education in the United States Virgin Islands. From the early 1860s, the Catholic church had begun to make its mark on the system, with the establishment of two large day schools in Frederickstead and Christianstead. [65] And although in 1988 that church may not boast of having only "five established schools in the Virgin Islands - two secondary and three grammar" - their influence in the area of education has been felt within the territory. [66] When the dust had settled after the State assumed the responsibility for education in 1879, the Moravians who pioneered education on the islands were left with a total of 7 schools and 357 students in all three islands.

The purpose of education in the Virgin Islands, as defined by the United States administration, was to help "an ignorant and uneducated people....advance....in the scale of civilization." [67] That perception of the 'colonised', by the 'coloniser', as uncivilized was not unique to the United States administration; it was simply

following in the tradition of its European predecessors. And if the uncivilized had to be made civilized, that process could only be effective through the use of American personnel. And in a Department of Education report, the governor was reminded that:

> "The value of the American teacher cannot be overstated. They possess a command of the English language and American ideals and standards that are very useful to the classroom. One of the objects of the public school is to make the pupils good prospective Americans. No-one can do this better than the American teacher." [68]

The value of language in transferring values and ideals would have appeared to be of utmost importance to the American administration on the islands. And the task of the American teacher, no doubt, might have been made easier in as much as English creole, and not Danish or Dutch was the linguistic medium through which the natives of the islands were taught, and through which they preferred to communicate, even under Danish rule.

Since English was the lingua franca of the Lesser Antilles, and because England in the eighteenth century "was the greatest trading nation in the New World, and the Lesser Antilles existed on trade",[69] English became more than the language of the traders, it was "the language in which they (the slaves) were eager to communicate." [70] Native Virgin Islanders, therefore, seemed ready to make easy the Americanization process through its educational programmes. And America seemed willing to spend significant sums of money to expand and broaden the elementary school base, and to make high school

education a right for all Virgin Islanders. [71]

The amount of money needed to finance such an ambitious and worthwhile educational programme placed too great a strain on federal appropriations to the islands; as a result from 1917 to the 1980s added financial support had to be obtained from foundations, the local treasury and from various groups and individuals. [72] Of course, while the fluctuation in expenditure on education over the years, and especially during the period 1917 to 1940, might have been due in part to the administration's inability to provide adequate funds, unwillingness and reluctance on the part of certain key officials seemed to have been another major obstacle. The impression is given that the whims and fancy of officials who controlled the finances of the territory were greater determinants of how much money was spent on education, rather than more objective criteria like the needs of the society.

In one of his reports, Arthur Linberg stated that:

> "In some quarters among the local people, there is a determined effort to reduce the amount of money spent on education. This influence is felt in official circles, and is a factor in determining how additional money may be distributed." [73]

That kind of criticism and implicit cry for greater financial support for educational development on the islands continued by successive governors [74] and commissioners of education. [75] One commissioner

who felt the financial squeeze during the 1930s, protested saying:

> "The apathy of the islands businessmen, the representatives in the councils, has made impossible grants sufficient to provide the many things, which are essential if the educational needs of the pupil are to be satisfied." [76]

One theory suggested that the unwillingness of community leaders to try to obtain, and make available, more funds for educational projects might have been due to a conspiracy among some negroes in key positions in society who feared "the rapid development of a large class of educated young leaders who might challenge their domination of local affairs." [77]

It might have been concerns like these that forced the governor at the time to make a plea for programmes that "would meet with such wide local approval as would insure adequate appropriations in the future." [78] Pearson argued that:

> "Success in this direction can come only if leaders in community though are convinced that the education program as planned can be of real value in the struggle to improve economic conditions in the islands. Cultural values are not now widely accepted as justification for the costs involved. It seems desirable that this local opinion should be so modified that it will recognize the value of and give support to some degree of cultural training, but until it is modified, the situation as it is must be faced." [79]

With time and improved economic conditions, more federal and local funds were released for educational programmes, as Table 6.2 attempts to show.

Turnbull, referring to 1965-66, claimed that:

> "At no other time during the period under review (1917-1970) was there such a dramatic increase of funds within a one-year span." [80]

While Table 6.4 points to increases in expenditure on education over the years, additional expenditure on education, without relating it directly to students' needs and the demands of the system, could be meaningless. What might be more useful is to examine the educational provisions undertaken by the United States government in the Virgin Islands, since 1917, and the reactions of some significant others in the system who have evaluated those provisions in relation to societal needs.

When the United States assumed responsibility for the Virgin Islands, the educational system inherited from the Danes was said to be inadequate in curricular and physical facilities, and far from desirable. [81] There were three state owned elementary schools and 17 grant-aided schools, offering some form of education to approximately 2,300 students on the three islands. Added to these were ten dame schools, and 5 other elementary schools that were owned and operated by the Roman Catholic church. [82] Coupled with all this

TABLE 6.2 MONEY APPROPRIATED FOR EDUCATIONAL FINANCING, 1950s-1980s

YEAR	Source of Funding		
	FEDERAL	LOCAL	TOTAL
	$	$	$
1959-60	246,426	1,858,807	2,105,233
1960-61	283,864	2,142,812	2,426,676
1961-62	269,485	2,574,418	2,843,903
1962-63	323,971	3,154,328	3,478,299
1965-66	1,449,583	5,722,885	7,172,468
1969-70	1,567,545	11,290,185	12,857,730
1972-73	1,289,050	25,178,264	26,467,314
1984-85	15,006,214	64,701,979	79,708,183
1986-87	18,369,705	81,824,278	100,193,983

Sources: Abstracted from Annual Reports and School Statistical Summary, Department of Education, USVI, 1959-1987.

was the lack of professionalism: courses offered were said to be unstructured and without direction, as was the process of instruction.[83]

Faced with what was considered poor quality educational provisions, the government put in motion a plan to rectify and Americanize the inherited Danish system, allowing, however, the Danish school laws, that were compatible with the American constitution and laws, to function in the territory until 1921.

The process of 'rectifying' and Americanizing' seemed to have required direct control of all schools by the state, and so a director of education was appointed to man the system on behalf of the government. As if to guarantee suoport for the director of education, and to expedite the process of educational transformation, teachers were brought in from the United States, elementary and junior high school courses were transported directly from New Mexico and Utah respectively, with a bias towards practical subjects. The 'practical bias' was influenced by the belief that those subjects "should be of the greatest value to the people of these islands." [84]

The whole process of educational development and transformation under the United States administration demanded high sums of money to be spent, money that was allocated by the federal administration because it intended:

a) to raise the basic literacy level by extending the elementary school programme and building more schools;

b) to make available to every eligible Virgin Islanders a high school education, a policy that was in keeping with the American belief that secondary education should be free and open to all, if only "because education guarantees the development of a country and the well-being of its people"; [85]

c) to ensure that an adequate and qualified teaching force was available on the islands.

The aspirations and expectations of Virgin Islands seemed to have been as great as the educational needs of the islands at the beginning of the twentieth century. And the United States administration fanned the flames of those expectations, highlighting the inherited educational inadequacies, and pointing to the urgent needs of Virgin Islanders. In his first report, the governor of the islands wrote:

> "The existing system of public instruction in these islands leave everything in the way of an adequate system to be desired. The natives here need, above all else, instruction in the use of their hands, but the present school supply such instruction not at all. There is no normal school in the islands, so that natives cannot look forward to seeing their children as school instructors even if they may display the natural ability for such a profession. Practically, all the natives are too poor to send their children to the United States for advanced instruction. There is no school in the islands where children may obtain a technical schooling in any of the trades as is afforded in many schools of the United States. There is no agricultural training school nor are there any competent teachers of the people in agriculture." [86]

The description of the educational system by the governor, while pointing to the 'needs' of the islands, set the stage and created a

climate for imposing American values and ideals through educational 'software'. The question that might be pertinent here is: 'Has the American administration in the islands been able to satisfy the educational 'needs' of the islanders?' No doubt some observers might argue that if the 'perceived needs' of a people by others are not the 'felt needs' of that people, those 'needs' are likely to always exist. Has this been the case in the United States Virgin Islands? Before an attempt is made to answer this question, an overview of secondary education will be provided, and some of the educational provisions made by the United States government and the local administration, between 1917 and the 1980s, will be described.

6.5.3 Secondary Education:

Secondary education in the Virgin Islands had its beginning during the latter part of the 1870s, and, like elementary education, was started by the church. The evidence, however, suggests that there was not much in terms of secondary education on the islands, per se, prior to 1920. [87] In 1876, the 'St. Thomas College' was established by the Roman Catholic Church "for those desirous of a higher education." [88] However, because of serious financial problems experienced by the Church administrative body, that college was forced to suspend classes in 1888 for six years. But after it re-opened in 1894 for two years, it was finally closed in 1896. With the closure of the 'college', there was no serious attempt by any group to provide any form of "public secondary education until 1913." [89] That attempt was in the form of an ordinance which provided the necessary legal authority to formally establish secondary education in the territory.

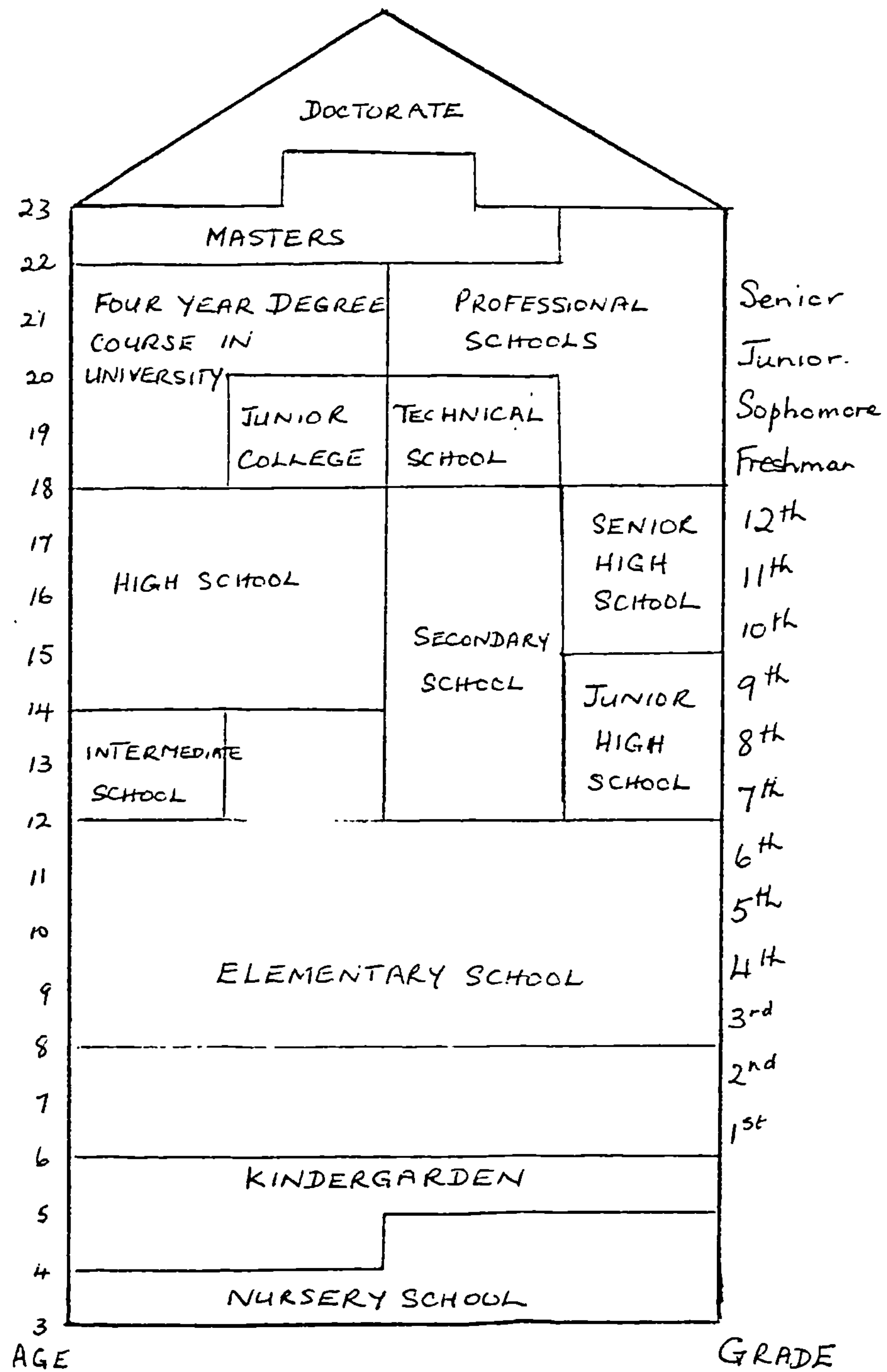
Yet, no action was taken, so when the Danes handed over the islands to the United States "there were no public secondary schools in the Virgin Islands." [90] This is not to suggest, however, that secondary education was non-existent, because around that time there was a private secondary school on St. Croix, and government, as if to encourage the growth of such schools, was offering financial assistance, in the form of aid, to any of those schools that satisfied established criteria. [91]

The American belief in free secondary education for all, within the context of its dependencies, underlines the American concept of the role of secondary education, and point to a fundamental difference in philosophies, and secondary educational provisions, between Britain and United States in relation to their colonies, even when allowance is made for the differences in wealth and number of dependent colonies. Because of those fundamental differences, the historical development of secondary education in the United States Virgin Islands has been somewhat different from the Commonwealth Caribbean.

The organisation of education in the United States Virgin Islands has been patterned on the American graded system of six years of elementary, three years of junior high and three years of senior high school (6-3-3 or K-12 as Figure 6.1 illustrates).

Except for occasions when financial stringency and "chronic problem of inadequate school plant facilities" [92] hampered the transfer process of students, the movement from elementary to secondary

FIGURE 6.1 THE UNITED STATES/AMERICAN VIRGIN ISLANDS SYSTEM OF EDUCATION



Source: U.S. Information Service, shown in: Virgin Islands Education Review, Vol.1, No.8, November 1983, p.26.

school has been 'automatic'. This should not suggest, however, that every student who spends a year in the sixth grade is promoted to the seventh grade in junior high. While ability to pay fees is not a consideration for admission to secondary education, age, academic ability and 'social factors' are some of the other conditions which must be satisfied in order to effect a promotion.

Since there is no national 'one-shot' or comprehensive 'final' examination, to mark the end of elementary education and to usher in secondary education in the United States Virgin Islands, as it is in most Commonwealth Caribbean countries, students performance at every level in the educational process is recorded and used for later reference. [93] A student's Individual Education Plan (IEP), which is a diagnosis of the student, informs the system about the students' performance over a period of time, as well as anything else that is peculiar to that student. That record of the students' potential, academic performance and other strengths and weaknesses moves with the student throughout his years at elementary and secondary school.

However, "the key to promotion is the grading system." [94] As long as a child is able to maintain a grade of 'C' in the 'promotional subjects' and satisfies the other graduation requirements at each level, that student moves on to the next grade level. While a child is at the elementary level, if, for whatever reason, that student is, seemingly, having serious learning problems, the case is referred to the school counselor for testing. This processs involves the child's

parents, school nurse, speech therapist, the child's teacher and school counselor. The result is a 'package' which is sent to Pupil Personnel Services where a decision is taken as to whether the child should remain in the mainstream of the educational system or be placed in a special education programme. When it is decided that the child is not mentally retarded, but is a 'late developer' who is producing slowly, a relevant remedial programme is instituted at the school so that the child's progress might be accelerated to enter junior high.

If a student at the junior high school level fails to qualify for promotion to the senior high school by age 16, or, if while at the senior high a student attains the age of 20 years but is not ready for graduation, because he has problems obtaining the required 20 credits, both students would be recommended/advised to attend adult education classes to complete their secondary education. There are, however, exceptional cases in which, if for some valid reasons a child was admitted to school late and his social behaviour and academic performance are acceptable, he would be permitted to remain within the mainstream of the system to complete his secondary education. [95]

Because in this system "it is illegal to have a child repeat a class more than once", [96] 'social promotion', which is based on age and the 'maturity factor', is permitted in order to enable certain students to 'move' from one grade level to another. However, the

students who are promoted in that manner are put through a remedial programme that is related to their particular need. Further, although a grade 'C' is the 'cut-off' point used to promote students at all levels within the educational system, when it was realised that too many secondary school students were failing to qualify for promotion to another grade level, during the late 1960s and early 1970s, and that great demands were being made for places at secondary schools, students with a grade 'D' in the promotional subjects were promoted 'up and out' of the system. [97]

It might be partially for this reason that the system attracted complaints that it was graduating illiterates. [98] And while one can argue that the system offered some flexibility, thoroughness, and certain limited safeguards, which are professionally healthy, yet, the system of Independent Educational Programmes (IEPs) and the tendency to depend almost totally on teacher-made tests for promotion at all levels within the system has the potential for 'non-professional' teachers to misuse and abuse that system. Fortunately, however, during the latter part of the 1980s, steps have been taken by the Department of Education and Board of Education to have teachers administer, annually, to their students, at every grade level within the system, standardized tests in Mathematics and Reading.

The main purpose of these tests is to give the educational system an idea of students' performance in relation to set national educational standards/norms, and to seek to indicate the effectiveness of teachers performance in those two subject areas. Of course, one can argue

that the fact that classroom teachers also administer the standardized tests might cast doubts on the reliability of the results obtained. In spite of that possibility, results of those tests could provide useful and 'comparable' information.

Results of the Metropolitan Achievement Tests given to third, fifth, seventh and eleventh graders in May 1987, revealed that:

> "More than half the elementary, junior high and (senior) high school students tested for Mathematics and Reading are performing below their grade levels....In some grade levels nearly 90 per cent of the students were performing below standards." [99]

Commenting on the test results, the Education Commissioner speculated about the possible causes, suggesting that the low scores could indicate unfamiliarity with Metropolitan Achievement Tests and the very limited time allowed students to do the tests. Whereas "the same tests are administered over a five-day period on the mainland", a three-day period were given in the territory, [100] it was claimed.

In 1988, in keeping with a promise made by Education Commissioner in 1987, that

> "next time we're going to have to give students text-taking techniques," [101]

results on the Metropolitan Achievement Tests (MATs) showed a slight improvement, although scores were still in the 'low-average range'

when compared with national norms. Yet, the report suggested that "there were some very significant improvement in MAT test scores in some schools." [102] A look at Table 6.3 here may help to inform the discussion.

TABLE 6.3 PERCENTAGE OF VIRGIN ISLANDS' STUDENTS PERFORMING BELOW GRADE LEVEL ON THE METROPOLITAN ACHIEVEMENT TESTS, 1987

LEVEL	ST. CROIX	ST. THOMAS/ ST. JOHN	ST. CROIX	ST.THOMAS/ ST. JOHN
Grade 3	-	-	54	71
Grade 5	-	-	51	57
Grade 7	81	72	80	79
Grade 11	75	53	87	87

Source: Daily News, 31 October, 1987.

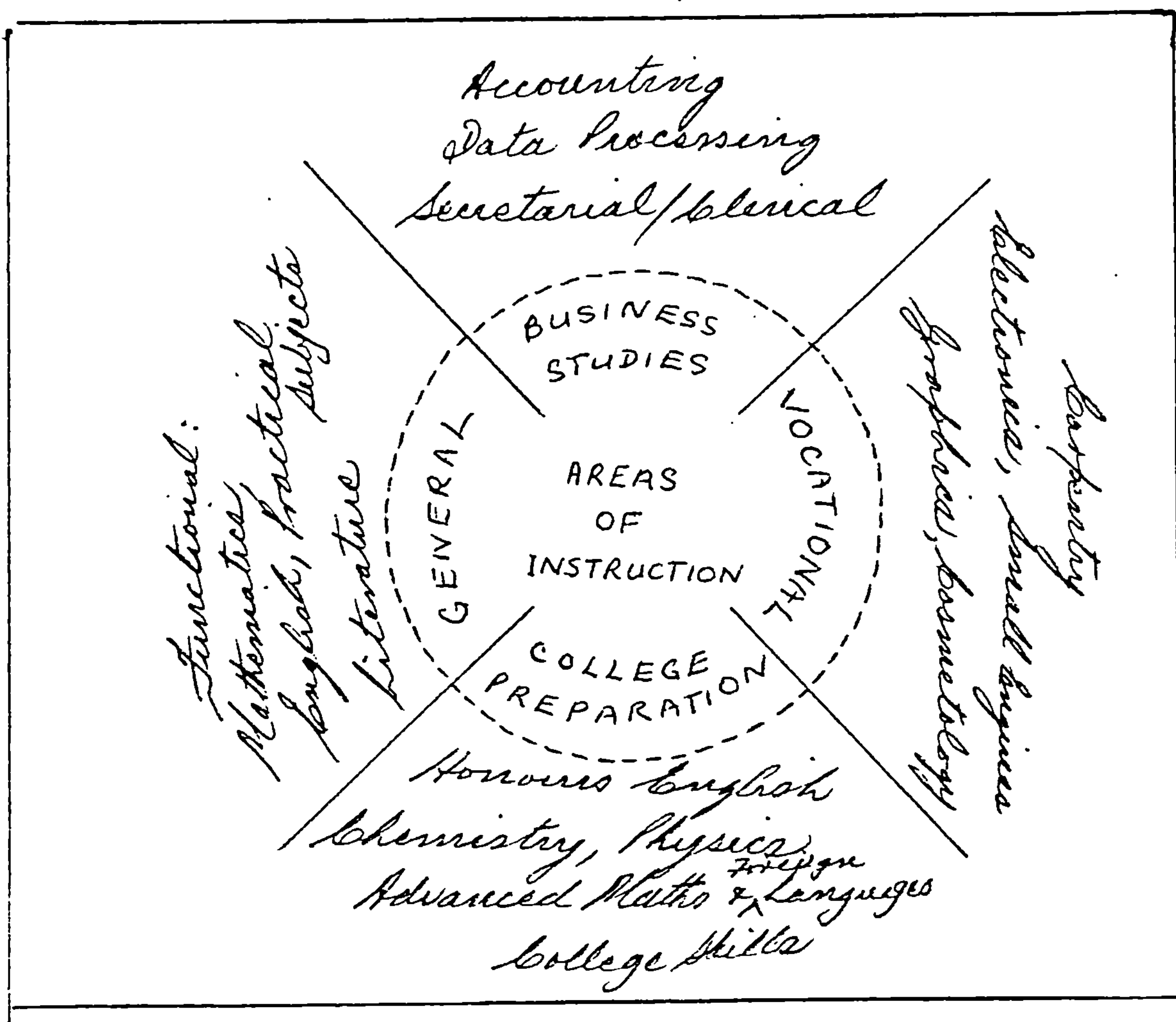
In spite of the 'slight improvement' in test scores, the Education Commissioners question: 'What's causing the poor performance on the Metropolitan Achievement Tests?' might continue to haunt teachers and administrators as they search for more fundamental answers to the question. Is it possible, one might ask, that a major cause might reside in the school curricula? If it is true, as the literature seems to suggest, that the curricula for both elementary and secondary education did not reflect the local reality, but rather the realities

of the American mainland,[103] could it contribute to poor performances among elementary as well as secondary students?

Between 1923 and 1955, the secondary school curriculum on the island was still following the State of Utah syllabus, but it was expanded to include vocational and practical subjects with some local flavour. These included boat-building, basketry, mat-making, some commercial subjects and Home Economics. In 1942, the St. Croix Vocational Institute, where most of these vocational and practical courses were taught, closed. As a result, the American Vocational Education Act of 1946 was extended to the Virgin Islands in 1950, thus making possible the introduction of trade level courses in the secondary school curriculum. Three decades later, secondary education offers four broad areas of instruction: college preparation courses, Vocational and Business courses, and General courses. Some of the components which make up each broad area are shown in Figure 6.2.

The expansion in school curricula and physical facilities has not solved the many and varied problems that have plagued the system since 1917. Overcrowding and inadequate physical provisions have continued to be the order of the day in the 1980s. This, no doubt, is due in part to the failure of the local administration to keep pace with the rapid growth in population, and the resultant excessive school enrolment. That situation arose mainly because of a heavy influx of immigrants from the United States mainland, and Puerto Rico, and as a result of the acquisition of permanent status of children of West Indian nationals resident in the United States

FIGURE 6.2 FOUR BROAD SUBJECT AREAS COVERED BY SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS (USVI) 1989.



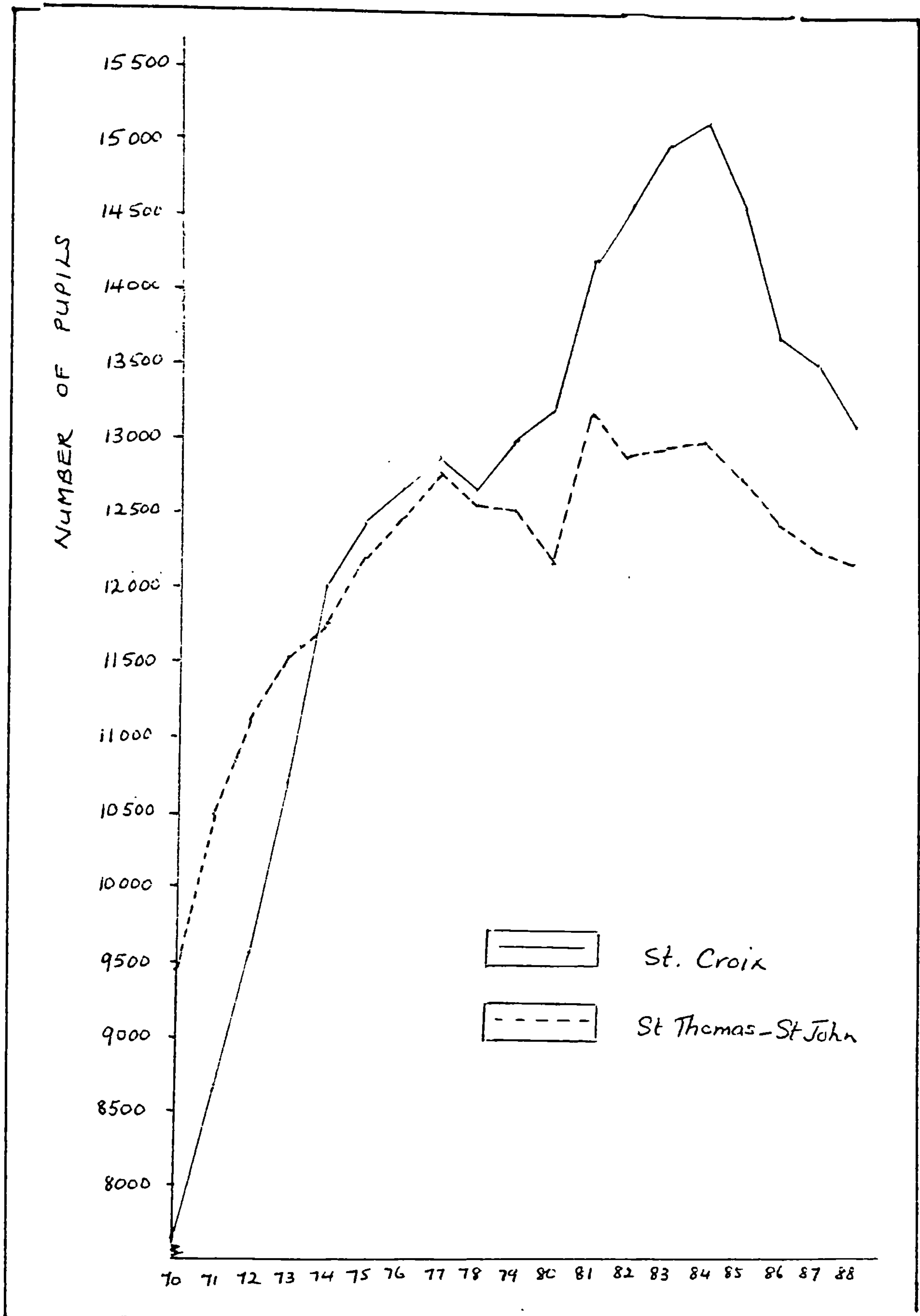
Source: Devised by Writer. Based on Information obtained from Registrar, Eudora Kean High School, St.Thomas, USVI.

TABLE 6.4 VIRGIN ISLANDS PUBLIC SCHOOL ENROLMENT, 1960-1988

Year	Kindergarten	Elementary	Secondary	Total
1960	422	4229	2198	6849
1966	792	5870	3427	10089
1970	1154	10397	5529	17080
1971	1300	11356	6427	19083
1972	1298	12589	6769	20656
1973	1495	13349	7399	22243
1974	1715	14154	7872	23741
1975	1921	14064	8659	24644
1976	1907	13688	9565	25160
1977	1963	14062	9618	25643
1978	1762	13934	9650	25346
1979	1781	13612	10230	25623
1980	1768	13417	10154	25339
1981	1859	15169	10416	27444
1982	1836	14722	10977	27535
1983	1862	14602	11534	27998
1984	1845	14316	12000	28161
1985	1878	14076	11372	27326
1986	1791	13671	10764	26226
1987	1805	13359	10661	25825
1988	1760	13204	10096	25060

Source: Annual Reports of the Department of Education, USVI, 1960-1988.

FIGURE 6.3 VIRGIN ISLANDS PUBLIC SCHOOL ENROLLMENT BY ISLAND, 1970-1988.



Source: Abstracted data from Annual Reports of the Department of Education, USVI, 1970-88.

Virgin Islands.[104] In an analysis of the situation that existed during the period 1967 to 1982, Charles Turnbull argued that:

> "Even though a considerable number of classrooms had been built since 1961, public school enrollment had increased by 44 percent. Classrooms routinely held thirty, forty and even fifty children per class."[105]

(Appendix 6I summarizes public schools constructed between 1960-61 and 1966-67).

To suggest, however, that immigrants to the Virgin Islands were the only responsible factor would be an attempt to mislead, for it was claimed that:

> "except for a few smaller units, schools were houses entirely in makeshift buildings never intended for school use."[106]

Therefore, what appeared to be 'school buildings' had to be replaced because of their fragile nature and unsuitability.

The failure or refusal of the authority to ensure a link between curricula and the local community was another serious problem experienced within the system. And despite incessant complaints by some local educators that Virgin Islands students knew more about the history of the United States than mainland students, and little about their own Caribbean history and geography,[107] and in spite of

several recommendations to reverse the situation, students on the islands were fed content that was grounded in the United States culture. [108]

That situation led to several investigations, and reports on education in the islands which pointed to the negative effects situations like these could have on the indigenous population. For example, one of the earliest reports claimed that because the people lacked an effective voice in their schools, "they lacked as well a concern with education and a sense of responsibility for its support." [109] Other reports referred to failure of the curriculum to reflect objectives that were clear, or that were adapted "to the life of the people in the islands." [110] The view that studies on the educational system would be useful only when "they are indigenous or grow out of felt needs on the part of the people", [111] could appear to be rigid and narrow in perspective, but might have been nothing more than an extreme reaction to an educationally ridiculous situation.

Embedded in the cry for 'things local' was a deep-seated contradiction, because all education directors/commissioners on the islands at that time were continental Americans, who knew not only little or nothing about the indigenous life of the islanders, but who came from backgrounds where most of the people were simply not interested or excited about the Virgin Islands and its people. That position was made clear in 1931 when it was admitted that:

> "It is difficult to get any great number of Americans excited about the Virgin Islands. They are a long way off. They 'are tiny'. They do not enter into the life of any of us. And yet our administration of this far flung group constitutes one of our greatest and one of our cruelest failures....They did not ask us to be taken into our empire. We were not out to better their condition and we did not." [112]

In spite of this admission then, and in spite of the fact that educational approaches, materials, content and goals were fastened to the American mainland culture, the lack of heightened motivation, and the evidence of underachievement among elementary and high school students in the islands is blamed on the local community. [113] In 1947-48 sub-standard teachers, sub-standard homes and sub-standard school buildings were seen as the key factors militating against good student performance. [114] Never was the foreign curricula and the Americanization process identified as the culprit. By 1971, it was felt that the educational system was so chaotic and had deteriorated to such a low level that it could not graduate anyone but illiterates. [115] The total situation existing in the late 1960s and early 1970s was summed up in this way:

> "What we see....is a strange and disheartening pattern of current philosophy of education....that can best be described as 'processing'. The children enter at kindergarten, exit at the twelveth grade (if they do not drop out), and are considered educated even if they are not. Thus going through the motions of educating becomes the actual process....When a flood damaged our already bad roads last year, a disaster was declared. Why not declare a disaster in the public school system and make a fresh start." [116]

The 1980s began with similar cries of concern. Michael Piaewousky, chairman of the Senate Education Committee, blamed school administration officials for the continued weaknesses in the system. He accused them of "throwing away money at problems" instead of really trying to solve them.[111] While one should be conscious of the political bias that is likely in the comments or accusation of politicians, when those comments seemed to reflect a similar position of respected educators in the community, then some degree of validity might be credited to those comments.

In what could be considered support for the views expressed by Piaewousky, Pearl Varlack argued that "no one is justified in blaming a lack of funding" for the existence of the ills of the system. To her the problem seemed to have existed because of:

> "an incredible amount of administrative chaos and frustration, and a pervasive attitude of resignation stemming from perceived powerlessness,"[118]

to deal with those problems through an 'holistic assault', rather than through the established piece-meal approach.[119]

From the above discussion, one might be tempted to conclude that continued weaknesses and obstacles in the process of educational development in the United States Virgin Islands resided only within the territory, rather than having been imposed from outside. And, because some of the steps taken to expand and improve education,

quantitively and qualitatively, have had a heavy 'State side' impact, the unsuspecting observer could be misled in believing and accepting that piece of mythology. It is because of that type of input, in certain areas, that many 'on-island' educators considered most of the personnel and institutions used, in the administration search for ways to 'improve' educational provisions, to be inappropriate and ineffective.[120]

Two of the significant steps taken in the 1960s to enhance education on the islands were

a) the development of curriculum projects, and

b) educational research.

Curriculum development projects, like Project Introspection, were:

> "an attempt to give some degree of indigenous flavour to the school programme, through collecting and consolidating material for use in the schools, and training teachers in the production and use of local materials."[121]

It was hoped that the findings from educational research would have been used to improve the schools on the islands. However, in every instance, the key persons (researchers and consultants) and institutions employed were non-Virgin Islanders that were non-Caribbean based. As one local outstanding educator observed:

> "Not one Virgin Islander was present
> - not even a member of the (Education)
> Board." 122

One might interpret this to mean that relevance in education programmes, and educational development in general, demands the use of educational institutions and personnel that are indeed a part of the social milieu where educational and innovations are taking place.

While in this interpretation might rest some educationally sound 'truths', it is also possible that these truths might not necessarily be applicable and hold true in all situations, for various reasons. For instance, one can argue that some 'native' educators and 'local' institutions are far more foreign and insensitive to local needs than the so-called 'foreign' educators, who, because of extended periods of residence in the host country, and objective empirical research, might be far more knowledgeable of the indigenous culture and local ramifications, and hence in a better position to advise and make recommendations, than the 'local' institutions and 'native' educators. Further, the native educators' knowledge of the political and socio-economic backgrounds of individuals, and the personal relationships established among them might cloud objectivity and induce personal prejudices in research of a certain nature.

Having argued this, and at the risk of appearing contradictory, one can also agree with the view that:

> "At least the goals of Virgin Islands
> education should be enunciated by the
> people of the islands even if help
> were needed on decisions about imple-
> mentation." 123

6.5.4 Teacher Education:

Although the formal preparation of teachers on the islands did not begin before 1901, a limited number of teachers who had been exposed to some form of training in Antigua at the Mico college, and later at Spring Gardens Teachers' college, served in the islands from the second half of the nineteenth century. [124] With that nucleus of trained teachers on the islands, an 'in-service' training programme was offered, and untrained teachers were obligated to attend classes. [125]

When the United States took possession of the islands, they met twenty teachers in the public schools. Recognizing that the level of academic and professional competence of teachers was still at the elementary stage, at that time, the administration gave as its top priority "the education of teachers to at least the minimum mainland requirement." [126] A number of approaches have been tried in the process of realising that goal. These included an in-service programme whereby teachers attended classes on afternoons during the school week, and on Saturdays. A summer programme was also organised and run by the University and Polytechnic Institute of Puerto Rico on behalf of the government of the Virgin Islands. As basic training needs were satisfied, the programme was expanded to offer teachers with the required academic background an opportunity to work towards obtaining a bachelor's degree, as prior to that local teachers having degrees was unheard of, [127] as only "meagre opportunities afforded for professional teacher-training" at that time. [128]

During that time, a concerted attempt was also made to attract high school graduates to the teaching service. That was done through the offer of scholarships by colleges and universities in the mainland and Puerto Rico, and by the government of the Virgin Islands.[129] The introduction of education courses to senior high school students, as a means of whetting their appetite for a career in teaching, was attempted during the latter part of the 1930s and early 1940s. Like similar programmes offered in Jamaica and Grenada during the 1970s and 1960s respectively, it was hoped that such a scheme would produce far more 'effective' teachers in a short time. This experiment was mainly an attempt to ease the shortage of trained teachers in the territory.

In an attempt to assess the state of the teaching profession in the Virgin Islands, as it was in the 1930s, it was found that while just over 30% of the teaching force had completed high school, 18% had obtained a bachelor's degree.[130] When compared to the 1980s, that could be regarded as a poor reflection of the quality of those in whose hands the future of the territory was placed. Yet, some of those who were part of that fraternity may argue that they were far more 'qualified' for their task, than today's teachers appear to be. And if one subscribes to the view that

> "qualified teachers in our system are defined not only by credentials, but by the variant needs of our student population and the demands of our society,"[131]

then their argument could hold true. To those who might be determined to argue otherwise: Are the teachers of the 1980s 'qualified' to deal effectively with the ever-changing demands that are being made on the educational system in the United States Virgin Islands? Is it possible that the rapid rate at which teachers are being produced could make it very difficult to develop within them the requisite 'ripeness of maturity' that the 'teacher of all seasons' must possess?

Between 1940 and 1963, despite a slight fluctuation in credential accumulation, the rate at which teachers obtained first degrees increased significantly. That, of course, was due in part to the great effort of the Teacher Education Association on St. Thomas, and the increased available opportunities for training in the territory. As the pace of development on the islands quickened, the demands made on the educational system for a wide range of skilled personnel, has resulted also in more/greater accumulation of credentials among teachers and others, as Table 6.5 suggests.

Through the summer institute of the Teacher Education Association at that time (1940s-1960s), many teachers were afforded the opportunities to earn credits, which they later used towards obtaining a degree, when the Carnegie Corporation made available scholarships for many of them to undertake courses at the University of Puerto Rico. [132] Because of its success, the St. Thomas Teachers' Institute became part of the municipal Department of Education in 1937, functioning as a subsidiary agency in enabling teachers, through in-service programmes to:

TABLE 6.5 CREDENTIAL ACCUMULATION BY TEACHERS AND OTHERS OVER A SELECTED PERIOD, USVI.

a) Teachers

Year	Level	Total	Doctor-rate	Ed. specialist	Masters	Bachelors	Non-Degree
1959-60	ALL LEVELS	220	-	-	-	115	105
1966-67	JUNIOR HIGH	167	1	-	32	115	19
1968-69	SECONDARY	250	-	-	41	186	23
1968-69	ELEMENTARY	269	-	-	28	108	133
1984-85	ALL LEVELS	1831	10	14	561	1030	216

Source: Annual Statistical Reports, Department of Education, USVI.

b) Others (USVI:UVI Graduates), 1965-1987

Year	Associate Degrees (AA)	Bachelors	Masters
1965	11	-	-
1966	34	-	-
1968	47	13*	-
1969	39	10*	-
1970	27	29	-
1972	36	70	-
1975	28	68	-
1976	26	82	8
1980	38	83	28
1982	55	89	39
1985	79	136	32
1986	74	123	25
1987	65	145	43

Source: Adapted based on data obtained from the Office of Internal Research, UVI.

a) finish secondary education and secure the much desired high school equivalency certificates;

b) obtain degree credits in professional as well as in academic subjects.

It has been claimed that the institute proved so successful in its training programme that by 1942-43, 73 percent of the teachers on St. Thomas-St. John combined "held either a high school diploma or a high school equivalency certificate." [133] Ten years later (1953) in spite of the many different teacher-training schemes that were in operation, only 23 per cent of all Virgin Islands teachers had a first degree. [134]

Concensus over the relatively slow rate at which qualified teachers were being 'processed' led to a grant of $225,000 in 1953 by the Ford Foundation to Hampton Institute for the purpose of training Virgin Islands teachers. That programme used a two-prong approach in its ten year teacher education drive (1953-1963). One 'prong' was designed to prepare teachers full-time at Hampton Institute on the mainland for the duration of their training; the other was an in-service teacher training scheme, conducted in the territory by professors from Hampton Institute. A teacher in the in-service programme became 'qualified' after three years of instruction.

With so much effort having been exerted on teacher preparation, one might have expected that by the early 1960s, the problem would have been almost under control. That did not happen. In 1951, the

year when 51 per cent of Virgin Islands teachers had bachelor's degrees, the islands were still experiencing an acute shortage of qualified teachers.[135] And by 1963, when taken as a whole, 13 per cent of Virgin Islands teachers had not obtained as much as two years of college credits.[136]

In terms of shortage of teachers, the situation seemed very much the same in 1986 and 1987 as it was in 1963. Gloria Gawrych, then director of staff development and training, pointed to little change in the number of public school teachers without bachelors degrees in 1986. She stated that:

> "Every time we graduate some (teachers) we pick up more (non-degree teachers). It may look as if we haven't made any progress, but that's not true."[137]

Gawrych went on to say that since the Territorial Teacher Training Assistance Programme (TTTAP) began in 1982, 66 public and private school teachers had gotten degrees, while 11 teachers obtained needed credits to meet certification requirements.[138] In 1986-87, 285 such teachers benefitted.[139]

Under the Territorial Teacher Training Assistance Programme, the tuition and course-related fees of teachers, who were non-certified in private and public schools, were paid by government so that they could attend the College of the Virgin Islands on a part-time basis. Out of a total of 658 public school teachers in the system during the

academic year 1985-86, 191 were non-degree teachers and 320 were not certified. [140] As far as the private schools were concerned, it is claimed that because they set their own rules many tended to hire teachers without degrees, thus creating a situation where about 99 per cent (or 501) of the teachers in the private schools did not have a degree. [141]

The effects of teacher shortage, especially in critical subject areas like Mathematics, Science and English, have seriously affected the senior high schools on both St. Thomas and St. Croix. [142] On St. Croix, for instance, apart from the lack of school space that has led to staggered classes, teacher shortages have caused students at Central High School to miss "weeks of classes". [143] As part of the solution to teacher shortages, the Virgin Islands is to receive "a 28% increase in federal funding to train teachers and raise them to certification standards", in 1988-89. That increase from $240,000 in 1987-88 to $307,000 for 1988-89 is part of the United States Education Department award to the Territorial Teacher Training Programme. [144]

Several reasons have been advanced for the apparent continuous shortage of qualified teachers within the system. The Director of Planning, Research and Evaluation in the Department of Education, claimed that the majority of non-degree teachers entered the teaching service during the mid-1970s when the territory was experiencing a 'population boom', and that later the Territorial Teacher Training Assistance Programme was devised to alleviate the problem of

teacher shortages.

Other explanations given included "extremely limited opportunity for professional training on the islands themselves",[145] low salaries paid to teachers, smaller student-teacher ratios, and the strong tendency among teachers from the mainland to leave the system (five times more often than local teachers).[146] When 33 per cent of the teaching force on the islands comprised recruits from the mainland, such rapid teacher turnover among them must have created distortion and serious shortages, when they simply refused to show up for classes after the summer vacations.[147]

The recurrence of those problems led to two significant educational events occurring during 1962. New York University which had a centre in Puerto Rico was given a commission by the Department of Education in the Virgin Islands to carry out a survey in the islands "to evaluate and analyse every aspect of education and to make recommendations for its future growth and development."[148] At the same time the Department of Education took two policy decisions with regard to appointments to the teaching service.

The decisions taken stated that:

a) before a teacher could secure a permanent position in the system, a first degree had to be obtained;

b) in order "to ensure stability and continuity in the educational structure", Virgin Islanders had[149] to be trained and put in critical positions within the system.

As if to guarantee support for those policy decisions, the local administration took a firm decision to establish a college of the Virgin Islands. In the meantime, New York university was commissioned

> "to supervise the advanced training of the department of education executive staff, to offer in-service training and curriculum development, and to direct a research programme centred around an experimental school in the Virgin Islands." [150]

By then, the wheels of teacher-training were developing a momentum that could not be stopped. The College of the Virgin Islands had entered the arena, and there appeared to be no turning back as far as greater opportunities for the professional training of local teachers were concerned.

6.5.5 Tertiary Education:

Like Grenada and Antigua, tertiary education in the Virgin Islands has been established to satisfy a similar need: to enable sections of the population who, for whatever reason, were unable to complete basic education, to do so. But also to provide educational opportunities at higher or different levels for persons desirous of enhancing their academic, professional or vocational capabilities.

Three 'institutions' which have made significant contributions in the area of tertiary education are the St. Croix Vocational Institute, the Adult and Continuing Education Programme, and the University of the Virgin Islands. The St. Croix Vocational Institute

which was opened in 1932 was short-lived. After offering subjects like agronomy, agricultural engineering, horticulture and many more related courses to special groups of young men, it ceased functioning in 1942.[151] The Adult and Continuing Education Programme is an 'activity centre' where "the primary purpose is to increase the literacy level of uneducated, under-educated and disadvantaged adults", who are 16 years and older.

Because the main concern of this research is teacher education institutions, special attention will not be given to any tertiary education institutions other than the University of the Virgin Islands.

6.5.6 The College/University of the Virgin Islands:

Although the idea of establishing a higher educational institution in the Virgin Islands was broached initially in 1950, it was not until 1962 that firm action was taken to bring it into being.[153]

The above discussion on the development of teacher preparation might have signalled to the reader the serious need for a local teacher education institution, but the urgent need to train an adequate number of teachers seemed not to have been the sole driving force behind the establishment of a Virgin Islands college. Varlack, for instance, maintained that the

> "Political and economic maturity of the islands in addition to increasing awareness of an identity of their own which the islanders wished to preserve, and a desire to staff the growing services with qualified natives led leading Virgin Islanders to work seriously towards establishing their own college to train needed personnel."[154]

While fulfilling the 'needs' of Virgin Islanders was the principal reason for the college's birth, it was not the only one, for it has been stated that the purpose of the college was to serve as "the development of a centre of higher learning whereby and wherefrom the benefits of culture and education may be extended throughout the Virgin Islands, the Caribbean and other areas." [155]

Whether the noble desires espoused, and the objectives given have been realised twenty-five years later might be assertained from an examination of the curricula followed in the schools in the 1980s, the academic and professional achievements of teachers in the system who are Virgin Islanders, as well as the higher educational institutions where Virgin Islanders received their training over the last fifteen years or more. Although the data representing the distribution of CVI/UVI graduates as reflected in Figure 6.5 suggest an annual output of 'resident' United States Virgin Islanders, information obtained by this writer strongly suggested that only about 20 per cent of elementary, and under 5 per cent of secondary school teachers from the USVI are trained at UVI. It was observed that 99% of vacancies occurring at the secondary school level are filled by teachers from the mainland.

In 1986, the College of the Virgin Islands changed its status to the 'University of the Virgin Islands'. It is a fully accredited institution offering a wide range of courses. However, when the College of the Virgin Islands opened its doors in July 1963 "as a two-year liberal arts institution", [156] it offered two types of programmes that were tailored to satisfy the most pressing needs of

the territory. One of the programmes offered was Teacher Education. But teachers could only complete the two-year Associate in Arts degree there. After completing the two-year liberal arts programme at the college, all teachers in that programme were transferred to the mainland to complete the bachelors degree at New York University School of Education.

How much that 'relationship' has contributed to the perpetuation of mainland values and ideals within the Virgin Islands educational system might be difficult to state in this research. What does seem certain from the literature, interviews with University of the Virgin Islands graduates and current students, and from examining the syllabuses followed, is that those ideals and values are still dominant throughout the educational system. [157]

Even when the college expanded its curriculum to a four-year programme in 1967-68, teacher education was not offered as a major area of concentration, but the education programme that was drawn up catered to teachers with a deep interest in either elementary or secondary education, "through a balanced four-year offering of liberal arts and professional courses." However, from 1973, a major in Teacher Education was offered at the college, which enabled teachers to specialize either for the elementary level (kindergarten to grade six), or for the secondary level (grades seven to twelve). Both groups of teachers followed essentially the same professional courses, but the academic demands made on secondary school teachers differed substantially from those made on teachers specializing in elementary

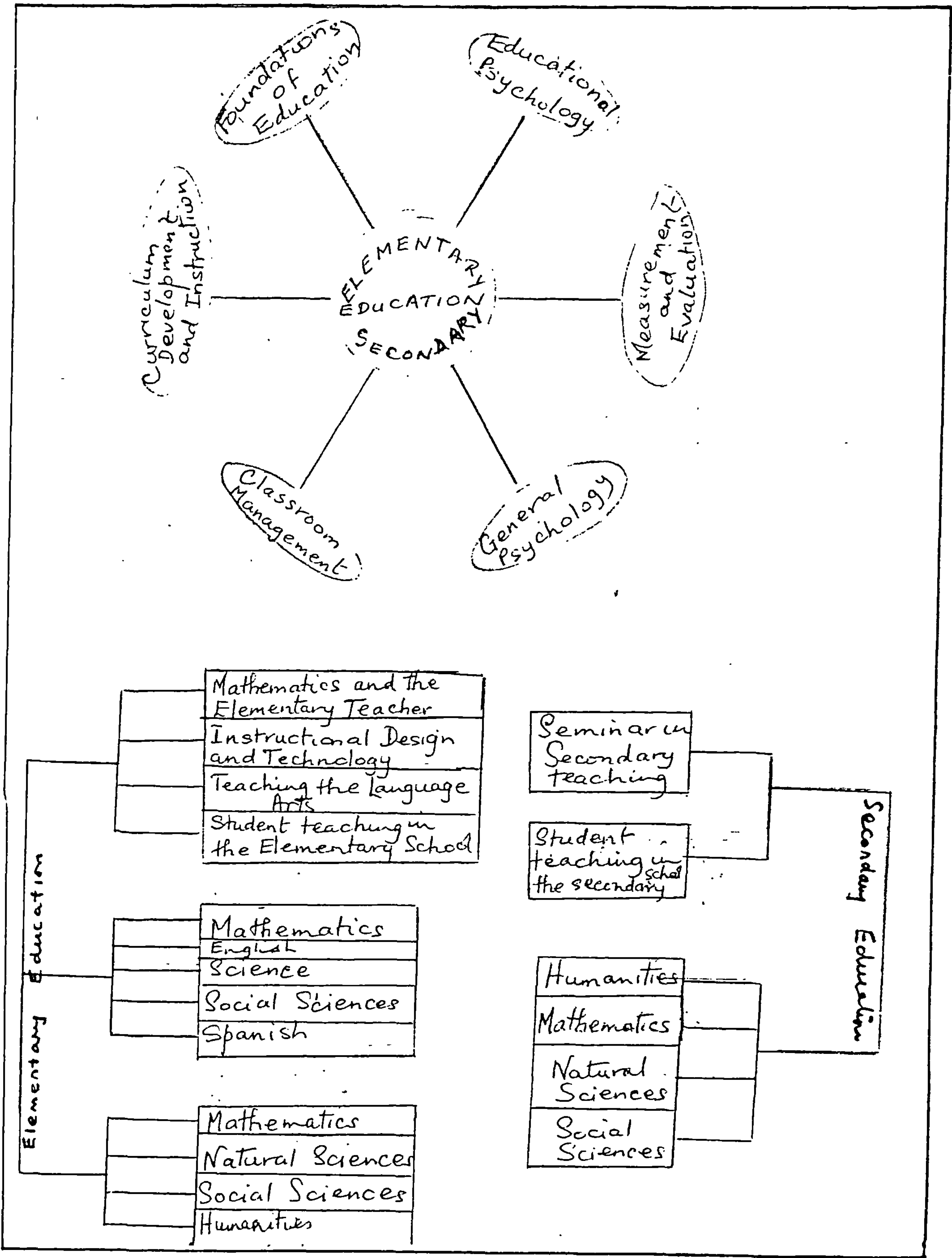
education, as is reflected in the structure (Figure 6.5), and in the requirement of the programme (Appendix 6A).

The difference in structure and requirement is due mainly to the fact that the elementary teacher is prepared to be a 'self-contained' teacher, who 'teaches' all the subjects on the elementary school curriculum. That teacher requires more breadth in content than the secondary school teacher, who specialises in one or two subject areas.

One senior professor in the Education Division at the University of the Virgin Islands, in an interview with this researcher, would like to see the abolition of the elementary education programme as an area of specialization in teacher education. The reason given by that professor was the same as the one offered in 1985 for the Education Division decision to have students majoring in elementary education 'declare an area of concentration' in either English, Mathematics, Spanish, Social Sciences or Science. As part of that requirement, a student must satisfy a minimum of eighteen credit hours in the declared area of concentration.

The reason for that 'declared option' is to ensure that those students would be able to function adequately and comfortably at the lower and middle levels of the secondary level if the need for their transfer arises. That should make them more adaptable in the school system, giving them at the same time a 'taste' in an area of specialization, for which they might develop greater interest in the future.

FIGURE 6.4 STRUCTURE OF UVI TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMME



Source: Devised by Writer. Based on information abstracted from UVI Catalogue, 1988-89.

Whether or not those decisions would help to produce more successful and effective teachers within the Caribbean context might be determined only by careful and detailed empirical research.

6.7 Empirical Research Section:

6.7.1 Introduction:

Like the chapters on Antigua and Grenada, this part of Chapter Six seeks to determine, through the use of questionnaires and personal interviews, the perception of some educators who have had a relationship with, and have been in some way or another the 'recipients' of the University of the Virgin Islands teacher education programme. These include current education majors, graduates who majored in education, education professors, school principals who man the schools where UVI education majors teach, and subject supervisors in the system who relate directly with those teachers.

It is hoped that by examining the responses of these relevant persons to the University education programme, it would be possible to make informed statements on the strengths and weaknesses of the teacher preparation process, and also to offer suggestions/recommendations which may help to strengthen apparent weaknesses, and to make stronger existing strengths.

6.7.2 How the Study was Conducted:

This part of the study which has been carried out in the three islands of the United States Virgin Islands proved to be more

challenging than the two parts undertaken in Grenada and Antigua. The reasons for the difficulties experienced could be attributed to certain fundamental differences between the British and American inherited systems, and attitudes, and the nature of the relevant institutions.

Having sensed those differences early, this writer modified in some ways the instruments and approaches used in Antigua and Grenada. An interview with the Chairperson of the Division of Education was organised as a first step in information gathering. That interview served to give this writer an overview of the teacher education programme offered by the university, and to help put in proper perspective the procedure for conducting this research within the United States Virgin Islands educational system.

Three letters requesting permission to distribute questionnaires to UVI graduate teachers working in schools in the territory, and to current education majors at the university were dispatched to the appropriate authority. Within three and four weeks, permission was received from the university, and from the two educational districts offices on St. Thomas and St. Croix.

Because permission to distribute questionnaires to current university education majors was hinged on two conditions (Appendix 6B), students had to be located out of classrooms. However, with the support of certain education professors, officers of the university's

Teacher Education Association, principals of schools where part-time education majors taught and the secretary of the Education Division 100 'current students questionnaires' (QD) were distributed.

As regards UVI/CVI graduates with a major in education, questionnaire (QE) was distributed using two channels. One of these was principals of the schools where they taught, when this writer distributed the principals/subject supervisors questionnaire (QF). In cases where the help of a principal was not possible, this writer established direct contact. Because research evidence suggests poor responses to the 'mail questionnaire' aoproach, that method was resisted in this study.

In cases where help was obtained in distributing questionnaires, the 'helper' was asked to explain to the respondents why they were asked to complete the questionnaire.

6.7.3 Results of Survey:

The aoproaches used in presenting the findings of the survey conducted in the United States Virgin Islands (USVI) are similar to those used in the case of Grenada and Antigua. However, in instances where it proves more effective and useful, finding from two or three different questionnaires will be reported together. When circumstances dictate otherwise, the evidence obtained from each type of questionnaire will be presented independently.

A cursory glance at the questionnaires designed for current UVI students and CVI/UVI graduates would show that, of the 19 items used in the students' questionnaire, all but 2 of the items (Nos. 2 and 7) are similar to the 'relevant' ones in the UVI graduate questionnaire. This, in the writer's view, might enhance a combined presentation where necessary.

Of the 115 respondents in the USVI who responded to item No.1 on all three questionnaires distributed (QD, QE, QF), only 21 or 18.2 per cent were males, thus reflecting, as is shown in Table 6.6, a predominance of female educators. Although the implication of

TABLE 6.6 THE RATIO OF MALE-FEMALE RESPONDENTS TO QUESTIONNAIRES QD, QE, AND QF, (USVI).

Category	Male	Female
Existing Teachers	7	48
Current UVI Student-teachers	7	35
Principals and Subject Supervisors	7	13

this has been alluded to in Chapter Five, the negative effects (e.g. emasculation of the male), this 'dominance' might have on future generations of young males could not be over-emphasized, if only because available literature, and this writer's observations point to a modern type of 'female' who seems bent, not simply on bridging the traditional gender gap, but on assuming the dominant

role in male-female relationships, and in significant positions of power in society. The question being raised here is this: If young Caribbean men must be prepared to deal/cope effectively with the changing roles and demands of Caribbean women in today's and tomorrow's Caribbean world, are female teachers the best (most suitable) instrument that should be used in this 'shaping and moulding process'? Is it likely that, 'somewhere down the road', the same female teachers, who are 'forced' to be 'male' models for boys, will ask in frustration and desperation: "But where are the men?".

While this study is not in any way designed to prove, or disprove, the destruction of 'maleness' in the human male, it is the belief of this writer, that because of the potential inherent in the educational process, and that because the effective classroom teacher can significantly influence boys and girls in how they perceive, and carry out, later, their varying societal roles, that this issue of the predominance of female teachers in the educational system must not be permitted to rest.

To the questions referring to the levels and schools at which CVI/UVI graduates teach (QE Nos. 2 and 3), 30 teachers (54.5%) of the sample of 55 indicated that they taught at the elementary level. Of the remaining 25 teachers, 20 (or 36%) taught at senior high school, and 4 (or 7%) at junior high. The teachers in that sample are spread over 20 schools. When these data are compared with the responses of principals and supervisors to the question posed in

Table 6.7 below, far more educators seemed to be based at the elementary level than at any other. This is understandable

TABLE 6.7 EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS REFLECTING THE LOCATIONS WHERE MOST EXISTING PROFESSIONALS WORK, USVI (1988)

Question: In which of the educational institutions do you work?		
	Existing Teachers	Principals/Supervisors
Elementary	30	12
Junior High	4	3
Senior High	20	4
Tertiary	-	-
Other		

for two significant reasons:

a) there are far more elementary schools in the tertiary than secondary (25 elementary to 9 secondary), and are shown in Appendices 6C and 6D;

b) the evidence on the responses to item No. 9 (QE) and item No. 5 (QD) strongly suggest a great tendency towards elementary education, as reflected in Table 6.8.

This tendency towards elementary education is also observed from enrollment in Teacher Education (UVI) during the period 1971-1988 (Refer to Table 6.9).

TABLE 6.8 AREAS OF SPECIALISATION/CONCENTRATION OF EXISTING TEACHERS AND CURRENT UVI STUDENT-TEACHERS, 1988

Area of Specialisation	Number of Existing Teachers	Number of Current UVI student teachers
Social Sciences	10	7*
Mathematics	5	4
Science	2	2
Language Arts	8	15*
Elementary Ed.	20	29
Other	3	5

* Areas from which the 18-credit 'special area' within the elementary major are chosen

Of the 55 responses to items Nos. 4, 5 and 6, in the 'graduate teachers questionnaire' (QE), only 22 responded positively to having received some type of initial teacher training before embarking on the CVI/UVI teacher preparation programme. And that training was received between 1965 and 1980, the same period when the remaining existing teachers in the sample with no initial teacher training attended the College/University of the Virgin Islands (Refer to Table 6.10 and Figure 6.5 which follow).

Related data obtained from current UVI students reveal also that only a small number of the students who entered UVI education programme received previous teacher training exposure (See Table 6.10 and Figure 6.7). For instance, out of 41 students who responded

TABLE 6.9(a) COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY OF THE VIRGIN ISLANDS ENROLLMENT IN TEACHER EDUCATION, 1971-1988

Year	Elementary	Secondary	Total
1971-72	61	45	105
1972-73	59	36	95
1973-74	74	0[a]	74
1974-75	91	2	93
1975-76	104	0	104
1976-77	*	*	108
1977-78	83	0	83
1978-79	84	0	84
1979-80	78	0[a]	78
1980-81	81	4	85
1981-82	98	0[a]	98
1982-83	85	0	85
1983-84	94	*	94
1984-85	92	*	92
1985-86	86	*	86
1986-87	86	*	86
1987-88	80	*	80

*No classification available

[a]Secondary Education majors

Source: UVI Statistical Reports, 1971-1988.

TABLE 6.9(b) UVI GRADUATES BY DIVISION, 1977-1987

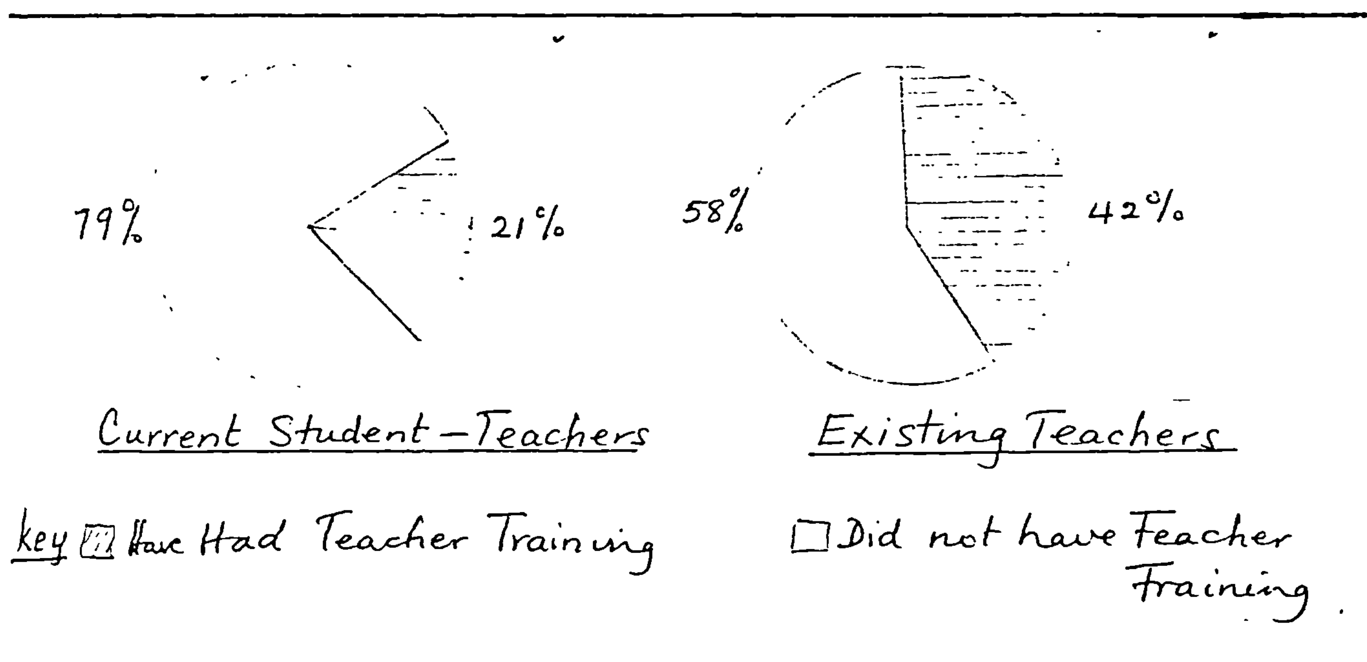
Year	Teacher Education	Science/ Mathematics	Social Sciences	Humanities	Business Admini- stration
1977-78	26	7	19	5	17
1978-79	32	6	10	5	19
1979-80	26	13	13	4	27
1980-81	32	9	16	6	19
1981-82	38	6	8	4	29
1982-83	33	14	12	8	50
1983-84	35	13	14	7	53
1984-85	42	18	13	4	59
1985-86	29	18	13	12	41
1986-87	32	9	16	8	70

Source: UVI Internal Research Division, USVI.

TABLE 6.10 EXISTING TEACHERS AND CURRENT STUDENT-TEACHERS WITH SOME FORM OF INITIAL TEACHER TRAINING

Category	With Initial Teacher Training	Without Initial Teacher Training
Existing Teachers	22	30
Current Student-teachers	9	33
TOTAL	31	63

FIGURE 6.5 PERCENTAGE OF EXISTING TEACHERS AND CURRENT UVI STUDENT TEACHERS WHO HAVE HAD INITIAL TEACHER TRAINING AT A TEACHERS' COLLEGE BEFORE ATTENDING UVI



to question No. 6 in QD, only 9 (or 21.9%) received initial teacher training at a teachers' college. And all came from the Commonwealth Caribbean.

The question as to whether initial training in any way has affected respondents' perception of, and reaction to the university's teacher education programme in general, and to how existing CVI/UVI graduates and their supervisors describe their competence in the classrooms has not been directly ascertained. However, what the findings of this researcher do seem to suggest are that when student teachers, who had some form of initial teacher training embarked on the CVI/UVI teacher preparation programme with the 'correct attitude', the rate of progress of that type of student tended to be 'much faster' than students with no initial teacher training exposure and students who have had some form of teaching experience, without or with initial training, but who seemed closed to new ideas and suggestions.

Although this writer has no hard evidence to tie the view expressed above to principals' and supervisors' responses to item No. 6 in questionnaire (QF), and represented in Table 6.11, yet the data obtained can be interpreted to mean that there was at least some positive relationship between initial teacher training and later teacher preparation at the University of the Virgin Islands.

If this relationship is limited to the University of the Virgin Islands, then some answers might be found in the programmes offered

TABLE 6.11 A COMPARISON OF TEACHING PERFORMANCES AMONG TEACHERS WITH DIFFERENT TRAINING EXPOSURE, (USVI)

Categories of Teachers	RATING				
	5	4	3	2	1
a) Non-UVI trained teachers	6	12	1	-	-
b) teachers with UVI training only	2	14	2	-	-
c) UVI graduates, with previous initial teacher training	11	7	1	-	-

by that university's education division and the training institutions at which those 'relevant' existing graduate teachers received their initial training. To a request, in questionnaire QD, item No. 19, and questionnaire QE, item No. 23, to 'state any fundamental differences between the two training programmes', a sample of respondents offered the following:

a) The university of the Virgin Islands offer more 'in depth' study, especially in the area of education courses;

b) In the Antigua State College, understanding the subject matter is important. In U.V.I only the grade matters;

c) More emphasis was placed on actual classroom teaching and management at teachers' training college;

d) Most of the courses covered at teachers' college was at a <u>higher</u> level than at CVI;

e) The teacher training course dealt more with the professional strategies, methodologies and techniques, whereas UVI dealt mostly with the 'Liberal Arts';

f) Courses seemed more integrated at the teachers' college;

g) In teachers' college, there are strictly all professional content areas and an independent study, while at UVI there was an accumulation of many other academic subjects before qualifying for the specialized area, and there was no independent study;

h) CVI made me able to understand and apply most of the educational and psychological theories that I studied at teachers' training college.

Inherent in the above reactions are not only differences but implied strengths and weaknesses of CVI/UVI education programme. And after discounting personal prejudices, some of the above observations might contain some truths. For instance, when existing graduate teachers and current student-teachers were asked in their respective questionnaire, QD, item No. 11 and QE, item No. 13, to react to what they considered: (a) strong and very useful, and (b) weak and/or irrelevant, some of the courses that were considered strong and very useful were: methods, student teaching programme, Reading and Language Arts programme. Of course, other courses were given as being strong and very useful, but because they were also given as either weak and/or irrelevant, their importance were neutralised. Yet, while Educational Psychology and Foundation courses were identified as weak and/or irrelevant by just over

45% of the current students who responded to that item, classroom management was perceived in a similar way by 43.5% of existing UVI graduate teachers.

From responses relating to courses and/or activities that existing teachers and current student-teachers would like to see introduced, and removed or modified, there appeared to be few common grounds between the two groups, as is brought out in Tables 6.12 and 6.13. No doubt that difference in 'recommendations' between the two groups might be due, in part, to:

a) changes that have taken place in some of the UVI courses over the past three or four years;

b) the return to the real classroom by existing teachers;

c) Staff changes that have occurred in the University since many existing teachers have graduated from the College of the Virgin Islands;

d) the exposure of some existing teachers to graduate courses that have been offered by the University of Miami in the territory.

No doubt, too, some of the differences in what each group offered as strengths and weakness in the university programme, as set out in Tables 6.12 and 6.13, might be a reflection of the time when each group was prepared, and changes that have occurred within the division of Education over the years.

TABLE 6.12 STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES IN UVI TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMME AS IDENTIFIED BY EXISTING TEACHERS AND CURRENT STUDENT-TEACHERS

What aspects of the teacher preparation programme at UVI would you consider (i) strong and very useful, (ii) weak and/or irrelevant?

(a) EXISTING TEACHERS

WEAKNESSES/IRRELEVANCIES	Frequency	STRENGTHS	Frequency
(i) Classroom management	8	(i) Techniques in motivation	11
(ii) Motivational techniques	6	(ii) Student-teaching programme	15
(iii) Methodology	4	(iii) Measurement and Evaluation techniques	7
(iv) Student-teaching	7	(iv) Teaching Reading	10
(v) Spanish teaching	12	(v) Methodology on how to teach	9
		(vi) Writing clearer instructional objectives	4
		(vii) Developmental Psychology	5

TABLE 6.12 (Continued)

(b) CURRENT STUDENT TEACHERS

WEAKNESSES/IRRELEVANCIES	Frequency		Frequency
(i) Repeating teaching practice sessions when already a trained teacher	3	(i) Language Arts Programme	18
(ii) Observational teaching	5	(ii) Methods Courses (especially St. Croix Campus)	15
(iii) Spanish Teaching	7	(iii) Student Teaching (especially St. Croix)	15
(iv) Educational Psychology	5	(iv) Classroom Management techniques	12
(v) How foundation courses are taught	8	(v) Student Centred learning	8
(vi) No choices in education courses	6	(vi) Reading	7
(vii) Very limited areas of concentration on St.Croix Campus	14	(vii) Good, strong student evaluation	11
		(viii) Required subjects	6

TABLE 6.13 COURSES IDENTIFIED IN UVI TEACHER-EDUCATION PROGRAMME THAT SHOULD BE EITHER INTRODUCED, REMOVED OR MODIFIED

What education related courses and/or activities would you like to see introduced or removed/modified in the teacher preparation programme at UVI?

(a) EXISTING TEACHERS

COURSES TO BE INTRODUCED	Frequency	COURSES TO BE REMOVED / MODIFIED	Frequency
(i) Multi-cultural Education	8	(i) Less abstract theory	12
(ii) Independent Study	3	(ii) Modify curriculum to meet local needs	14
(iii) More closely supervised student teaching	7	(iii) Introduction to Education to be modified	9
(iv) Teaching Centre for practice teaching	5	(iv) One year of Spanish instead of two years	5
(v) More practical sessions	9	(v) Relate History courses to Caribbean experience	8
(vi) Greater emphasis on teaching techniques	5	(vi) Have a real teaching of Maths course	10
(vii) Courses in Special Education	7	(vii) Apply methods to problem students	4
(viii) Methodology courses in each discipline	8		
(ix) Earlier classroom practice	5		
(x) More content courses	9		
(xi) Develop awareness of what's going on in classroom	6		

TABLE 6.13 (Continued)

(b) CURRENT TEACHERS

COURSES TO BE INTRODUCED	Frequency	COURSES TO BE REMOVED / MODIFIED	Frequency
(i) Teaching science in the elementary area	7	(i) Foundations of Education to be modified to reflect Virgin Islands realities as well as U.S.	19
(ii) Special Education		(ii) Observational teaching	5
(iii) Courses to deal with exceptional students	12	(iii) Maths courses should be divided equally between 2 instructors	4
(iv) Teaching through computers	8	(iv) Gym is a waste of time	2
(v) Computer programming	4	(v) Spanish - one year for elementary education students	10
(vi) Early childhood education	4		
(vii) More majors on St.Croix campus	12		
(viii) Technology and Design	7		
(ix) Emphasize the integrated approach to teaching	5		
(x) Have Music and Reading Majors on St.Croix Campus	3		
(xi) Hands on experience and in-service training (simulation exercises)	3		
(xii) Related resource materials to enrich lessons	6		

Similarities and differences in responses to identical questions by the two groups seem more closely related from an interpretation of the data obtained from responses to item Nos. 12, 18, 19 in questionnaire QE, and to items Nos. 10, 16 and 17 in questionnaire QD as they appear in Tables 6.14 and 6.15.

TABLE 6.14 RESPONSES OF EXISTING TEACHERS AND CURRENT STUDENT-TEACHERS TO ITEMS QD NO. 17 AND QE NO. 19

Question: Were/Are the professors who taught/teach your courses:

	Existing Teachers		Student Teachers	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
(i) easily accessible to you?	47	6	38	1
(ii) approachable?	47	5	40	0
(iii) helpful?	47	5	39	1
(iv) capable of offering sound professional guidance?	45	7	39	1

For example, when one examines reactions to areas of concentration/ specialization QE 12/QD 10, one observes the following:

a) 54% of all existing teachers in the sample agree that the subject area in which they specialised is adequate, challenging and well taught, but only 16% indicated strong agreement. When compared with the responses of current student-teachers, whereas approximately 35.7% agreed that it is adequate and challenging, and 42.8% that it is well taught, 33% and 26% respectively showed strong agreement on those

TABLE 6.15 RESPONSES OF EXISTING TEACHERS AND CURRENT STUDENT-TEACHERS TO ITEMS QD NO. 10 AND QE NO. 12

Are you satisfied that the subject area in which you are specialising/specialised at UVI.

	Current student Teachers					Existing Teachers				
	SA	A	N	D	SD	SA	A	N	D	SD
(i) is adequate and challenging?	14	15	8	0	0	9	30	10	2	0
(ii) is well taught?	11	18	7	0	0	7	29	14	2	0
(iii) offers adequate opportunities for you to give feedback to professors on how that subject is being taught?	12	11	13	0	0	9	24	10	5	0
(iv) offers relevant and practical methodology to teach it effectively	11	11	13	3	0	7	19	9	12	2
(v) can be related to Caribbean reality	11	15	7	3	1	6	22	11	13	1
(vi) always offers instructional objectives that are clear to you	7	12	15	2	0	6	19	14	8	2

SA - Strongly Agree D - Disagree

A - Agree SD - Strongly Disagree

N - Neutral

TABLE 6.16 REACTIONS OF EXISTING TEACHERS AND CURRENT STUDENT-TEACHERS TO QD NO. 16 AND QE NO. 18

Were/Are there adequate, and easily available resource materials at the UVI library.

	Existing Teachers		Student Teachers	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
(i) in your area of specialisation?	40	10	28	9
(ii) on education courses studied by you?	40	10	32	3

sub-items.

b) In terms of the adequacy of opportunities to give feedback to professors, while 43.6% and 16% respectively of respondents among existing teachers agreed and strongly agreed with sub-item QE 12(iii), about the same percentage (26%-28.5%) of current student-teachers agreed and strongly agreed;

c) Whereas the range of agreement is very similar for sub-items QE iv, v, vi among existing teachers, 34.5%-40% agreeing, and about 12% strongly agreeing, to the same sub-items, 26% of the sample of current student-teachers strongly agreed that the subject in which they specialised does not only offer relevant and practical methodology, but can be related to Caribbean reality. Yet, 30.9% and 16.6% respectively of that group chose to remain neutral on those concerns. The responses to the last item in these sub-items, by the student-teachers, show 42% agreeing and 16.6% strongly agreeing.

Although, generally, there are significant differences between the two groups' responses to the last item discussed, there is some similarity in the relatively high percentage of neutrality displayed by each group, with 25% of the sample of current student-teachers and 20.6% of existing teachers remaining neutral. Yet, in spite of that degree of similarity between the two groups in terms of neutrality, they maintained their differences as to how much they disagreed with the truth of the statements. As Table 6.15 shows, while 6.3% of current UVI student-teachers, on average, showed

disagreement, and only in relation to sub-items iv, v, and vi, 12.7% of existing UVI graduate teachers, on average, disagreed with every sub-item in item QE 12. The most significant disagreement, however, is with sub-items QE 12 (iv), (v), (v): 21.8%, 23.6% and 14.5% of that group of teachers expressed disagreement on the validity of these statements.

The fact that 40 out of the 42 existing teachers in the sample, who responded to item No. 10 in Questionnaire QE, taught the subject in which they specialised, might also account for their ability to disagree with item No. 12 in their questionnaire. The need to apply, on a daily basis, the specialised knowledge and skills they should have developed at UVI, placed them in a position to evaluate themselves, and, indirectly, the institution which prepared them.

In response to the question on their effectiveness as teachers, 50 of the 52 existing teachers who responded to this question claimed that they might be considered effective/successful teachers. In responding to two similar questions posed in the questionnaire completed by principals/subject supervisors (QF 5,6), 8 out of the 18 respondents indicated that 75% to 100% of the teachers they supervised could be thought of as successful/effective. Ten (10) such respondents, however, placed 50% to 75% of their teachers in that category, while one (1) principal felt that only 25%-50% of those for whom responsibility was held could be so described.

What is, however, interesting is that UVI graduate teachers

with initial teacher training were rated highest on a (5) five point scale than the two other categories represented in Table 6.17 below.

TABLE 6.17 A COMPARISON OF TEACHING PERFORMANCES AMONG TEACHERS WITH DIFFERENT TRAINING EXPOSURE, USVI

	RATING				
	5	4	3	2	1
(a) Non-UVI trained teachers	6	12	1	-	-
(b) Teachers with UVI training only	2	14	2	-	-
(c) UVI graduates with teachers' college initial training	11	7	1	-	-

Of those that responded, 11, or 57.8%, placed existing teachers in the school system, with the combined UVI/teachers' college initial training, at the top of the rating scale. Of the remaining 8 respondents, 6 preferred non-UVI trained teachers for that spot. Only 2 showed a preference for teachers with UVI training only.

Responses given by existing teachers to item No. 21 in questionnaire QE suggest that "principal's evaluation" and "self-evaluation" have been the most common criteria/technique used by them in evaluating their effectiveness as teachers; with "students' evaluation", "students' grades" and "peer assessment" following in that order. For instance, of the 55 existing teachers who responded

to the question, 41 (74.5%) used "principals evaluation" and "self evaluation", and this is reflected in Table 6.18. When this is compared with the responses of principals/subject supervisors to a similar question in their questionnaire, QF No. 7, "observation" was employed by 10 (55%) of the group sampled. "Students' grades", "students' evaluation" and "peer assessment" were the next popular ones used, and can be seen in Table 6.18.

TABLE 6.18 RESPONSES OF EXISTING TEACHERS AND PRINCIPALS/ SUPERVISORS TO EVALUATION CRITERIA USED (USVI, 1988)

Evaluating Techniques/Criteria	Existing Teachers	Principals/ Supervisors
Observation	-	19
Students' evaluation	33	9
Students' grades	26	11
Peer Assessment	24	2
Principal's Evaluation	41	-
Self Evaluation	41	-
Other	1	2

Because "observation" of teachers by principals is, in a sense, part of the evaluation techniques used in arriving at his conclusion, it is possible to conclude that since "observation" and "principal's evaluation" are the reverse sides of the other, then principals, supervisors and teachers have subscribed to common techniques/ criteria in making statements about a teacher's effectiveness or success. That 'common approach' to determining effectiveness should become clear when one examines the reactions of the three groups of educators to 30 qualities/competencies in Table 6.19 which follows.

TABLE 6.19(a) RESPONSES OF EXISTING TEACHERS TO 30 DESIRABLE TEACHER COMPETENCIES/QUALITIES (USVI, 1988)

NO.	COMPETENCIES	A Agree	D Disagree	N Neutral
1	Love of teaching and children	49		1
2	Dedication/commitment to the profession	48		1
3	Motivator/catalyst/inspires and stimulates	51		
4	Sociable/approachable/has a sense of humour	42		3
5	Good communicator /explains very well	51		1
6	Thinks positive of self and students	49		
7	Innovator/Initiator/is creative	45	1	4
8	Flexible/Adaptable re teaching (techniques/situation)	45		1
9	Kind, Fair, Friendly, Firm	49		
10	Evaluates self and students regularly	46		3
11	Co-operates with peers, parents, community	46		3
12	Prepares work thoroughly	50		
13	Competent in subject area(s)	45		2
14	Demonstrates sound, mature judgement in reaching decisions	43		
15	Uses a variety of methods/approaches in teaching	48		1
16	Sees and treats students as individuals	49		
17	Enables students to compete with self so as to realise fullest potential	40		3
18	Respects the views of students, peers, parents	46	1	2
19	Very patient listener and keen observer	43		1
20	Tactful/a strategist	40		4
21	Makes maximum use of available resources	47		2
22	Uses rewards and punishment effectively	43		4
23	Accepts and nurtures divergent thinking	41		5
24	Knows the children that he/she teaches	47		2
25	Sees and uses the class as a resource unit	38		8
26	Sets realistic goals which challenge students	47		1
27	Has effective class control	48		1
28	Always seeks new knowledge/open to suggestions	49		
29	Sensitive to students needs	48		1
30	Instils feeling of self-worth within students	48		1

TABLE 6.19(b) RESPONSES OF CURRENT UVI STUDENT-TEACHERS TO 30 DESIRABLE TEACHER COMPETENCIES/QUALITIES. (USVI, 1988)

NO.	COMPETENCIES/QUALITIES	A Agree	D Disagree	N Neutral
1	Love of teaching and children	34	1	1
2	Dedication/commitment to the profession	35	-	1
3	Motivator/catalyst/inspires and stimulates	30	-	3
4	Sociable/approachable/has a sense of humour	27	1	5
5	Good communicator/explains very well	34	1	-
6	Thinks positive of self and students	30	-	2
7	Innovator/Initiator/is creative	24	1	6
8	Flexible/Adaptable re teaching (techniques/ situation)	32	-	2
9	Kind, Fair, Friendly, Firm	31	1	2
10	Evaluates self and students regularly	28	2	3
11	Co-operates with peers, parents, community	29	1	4
12	Prepares work thoroughly	30	1	1
13	Competent in subject area(s)	28	-	4
14	Demonstrates sound, mature judgement in reaching decisions	24	1	3
15	Uses a variety of methods/approaches in teaching	34	-	-
16	Sees and treats students as individuals	32	-	1
17	Enables students to compete with self so as to realise fullest potential	25	1	3
18	Respects the views of students, peers, parents	29	1	2
19	Very patient listener and keen observer	27	1	2
20	Tactful/a strategist	27	-	4
21	Makes maximum use of available resources	30	-	1
22	Uses rewards and punishment effectively	24	-	7
23	Accepts and nurtures divergent thinking	25	-	4
24	Knows the children that he/she teaches	27	3	2
25	Sees and uses the class as a resource unit	28	-	2
26	Sets realistic goals which challenge students	33	-	1
27	Has effective class control	31	1	1
28	Always seeks new knowledge/open to suggestions	33	-	1
29	Sensitive to students needs	31	-	1
30	Instils feeling of self-worth within students	30	-	3

TABLE 6.19(c) RESPONSES OF 'SUPERVISORS' TO 30 DESIRABLE TEACHER COMPETENCIES/QUALITIES, (USVI, 1988)

NO.	COMPETENCIES/QUALITIES	A Agree	D Diagree	N Neutral
1	Love of teaching and children	20		
2	Dedication/commitment to the profession	18		1
3	Motivator/catalyst/inspires and stimulates	17		1
4	Sociable/approachable/has a sense of humour	16	2	2
5	Good communicator/explains very well	19	1	1
6	Thinks positive of self and students	18		
7	Innovator/Initiator/is creative	18	1	1
8	Flexible/Adaptable re teaching (techniques/situation)	18		2
9	Kind, Fair, Friendly, Firm	19		
10	Evaluates self and students regularly	18		1
11	Co-operates with peers, parents, community	17	1	2
12	Prepares work thoroughly	20		
13	Competent in subject area(s)	19		1
14	Demonstrates sound, mature judgement in reaching decisions	17		2
15	Uses a variety of methods/approaches in teaching	18		2
16	Sees and treats students as individuals	19		1
17	Enables students to compete with self so as to realise fullest potential	18		2
18	Respects the views of students, peers, parents	17		2
19	Very patient listener and keen observer	16		
20	Tactful/a strategist	13		4
21	Makes maximum use of available resources	20		
22	Uses rewards and punishment effectively	20		
23	Accepts and nurtures divergent thinking	17	2	1
24	Knows the children that he/she teaches	18		1
25	Sees and uses the class as a resource unit	15		5
26	Sets realistic goals which challenge students	18		2
27	Has effective class control	19		
28	Always seeks new knowledge/open to suggestions	20		
29	Sensitive to students needs	19		
30	Instils feeling of self-worth within students	19		

In one of the earlier parts of this study a relationship between 'time of training', duration of training, and teacher effectiveness in the classroom was alluded to, but it was not possible to state, conclusively, whether prior 'un-professional' teaching exposure would necessarily enhance or militate against later professional training. A look at the responses of existing teachers in Table 6.20 show that 34 (61.8%) taught before being

TABLE 6.20 YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE OF EXISTING TEACHERS (USVI, 1988)

Practical Teaching Experience	No. of Teachers	Teaching experience prior to formal professional training	No. of Teachers
1-5 years	9	1-3 years	17
6-10 years	11	4-6 years	13
11-15 years	13	7-10 years	2
16-20 years	12	Over 10 years	2
21-25 years	5		
26-30 years	2		
Over 30 years	2		

trained to teach, and for periods ranging from one year to ten (10) years. Only eight (8) of those who responded did not teach before entering a teacher preparation institution. However, when one looks at the overall number of years taught by teachers in the sample, and the range of their teaching experience as shown in Table 6.19, the evidence seems to suggest that existing teachers in the United States

Virgin Islands have taught for longer periods after having been formally trained, than before formal training. And, if the responses, in Table 6.21, of current student-teachers at UVI to items No. 6 and No.8 in questionnaire QD is any indication of future trends, then before long classroom teaching in the United States Virgin Islands' public schools would be done by only trained professionals, and not by persons who have had no initial professional teacher training.

TABLE 6.21 INITIAL TEACHER TRAINING, AND PRE-UVI PRACTICAL TEACHING EXPERIENCE OF CURRENT STUDENT-TEACHERS, USVI (1988)

Initial Teacher Training		Practical Teaching Experience Prior to Formal Professional Training	
Yes	No	Years	No. of Student-teachers
		1-3 years	5
9	33	4-6 years	4
		7-10 years	4
		Over 10 years	8

This, of course, assumes the ability of the educational system to provide suitable candidates with the required university entry qualifications. Earlier discussion in this chapter pointed to concerns in the community about the quality of secondary school graduates. Now, since the evidence obtained in this study, and presented in Table 6.21 strongly suggest that a high school diploma was the qualification most commonly used by current student-teachers and existing teachers to gain admission to UVI, then the quality

of the secondary school programme which produced the high school diploma becomes critical, if the flow of 'quality teachers' into the system is to be ensured.

TABLE 6.22 ENTRY QUALIFICATIONS OF EXISTING TEACHERS AND CURRENT UVI STUDENT-TEACHERS, USVI (1988)

Entry Qualifications	No. of Current Student-teachers	No. of Existing teachers
High School Diploma	29	34
Cambridge School Certificate passes	1	3
4 or more GCE/CXC subject passes	5	7
Less than 4 GCE/CXC subject passes	1	2
Other	10	9

Fifty-one (51) existing teachers responded to item No. 11 in questionnaire QE. Of that number, 34 (66.6%) secured admission to the UVI with a high school diploma. Similarly, 29 (69%) current student-teachers out of 42 that responded to the same question (QD item No. 9), got on the education programme with a high school diploma. (Refer to Table 6.21).

This in no way is to suggest any inadequacies on the part of the students who have been permitted to be prepared as teachers, for one could not expect someone to graduate from a reputable educational institution unless that person satisfies the requirements for graduation. Having said this, however, the question that immediately comes to mind is that of adequate and suitable facilities, and the

ability of available faculty members to help produce a high quality teacher product. Because of this precondition, the availability of adequate and suitable facilities and staff at the University of the Virgin Islands to produce that kind of product must be considered.

Two similar questions posed in questionnaires QD, items No. 16 and 17, and in QE, items No. 18 and 19, painted the picture shown in Tables 6.14 and 6.16. In spite of the apparent restriction the second item might appear to have placed on respondents, the evidence obtained from both target groups, tend to give some positive vibrations about the university teacher education programme. For instance, in both cases, over 75% of respondents agreed that in their area of specialisation and on education courses studied, an adequate supply of resource materials were easily available. Also, that in a general sense, the professors responsible for that programme were capable, easily accessible, approachable and helpful. (Tables 6.14 and 6.16).

If success or effectiveness in classrooms is determined, in part, by an 'instructor's' or 'teacher's' years of teaching experience, as well as academic and professional background, then the information being reflected in Figure 6.8 below does not only seem to validate the responses given in Table 6.14 above, but might also suggest a link/relationship between teachers'/instructors' classroom behaviours, professional and academic qualifications and teaching experience. In a more general sense, however, the evidence

FIGURE 6.6(a) HIGHEST QUALIFICATION ATTAINED BY UVI EDUCATION PROFESSORS (1988)

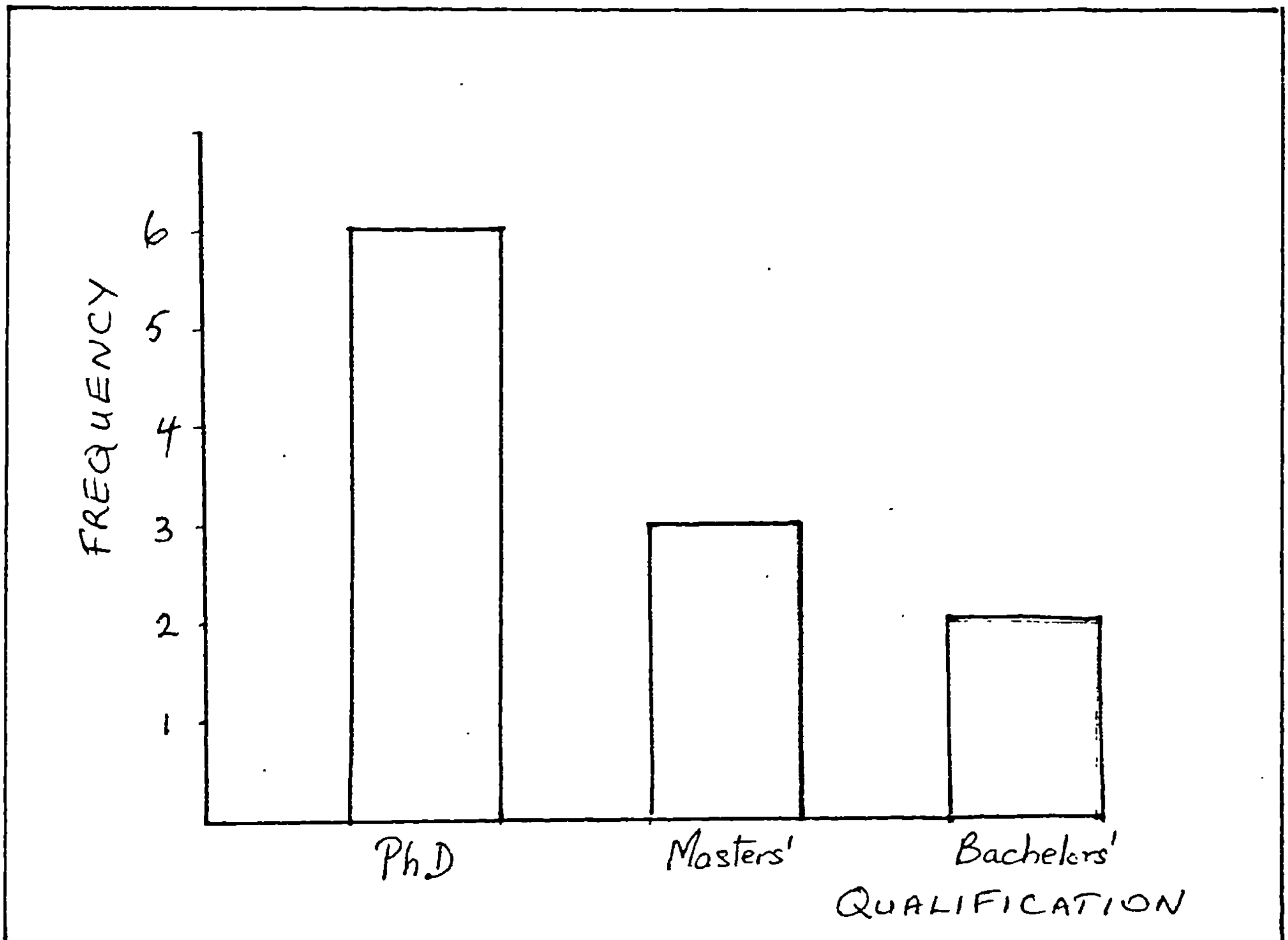
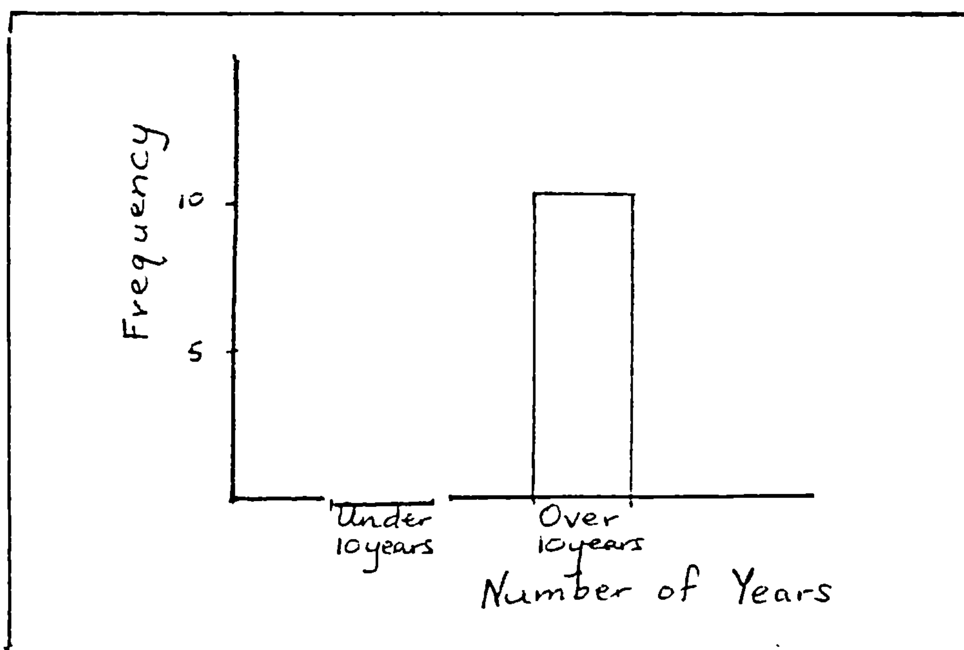


FIGURE 6.6(b) RELATED TEACHING EXPERIENCE OF UVI EDUCATION PROFESSORS (1988)



Source: Head, Division of Teacher Education, UVI.

obtained, and reported, in this study seem to suggest that while teaching experience, academic, and professional background are necessary, they might not in themselves be sufficient conditions to bring into being an effective or successful teacher or instructor. That relationship might become more meaningful if one examines Tables 6.3, 6.5, 6.8, 6.9 and 6.23 in this chapter.

TABLE 6.23 RESULTS OF HIGH SCHOOL EQUIVALENCY TESTS, 1968-1973 (USVI)

Year	No. Tested	No. and % Awarded Certificates	
		No.	%
1968-69	364	86	23.6
1969-70	347	73	21.0
1970-71	317	73	23.0
1971-72	194	55	28.3
1972-73	368	89	24.1

Another close look at Table 6.8 can suggest that:

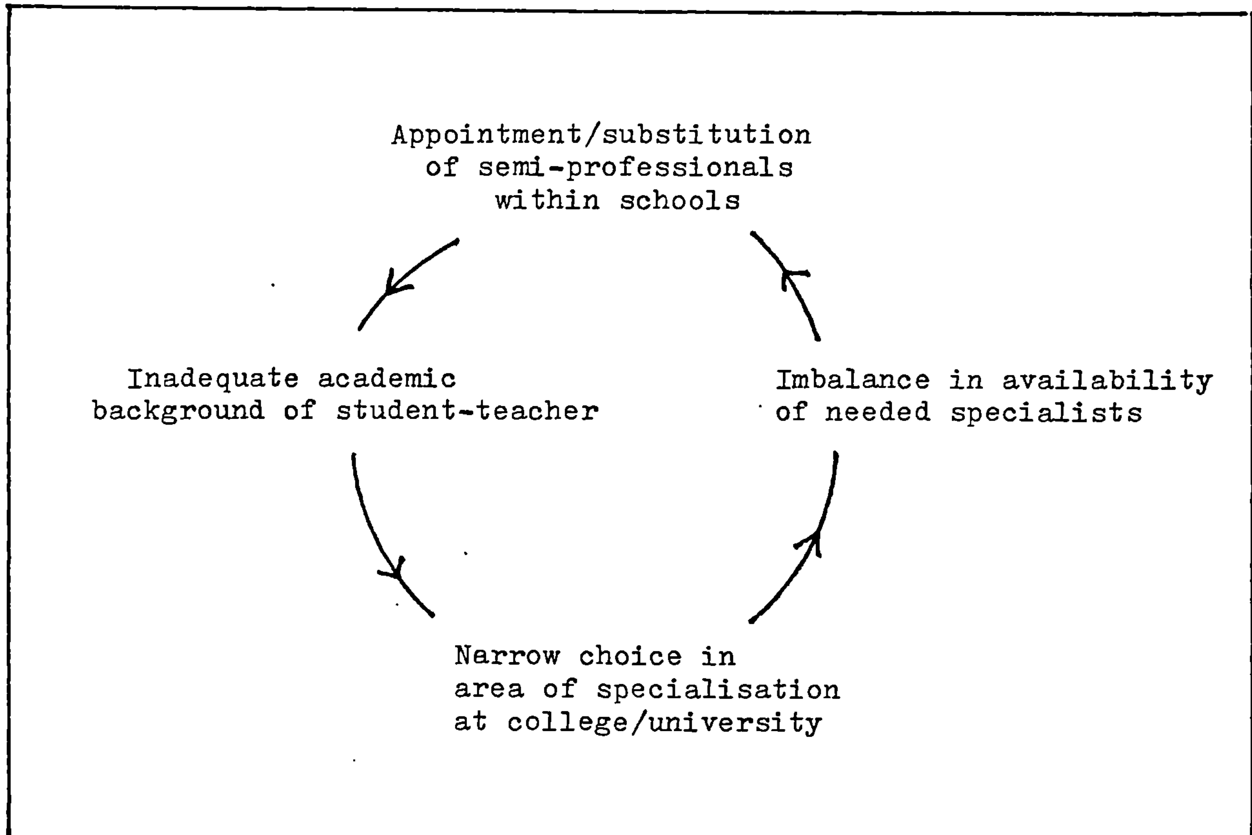
a) Mathematics and science will continue to be 'weak' subject areas throughout the school system because less than 11.8 per cent of all teachers in the USVI sample (110) are sufficiently interested in, or capable of specialising in them, and this helps to explain one of the possible reasons why a significant number of student-teachers at UVI experience problems grasping mathematics, and also why there has been an acute shortage of Mathematics and Science teachers in the educational system;

b) in spite of the fact that language arts, including 'reading' has been a popular area of specialisation in the teacher education programme of UVI, many students' performances in language arts at the elementary and high school level (even at UVI) continues to be a cause for serious concern among educators in the United States Virgin Islands.

While one is not necessarily implying here a link between the 'linguistic problem' some UVI students experienced in mastering the required basic English courses for matriculation, and elementary and high school students' performance in English within the school system (USVI), the fact that "over the years a significant number of student-teachers on practice teaching (and students in other programmes at the UVI (Refer to Appendix 6D), have demonstrated deficiencies in an acceptable level of competency in English", [157] tend to suggest some kind of relationship between the academic capabilities of 'teachers' and their students performance. In fact, it would not be unusual to this writer if someone 'ties' this situation to, what one might label, a 'cyclical mode' of relationships existing among the schools, the college/university and the schools.

A reason for suggesting the 'abolition' of the 'elementary major', and having student-teachers 'major' only in secondary education might now begin to make sense to an observer. While this may not necessarily guarantee a greater supply of science and mathematics teachers, it has the potential to reduce academic

FIGURE 6.7 A POSSIBLE EXPLANATION FOR WEAKNESSES WITHIN EDUCATION (USVI)



Source: Devised by the writer.

inadequacies/limitations among prospective teachers, and ultimately among students within the school system. Although a single area of concentration (secondary education) might suggest its own limitations, it does not appear, to this writer, to be opposed to the ideal of a liberal education for all teachers. However, it may have implications for the structure of the teacher education programme and the age at which many potential teachers begin and finish an undergraduate programme in Teacher Education. And the age range of current student-teachers which reveals a heavy concentration among student-teachers over 30 years old (24 or 57%) might be affected. (See Table 6.24).

TABLE 6.24 AGE RANGE OF CURRENT STUDENT-TEACHERS, UVI (1988)

	Frequency
a) Under 20 years	1
b) 20-25 years	12
c) 26-30 years	5
d) Over 30 years	24
TOTAL	42

While the issues raised, and the data examined in this chapter point to some positive aspects within the educational system in the United States Virgin Islands, the evidence strongly suggests the need for fundamental changes within key areas of the educational sector, some of which will be considered below.

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157. There seems to be a common feeling among many student-teachers and existing professional teachers that the Foundation of Education Course, and Social Studies course, have too strong a 'continental' bias, especially when taught by 'continentals'.

CHAPTER SEVEN

A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

7.1 Introduction

Chapter Seven in this study is an attempt to bring together in one place, for comparative purposes, evidence obtained from research conducted in Grenada (Chapter 4), Antigua (Chapter 5) and the United States Virgin Islands (Chapter 6), so as to identify any common/ uncommon elements that have been at work during the teacher preparation process.

From the descriptions given of the respective countries, it might have become clear to the reader that the educational systems that operated in Grenada and Antigua shared far more common elements than that which has operated in the United States Virgin Islands. The reasons for those similarities and differences might also have emerged from the discussions in the earlier parts of those chapters. But just how similar and different the teacher preparation institutions in Antigua, Grenada and the United States Virgin Islands have shown themselves to be, might not have been clearly established. At least one major question still remains: If the programme of the Division of Teacher Education of the University of the Virgin Islands is apparently different from those of Grenada Teachers' College, and the Division of Teacher Education at Antigua State College, then why has the programme at UVI been chosen for study and comparative purposes? In an effort tn answer this question, an attempt will be made to establish the nature of whatever differences might have existed and to justify the inclusion of the United States Virgin Islands and the University of the Virgin Islands in this study.

7.2 Justification for the Inclusion of USVI/UVI in this Study

One could try to justify the inclusion of the USVI in this study purely on the grounds that, in spite of the fact that the islands are territories of the United States of America, they have shared a common history with the Commonwealth Caribbean. But even more than that, St. Thomas, St. John and St. Croix have been 'home' for thousands of Commonwealth Caribbean citizens for decades, and even in 1989 continue to be so. It would not be surprising to hear native Virgin islanders in 1989 express concern of being 'over-run' by 'island people' and American 'continentals'. That concern has been established in Chapter Six of this study.

When the composition of the population of the USVI, and the background of students and teachers in the education system are examined (Appendix 6G), one does not only become aware of the presence of a significant number of Commonwealth Caribbean citizens who have resided there 'permanently' for a considerable time, but additionally one becomes even more conscious of the interdependence of Caribbean countries, and the attendant inescapable traffic in ideas, currency and values that flowed daily among Caribbean nations.

Even a cursory glance at the number of students (See Appendix 6G) from the Commonwealth Caribbean who have attended the College of the Virgin Islands/University of the Virgin Islands (CVI/UVI), even as recently as during the 1980s, should be sufficient justification of the inclusion of USVI/UVI Teacher Education Division in this study, and to validate any comparative analysis that would be attempted with the relevant data obtained from this study.

Although the writer does not have any hard data that point to exact numbers, information obtained from discussions strongly suggest that, in spite of the limited number of Commonwealth Caribbean graduates from UVI who may remain to work in the Virgin Islands, most of them would have had to return to practice the teaching, and/or other skills acquired at UVI. [2] The fact that this situation has existed seems to also justify a close look at UVI education programme, so as to try to determine also how compatible that system of training was with those that functioned within the Commonwealth Caribbean, since the products of that institution practised, 'without restrictions', within the Commonwealth Caribbean. In other words, it seems reasonable to this writer, that although it is useful and professionally sensible to have teachers throughout the Commonwealth Caribbean with training from different teacher-training institutions, it is necessary to ensure that the variety of training institutions does not imply too wide a variety in standards and vastly different orientations and emphases. So, while the nature of the University of the Virgin Islands education programme might exhibit differences in its structure and coverage, it is hoped that the ultimate goal of producing a successful/effective teacher, a teacher for all seasons, with the correct Caribbean perspective, is common to all three teacher preparation institutions under consideration.

A third and final reason for UVI inclusion was to try to determine, in the case of elementary school teachers, whether there was a a consistantly significant difference in classroom behaviours, between

teachers who had initial teacher training from a teachers' college in the Commonwealth Caribbean, and those teachers who had only UVI teacher education training. While it has sometimes been difficult to make direct comparison with findings obtained from UVI and the other two institutions, insights provided from whatever comparison was possible might serve to inform those (basically) two types of teacher preparation institutions on areas of similarities and differences, and might even point to individual strengths and weaknesses, and areas of potential cooperation.

7.3 Comparison Between and Among Findings of Selected Aspects of the Main Survey

7.3.1 Library Facilities and Available Resource Materials:

Both in Antigua and Grenada, when teachers in training were asked about library facilities and available materials, they indicated, as research discussed above in the Commonwealth Caribbean already found, that neither were library facilities adequate, nor resource materials sufficiently available. However, when a similar question was directed to existing teachers in the USVI, and current student-teachers at the UVI, a totally different picture emerged, and that can be seen in Table 7.1 which follows. One possible explanation for that difference might not simply be the ability of UVI to provide those essentials, but rather greater awareness by the administration of the UVI to the benefits of supporting facilities in the teacher education process. Although it has not been possible to establish a direct link between library facilities, available resource materials, and students

TABLE 7.1 REACTIONS OF TEACHERS IN TRAINING AND EXISTING TEACHERS TO LIBRARY FACILITIES AND AVAILABLE RESOURCE MATERIALS

Question: Were/Are there adequate library facilities and available resource materials at the teachers' college/University of the Virgin Islands library?

Institution	Responses			
	Yes		No	
	No.	%	No.	%
Antigua State College	6	16.2	31	83.7
Grenada Teachers' College	2	3.8	50	96.1
University of the Virgin Islands	68	78.1	19	21.8

performance, the varied teaching and administrative experiences of this writer strongly suggest that when appropriate support systems and facilities are in place, performances of students and teachers are greatly enhanced. Is it possible, therefore, that the inadequate facilities at the institutions in Antigua and Grenada might have adversely affected the performance of student-teachers in their final examinations over the years, and in their perception of, and attitude to teaching? Although this cannot be readily established from the data obtained, conversely it would be difficult to disprove because of the many intervening variables in both cases. Recourse to Table 7.2 could be instructive.

One should not, however, interpret 'inadequacy of library facilities', and 'unavailability of resource materials' as implying a need for a great deal of sophisticated and up-to-date materials and equipment. While it would be useful to have them, most Commonwealth

TABLE 7.2 COMPARISON OF STUDENT-TEACHERS PERFORMANCE ON SCHOOL OF EDUCATION FINAL EXAMINATIONS, 1977-87

GRENADA					ANTIGUA					
Year	No. Sat	No. Passed	Subject Eng.	Referred Math.	% Referred	No. Sat	No. Passed	Subject Eng.	Referred Math.	% Referred
1977	49	43	1	4	10.2	-	-	-	-	-
1978	44	39	2	4	13.6	32	23	-	7	21.8
1979	49	29	12	11	46.9	38	30	-	8	21.0
1980	54	43	4	5	16.6	19	15	1	3	21.0
1981	55	36	7	11	32.7	36	20	3	13	44.4
1982	17	10	3	3	35.2	33	21	7	4	33.3
1983	63	25	15	20	55.5	14	14	-	-	-
1984	-	-	-	-	-	29	17	7	3	34.4
1985	73	29	21	20	56.1	49	40	-	-	-
1986	35	19	10	8	51.4	34	21	5	5	29.4
1987	89	40	40	14	60.6	38	11	17	6	60.5

Sources: Adapted from Grenada Teachers' College Records, and Ministry of Education Records, Antigua.

Caribbean countries could ill-afford this in 1988. This inability to provide a certain type of equipment has, at times, led to the belief among some teachers, and teacher-educators that the teaching behaviours that apparently needed them could not be put into operation without their provision. That, unfortunately, is due to the conviction of 19 out of 26 educators who answered the question posed by this writer: 'Do you think that today we, as teachers, could be effective in the classroom without the use of adequate library facilities and some modern equipment?'.

The negative response of over 70% to that question might be a hint as to what those respondents perceived as 'library facilities' and 'resource materials', and, when as little as 55% of existing (trained) teachers, in one location, agreed that the class could be used as a 'resource unit' (Table 7.8), then "visible signs in the classroom of the latest available educational equipment and materials",[3] gives an idea of what might be perceived by several teachers as 'inadequate library facilities' and 'resource materials'. What role teacher perception can play in correcting those kinds of perceptions can depend, not simply on the orientation of the preparation (school and community based), but also on the creativity, resourcefulness and consciousness of the instructor. And this, no doubt, has some kind of relationship with what might be defined as some of the demands of teachers in a changing Caribbean society. Put in other words, the feeling could well be that if today's students are to cope/function in tomorrow's world, teachers must give them the 'tools' (including orientation and exposure) with which to function, and that can only

happen if teachers themselves have the 'tools' they must offer.

7.3.2 A Teacher For All Seasons:

The question, however, remains as to what 'tools' does tomorrow's Caribbean society demand/require of its people, if it is to survive. Is it sufficient/adequate to use events and demands of today's Caribbean world, as a useful guide, to prepare its junior citizens for their roles as adults tomorrow? If teacher-educators could not predict accurately what future demands would be made of teachers, then what kind of teacher should the teacher preparation institution of today aim to produce?

When teachers-in-training in Grenada and Antigua were asked the following question, the responses seen in Table 7.3 were obtained:

TABLE 7.3 RESPONSES OF TEACHERS-IN-TRAINING, IN ANTIGUA AND GRENADA, TO QUESTION IX IN QC, (1977/1988)

Question: No.IXQC: Which of the following do you consider as your three most pressing needs as a teacher?

ITEMS	RESPONSES			
	Antigua		Grenada	
	No.	%	No.	%
a) makes you better at imparting knowledge	25	67.5	33	62.2
b) Need for more content	10	26.3	9	16.9
c) to be better able to understand pupils and deal effectively with classroom problems as they arise	29	78.3	42	79.2
d) Make me "a teacher for all seasons" - flexible and adaptable	24	64.8	37	69.8

From a comparison of the data obtained, it is clear that both groups of trainee-teachers in Antigua and Grenada considered item 'c' in Table 7.3 the most pressing need, and item 'b' the least. Although the order in which items 'a' and 'd' came, differed between the two groups, the difference is not significant. One could, therefore, conclude that three of the most pressing demands of current student-teachers, as they perceived it, are a, c and d as listed in Table 7.3.

While both groups in Antigua and Grenada agreed that the respective college programme was meeting their most pressing needs, a higher percentage of student-teachers in Grenada than Antigua felt so. For instance, while 88.6% in Grenada responded positively, only 51.4% of those in Antigua responded thus. When the responses that are given by a similar sample in the United States Virgin Islands, to questions that are structurally different, but with intent similar to that expressed in Table 7.3, are carefully analysed, most of them approximate to the pressing needs indicated in Table 7.3, and others.

However, one might argue that it could be pointless examining, and trying to determine the most pressing needs of student-teachers without, at the same time, focussing on the 'quality' of those who are to facilitate, as it were, the realization of those needs.

7.3.3 The Teacher-Educator: Most Powerful Influence in the Teacher Preparation Process?

Is it true that, all pre-requisites of the student-teacher being satisfied, it is the teacher-educator's position that holds the greatest potential in determining the quality of the teacher product?

If this is accepted as highly possible, as this writer seems to believe, then to compare the reactions of student-teachers to the performances of teacher-educators, in all three teacher preparation institutions, becomes a necessary and pertinent exercise.

TABLE 7.4 COMPETENCE OF TEACHER-EDUCATORS AS FELT BY STUDENT-TEACHERS: GRENADA, ANTIGUA, USVI.

LOCATIONS	QUESTIONS	Responses		
		Yes	No	%
U.S.V.I	A. Were/Are the professors who taught/ teach your courses:			
	i) easily accessible to you?	85	7	91.3
	ii) approachable?	87	5	94.5
	iii) helpful?	86	6	93.4
	iv) capable of offering sound professional guidance?	84	8	91.3
GRENADA	B. Are you satisfied with the guidance given to you by college tutors?	39	13	75.0
ANTIGUA	C. Are you satisfied with the guidance given to you by college tutors?	20	18	52.6

Although the number of questions directed to existing professionals in the USVI and current student-teachers at UVI demanded far more detailed answers than the single question posed to current student-teachers in Antigua and Grenada, the expected answer from Grenada and Antigua was meant to cover all aspects of the relevant USVI question.

If this point is accepted as reasonable and valid, then it is possible to state that the degree of 'satisfaction' expressed by teachers in the USVI and Grenada on teacher-educators' ability to offer 'guidance' is heartening. But the fact that only 52.6% of respondents in Antigua reacted positively to that question (Table 7.4) was sufficient to provoke a search for an explanation.

As part of that search, this writer isolated two possible variables that might have contributed to the reactions received from the samples in the three locations. They were credentials, and related work experience of instructors, both of which are presented in Table 7.5 and Figure 7.1. An examination of these, while revealing significant

TABLE 7.5 CREDENTIALS AND RELATED WORK EXPERIENCE OF TEACHER-EDUCATORS IN GRENADA, ANTIGUA AND UVI, 1988

Institution	Credentials				Related work experience - years		No. Functioned in non-major area
	Less than 1st Degree	Bachelor's Degree	Masters Degree	Ph D Degree	Under 10 yrs	Over 10 yrs	
UVI	0	2	3	6	0	11	None
(ASC) ANTIGUA	6	8	2	1	7	10	None
(GTC) GRENADA	1	10	1	0	1	10	None

difference in credential accumulation between the UVI and the two other institutions (Grenada and Antigua), does not suggest that a great degree of difference in credential accumulation existed between Antigua and Grenada.

FIGURE 7.1(a) DISTRIBUTION OF CREDENTIALS OF TEACHER-EDUCATORS AT UVI, ASC AND GTC, 1988.

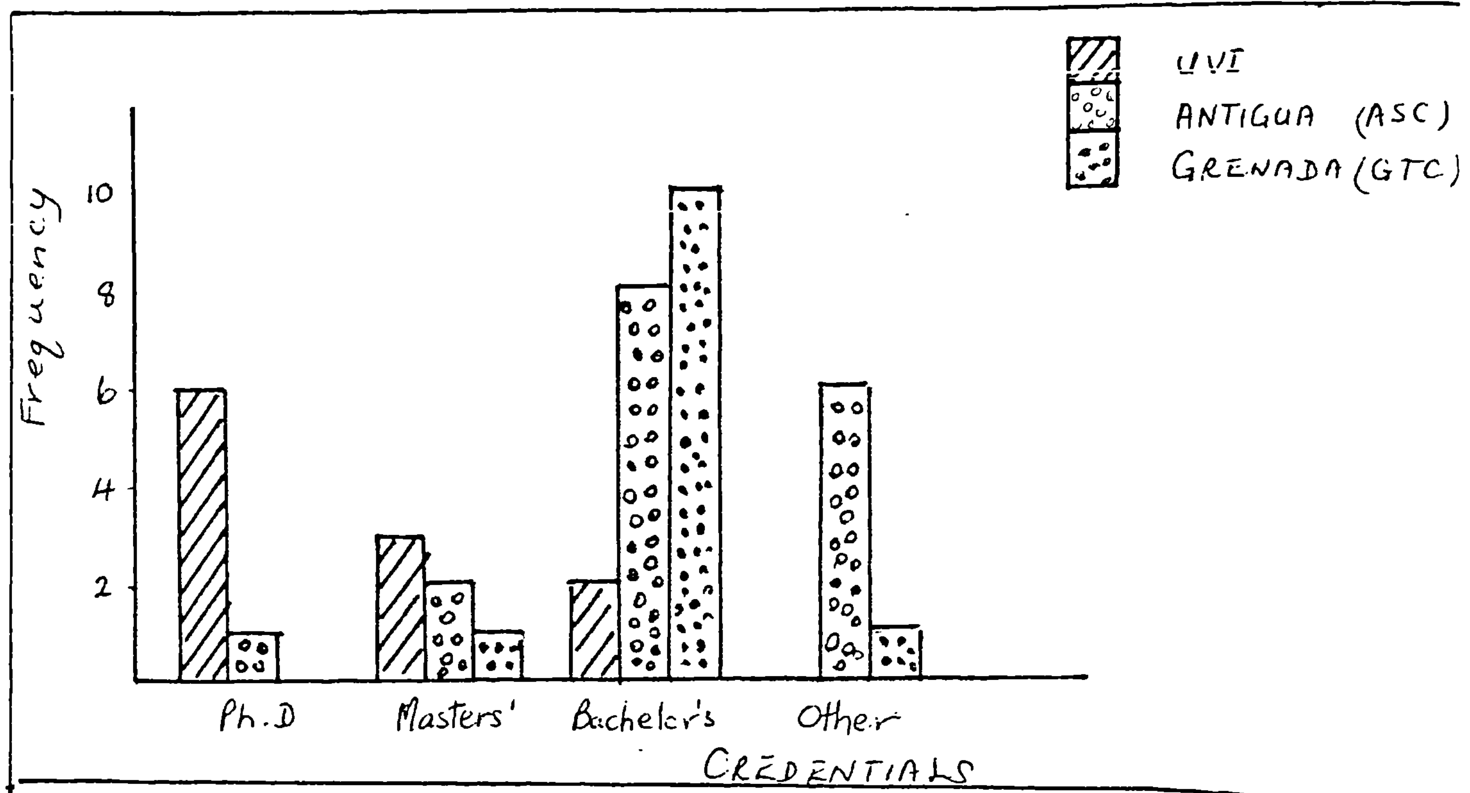


FIGURE 7.1(b) RELATED WORK EXPERIENCE OF TEACHER-EDUCATORS AT UVI, ASC AND GTC (1988)

KEY
UVI
ANTIGUA (ASC)
GRENADA (GTC)
Frequency
10
8
6
4
2
Under 10 years
Over 10 years
EXPERIENCE

Sources: The Head of Each Teacher Preparation Institution (GTC, ASC, UVI).

But satisfaction with ability of instructors to give guidance to students does not seem to mean equal satisfaction with how some courses were taught. The evidence obtained from the three parts of the main study, on the question of content and activities associated with its teaching, could be interpreted to mean that although students might be satisfied, generally, with, what might be termed, the 'social qualities' of instructors, there are a couple areas in which a fairly significant number of students expressed some doubts about the instructor's demonstrated teaching competence. For example, in Grenada and Antigua, of the students that responded, 44.4% and 64.8% respectively seemed unhappy with how Language Arts was taught. But whereas education got a very poor rating in Grenada (under 49%), that course was felt to be well taught by 84.2% of the students who responded in Antigua. So, whereas Social Studies and General Science were the courses receiving the most popular ratings at Grenada Teachers' College, 86.7% and 73.5% respectively, Mathematics, Education and Social Studies were the three courses rated highest as being well taught by 81.5%, 84.2% and 71.0% respectively of the student-teachers in Antigua who responded to that question. From the above, it is possible to conclude that while Social Studies was the only common course that was seen by students-in-training, in Antigua and Grenada, as being well taught, Language Arts was also the only course that received lowest ratings in both locations, as a well-taught course.

In the U.S.V.I, where the question was directed specifically to the subject area of specialization, below 65.4% and 69.0% of respondents indicated that they were satisfied that their majors were well taught.

In all three locations, and in every course selected for evaluation in Grenada and Antigua (except the education course in Grenada), a significantly smaller percentage of respondents (than those who responded to the statement: 'Course well taught') agreed that adequate opportunities were provided for students-in-training to give feedback to instructors. The least positive response to that item was the area of Language Arts in Antigua (18.4%), a course in which only 34.2% of respondents in training there agreed was well taught.

The evidence obtained from the Antigua and Grenada surveys (among teachers-in-training) showed that methods courses for all, but one, content areas (General Science in Antigua) consistently got the highest percentage of positive responses. In other words, the greatest number of students responding positively at any one time, in both locations, was to how instructors applied methods to real classroom situations. Those percentages of positive responses ranged from 79.2% to 97.3%, with the most outstanding positive response having been given to the Methods Course under Education in the Antigua sample.

The reverse situation, however, seemed true for the U.S.V.I study when the findings are matched against sub-items in question No.10 in questionnaire QD. In that survey, all, except sub-item No. VI (QD), 'instructional objectives', consistently received a higher percentage of positive reactions than the methods courses offered to teach specialist content areas. One, therefore, has a situation where in one location (USVI) Methods courses provoked the least consistent

positive response, whereas in the other two locations (Antigua and Grenada), that type of course received the most consistent positive reactions.

One might find a possible explanation for that difference in the nature of the two types of programmes offered, and in the target groups to which the programmes catered. To support this, when the responses to item No. 11 (i) in questionnaire QD, and item No. 13 (i) in QE were analysed, it was found that 89.5% of all the current student-teachers and existing professionals who rated the methods courses at UVI as 'strong and very useful' were students and teachers who were majoring, or had majored in elementary education, especially respondents from St. Croix campus, where someone desirous of majoring in education can only do so in elementary education.

Because the sub-items in questionnaire QD 10, dealing with the relevance and practical nature of the methods courses and instructional objectives proved to be the least popular in positive responses, one could be tempted to assume a fixed and direct relationship between them. That is, one might conclude that if the instructional objectives are not clear to the target group, then that group might not be able to accurately discern the true value of the methodology being offered. Whether that would be a valid assumption, and applicable to all teacher preparation institutions, is debatable, if only because it does not seem to hold true in the case of Antigua and Grenada. For although in some cases in those countries' teacher education institutions the percentage of responses to the two sub-items, in each case, was

relatively close, it was not consistently so. In fact, the responses of student-teachers, in those two locations, to the sub-item on objective QC No.10) revealed, not only a lack of correlation between methodology and objectives, but presented some differences in reactions of the two samples. For instance, whereas in the Grenada sample of teachers in training, the percentage of positive responses to 'clarity of objectives in lessons' ranged from 50.9% in the Education course, to 84.9% in Social Studies, in Antigua the range was from 28.9% in Language Arts, to 76.3% in Education, giving an average positive response rate of 70.9% in Grenada and 57.8% in Antigua.

The highest percentage of correlation among the three sets of samples in all three locations seemed to have been on the list of the 30 competencies/qualities given. A look at Table 7.6 shows that only in five cases was there more than a 7% difference in agreement, and in every case that margin of difference occurred in responses between the Grenada sample and those of the two other locations, Antigua and the United States Virgin Islands (USVI), with the greatest difference of 29.2% occurring in item No.25. The other items causing that difference are listed in Table 7.6 as items numbered 11, 17, 23 and 27.

However, because those differences are due more to lack of response to those items rather than to disagreement with the ideas expressed within the statements, one might be reluctant to consider them 'seriously significant'. What is also interesting about that situation is that when the responses of existing teachers were

TABLE 7.6 COMPARISON OF RESPONSES AMONG EXISTING TEACHERS FROM THREE LOCATIONS: (GRENADA, ANTIGUA, UNITED STATES, VIRGIN ISLANDS) (1987-88)

(a) Exiting Teachers

NO.	COMPETENCIES/QUALITIES	Agreed			Disagreed			Neutral		
		49 G	62 A	52 VI	G	A	VI	G	A	VI
1	Love of teaching and children	48	61	49	1				1	1
2	Dedication/commitment to the profession	49	58	48					2	1
3	Motivator/catalyst/inspires and stimulates	43	54	51				1	5	
4	Sociable/approachable/has a sense of humour	44	51	42	1				8	3
5	Good communicator/explains very well	47	59	51					1	1
6	Thinks positive of self and students	43	58	49				2	1	4
7	Innovator/Initiator/is creative	41	53	45			1	3	6	
8	Flexible/Adaptable re teaching (techniques/ situation)	44	55	45				1	4	
9	Kind, Fair, Friendly, Firm	45	58	49					2	
10	Evaluates self and students regularly	45	57	46	1				3	3
11	Co-operates with peers, parents, community	45	49	46		1		3	9	3
12	Prepares work thoroughly	48	56	50	1	1			4	
13	Competent in subject area(s)	41	57	45	1			2	3	2
14	Demonstrates sound, mature judgement in reaching decisions	41	51	43		1		4	8	
15	Uses a variety of methods/approaches in teaching	48	60	48	1				2	1
16	Sees and treats students as individuals	48	60	49					2	
17	Enables students to compete with self so as to realise fullest potential	44	47	40				1	10	3
18	Respects the views of students, peers, parents	44	53	46	1	1	1	3	5	2
19	Very patient listener and keen observer	43	53	43	1			3	7	1
20	Tactful/a strategist	39	49	40	1			3	9	4
21	Makes maximum use of available resources	46	59	47	1			1	3	2
22	Uses rewards and punishment effectively	45	52	43					7	1
23	Accepts and nurtures divergent thinking	36	48	41		1		5	7	4
24	Knows the children that he/she teaches	44	58	47	1			1	3	2
25	Sees and uses the class as a resource unit	27	54	38				4	7	8
26	Sets realistic goals which challenge students	47	57	47		1			1	1
27	Has effective class control	35	61	48					1	1
28	Always seeks new knowledge/open to suggestions	48	58	49				1	3	
29	Sensitive to students needs	45	59	48				2	2	1
30	Instils feeling of self-worth within students	43	59	48	1			2	2	1
	TOTAL:	49	62	52						

TABLE 7.6 COMPARISON OF RESPONSES AMONG 'SUPERVISORS' FROM THREE LOCATIONS: (GRENADA; ANTIGUA, UNITED STATES VIRGIN ISLANDS) (1987-1988)

(b) Supervisors

NO.	COMPETENCIES/QUALITIES	Agreed			Disagreed			Neutral		
		50	22	20						
		G	A	VI	G	A	VI	G	A	VI
1	Love of teaching and children	50	19	20					2	
2	Dedication/commitment to the profession	47	21	18				2		1
3	Motivator/catalyst/inspires and stimulates	45	21	17				1		1
4	Sociable/approachable/has a sense of humour	41	19	16		1	2	3		2
5	Good communicator/explains very well	46	20	19		1		2		1
6	Thinks positive of self and students	45	21	18				4		1
7	Innovator/Initiator/is creative	41	20	18	1		1	3	1	1
8	Flexible/Adaptable rė teaching (techniques/ situation)	47	21	18				2		2
9	Kind, Fair, Friendly, Firm	45	20	19				1	1	
10	Evaluates self and students regularly	49	21	18					1	1
11	Co-operates with peers, parents, community	39	20	17	2	1	1	4	2	2
12	Prepares work thoroughly	49	21	20					1	
13	Competent in subject area(s)	43	21	19	1			2	1	1
14	Demonstrates sound, mature judgement in reaching decisions.	42	21	17	1			3	1	2
15	Uses a variety of methods/approaches in teaching	46	21	18	1			3	1	2
16	Sees and treats students as individuals	47	22	19				1		1
17	Enables students to compete with self so as to realise fullest potential	39	20	18	2	1		7	1	2
18	Respects the views of students, peers, parents	44	21	17		1	1	2		2
19	Very patient listener and keen observer	45	21	16	1	1		2		
20	Tactful/a strategist	43	20	13		3		1	2	4
21	Makes maximum use of available resources	50	21	20					1	
22	Uses rewards and punishment effectively	42	20	20	1	1		3	1	
23	Accepts and nurtures divergent thinking	34	18	17	2	2	2	6	1	1
24	Knows the children that he/she teaches	48	21	18					1	1
25	Sees and uses the class as a resource unit	24	17	15		1		8	3	5
26	Sets realistic goals which challenge students	48	22	18				1		2
27	Has effective class control	36	22	19				1		
28	Always seeks new knowledge/open to suggestions	44	22	20	2			1		
29	Sensitive to students needs	48	22	19						
30	Instils feeling of self-worth within students	48	22	19						
	TOTAL:	50	22	20						

compared, it was found that the five items on which there were noted differences among 'supervisors' in the three locations reappeared as five of the six items that generated some differences among existing teachers (Table 7.7), with a widest margin of difference again occurring between Grenada and the other two communities under review, and again with item No. 25 creating the greatest difference, as could be seen in Table 7.7.

From studying Table 7.7, for example, it would be seen that whereas 73.0% of the sample in the USVI responded to item No. 25 positively, and 87.0% in Antigua, only 55.7% have done so in Grenada. So, although the highest rate of response among existing teachers to items 4, 11 and 17 is from the Grenada sample, that country has responded quite differently from the others on those items. What has caught the attention of this writer, is that, for whatever reason(s), only 55.7% and 48.0% of existing teachers and supervisors respectively, in Grenada, considered 'the class as a resource unit'. The question, of course, is why? Because the class, as a resource unit, offers tremendous potential for teaching and research, when it is not so recognised by a significant percentage of trained teachers and supervisors, including teacher-educators, then there ought to be cause for concern.

However, despite this fact, and the few marked differences that surfaced from the comparison, the evidence strongly suggests that the 30 competencies/qualities advanced by school principals and education officers in the British Virgin Islands have been endorsed by educators in Grenada, Antigua and the United States Virgin Islands as being very

TABLE 7.7 RESPONSES TO SELECTED COMPETENCIES/QUALITIES OF EDUCATORS IN THREE LOCATIONS, 1987-88

NO.	Items Description	Existing Teachers and Locations			Supervisors and Locations		
		% G/DA	% ANU	% USVI	% G/DA	% ANU	% USVI
4	Sociable/approachable/ has a sense of humour	89.7	82.2	80.7	-	-	-
11	Co-operates with peers, parents, community	91.8	79.0	88.4	78.0	90.9	85.0
17	Enables students to compete with self so as to realise fullest potential	89.7	75.8	76.9	78.0	90.9	90.0
23	Accepts and nurtures divergent thinking	73.4	77.4	78.8	68.0	81.8	85.0
25	Sees and uses the class as a resource unit	55.7	87.0	73.0	48.0	77.2	75.0
27	Has effective class control	71.4	98.3	92.3	72.0	100	95.0

important for effective/successful teaching. In other words, to become a successful/effective teacher in those societies seemed to necessitate the acquisition and development of those competencies and qualities.

This should not be taken to mean, however, that they alone must form the basis of all teacher education programmes. To suggest that is to assume complete knowledge of what makes a successful/effective teacher. And that assumption, of course, could only serve to mislead. But certainly those suggested competencies and qualities might serve as useful indicators in the search, by teacher-educators, for social and technical skills that would best equip the 'teacher for all seasons'. Yet, the fact that the systems and the educational institutions being examined have experienced, over the years, so many educational casualities, in spite of its assured knowledge of what makes a successful/effective teacher, raises serious doubts about those so-called competencies/qualities, and the ability of the system in the past to provide the support systems to develop within its teachers those competencies and qualities that should make them effective teachers.

7.3.4 Practice Teaching: Duration, Evaluation and Form:

On the issue of practice teaching, while there are some reactions that are common to the relevant samples in Antigua and Grenada, an insignificant degree of disparity does exist. On the question of preferred time when teaching practice sessions should be held, of the student-teachers in Antigua who responded to that question, 37.0% indicated the strongest preference for the third, fourth and sixth term, while only 11.3% of the Grenada sample would prefer

that time. 64.0% of the Grenada sample preferred to practice teach during the third and fifth term only. In spite of the difference in preference expressed by the two groups, there appeared to be a common desire among 74.0% of the student-teachers in Antigua and Grenada to be thrown in the classroom only after they have been exposed to a fair amount of related theory.

When questioned on the number of weeks practice teaching teachers in training should be given, a total of nine weeks proved the most favoured period, with 17 (or 45.9%) of the 37 respondents in Antigua, and 33 (or 62.2%) of the 53 respondents in Grenada opting for it. A striking difference in response emerged when teachers in training were asked whether, as a rule, school principals, education officers/ supervisors should assist college tutors in evaluating student-teachers when on teaching practice. Of the 36 student-teachers in the Antigua sample, 24 (or 66.6%) felt it was a good idea. But from the sample in Grenada, 30 (or 56.6%) would prefer not to have them. In both cases, most of those who would not have them were female student-teachers. Although the study did not seek to establish the reason(s) underlying that strong tendency among female student-teachers, one wonders how much the dominance of male educational administrators in both Antigua and Grenada (where female classroom teachers are in the majority) has contributed to that attitude.

On the question of what form of teacher-education might be most effective, teachers-in-training in Antigua and Grenada felt that Full-Time In-College training offered the best opportunity for

producing the most effective teacher. Part in-service, and part in-college took the second most popular place. Of those favouring full-time in college, there were 21 (or 56.7%) of the 37 students in Antigua, and 40 (or 75.4%) of the 53 in Grenada.

That bias towards full-time in-college teacher education might have been influenced by the fact that in both samples of existing teachers, over 50.0% of those teachers were prepared through the full-time method: 77.0% of the Antigua sample and 52.6% in the case of Grenada. (Refer to Table 7.8). But what appears to be a more plausible argument is that in-service teacher preparation implies much more strain and pressure on the student-teacher, and indirectly on the pupils, as findings on Hull university teacher preparation programmes in the British Virgin Islands strongly suggests. (Refer to Appendix 8A).

To many student-teachers (and even to some teacher-educators), practice teaching in its 'traditional form' was nothing more than a 'stage act', put on by the training institution to give 'practice' in teaching to students, but on so many occasions misused by some instructors as an opportunity to "massage their ego and to intimidate and get even", [4] with student-teachers who were unfavourably perceived by those instructors. If this 'charge' is valid, could it be that it might be part of the reason why practice teaching has been perceived by a significant number of existing teachers, and student-teachers, as "a necessary evil", [5] and its duration to varied within and between teacher preparation institutions? (Table 7.8). If that

TABLE 7.8 RESPONSES OF STUDENT-TEACHERS IN ANTIGUA AND GRENADA TO QUESTIONS QC X1, X11, X111, XV (1987-1988)

QC X1: When would you like teaching practice sessions to be held?

Options	Grenada	Antigua
a) Every Term	9 = 16.9%	8 = 22.8%
b) 3rd, 5th Term	34 = 64.1%	7 = 20.0%
c) 3rd, 4th, 6th Term	6 = 11.3%	13 = 37.1%
d) Other	4 = 7.5%	7 = 20.0%

QC X11: How many Weeks of 'practice teaching' should teachers in training be given?

Options	Grenada	Antigua
a) 9 weeks	33 = 63.4%	17 = 45.9%
b) 12 weeks	4 = 7.6%	9 = 24.3%
c) 16 weeks	0 = -	1 = 2.7%
d) Other	15 = 28.8%	10 = 27.0%

QC XV: Which of the following forms of teacher training do you think can be most effective?

Options	Grenada	Antigua
a) Full-time In-College	40 = 75.4%	21 = 56.7%
b) In-service training	2 = 3.7%	3 = 8.1%
c) Part In-service, and Part In-College	11 = 20.7%	13 = 35.1%
d) Other	-	-

TABLE 7.8 (Continued)

QC X111: Principals, Education Officers/Supervisors should assist college tutors in assessing/evaluating student-teachers when on teaching practice.

Country	Responses		
	Yes	No	%
Grenada	23	30 =	56.6
Antigua	24	12 =	33.3

Question: For how many weeks did you 'practice teach'?

Weeks	Grenada		Antigua		USVI	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
3-5	2	6.06	17	27.86	-	-
6-8	9	27.27	20	32.78	9	13.04
9-11	17	51.51	6	9.83	15	21.73
12-14	3	9.09	15	45.45	31	44.92
15-17	-	-	1	1.63	8	11.59
Over 17	2	6.06	2	3.27	6	8.69
TOTAL	33		61		69	

is not 'the' reason, but 'a' reason, then why has there been such wide variations? Also, what factors determined the duration of student teaching of any group/batch of student-teachers?

In Antigua and Grenada, the usual number of weeks of 'practice teaching' a student-teacher in full-time in-college training was required to undergo was nine weeks, 3 per term, commencing during the third term of the first year. As regards the UVI, while student teaching of 'nine credit hours' was one of the professional requirements of student-teachers majoring in elementary education, for those student-teachers with a concentration in secondary education, the requirement was 'six credit hours'. When those credit hours are translated in weeks, it could have meant a total of 15 weeks of practical teaching for elementary education students and 8 weeks for secondary.

Yet, as has been shown in Chapter Six, there have been variations within each category at UVI based on whether or not a student-teacher has had initial teacher-training. If the data obtained from the responses of the relevant samples, and reflected in Table 7.8 are a true reflection of the reality of the situation, then there have been circumstances/conditions, other than those stated above, that might have influenced the duration of student teaching of any 'batch' of student-teachers, some of which have been mentioned in Chapter Six. But surely, underpinning those variations, circumstances and/or conditions could have been sound educational and psychological principles.

At teachers colleges that offered initial teacher training (e.g. Grenada and Antigua), one of the factors that contributed to variations in duration of teaching practice was the form of training offered (in-service, and or full-time in-college), and the duration itself of the training: one, two or three years.

The idea of 'teaching practice' suggests to this writer the provision of a 'structured opportunity' in which students in training 'experiment' with educational approaches/methods, psychological theories, and their own ideas, striving, as it were, to develop a repertoire of teaching skills and other 'appropriate' classroom behaviours. To suggest then that all students should use the same period of time for that exercise is to discount the notion of individual differences in rate of learning and skill acquisition. But even more than that, it could mean that teacher-educators know, as an established fact, that given certain preconditions, a student-teacher should master the basic teaching skills within a certain period.

What one needs to know, however, is:

a) what those preconditions are -

b) what are those basic teaching skills that truly enable a student-teacher to become a licensed practitioner in the classroom, and

c) whether a fixed number of weeks can be given with certainty as the time needed to develop those basic teaching skills.

It has been pointed out in an earlier chapter that the variation in duration of teacher education programmes in Antigua, Grenada and the United States Virgin Islands were, in part, due to the acute shortages of qualified teachers in those systems, and the urgent need then to 'produce' them within a relatively short time. That, no doubt, might explain, partially, the reason for the fairly wide range of differences in years taken to have a student-teacher become 'trained'. In spite of those differences, the data in Table 7.9 suggests that 'two years' was the most frequently used period to prepare existing teachers in the samples in Antigua and Grenada. For example, when one compares the responses of the relevant samples

TABLE 7.9

QBIV: For how long was that preparation/QE6: In what year did you attend UVI? 19 - to 19 - .

Number of Years	Grenada (GTC)		Antigua (ASC)		USVI (UVI)	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
1	1	2.63	5	7.57	-	-
2	20	52.63	56	84.84	-	-
3	16	42.10	4	6.06	10	18.18
4	1	2.63	1	1.51	23	41.81
5	-	-	-	-	13	23.63
Over 5	-	-	-	-	9	16.36

in Antigua and Grenada to question IV in questionnaire QB, 56 of the 66 existing teachers (84.8%) were trained for 2 years; in Grenada 20 of the 38 teachers responding (52.6%) completed their training in 2 years also. Of the remainder, 4 (or 6%) in Antigua, and 16 (or 42%) in Grenada followed 3-year programmes.

The question still remains: Is it possible that variations in duration of training at the initial teachers' training college level could affect or determine the quality of the teacher product? Although it is very difficult to use the data obtained from this study to state conclusively that duration in teacher preparation, age and academic background of students determine 'student quality', the evidence seems to suggest some sort of relationship.

TABLE 7.10 QUALIFICATION USED BY STUDENT-TEACHERS TO OBTAIN ADMISSION TO TRAINING COLLEGES

Qualification	Grenada		Antigua		USVI	
	No. of Students	%	No. of Students	%	No. of Students	%
Less than 4 GCE/CXC	7	14.58	22	40.00	3	3.19
Four/More than 4 GCE/CXC	39	81.25	17	30.90	12	12.76
High School Diploma	-		-	-	63	67.02
Senior Cambridge Cert.	-		1	1.81	4	4.25
Other	2		16	29.09	12	12.76

When the academic entry qualifications of existing trained professionals to the teacher preparation institutions in Antigua and Grenada are compared, apart from realising that over 90% of them taught for six years and over, one finds that in Grenada about 15% of that sample still had less than the minimum entry level qualification required by the training college there. In Antigua, however, a more serious situation existed. Of the 55 respondents, 22 or 40% had less than the required minimum of 4 G.C.E. O'level subject passes, or 4 CXC passes at the general proficiency level. When situations like these exist, how

does one justify the same period of training for all student-teachers? Even when one attempts doing so on grounds of maturity and experience, the academic deficiencies and the attendant negative impact on the entire system do not disappear.

From analysing the age range of student-teachers it was found that, while in Grenada there was an equal number of students in training within the age categories 20-25 and 26-30 (43.3% respectively), in Antigua the greatest percentage of students (68.4%) were within the age category 20-25. When those percentages were compared with what was obtained in the USVI, it was discovered that students in the over-30 age category formed the highest percentage there (53.4%). Those limited data seemed to suggest that:

a) the early and late 20s was the age at which most untrained teachers in Grenada and Antigua were ready to enter an initial teacher preparation institution;

b) the older the average age range of teachers at the teacher preparation institution, the longer they would have taught before receiving initial teacher training;

c) students pursuing education degrees (bachelor's) at the UVI were on average older than those undergoing initial teacher training at Grenada Teachers' College and Antigua State College;

d) a greater proportion of student-teachers at Grenada Teachers' College (96.2%) and Antigua State College (97.3%) have had practical teaching experience than those student-teachers at the UVI (48.7%), one possible reason being that practical teaching experience was a

pre-condition for admission to the Grenada Teachers' College and Antigua State College. It might be the belief that that pre-condition indicated, among other things, a more genuine interest in teaching as a career.

7.3.5 The Successful/Effective Teacher:

It is rather interesting to note that when one compares the responses of existing teachers to the question: 'How do you rate yourself as a teacher?', one finds a very clear similarity between how teachers in Antigua and Grenada perceived themselves. Of the

TABLE 7.11 EXISTING TEACHERS' PERCEPTION OF THEMSELVES IN TERMS OF EFFECTIVENESS

Categories	Grenada		Antigua		USVI	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Very successful/Very effective	6	11.76	8	12.69		-
Successful/effective	36	70.58	42	66.66	50	96.15
Not effective/successful	-	-	-	-	2	3.84
Average	9	17.64	13	20.63	-	-
TOTAL	51		63		52	

45 existing teachers in Antigua who responded to that question, only 11 (24.4%) rated themselves as average. In Grenada, only 9 from the 51 that responded (17.6%) felt so. The remainder thought of themselves as either very successful/very effective or just successful/ effective. On average, just under 80% of existing teachers in Grenada

and Antigua (combined) considered themselves as being in the very successful/very effective or successful/effective categories. That could be observed in Table 7.11.

Although the question posed to existing teachers in the USVI was slightly different in structure, for example: 'Do you consider yourself an effective/successful teacher?', the responses received could be compared, relatively, with responses given in Antigua and Grenada. Of the 52 existing teachers in the UVI sample, 50 (96%) answered in the affirmative. What is also interesting here is that the responses of 'supervisors' coincided very closely with those of existing teachers, as to how they perceived the effectiveness of the teachers. And as Table 7.12 shows, on average, when responses of 'supervisors' in Antigua and Grenada are combined, about 80% of the supervisors placed the existing teachers they supervised within the range of successful and very successful/very affective. 90% of the supervisors in the USVI reacted in much the same way as their counterparts in Grenada and Antigua. (Refer to Table 7.12).

TABLE 7.12 RATING OF EXISTING TEACHERS BY 'SUPERVISORS'

	Grenada		Antigua		USVI	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Under 25%	3	7.89	0	-	-	-
25% - 50%	2	5.26	4	26.66	1	5.26
50% - 75%	24	63.15	7	46.66	10	52.63
75% - 100%	9	23.68	4	26.66	8	42.10
TOTAL	38		15		19	

7.3.6 Evaluation Criteria and Techniques as employed in Antigua, Grenada, and USVI:

When the reactions of existing teachers and supervisors to evaluation criteria/techniques used were compared within each location, it was found that in almost every case the two categories of respondents resorted to the same 'relevant' evaluation criteria and techniques, with almost equal popularity. After comparing, for example, the responses of 'supervisors' (principals, education officers, subject supervisors, department heads), in all three locations, to the same question, it was seen that in only one instance was there any significant difference in emphasis.

Students' grades which was the second most popular criterion used by supervisors in the USVI and Antigua was the third most popular among supervisors in Grenada, with students' evaluation taking second place in Grenada, and third in the USVI and Antigua. And although the difference in frequencies with which students' grades and students' evaluation were used in Grenada was somewhat insignificant (52.8% and 56.6%), in the case of the other two locations, it was fairly significant: a difference of 25% in Antigua, and 10.5% in the USVI. (Check Table 7.13). One fact, however, is quite clear from the data obtained: Among supervisors in the three locations studied, 'observation', as an evaluation technique, was the most used means of evaluating teacher effectiveness. Yet, in spite of the great importance given to 'observation' by school supervisors, it was only in the USVI that the 'principal's evaluation' of teachers was given

TABLE 7.13 A COMPARISON OF THE USE MADE OF EVALUATION CRITERIA/ TECHNIQUES BY EDUCATORS IN THREE LOCATIONS

	GRENADA				ANTIGUA				USVI			
	Supervisors		Teachers		Supervisors		Teachers		Supervisors		Teachers	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Observation	46	86.7	-	-	22	91.6	-	-	19	100	-	-
Students' Grades	28	52.8	23	45.0	17	70.8	33	50.0	11	57.8	26	50.0
Students' Evaluation	30	56.6	25	49.0	11	45.8	29	43.9	9	47.3	33	63.4
Peer Assessment	6	11.3	1	1.63	2	8.3	1	1.51	2	10.5	24	46.1
Principals Evaluation	-	-	26	50.9	-	-	22	33.3	-	-	41	78.8
Self-Evaluation	-	-	31	60.7	-	-	44	66.6	-	-	41	78.8
Other	-	-	7	13.72	-	-	1	1.51	2			-

great significance by teachers in arriving at how effective they were. In fact, the principal's evaluation carried the same importance to the teachers as their own evaluation of themselves (78.8%), which, incidentally, was also the category most frequently used by existing teachers in Antigua (66.6%) and Grenada (60.7%), in determining their effectiveness as teachers.

Differences, however, surfaced among all these locations as far as the importance of the other categories were concerned. (Table 7.13). But the opinion of co-workers in determining 'teacher effectiveness' has been assigned the least importance among existing teachers in Antigua, Grenada and the USVI.

That attitude of little confidence in the opinion of co-workers might be interpreted as a contradiction when considered in the context of practice teaching, and the role of the co-operating teacher. If

teachers do not have faith in the professional judgement of their co-workers, why should a teacher preparation institution risk entrusting in their care teachers-in-training? Of course, that reluctance by peers to give significance to one another's evaluation of the other might have nothing to do with competence or incompetence, but rather that fear of professional cannibalism that is sometimes used by the 'non-professional' to inflate and massage the ego.

7.3.7 Students' Performances in Three Systems Compared:

Surprise might be expressed by someone analysing or comparing the data collected on how effective teachers are said to be, when that effectiveness is matched against the performance of students in the systems where those teachers have taught. The comparison becomes more significant when students' grades have been weighted so heavily in the process of determining teacher effectiveness/success.

Although it is very difficult in this study to make a 'straight comparison' of students' performances in all three locations, mainly because of differences that existed in national valuation procedures, an attempt has been made to do so when, and where it was possible. From the responses of school supervisors in both Antigua and Grenada (which are set out in Table 7.14, and from discussions and interviews, by this writer, with supervisors and existing professionals in the USVI, Mathematics appeared to be the subject that is least well done by elementary and secondary school students, and by student-teachers in training, whose concentration is not Mathematics.

TABLE 7.14 RESPONSES OF 'SUPERVISORS' ON SUBJECT PERFORMED BEST AND WORST ON BY STUDENTS

QA: a) Students in my institution/the educational system do best/ worst in:									b) Teachers Need Further Training in:			
	Grenada				Antigua				Grenada		Antigua	
	Best	%	Worst	%	Best	%	Worst	%	No.	%	No.	%
Mathematics	8	15	37	69.8	0	0	16	66.6	43	81.1	19	79.1
Lang. Arts	15	28.3	16	30.1	15		3	12.5	26	49.0	6	25.0
Soc. Studies	22	41.5	3	5.6	4		4	16.6	10	18.8	8	33.3
Science	12	22.6	4	7.5	6		0	0	15	28.3	6	25.0

And 'supervisors' (principals, education officers, instructors, subject supervisors, department heads), when asked to indicate the subject in which students did worst, pointed to Mathematics, with 61.6% in Grenada and 69.5% in Antigua. In the case of the United States Virgin Islands (USVI), the evidence available to this writer strongly suggested that Mathematics proved to be the subject in which elementary and secondary school students have done badly. For example, as stated in Chapter Six, on the 1987 Metropolitan Achievement Tests, 81% of the Grade Seven students on St. Croix, and 72% of those on St. Thomas - St. John performed below the grade level, while 75% of the Grade Eleven students on St. Croix, and 53% of those on St. Thomas - St. John did not attain that grade level. With those statistics, the comment made by the state director for curriculum, instruction and training in the USVI simply indicated that, in 1989, the situation has remained unchanged. Golden wrote:

> "....our system cannot develop standards or requirements only for high-school students who function below the ninth-grade level in Math....Recent test results now indicate that Virgin Islands high-school students perform poorer in Math than in any other subject." [6]

The fact that Mathematics is the subject which was least well done in Antigua, Grenada and the United States Virgin Islands school systems could strongly suggest that the persons who taught Mathematics in those systems were either ill-prepared, professionally, to do so (in terms of content and/or methodology), or did not receive the support, necessitated by the nature of the subject from the educational systems. A brief look back to Table 7.2 showing student-teachers performance in Mathematics at teachers' college in Antigua and Grenada might be instructive.

On the question of the subject done best by students, there was a difference of opinion between the supervisors in Antigua and Grenada. 62.5% of the supervisors in Antigua who reacted to that question identified Language Arts as the subjects that was best taught. As far as the majority of the respondents in the Grenada sample was concerned (41.5%), Social Studies was the subject that was done best by students in the elementary schools there, with Language Arts being seen as the second best. In Antigua, it was Science.

In keeping with their position that Mathematics was the 'worst done subject', it was the subject area identified as the one in which teachers needed further/most training. 81% in Grenada felt so, while 79% in Antigua agreed.

7.4 Comparison of Programmes Offered

7.4.1 Education Foundations:

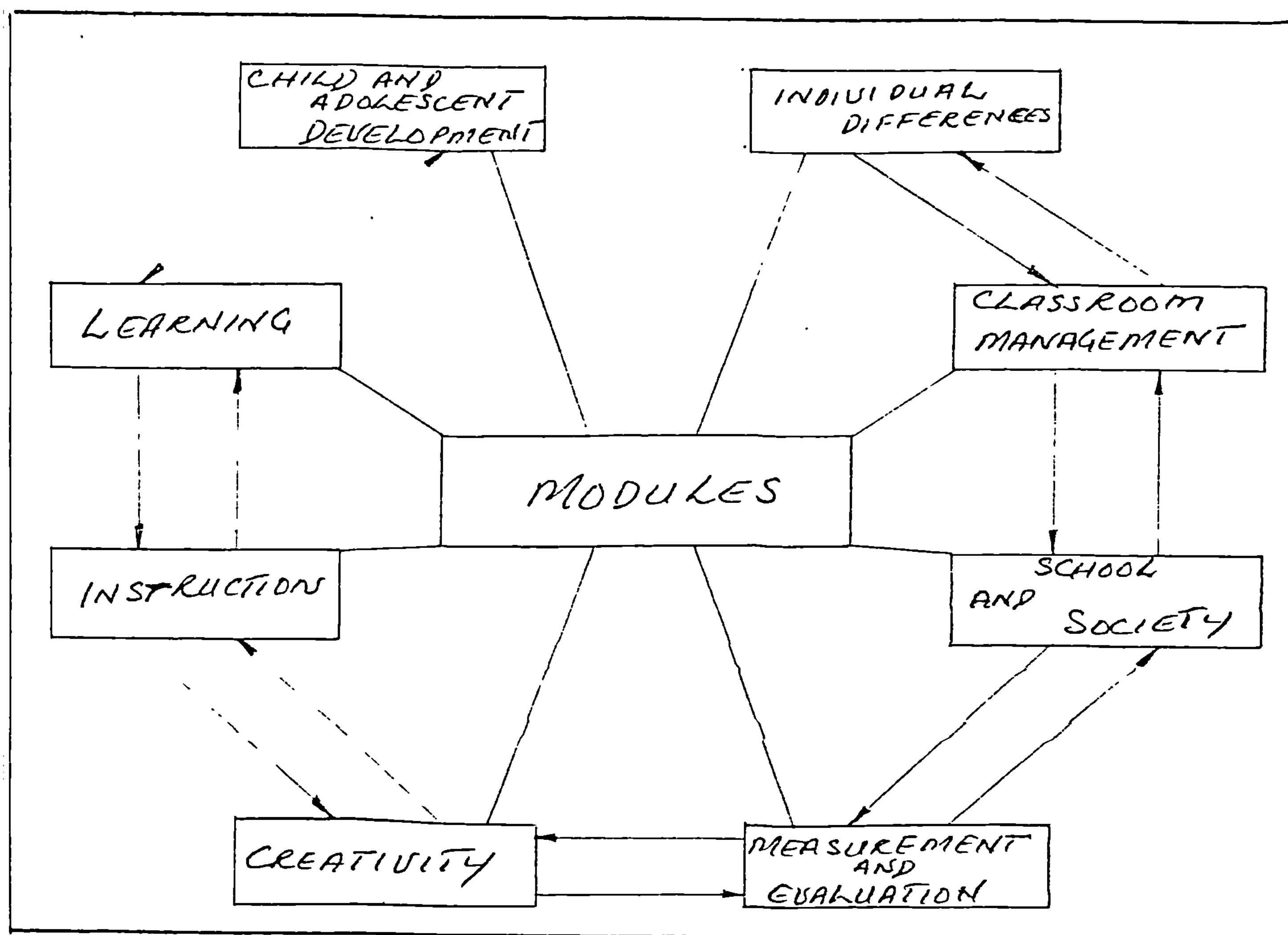
The education curriculum offered at the Grenada Teachers' College and the Antigua State College was the programme recommended by the School of Education, University of the West Indies (UWI), Cave Hill campus. What this meant was that all teachers' colleges in the Eastern Caribbean that were affiliated with the School of Education in Barbados were expected to follow a common programme in Education Foundations. That programme was divided into eight modules (Seen in Figure 7.2) which have been broken down into discrete content/topic areas. The objectives which describe the intentions of the programme have been spelt out under four main headings, shown in Appendix 7A.

Having a common programme, which was developed from input from participating territories, does not necessarily mean the same emphasis, or identical orientations. And as one education tutor put it to this writer:

> "We might be given the same module and be expected to realise the same educational objectives but we all have individual personalities and preferences and those inevitably get in the way sometimes." [7]

That reality might be in part responsible for the close correlation in responses given by student teachers in Grenada and Antigua to the question on "content challenging and suitable" (97.3% and 94.3% respectively), but also responsible for the vastly different reactions by those two groups of students to the question on "course is well taught". To that question, whereas 84.2% of the sample in Antigua

FIGURE 7.2 THE EDUCATION CURRICULUM, IN MODULES, FOLLOWED BY GRENADA TEACHERS' COLLEGE/ANTIGUA STATE COLLEGE



Source: Devised by Writer from Information abstracted from Education Syllabus, Grenada Teachers' College, 1988.

responded positively, only 49.0% of the sample in Grenada did so. Whether the distribution of time, as reflected in Table 7.15, has contributed to that difference has not been ascertained. What appeared to have happened is that student-teachers in Antigua were exposed for more periods to non-subject-related education courses than student-teachers in Grenada: 280 minutes in Antigua as opposed to 180 minutes in Grenada, almost 36.0% less Education time (and possibly theory) than their Antiguan counterpart.

Although it is somewhat difficult to make the same kind of comparison with UVI, as has been attempted with Antigua and Grenada, by describing the professional requirements demanded by UVI, of students majoring in elementary education especially, it might be possible to 'see' the similarities and differences that have existed among them.

Before an elementary education major at UVI can matriculate, that student must have completed 36 credits in a total of 10 professional courses, all of which are set out in Figure 7.3 and Appendix 7A. The fact that 'Foundations of Education', and 'Student Teaching' were also two of the requirements in Antigua and Grenada teacher preparation institutions, and the fact that credits were given to student-teachers at UVI (see Table 7.16), who successfully completed initial teacher training, of the type offered at Grenada Teachers' College and Antigua State College, can imply some degree of comparability.

Another course which an attempt has been made to compare here is

TABLE 7.15

GRENADA TEACHERS' COLLEGE TIME-TABLE, 1987/1988

INTERVALS	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
8:30-9:15	Lang. Arts	Maths	General Assembly	Social studies	Education
9:15-10:00	General Science	Maths	Education	Education	Industrial Arts - or Home Economics
10:00-10:15		MID MORNING	BREAK		
10:15-11:00	Education	General Science	Maths	Language Arts	
11:00-11:45	Maths		Lang. Arts		
11:45-12:45		L U	N C H		
12:45-1:30	Maths	Lang. Arts	Library/ Res.Methods	Agricultural Science	General Science
1:30-2:15 2:15-3:00	Social Studies	H/Education or Art	Physical Education	Student Activities	Music

B. TIME-TABLE OF TEACHER TRAINING DEPARTMENT (ASC)*, 1988

INTERVALS	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
8:30-9:15	Lang.Arts	Education Psychology	Research Methods	Maths	Speech Training
9:15-10:00	Maths	English	Speech Training	English	Maths
10:00-10:45	Science	Education Theory	Science	Education Psychology	
11:15-12:00	Social Studies	Lang. Arts	Maths	Lang. Arts	
11:15-12.45					Craft/ Home Economics
12:00-12:45	English	Child Development	Social Studies	Education Theory	
2:00-3:00	Guidance Counselling	Infant Education	Choir	Social Studies	
3:00-4:00	Music Theory		Art	Physical Education	

* ASC = Antigua State College

TABLE 7.16 INITIAL TEACHER TRAINING COURSES FOR WHICH CREDITS HAVE BEEN GIVEN TO STUDENT-TEACHERS AT UVI.

Teachers' College Courses	UVI Parallel Courses	Exemption
Education	Education 243, 342	10
Mathematics	Math 131, 132	6
English	English 111-112	6
Music	Music 124	3
Art	Art 125	2

Mathematics. A look at the time distribution on the timetables for Antigua and Grenada teacher preparation institutions (Table 7.15 revealed that over a period of one term (13 weeks), while student-teachers in Grenada were given 2925 minutes (48.75 hours) of tuition in Mathematics, the student-teachers in Antigua received about 1950 minutes (32.5 hours). An examination of the respective syllabus seemed to suggest that while Antigua and Grenada prepared student-teachers for a common final Mathematics examination, for which the School of Education (UWI) has assumed full responsibility, the syllabuses followed by those two institutions were not necessarily explicitly identical, even though the reader feels/senses a common thread linking the syllabuses (Refer to Appendix 7A). An explanation for that difference could be found in this remark:

> "Apart from preparing students for the UWI School of Education examinations, the Mathematics course also seeks to equip teachers to function in the school system. Thus some topics not necessarily examined by UWI may be included from time to time as optional or enrichment topics to suit the needs of student-teachers....and the school system." [8]

The objective as outlined in the Mathematics syllabus for the teacher education division at Antigua State College (and set out in Appendix 7A) are clearly divided between content and methodology. This discrete separation of objectives could, no doubt, give the impression that methods would be taught in isolation from content, as separate units. Yet, it might not be so. On the other hand, a combined approach in setting out objectives for methods and content, as has happened in Grenada Teachers' College Mathematics syllabus could suggest a more integrated approach there, and also greater scope for the content taught to be more directly related to mathematics syllabus in the elementary system, if only because it seems to offer great opportunities to instructors to teach the college Mathematics content through the mathematics methods component of the course.

However, by having areas of greater emphasis more clearly articulated through the setting out of discrete objectives (methods and content) could be a very useful guide to the instructor, as well as to the student-teacher. The reactions of student-teachers, who benefitted from each of the two mathematics programmes mentioned about, to question No. 10 in questionnaire QC (Table 7.6), and a look at how well they performed in the UWI student-teachers final mathematics examinations (Table 7.2) might help to give some insights (partially) into the effectiveness of each approach.

But, when the very high percentage of positive responses of student-teachers to any course does not match their measured programme on external examinations in the same course, then questions about the validity of those external examinations (viz. UWI), or the reliability

of responses obtained, become critical. Further, when the performances of elementary school students on national and international examinations are very unsatisfactory, as data used earlier in this thesis strongly suggested, then doubts about the true effectiveness of the teacher preparation process and programmes could be justified.

From feedback received from mathematics instructors at the two training institutions, and from reactions of student-teachers and existing professionals, within both systems, to mathematics as a subject, and as part of the teachers' college programme, it appears highly improbable that the volume of work outlined in both teachers' college mathematics syllabuses could have been realistically and adequately covered within the two academic years, given the deficiencies in the mathematical background of over 65% of the students.

There is no doubt, in this writer's mind, that the mathematics programmes offered at the teacher preparation institutions in Antigua and Grenada are geared to provide elementary school teachers with a thorough grasp of the relevant methodology and an in-depth understanding of the number system, plus skills in measuring, problem-solving and reasoning. The statistical part of that programme is relevant, especially for the independent study which every student must undertake. And the Algebra, which some student-teachers regarded as a 'brain-buster', should help fulfill the objectives of discovering patterns and logical structures in mathematics.

One retired teachers' college mathematics tutor, reacting to the

mathematics syllabus said:

> "Finishing that syllabus is one thing; making it become a genuine part of the student-teacher is another thing. The only way it can be achieved within two years is, if teachers have done five years of mathematics at high school level." 9

To test the validity of the above comment, this writer asked six high school mathematics teachers, three of whom taught at the elementary school level for over 10 years, to do a holistic evaluation of the syllabuses, bearing in mind student-teachers' ability to cover them in two academic years. Interestingly, all six teachers shared the view expressed by the retired teachers' college tutor. The general feeling was, that while the mathematics courses offered by the two training institutions were highly relevant and adequate for their task, with very clear and comprehensive objectives (methods and content), it would be difficult (some believed, impossible) to successfully complete in two years, given their basic limitations, and the volume of other courses and activities they must follow.

From a look at the programme in the Division of Teacher Education, UVI, a rough comparison seemed to show that 'Mathematics and the Elementary School Teacher', a course which carried five 'credits', was taught for 3120 minutes (52 hours) to students majoring in elementary education. While that was all the mathematics instruction such a student would have received from the Division of Teacher Education, like all undergraduates at UVI, however, that student would also have had to complete 6/8 credits in Mathematics as a requirement during

the first two years at college, before having been admitted to the teacher education programme. That student, therefore, because of Mathematics entry requirement, and pre-teacher education Math courses at UVI should be more advanced, in Mathematics content, at least, than his counterpart at the training institutions in Grenada and Antigua. It might be useful, however, to restate here that a student-teacher at UVI, who successfully completed initial teacher training before entering UVI was eligible to receive credits for courses in Education, Mathematics and Language Arts, as Table 7.16 displays. That being the case, it is reasonable to conclude that when a student is exempted from pursuing a course at UVI, because a course of that nature was done at one of the teachers' training colleges in the Commonwealth Caribbean, then it can be accepted that the two relevant courses are comparable.

Because Language Arts, like Mathematics, has been one of the courses that has proved difficult for some student-teachers, and students at both the elementary and secondary levels, as evidenced in earlier chapters of this thesis, it has become necessary to examine the Language Arts curriculum offered at the three locations where teachers are prepared.

In Antigua and Grenada student-teachers are offered a methods and a content course in Language Arts. Although, in Antigua, 'method and content' are "presented under a set of sub-headings", and reflected as English and Language Arts on the college timetable (see Table 7.15),

> "...they are in no way intended to suggest a separate treatment or course sub-division. It is merely a convenient way of presenting these areas of knowledge, important to the school teacher which an integrated syllabus should cover." [10]

The above statement does not only speak to the situation in Antigua, but to the one that has existed in Grenada Teachers' College as regards the Language Arts syllabus. The distinction that has been made, in Antigua, on the timetable between 'English' and 'Language Arts' has not been done at Grenada Teachers' College, thus implying the above stated integration.

From this writer's personal experience as a tutor at teachers' training college, and from discussions with those responsible for administering the college programmes in Grenada and Antigua, there have been occasions when it was necessary to have two separate tutors teaching methods and content in the Language Arts curriculum. That became necessary when the tutors concerned were capable of teaching only one aspect of the syllabus competently, either content or methodology. That situation has also existed in the Mathematics curriculum.

With a sound team-teaching approach, however, and total integration of the curriculum concerned, maximum benefits have been gotten by student-teachers in Antigua and Grenada. But the reverse has been said to have occurred due mainly to conflicting approaches and information passed on to student-teachers, and the resultant lack of fit between methods and content courses. [11]

An analysis of the time allotted to Language Arts/English in the Division of Teacher Education at the Antigua State College, and at the Grenada Teachers' College, revealed that there was great disparity between the amount of time given to that course. At Antigua State College (ASC), student-teachers were given a total of 315 minutes (5.25 hours) instruction in Language Arts and English per week, with students receiving 135 minutes (2.25 hours) in content (English) and 180 minutes (3 hours) in methodology (Language Arts). At Grenada Teachers' College, on the other hand, where that course is timetabled, only as 'Language Arts', a total number of 225 minutes (3.75 hours) per week is assigned to it.

Of course, one might argue that although a total difference of 1170 minutes (19½ hours) per term could be considered significant, the effects of that difference might best be measured in terms of the profit/loss margin of each group. A useful unit of measurement could well be the performance of both groups of student-teachers on the School of Education (UWI) final examinations in English/Language Arts. (Refer to Table 7.2).

Like other subject areas in the UVIs teacher education programme, it is difficult to compare the courses in Language Arts with those followed by student-teachers in Antigua and Grenada. However, because credits are also given to student-teachers at UVI who have successfully completed the initial teacher education programme at a teachers' training college, passing the English Language course, comparison between UVI basic English courses, English 111-112, and the course

offered at ASC and GTC should be acceptable. For example, it was possible for a student-teacher successfully completing the UWI final examination in Language Arts to earn credits from UVI basic English programme. In other words, such a student would not have had to do English 111-112.

However, what is worthy of note here is, that neither the successful completion of the English course at ASC or GTC, and the eventual exemption of that student from English 111-112 at UVI, guaranteed that that student would pass UVI English Proficiency Examination (EPE) to matriculate. In fact, the evidence strongly suggested that a significant percentage of UVI undergraduate students (hard data unavailable) experienced serious difficulties in matriculating because of their inability to pass the English Proficiency Examination.

Apart from the general basic academic course requirement, of which two English (111-112) and three speech courses (115-116/118) are part, student-teachers must earn seven credits in the teaching of Reading and Language Arts. The 'Reading' part of the Language Arts programme was taught twice per week for a total of 150 minutes (2.5 hours), while the teaching of Language Arts (an elementary major requirement) was also taught for 150 minutes (2-5 hours), bringing the total number of hours of instruction in 'Language Arts' to 300 minutes (5 hours) per week. When the time alloted to Language Arts at the three institutions is compared, Antigua (ASC) seemed to have been slightly ahead of UVI, but still further ahead of Grenada (UTC) in terms of time allotment.

When considered in their entirety, the programmes offered by the three institutions can be said to have similar overall objective: that is, "to prepare teachers to cope with the pressing issues of present living in this type of society, as well as with anticipated change."[12] However, although the level at which this objective would be realised might be different from one institution to another, with the possible highest level being at UVI, it should not be assumed that in all cases the 'teacher product' from UVI would necessarily be 'superior' in both content and methodology. In fact, if student' performances at the elementary and secondary levels in the school systems, and the reactions of school supervisors to the professional competence of existing teachers/professionals, in all three locations could be used as a guide to make comparative statements in the programmes offered, it would appear that all these programmes (in spite of their individual strengths) seemed somewhat unable to produce, in a general sense, the kind of teacher who is equally 'strong' in content as well as methods courses. And although the teacher preparation institutions under review recognised that the "primary need of today's teacher is a well-rounded knowledge base, which provides the ability to deal with the complexities of the modern world",[13] they seem to have difficulties realising that objective, mainly because there appears to be a 'lack of fit' between the programmes offered by the training institutions, and the academic capabilities of many of the target population they serve (student-teachers).

While the tendency could be to apportion blame, for perceived weaknesses of some graduates of those institutions, to either the

programmes followed, or the secondary school systems from which those 'graduates' originated, it is neither easy to completely exonerate any, nor to hold one solely responsible. This writer maintains that weaknesses displayed by 'existing professionals' are of a 'cyclical nature', and should be tackled cyclically by teacher preparation institutions and the educational system. It is because of this position that the writer supports the argument that:

> "Since quality education depends in large part upon teaching competence, and since the effectiveness of teachers depends in large measure upon the quality of the education to which they are exposed by the institutions responsible for producing them, it is logical that efforts to prepare teachers to cope with the pressing issues of present living in this type of society, as well as with anticipated change, should originate...." [14]

in teacher preparation institutions that offer programmes viable enough to realise this goal. With this in mind, the attention of the reader is turned to Chapter Eight which offers some concluding statements on the research undertaken, and proposals for producing a teacher for all seasons.

. . . .

Having completed the examination and comparison of the three examples of teacher education provision and their historic antecedents, it now remains to conclude the thesis with some proposals for a model of teacher education.

NOTES AND REFERENCES

1. Lewis, G. (1972) The Virgin Islands, Northwestern University Press, p.4.

2. Students at the University of the Virgin Islands who are not citizens or residents of the USVI, or an American territory or mainland state, are required to return to their countries after completing their course at the university.

3. The definition offered by one respondent as: 'resource materials'.

4. The view of several existing professionals and current student-teachers in all three locations.

5. ibid.

6. Daily News, October 31, 1987.

7. Daily News, February 9, 1989.

8. The comment of an education instructor in one of the three locations.

9. The reaction of a retired teachers' college mathematics instructor to the mathematics curriculum offered at Antiguan and Grenadian teacher preparation institutions.

10. Quoted from the Language Arts syllabus offered at the teacher preparation institution in Antigua, p.l.

11. Based on the experience of the author.

12. Stated in the College of the Virgin Islands course description, and Philosophy of Teacher Education, p.5.

13. ibid, pp.5-6.

14. ibid, p.5.

CHAPTER EIGHT

A MODEL FOR TEACHER EDUCATION: PROPOSALS, DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

> "Greeting his pupils, the master asked:
> What would you learn of me? And the
> reply came:
>
> How shall we care over bodies? How
> shall we rear our children? How shall
> we work together? How shall we live
> with our fellowmen? How shall we play?
> For what ends shall we live?....
>
> And the teacher pondered these words,
> and sorrow was in his heart, for his
> own learning touched not these things." [1]

8.1 Introduction

In Chapter Four of this study, a promise was made to suggest a teacher preparation model that was flexible enough to give teachers a broad repertoire of skills which would always be "on call" to meet the educational needs of a changing Commonwealth Caribbean. That promise was made because it is the view of the author that because 'teacher education' should keep abreast of technological advancement, and the antecedent knowledge explosion, it ought to be thought of as a continuous and life-long process.

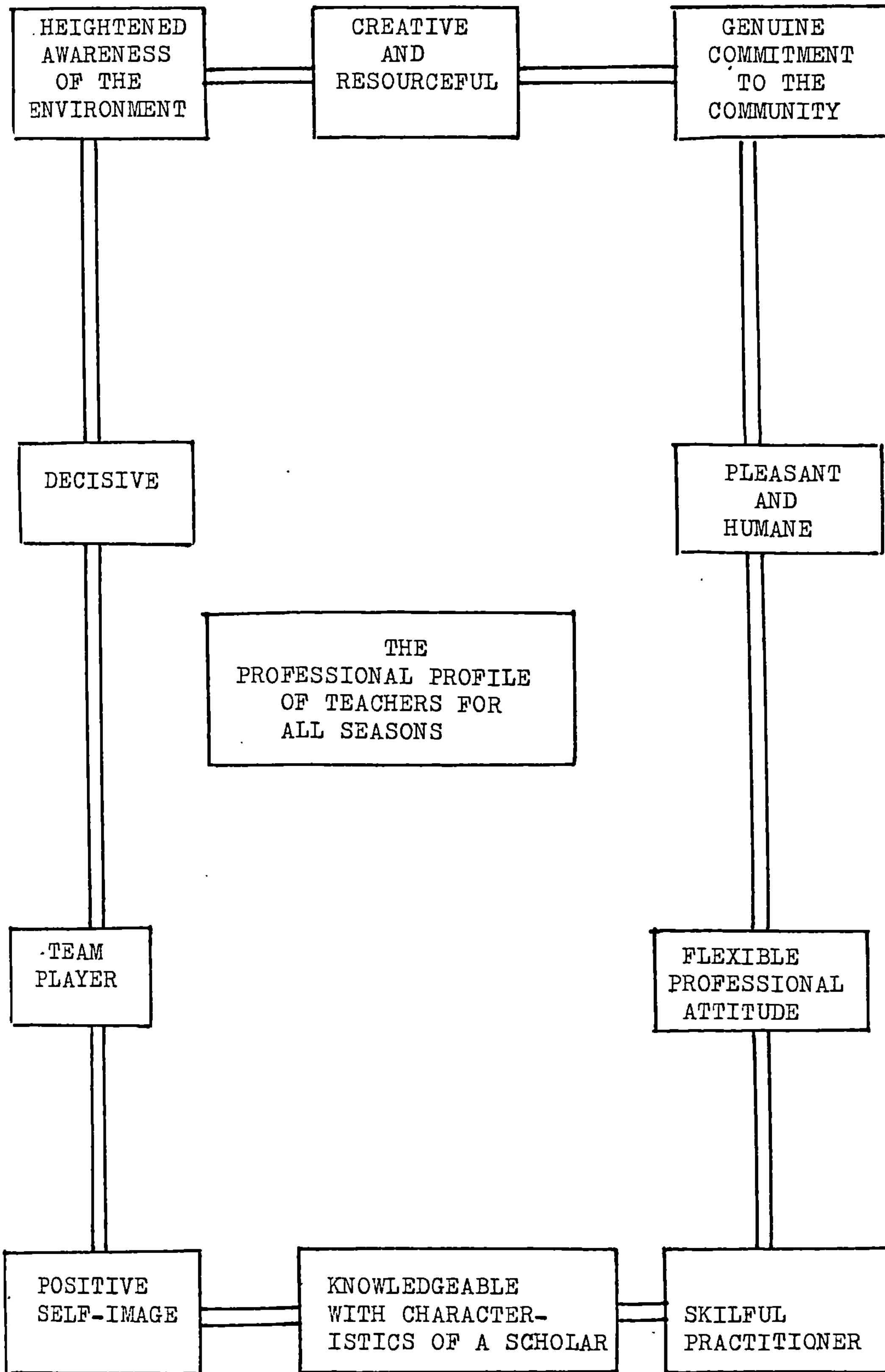
This perception of teacher education demands that the design and establishment of any viable teacher education programme, in the decades of the 1990s and beyond, must depart radically, but realistically, from the traditional conception of teacher-training, which has meant, to a great extent, mastering a specified number of teaching skills or

learned behaviours within a fixed period of time. Although the model that follows also operates within 'time frames', it is not restricted 'by time', and does not aim to produce a 'one season teacher. Instead, the model seeks to offer student-teachers a 'professional profile' that should enable them to become 'teachers for all seasons'. (Refer to Figure 8.1 for professional profile).

8.2 Prerequisites for Becoming 'Teachers for All Seasons'

Before any candidate can become a 'teacher for all seasons' there are certain pre-conditions which must be fulfilled, without which the experiences to be offered in this model might not lead to the desired effects. Firstly, the trainee teacher must come to the institution with the predisposition (self-awareness, 'mental set') and orientation in order to be 'teacher educated'. Secondly, the social and professional climate created within the teacher preparation institution must be conducive to make possible that process of teacher education. Thirdly, there must be within the institution at least some instructors who have, apart from the requisite academic and professional background, the predisposition and 'correct' orientation to assist in that educational process. And fourthly, a 'resistant force' must be present within the relevant institutions (schools, teachers' colleges, department of education) to provide opportunities for for prospective student-teachers and 'current' ones to 'practice', as it were, to develop 'awareness' and the pertinent social and technical skills required to be 'teachers for all seasons'.

FIGURE 8.1 PROFESSIONAL PROFILE



8.3 General Conclusions Based on Research Finding in Three Locations

The purpose of the several concluding statements that follow are meant to establish a link between the main study and the proposals that follow. Those statements are based on some of the main findings reported in previous chapters:-

i) There are about five times as many female teachers than males in Antigua and the USVI, while in Grenada the ratio of female to male teachers is about 3:1.

ii) Of the three institutions examined, it was only in the USVI that respondents were satisfied that library facilities and available resources were adequate.

iii) Although the majority of student-teachers in all three locations were satisfied with the professional guidance and support give by most instructors, the responses were least positive in Antigua.

iv) Whereas in Antigua just over 50% of the respondents agreed that the college programme was meeting their most pressing needs, over 90% in Grenada and the USVI felt so.

v) The respondents in the three locations felt that the need for CONTENT was their least pressing needs of the four stated needs.

vi) Whereas in Grenada, Social Studies and General Science were the courses best taught, in Antigua Education and Mathematics were given.

vii) According to the responses given, Education was the worst course taught at the college in Grenada, while in Antigua it was Language Arts.

viii) In the USVI, the greatest dissatisfaction was expressed over the 'Foundation of Education' course offered at UVI, while the most positive responses were towards Methods courses and Language Arts programme.

ix) Mathematics emerged as the subject in which students in the school systems in Antigua, Grenada and the USVI did worst. But whereas Mathematics and Language Arts were given as the subjects in which teachers in Grenada needed further training, in Antigua Mathematics and Social Studies were the subjects suggested.

x) In all three locations, the evaluation techniques most commonly used to determine teacher effectiveness/success were observation, students' grades and students' evaluation.

xi) In terms of teacher effectiveness between 50-75 per cent of existing professional teachers in Antigua, Grenada and the USVI were considered by their 'supervisors' to be effective/successful.

xii) Between 40 and 50 per cent of the teachers in training in Grenada and Antigua were dissatisfied with the limited opportunities to provide feedback to instructors on how well they taught courses.

(xiii) Mathematics and Science were the subject areas in which the least number of respondents graduated/intended to graduate, in the USVI.

xiv) Full-Time In-College was the preferred form of teacher preparation of respondents in Antigua and Grenada.

xv) Whereas over 56 per cent of respondents in Grenada said 'NO' to having education officers and school principals on the practical student teaching assessment team, just over 66 per cent in Antigua said 'YES'.

xvi) Respondents in both Antigua and Grenada favoured a total of 9 weeks practical student teaching.

8.4 Proposals; Pillars of the Model

The model which follows is presented in the form of several individual, but related, proposals. Each proposal is followed by a discussion, which is mainly an attempt to justify the particular proposal.

8.4.1 Proposal No.1: A Joint Integrated Approach to Teacher Education:

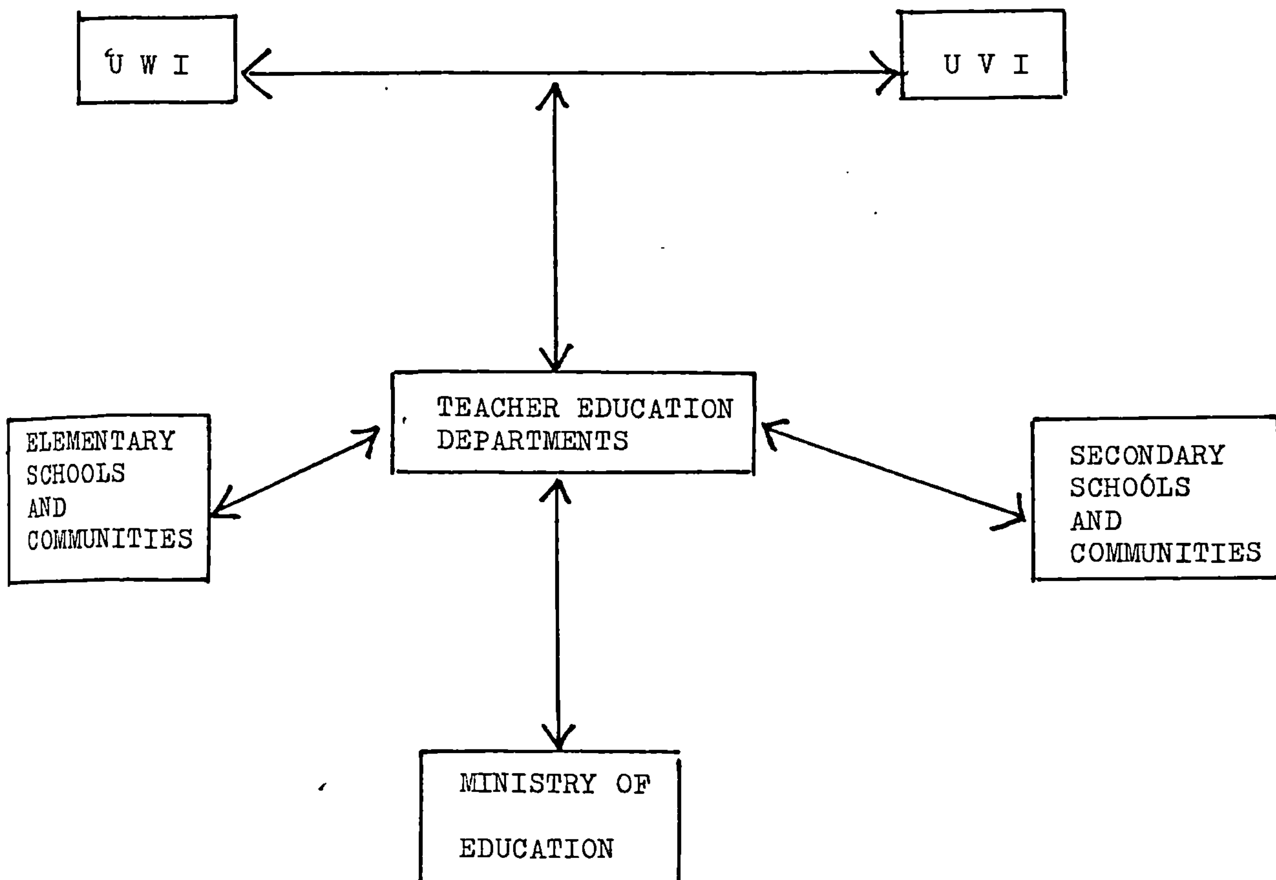
The apparent inability of the three teacher preparation institutions studied to 'give' teachers (or to help develop within them) the required degree of commitment and pertinent academic and social skills necessary to meet the educational needs of an ever-changing Caribbean, might best be corrected through a joint, integrated

approach to teacher education. (See Figure 8.2). Inherent in this approach is an in-service form of preparation in two stages, and a pre-service component, both of which are designed to include elementary and secondary school teachers. This approach is being recommended because teacher education on the national level can no longer confine itself, as has been the case in Antigua and Grenada, to the elementary schools, but must expand to incorporate the secondary school teachers, if only because the problem of poor performances discovered in the educational systems in the three locations (Antigua, Grenada, USVI) are not limited to one level, but rather to the elementary, secondary and college of teacher education levels.

Of course, implicit in that proposal will be an inevitable shift in the structures of the current initial teacher preparation programmes, which are presently operating in Grenada, Antigua and the United States Virgin Islands, simply because what is being proposed is a three-phased programme that must include, directly and actively, all relevant secondary and elementary schools, department of education within the Ministry of Education, the teacher preparation institutions, the University of the West Indies (UWI), and the University of the Virgin Islands (UVI). (Refer to Figure 8.2).

The first phase of the teacher education programme begins in the fourth form of the secondary school (or, in the USVI at the Grade 11 level), and ends when the student would have graduated from the fifth form (or USVI, twelveth grade). Phase One is expanded on, and the rationale given, in Proposal No. 2.

FIGURE 8.2 A JOINT, PARTICIPATIVE AND INTEGRATED MODEL FOR TEACHER EDUCATION IN SELECTED COMMONWEALTH CARIBBEAN COUNTRIES



A student graduating from the secondary level with at least a very good foundation in Mathematics and five CXC subject passes, including English Language, at the General Proficiency level, is ready to enter Phase Two of the programme, because that success marks the completion of Phase One. To insist that in order for candidates to be admitted to Phase Two of the programme they must have a solid foundation, or a CXC pass at the general proficiency level in Mathematics, should not be waived at any time, because the evidence obtained in Grenada and Antigua especially, strongly suggests that when a 'soft' attitude is taken towards selecting student-teachers with poor academic background, especially in Mathematics, their performances in the College Mathematics/English course are not only unsatisfactory, but the rippling effects seemed to be felt throughout the elementary and secondary levels.

During Phase Two of the programme, students will be based at the College of Teacher Education, in Antigua and Grenada, as full-time students, pursuing both academic and professional courses for a period of two or more academic years, depending on successful completion of courses, stipulated by the relevant institutions involved in the teacher education process in Antigua and Grenada, and by both UWI and UVI. More details of Phase Two are woven within the proposals that follow.

How soon a 'student-teacher' enters Phase Three of the programme will depend on that student passing a 'semi-terminal' comprehensive examination at the end of Phase Two - an examination that is set and

assessed by a joint panel of examiners from the UWI and UVI. The purpose of this examination is to certify a student as being sufficiently qualified to teach in the elementary schools, and at the lower secondary level (forms one and two only). But certification comes only after a satisfactory period of nine months practical teaching in the classroom.

Of course, one may want to question the need for what might be labelled 'a prolonged teaching practice session', when the responses of the majority of existing professionals sampled in each location claimed to be well prepared to teach, and to be successful and effective teachers. However, because 'supervisors' sampled in Antigua and Grenada admitted that existing professional teachers needed further training in the critical areas of Mathematics and English, and also because Mathematics and English were found to be the subjects in which students at the elementary level did worse, especially Mathematics, in spite of the claim by those teachers of their competence and effectiveness, then the recommendations embodied in proposal No.1 and those which follow might prove to be very useful.

A close look at Phase Three of the model being proposed would reveal two basic features: firstly it is on a part-time, in-service basis, and although it could be thought of as being optional and voluntary, it has a 'compulsory' element attached to it: students who do not complete Phase Three of the programme within five years should be required to resign from the teaching service. Secondly, the greater part, if not all of it, will be taught through the medium of 'Distance Teaching'.

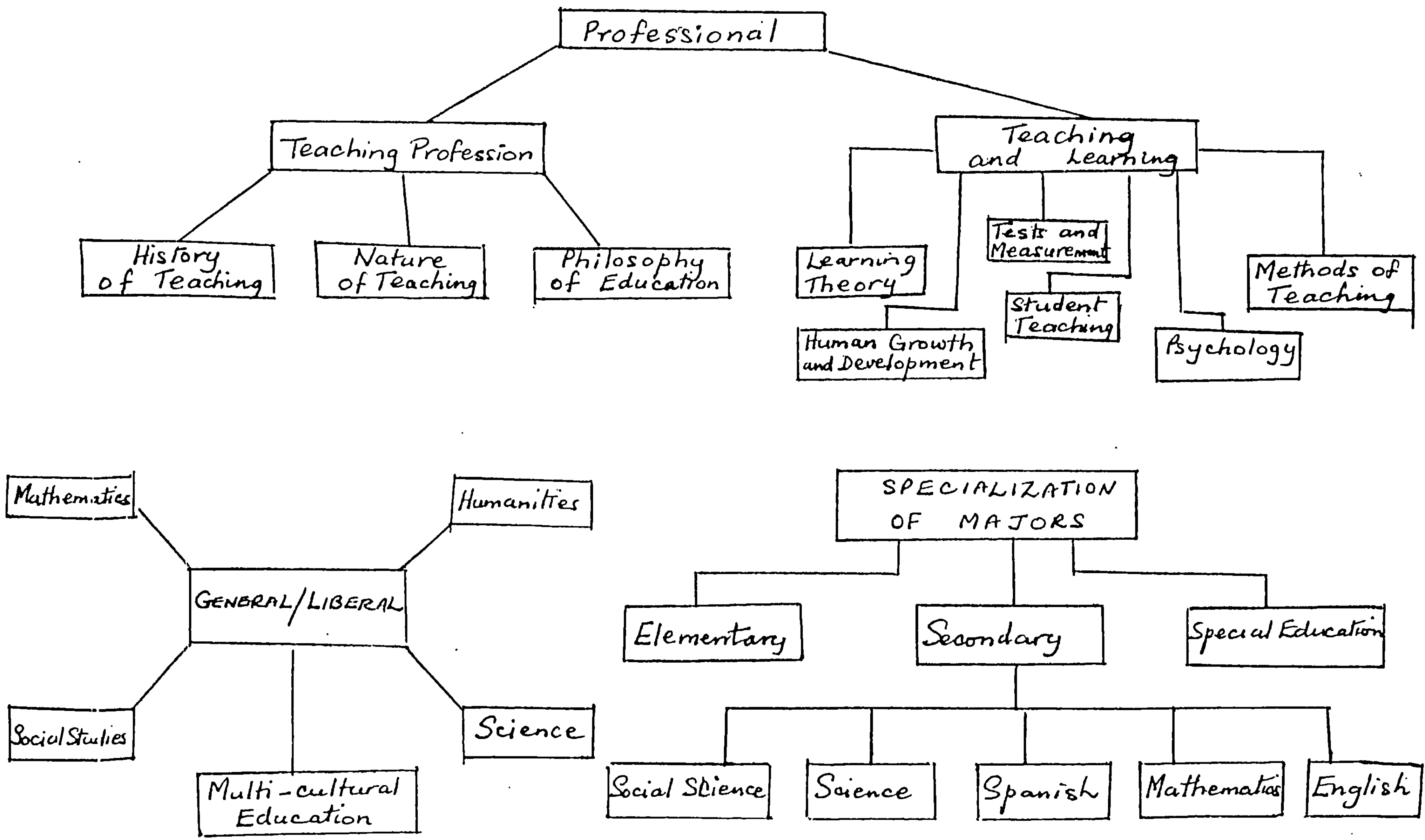
While it might be considered unfair, unrealistic or harsh to expect a 'qualified' teacher to resign from teaching school, 'simply' because that teacher might lack the motivation to become better qualified to teach, it should instead be 'seen' as an act that would bring greater benefits to the educational systems under review, not only because of the 'unsatisfactory' performances of some existing professionals alluded to above, but mainly because of the increasingly greater academic and professional demands that those in society are making on their teachers. Not to insist on the provision of better quality staff for the nations' classrooms is to continue to subscribe to sub-standard teaching, and the resultant dismal performances of most students in the systems in English and Mathematics.

The decision to recommend that the advanced phase of this teacher education model, Phase Three, be pursued through 'Distance Teaching' approach is influenced by:

a) the urgent need for a significant number of the teaching force in Antigua and Grenada, at the secondary level, particularly to be teacher educated in content and methodology, and

b) that in the search for a cost-effective method of teacher preparation, cost-benefit analyses seem to reveal that among the few alternatives available to governments in the non-campus territories in the Commonwealth Caribbean, 'Distance Teaching' appears to offer the greatest possibilities in spite of its very high cost. [2]

Figure 8.3 AN IDEA REPRESENTING COMPONENTS OF A TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMME



Although the details of the programme to be offered would have to be arrived at from discussions among representatives of all the relevant institutions, the suggestion being given here is that the entire teacher education programme, from phase one to phase three be structured on a 'per credit basis', with a working total of 125 credit hours, distributed to incorporate the components represented in Figure 8.3.

Implicit in Figure 8.3 is the notion of an integrated whole, with incremental increase at each phase in the proposed model, but with the possibility for students to progress at a rate that is best suited to their ability and motivational level (although within limits). So as not to defeat the purpose of an integrated and continuous teacher education programme, higher level/more advanced courses must be so structured that they show themselves to be the 'fruits of the womb' of earlier courses, except that they will offer greater substance at that level. However, because a special curriculum is recommended for each course, continuity and inter-relatedness within and between courses should be guaranteed.

Further, in as much as the completion of 65 credit hours would mark the successful termination of phase two, and also a terminal point in the teachers' education (having been partially certified to teach), the content and methods courses offered up to that point should be adequate to give the teacher the flexibility, the confidence, and the competence to function satisfactorily, at the elementary and junior high school levels (up to grade eight in the USVI).

Although 'student-teaching' is discussed later in this model, it might be useful to state here that while the student-teachers would have been exposed to some form of practical teaching during phases one and two, they should not be subjected to any form of 'final' practical teaching examination at the end of phase two. That exercise would be conducted at the end of the first full year in the 'new' teacher's own classroom.

The suggestion being offered here is that, during the first full year in their classrooms, the 'new' teachers would be supervised on a regular basis (at least three times per week) by any, or all of the following: the school principal, an education officer, college tutors. At least two complete lessons should be observed weekly, and thoroughly discussed with the 'new' teacher. With the help and advice of the school's principal, the 'new' teacher should 'find' within the school a 'master teacher' that would be willing to render any professional assistance where necessary.

This idea of 'joint teacher supervision' by so many relevant persons is not only to guarantee the proper development of effective practical teaching skills within new teachers, but to ensure continued professional growth among existing professionals, something which the findings of this research on Grenada, and to a lesser extent on Antigua, suggest is urgently needed. This, of course, demands very careful co-ordination, and a close working relationship among those concerned, so that there are common grounds and a uniform approach to that process.

To ensure that this situation is obtained, common workshops and seminars for all 'supervisors' must be held on a regular basis so that common criteria and standards might be established, especially when a significant percentage of current student-teachers in Antigua (and to a much lesser extent Grenada) seem to favour the idea of involving, on a regular basis, department of education personnel in practical student teaching activities. This issue becomes even more crucial when one considers the disparity displayed by supervisors (college tutors, education officers and school principals) on some of the competencies and qualities that are thought to be important for effective/successful teaching in Antigua, Grenada and the United States Virgin Islands. If, after workshop sessions and seminars a supervisor is proven to be 'unsuitable' for the task of supervising student-teachers on student teaching sessions, that supervisor should cease to function as a teacher educator in the area of 'practice teaching'.

As has been mentioned elsewhere in this thesis, the experience of the author as a tutor at a teachers' college, and as an education officer responsible for school supervision, and from comments elicited recently (1986-88) from teachers in training and existing professional teachers, it is clear, at the time of writing, that among the many supervisors who function in the school system, some are definitely grossly 'unsuitable' for 'educating' teachers. However, all things being acceptable, 'supervised' teaching for the 'new' teacher would cease after one academic year, when the joint panel of assessors from UVI/UWI and the 'irregular' supervisors are satisfied that a teaching licence should be awarded.

Meanwhile the 'new' teachers, while serving their period of 'teaching internship' would be free to register in phase three of the programme, in order to complete the academic and professional requirements for obtaining a bachelor's degree. This phase could be completed within eighteen to twenty-four months, depending on the ability and motivation of the 'new' teacher. Existing professionals in the teaching service who do not possess a first degree and are desirous of entering phase three of this programme would have to satisfy certain entry requirements that must be stipulated by the two universities involved in the programme. The number of students that are admitted to the programme annually will depend on a country's ability to 'carry' the programme, and the resources available to them.

8.4.2 Proposal No.2: Laying an Early Foundation:

Formal teacher preparation should commence at the secondary school level during a candidate's third term in the fourth form. The rationale underlying this proposal is based on the view that the general lack of commitment which seemed to have existed in Antigua, Grenada and the United States Virgin Islands, especially among younger teachers, and demonstrated through rapid staff turnover and frequent absences from the classroom, (especially in the USVI) might well be due, in part, to the rapid rate at which teachers have been 'processed' during the last fifteen years. The argument could be that because 'modern' student-teachers might not have been given as much time and opportunities, during their 'training', and during their first year

in their own classroom as teachers, they failed to internalise the whole concept of 'teaching', and 'teaching as a profession'. The 'traditional' teacher, on the other hand, unlike the 'modern' trained counterpart, was provided with the time and appropriate apprenticeship to develop, slowly, 'professional ripeness of maturity', and thus its attendant commitment seemed to have had sufficient time to take form.

The reactions of some 17 principals (all over 45 years old, and some of whom have since retired) from Antigua and Grenada, strongly criticised what could be labelled the 'lack of professionalism and morality' among younger teachers of the 1980s. While it is possible to dismiss what some may regard as the 'sentimentality of senior citizens, especially in light of the fact that the majority of existing professionals sampled, in all three locations, claimed being well prepared to teach, the comments appear to be a serious indictment on the quality of teacher preparation offered at these institutions, since the training seemed to have had little lasting professional effects on most younger teachers. What one seems to have is a situation where newly trained teachers returning to their classroom resort to a style of teaching behaviour that reflects not their training, but rather that which resembles their former secondary school teachers, most of whom in Antigua and Grenada have had no professional training. Identifying and selecting suitable candidates in form four can have a rippling effect throughout the secondary school system, and also lay the foundation for professional commitment and 'ripeness

of maturity', which an effective teacher education programme must ensure.

In order to correctly identify and select, from the fourth forms of secondary schools, suitable candidates that are likely to become 'teachers for all seasons', a system with a network to provide data on candidates' academic potential, health records and behavioural tendencies must be established. After the data obtained are studied and evaluated, and potential student-teachers identified by the 'research' team, they will then by interviewed by an appropriate select committee comprising the relevant school principals, teacher educators, school guidance officer, and a department of education official, in order to determine the candidates who would be exposed to phase one of the programme.

After potential student-teachers are selected, inducted and familiarised with the basic features and demands of the programme, they would then be admitted formally in the teacher education programme. And phase one would have started.

For the first three or four weeks (one half-day per week) all intending student-teachers must meet with college tutors and the education officers responsible for 'training' to prepare for their first 'professional' assignment: evaluation of aspects of their own classroom teaching and learning behaviours. This is intended to help student-teachers become critically aware of teaching and learning as organised behaviours that are directed to specific outcomes. Good and Brophy considering the effects of teachers' awareness observed that

> "Teachers' lack of awareness about what they do or the effects of their behaviour lessens their classroom effectiveness." [3]

These two writers further maintained that although they "cannot be aware of everything they do...with practice teachers can become more aware of their classroom behaviour." [4] And this is where the value 'teachers recruits' in the secondary schools can be of great benefit to themselves and to the entire school system.

Back in their classrooms (at their secondary schools) with the full knowledge and co-operation of the principals and staff, they would 'consciously' observe and evaluate their own teachers' and peers' classroom behaviours. This, no doubt, would lead to comparisons being made, unconsciously, between teachers' classroom behaviours and the responses provoked by them. This might also lead to 'guesses' by student-teachers as to possible reasons for perceived differences in 'teaching' styles and 'learning' responses in the classrooms, a tendency which could form the basis for later research and more critical analyses and evaluation.

The fortnightly half-day sessions at the teacher education institution, and established centres in the outer parishes of Grenada and Antigua would be used mainly to discuss student-teachers' 'findings', reports and queries, and to put all in a framework of establishing learning theories and practices. Because of the already established supervisory arrangements already at work in Antigua and Grenada, structures are already in place to accommodate this kind of activity. But this exercise, if it must fulfil its purpose, must be strictly

informal, cordial, free from fear of victimisation, and conducted with all the professionalism that befits the teaching profession. The almost total lack of opportunities for feedback that was found to exist at the teacher preparations in all three locations, especially in Grenada and Antigua, should not be permitted to exist in this model of Teacher Education, if only because of the apparent negative effects it seems to have on learning. Although research findings on feedback, offered conflicting evidence on the benefits that could be derived from it, the potential inherent in that practice seem great when it is done in the right atmosphere and attitude. [5]

In this model the scene of classroom observation and evaluation for the 'student' student-teachers must change occasionally, so that they may be exposed to a variety of teaching styles (hopefully). During the first and second terms in the fifth form, the students should be exposed to classroom teaching at the elementary as well as at the secondary levels, and must be encouraged to teach an occasional lesson in a class of their choice. All the requirements of lesson planning and execution should be observed when a student-teacher teaches a lesson. Everything must be done with the guidance and help of the college tutors and 'permanent' classroom teacher. The objective of that exercise is simply to give the 'student' student-teacher a 'feel' of the total classroom environment.

The almost total lack of previous teaching experience of current student-teachers at UVI might serve to partly explain the rapid turnover of teachers in the United States Virgin Islands, bearing in mind the American, unlike the British inherited system of Grenada and

Antigua, where even presently teaching school in the public system is permitted, even encouraged. And while it is also true that 'trained' teachers leave the educational systems in Antigua and Grenada, it has not been on the scale as obtained in the USVI. Yet, what must be borne in mind is the 'quality' of the pre-college practical teaching experience, rather than just teaching exposure.

The practical and administrative experience of the writer, coupled with the opportunities for observing classroom behaviours of teachers, strongly suggests that when real opportunities are provided for individuals to develop a positive view of self, thos individuals are generally better able to help develop in others high self-esteem of themselves. The early 'taste' by 'student' student-teachers of reversing their role, and being appointed 'official' evaluators of their teachers, must help to instil confidence in both groups, and to encourage mutual respect for one another. Further, while the evidence on the relationship of age and the capacity for retention of what is learned, [6] and a 'critical period' for certain types of learning [7] might not be conclusive, one could find that the nature and the quality of the early exposure of fourth and fifth forms students to the process of teacher education, of the type described above, could produce in Grenada, Antigua and the USVI the 'high quality' of teachers that educational systems in the Commonwealth Caribbean have traditionally attributed to the pupil teacher system.

8.4.3 Proposal No.3: Using Objective-Criteria in Appointing Teacher Educators:

The process of selecting, appointing and retaining teacher educators should go far beyond 'political' affiliation or partisanship, if the best professionals are to be recruited to prepare teachers

effectively. It has been suggested elsewhere in this study that while the academic and professional profile of an educator is an important consideration, the ability of an instructor to inspire student-teachers so that they become 'fired up' to constantly seek knowledge and more practical and effective ways of teaching is equally important.

Although the author is aware of the difficulties in obtaining 'quality' staff for teaching at all levels in the educational systems in Antigua, Grenada and the USVI, attempts must be made to recruit teacher educators with adequate content. Far too often the teacher educators who teach content areas, do not have a bachelor's degree in the content areas; a bachelor's degree in education has been a popular entry qualification for many teacher educators at the teachers' college level in many Commonwealth Caribbean countries, as the evidence in this thesis seems to suggest.

The capacity of instructors to tolerate, and to encourage, divergent thinking and views that might be diametrically opposed to those that they cherish should be given the highest consideration. Of course, the findings of this research point to a strong tendency among many principals, teacher educators, and existing professional teachers not to encourage divergent thinking and views that conflict with theirs. If teachers are to be 'educated' and not 'trained', they must be encouraged to differ when it is 'necessary'. If they must encourage students to be independent thinkers and to cherish 'democratic ideals', and tolerance, they must first be 'educated' along those lines.

A strong desire for, and evidence of involvement in 'community development' is an invaluable quality of any teacher educator. So often by shutting themselves off from the real life of the community, the 'teaching' of the teacher educator (trainer?) becomes irrelevant, abstract and esoteric. They operate, it would seem, in a world that approximates to a dream. While one is not suggesting that all instructors must physically experience living in a disadvantaged community to be able to effectively prepare teachers to function in those communities, first hand knowledge of the realities of disadvantageous living must be assets to an educator. When the profiles of teacher educators in the three locations (Antigua, Grenada and the United States Virgin Islands) are considered, the teacher educators in Grenada appeared to have a closer and more direct relationship with the physical environment from where their student-teachers and existing professionals originate and work, than their education counterparts in Antigua and the USVI. From the reactions of student-teachers to the personal relationships existing between instructors and student-teachers, the Grenada situation seemed to offer greater potential for ease in relationship and greater understanding of relevant problems, than in the other two locations.

8.4.4 Proposal No.4: Establishing Linkages Between Programmes and Local Realities

The professional as well as the general component of Phase Two of this model should be linked as closely as possible to local realities in Grenada, Antigua and USVI.

One of the common features shared by most teacher preparation programmes is their three broad components: the general or liberal, the professional, and the areas of specialisation or majors. And comprising each broad component is a number of 'sub-components', as is shown in Figure 8.3. An analysis of the composition of the three components would suggest an attempt to offer knowledge, and develop skills, in areas that are perceived as being critical. However, if the education that is offered in the teacher preparation programme is to satisfy Charles Turnbull's definition of 'functional education', [8] it must have applicability and high currency within the country it serves.

Some of the comments obtained from the sampled population in the three locations suggested at times a tendency within those programmes to neglect local realities. In fact, that tendency has been offered as a real cause for part of the unsatisfactory performances of student-teachers in some aspects of the programme in Grenada and the United States Virgin Islands. It is partly because of that situation that this model proposes the use of 'special research projects' to be undertaken by every student-teacher, within local communities, as a means of integrating, in a significant way, 'critically relevant' aspects of the teacher education programme directly to those of the elementary and secondary school curricula.

The special research project being recommended would require student-teachers to identify a community, and within that community a school (elementary or junior high) that services the community.

Both school and community would be the focus of the research, and would be expected to provide the substance of a significant part of phase two of the teacher education programme.

Armed with the appropriate research instrument(s) and research skills student-teachers go into their respected/selected communities and schools to obtain information, from a relatively significant sample of parents, students and teachers, on 'educational problems' confronting them, especially in the areas of Mathematics, Language Arts, Science and Social Studies. Having obtained the required information, the 'researchers' would return to their 'laboratory' (classrooms) at the teachers' college to analyse the data in relation to subject areas. The findings obtained are examined against the syllabuses used in the schools to try to establish a relationship, if any, between the 'perceived educational problems' and the syllabuses. If, or when, a relationship has been shown to exist, the factors that make possible that relationship are identified and isolated. Teaching units in each of the four stated subject areas are developed, not only to remedy the perceived problems, but to try and ensure that they do not recur. Those teaching units, incorporating materials that would also go beyond rectifying the existing problems, could be developed to span four grade levels in the respective subject areas: Infants (age 5-7 years old); Lower Juniors (age 7+-9 years old); Juniors (age 9+-11+ years old), and Lower Secondary/Junior High (age 12-13+ years old).

While it is true that a significant part of this project must

be done by the individual student, it is strongly recommended that 'group work' and frequent class discussions be the over-riding consideration when undertaking a project of this nature and magnitude. Further, student-teachers who are involved in this research project must demonstrate, through application, not only their understanding of the professional component of the teacher education programme, but also a thorough grasp of the structure and nature of the four content areas, so that they would be able to manipulate them effectively when developing and executing their teaching units in Mathematics, Language Arts, Social Studies and General Science.

Although it should be clear by now what the objectives of the special research project are, it might be useful to state them here explicitly, as this might help to bring into direct focus the true value of such a project:

i) To try to establish a direct relationship between the courses offered during phase two of the teacher education programme and the syllabuses taught at the elementary and junior high school levels;

ii) To provide an opportunity for student-teachers to develop an awareness and professional interest in their local communities, showing them at the same time how the school and the local community can be used as a resource unit;

iii) To enable them to experience education as life, and to develop within them practical and relevant research skills.

iv) To test in local settings the relevance and applicability of educational and psychological theories, that have been formulated outside the Caribbean region. In other words, how useful are the theories of Piaget, Brunei, Bernstein or Carl Rogers to the realities experienced by students and teachers in a Village in Grenada or Antigua or Dominica?

In a recent study on factors affecting students performances in school, it was suggested that parents were the key to their children's success or failure, when compared to other factors that impinge on the learning environment.[9] Can one assume that the results of that piece of research should be aoplied with equal weight to every community in the Western World? The point being suggested here is that because the findings of some research and 'culture and location specific', local research needs to be encouraged and undertaken, and the findings weaved into courses offered in educational psychology and methodology at teacher preparation institutions in the Commonwealth Caribbean. Because if education courses must play the role, and fulfil the task assigned to them by teacher educators in Antigua, Grenada and the United States Virgin Islands, then a significant part of these courses must be rooted in the lives of Caribbean reality.

Based on "studies conducted in most Caribbean territories" between the late 1960s and late 1980s, Broomes concluded that:

> "profound changes in primary and secondary schools would require schools and their teachers to make full use of the accumulated culture of the society and also the knowledge, skills and attitudes that each person develops to cope with his/her existence and the immediate environment."[10]

If Broomes' conclusion is valid then Adam Curles' 'inertia of tradition', and universality of most subjects, which "militate against successful localisation of education" [11] might not be applicable to 'most Caribbean territories'. It would appear, therefore, that local research should be encouraged so as to:

a) help explain students' classroom behaviours;

b) develop 'home grown' educational and psychological theories which might help to determine how sound, realistic and relevant the content in use in the elementary and secondary schools, and the teachers' college is, and

c) to try to integrate, in a meaningful way, school, college and community, thus permitting the local community to inform the teachers' college programme, and to be informed by it.

It could be said that one great advantage of the 'local research project approach' to curriculum development and teacher education, is its ability to attack problems of education (low motivation and low self-esteem, irrelevant content, under-achievement and disruptive behaviour in school) through their source, the culture and sub-cultures.

8.4.5 Proposal No.5: Making the Periods of Practical Student Teaching Relative:

The number of weeks practical student teaching practice any student-teacher should be subjected to, for certification purposes, should depend on the rate at which that student can apply educational

and psychological theories to classroom practices, and how quickly the student masters the required teaching skills.

As a response to this proposal, one may ask: 'Since some student-teachers may never master the art/science of teaching when should they be certified? If 'teaching effectively' is the act for which teachers are prepared, and paid, then it seems reasonable that any 'teacher' who cannot satisfy 'basic teaching requirements' within a specified time should not be certified as qualified to teach. A search in Antigua, Grenada and the USVI would reveal that the practice of certifying professional quacks and invalids is not foreign to those institutions, charged with the responsibility of providing the systems with true professionals. While it is also true that those institutions can "only work with the materials that they are given", [12] and "certify students based on the needs of the system at any particular time", [13] the disservice being done to those locations through that practice does not only 'take a toll' on educational systems concerned, and so weakens the fabric of society, it tends to contribute to the reduction of whatever semblance of respect the community might have for the teaching profession.

However, because the nature of practice teaching have been found, by the writer, to generate stress within students, even among 'strong' student-teachers, and conflict between supervisors and student-teachers, and even between 'co-operating teachers' and student-teachers, and so might have reduced their potential to do well, great care must be taken to ensure that stress and conflict are minimised or avoided. The following should help minimise stress and reduce conflict on practice teaching:

i) thorough preparation of trainee-teachers, co-operating teachers and supervisors, for their separate roles must be undertaken by very successful teacher educators, and not simply by 'senior' instructors. Too often it is assumed that every instructor at a teacher preparation institution is capable of supervising practice teaching effectively. This assumption is not just wrong and misleading, but has exposed student-teachers to "irrational outburst and unprofessional comments" [14] from some unsuitable teacher educators. A 1985 UVI/CVI graduate, referring to the behaviour and comments of an education professor on a practical student teaching session remarked: "That man was totally unprepared and unsuitable for the task of supervising student-teachers. He did and said all that were wrong." [15] Similar comments from current student-teachers and existing professionals in the two other locations strongly suggested that within each teacher preparation institution could be found a few such instructors. If the accusation cited has any degree of truth in it, how then would they be able to assist others to 'teach'? Apart from ensuring, therefore, that 'supervisors' perception of their role corresponds with that of trainee-teachers (through constant open dialogue between and among all concerned), supervisors should be educators who have been known to be successful practitioners in a classroom context. That suggests, therefore, that education officers with responsibilities for 'staff development', should be given opportunities, occasionally, to 'teach' student-teachers real lessons, if they must be involved at any time in supervising studen-teachers. This does not only have the advantage of gaining the student-teachers

confidence (which is important), but if 'forces' the education officers 'to get their teaching skills together'.

ii) A trainee-teacher should be treated by the 'supervisors' as a partner, who has the right to challenge remarks, suggestions or instructions of a supervisor, and to disagree with 'supervisors' when that trainee-teacher can support methods/approaches with sound psychological and educational theories, and the trainee's own 'successful experience'. 'Teachers for all seasons' must question, challenge, and disagree, as often as it is necessary, to clarify and test their own ideas and theories, and those of others, for in so doing they may also straighten misconceptions, and come to terms with concepts they did not understand or accept.

iii) Ensure that the social climate and the physical environment in which the trainee-teacher must practice teaching is not unusual, for the trainee must 'see' and experience it as it has been. Any decision on the part of the college or school to improve the quality of the environment to make life easier for a trainee-teacher, while on student teaching, could be described as the creation of an artificial situation, which could militate against a student-teacher developing some appropriate teaching skills. In fact, Veenman seems to suggest that when the situation in which students practised is far removed from the reality of what they meet when they become real teachers, they may experience serious adjustment problems. [16]

iv) Student-teachers should be permitted to select the objectives, from the given list of teaching objectives, that they wish to achieve in the lessons they teach; only if, of course, their selection of objectives is too limited, and does not offer adequate opportunities for a variety of practice. Apart from affording a student practice in sequencing lessons, this proposal gives students a feeling of having choices and a say in matters that affect them. As a result, it should help reduce stress and anxiety, for students seem to begin with objectives that are well within their sphere of competence. [17]

8.4.6 Proposal No.6: Three Special Cases: Mathematics, 'Maleness' and Language Arts

a) Mathematics and 'Maleness'

Apart from seeking to identify and attract 'quality' students to make 'Teaching' a career, the committee charged with the responsibility of selecting student-teachers should be given the right to discriminate positively in favour of male candidates for two reasons:

i) the evidence strongly suggests that male teachers have become an endangered species in most Commonwealth Caribbean countries.[18]

ii) the possibility of making more mathematics teachers available to the educational system seems likely based on limited available research evidence. [19] Although there is no conclusive evidence available to this writer that would enable one to say categorically that there is a greater tendency among male students towards

mathematics than female, the impression formed from conducting this study seems to lend support to this notion. In fact, when the writer spoke with a sample of current student-teachers and existing professionals in Grenada (1987) on the question of the mathematics programme at the teachers' college, female teachers, more than males, appeared to have had greater problems. If, indeed, there is the existence of that tendency in Antigua, USVI and Grenada, then the type of positive discrimination being recommended should help lessen the endangering effects of the male teacher species, while at the same time increasing the likelihood of having more mathematics teachers in Antigua, Grenada and the USVI.

The unsatisfactory performance of students, (at all levels) in mathematics in all three locations has been attributed to the development of an early negative attitude towards mathematics, which has been brought about, in part, by the poor teaching of it. If, as has been suggested, that a student's attitude to mathematics is one of the key determinants of his success or failure in that subject, it would seem that exposing students at all levels to favourable, non-threatening teaching experiences in mathematics could go a long way towards solving the 'mathematics problem', that has plagued the Commonwealth Caribbean for decades. However, because the teacher, through the teaching act, is paramount in the formation of an attitude towards mathematics, then the 'quality' of the mathematics teacher must be the main focus of any serious attention or programme. And this seems to be the core of the problems in mathematics in Antigua, Grenada and the USVI. The quotation which follows reinforces the

point being made:

> "Mathematics cannot be learnt directly from the everyday environment but only indirectly from other mathematicians. The particular need for teachers of mathematics has rarely been put more clearly. In almost any subject books provide a substitute, albeit an inadequate one, for the inspired teacher. In mathematics there is no substitute, not even an uninspired teacher." [20]

Meeting the challenge of the problem faced in Mathematics in Antigua, Grenada, the United States Virgin Islands, and no doubt in the rest of the Commonwealth Caribbean demands, therefore, producing teachers whose grasp of the structure and nature of mathematics would be so thorough that they are able, as Bruner claimed, to teach the most difficult concept to a student at any level. [21]

So while there are, currently, in the three locations many 'teachers of mathematics', there is an urgent great need to have far more 'mathematics teachers' (mathematicians) who have internalised the subject to such an extent that it has become an integral part of their being, second nature, as it were. But in order to produce that kind of teacher, the educational system must ensure that student-teachers are exposed to mathematics teacher-educators whose content in mathematics is sufficiently adequate to make that kind of teacher possible. It is unrealistic to expect teacher-educators with a superficial grasp of mathematics to produce that kind of 'magic'.

A second approach in this process of dealing effectively with the mathematics problem in Antigua, Grenada and the United States

Virgin Islands is to maximise and strengthen the 'mathematics potential' of student-teachers by encouraging and providing opportunities for them to 'teach' their peers mathematics content which they do not understand, and, indirectly, methods of teaching mathematics. In other words, student-teachers who are experiencing difficulties in coming to terms with aspects of the mathematics content syllabus, either because of gaps in their knowledge, or a mathematics instructor's inability to enable those student-teachers to really understand those aspects of the mathematics course, should be able to obtain 'professional help' from student-teachers who have special ability in mathematics. It is what might be referred to as the 'each-on-teach-one' concept, except in this case the 'student-instructor/ educator'

i) is awarded a certain number of credit hours that go towards his total number of credits required for graduation, but only when the tutored peer(s) displays satisfactory understanding of the 'unit' of content taught by the 'student-instructor';

ii) must keep detailed records of the teaching strategies or procedure used in the instructional process of the tutored peers.

By encouraging the use of 'student-instructors/educators' in mathematics (also in Language Arts, Science, Social Studies), it does not only enable the 'student-instructors' to better understand and internalise what they teach to their peers, [22] but the whole process.

i) makes available to teacher educators, student-teachers and existing professionals within the educational system, approaches/ strategies that have been tried and found to be effective.

ii) should encourage student-teachers, especially 'student-instructors/educators' to constantly seek for alternative approaches to solve problems in education.

iii) should develop within 'student-instructors' a strong feeling of self-worth, confidence and professional pride.

iv) makes the whole process of teacher education truly a joint, co-operative venture among students, and between student-teachers and instructors.

v) should 'break down' the artificial barriers that tend to exist between the instructional role of the teacher-educator and the 'learning processes' of the student-teacher.

vi) can enhance the teaching and learning of other courses, thus making teacher education a more meaningful and a far more dynamic process.

b) Language Arts

Throughout this piece of research, reference has been made to expressions of dissatisfaction in Antigua, Grenada and the USVI with the unsatisfactory performances of students in the use of English, and in their inability to read well. But that cry is not limited to those

three territories, for it has become a sort of litany in most Commonwealth Caribbean countries.

In Chapter Seven, it was reported that a sample of existing professional teachers in Antigua considered Language Arts the subject in which students did worst, whereas in Grenada and the USVI it was second to only mathematics in poor performance. In fact, the evidence obtained by this writer strongly suggested that a significant number of undergraduate students at UVI seemed to have had over the years some level of difficulty in passing the English Proficiency Examination (EPE), a normal requirement for matriculation. It is no wonder, therefore, that throughout the period of educational development in the Commonwealth Caribbean, the teaching and learning of Internationally Accepted English (IAE) has been a 'problem', and a centre of controversy among educators and policy makers.

The nature of that 'problem' and controversy has been described and discussed by several leading Caribbean linguists [23] and others. [24] The general view seems to be that because English is not 'native' to the majority of the indigenous population in the Commonwealth Caribbean, the teaching of English should adopt a second/ foreign language approach. Of course, to agree with using that approach rather than the first or native language approach is to admit that English is not the first language of the Commonwealth Caribbean. And because English as a first or-native language seems to bestow high status on those who use it fluently and effectively, many teacher preparation institutions and schools in the Commonwealth Caribbean, including Grenada and Antigua, and in the USVI, have

continued to teach English as if it were the native/first language. The results, of course, are what have been shown above in this study - poor performances in national, regional and international examinations.

In the search for a lasting and effective solution to the unsatisfactory performances of students in the use of English, and related areas, in Antigua, Grenada and the USVI, it should 'make some sense' to seriously consider implementing the suggestions that follow:

i) create within students a strong sense of awareness in using English consciously and deliberately, bearing in mind that this awareness could be "the first step towards the solution of any problem." [25]

ii) have student-teachers study the structure of the English Language as a relatively substantial part of their English course. While this suggestion can mistakenly be interpreted as a backward step in the teaching of English, it is not meant to advocate teaching grammar in the traditional sense of defining parts of speech in isolation, or to encourage rote learning of them.

What is really being recommended here is a functional/contextual approach to teaching the structure and functions of the language. The combined approaches of 'a' and 'b' above should help to reduce the frequency with which student-teachers on practice teaching in

Antigua, Grenada and the U.S.V.I. use incorrectly grammatical structures.[26] It is being suggested here that student-teachers, like existing professional teachers, lapsed frequently into the use of the non-standard form of English, not simply because of the closeness in structures of the local dialect(s) and the standard form of English, but mainly because of ignorance of many of the formal grammatical structures, and their unawareness/unconscious use of 'wrong English'.

One, however, gets the distinct impression from conversation with elementary and secondary school teachers that once learning demands some effort on the part of the learner, the teacher/facilitator could be charged with causing boredom of the learner. It is as if formal learning should be effortless. And, therefore, to ask a student-teacher to try to get a better grasp of the language that is used as the medium of instruction in the formal school system, and on other formal occasions in the society, and 'mastery' of which is the objective of most English courses, could be seen as asking too much of a student-teacher. If greater facility with a language enables one to use that language more effectively, especially for teaching, why should that not be the objective of the language course? Why should teachers and students continue to do badly in the use of a language, when knowledge of that language could enhance their performance in it?

iii) give basic skills in the teaching of Reading to all student-teachers. 'Reading' should be a required course at a teacher

preparation institution. While the intention is not to make a reading specialist of every teacher, but, because 'to read' is a necessary requirement for every subject in the content area, teachers should know how to read well and effectively, and how to assist every child in school to do so. Being able to 'read' and to 'teach reading' should enhance a teacher's teaching skills in other subject areas, and in the teacher's ability to test and measure students' performance more reliably and with greater validity, mainly because the ability to 'teach reading' gives the teacher an awareness of the structure and levels of complexity of the printed materials, and enables the teacher to better manipulate language to test and measure achievement at different levels. [27]

iv) It might be a very effective approach if the Language Arts instructor uses the same teaching methods that are recommended to student-teachers for teaching elementary and secondary school students, to teach student-teachers college level English. In other words, the same methods and strategies of teaching English that student-teachers learn to teach English in their elementary and secondary school classrooms, should be employed by the teacher-educator to teach college English to student-teachers.

Underlying this suggestion is the contention that there is no reason why methods that have proven to be effective in elementary and secondary schools should not be as effective, or prove even more effective, when used with student-teachers. In fact, because student-teachers' preparation ought to make them conscious of the learning

process, they should be in a better position to see relationships, and so better understand what is being taught. This writer shares the view that:

> "To understand something well is to sense wherein it is simple, wherein it is an instance of a simpler, general case. ....(It) is to sense the simpler structure that underlies a range of instances...."[28]

Because of this, said Bruner, when one seeks to transmit what one understands to another, one must find "the language and ideas that the other person would be able to use if he were attempting to explain the same thing."[29] In the search for the most appropriate language to share their understanding, student-teachers would first have to internalise it, make it, as it were, a part of them so that they could apply it with relative ease to any relevant situation. When this happens, it is an indication that real learning has taken place.

v) Place greater emphasis on essay-type activities, and less on objective-type ones. This is being proposed because many educators in Grenada and Antigua, and to a lesser extent in the USVI shared the belief that 'heavy use' of objective-type questions in preference to essay-type questions is, to a great extent, responsible for the inability of several students at the elementary and secondary levels to express themselves fluently and coherently. In keeping with this belief, evidence obtained from research to suggest that the shift to an 'over-emphasis' on objective-types activities seemed to be having negative effects on some cponents of English Language teaching and learning. For example, because many teachers experienced difficulties

in 'setting' objective-types questions, they devoted a great deal of time that should be spent on 'teaching' on trying to structure those types of questions, and yet did them badly. The result was the inability of the objective-type questions to measure what they intended to measure. Because of all this, it was claimed that 'the creative aspect of language teaching' was said to have suffered.

Although supporters of objective-type tests have attempted to justify their continued use on a fear of returning to the traditional way of teaching grammar, and on the apparent positive effects of these tests on teaching comprehension and structure, the fact that serious doubts could be raised about the validity and reliability of teacher-made objective tests might force one to also question the claims of 'positive effects'.

Because the nature of English, as a language, is 'skill based' rather than 'content based', practice in composing, and in usage, orally and in its written form, is essential for developing those required skills. The author's experience as a teacher-educator also revealed that when objective-type tests are used excessively, practice in speech and 'writing' was sacrificed, and students tended to experience some difficulties in putting ideas together in a meaningful way, part of which might have been the result of 'a developed mental laziness'.

8.5 Conclusion

While the proposals offered in this chapter have not focussed directly and explicitly on some of the limitations of the programmes referred to in the thesis, the fact that some of those proposals are 'broad based' in approach and have the potential to help rectify, directly or indirectly, several limitations in the three teacher preparation programmes examined, seems, to the writer, to have reduced the need for direct or explicit reference or 'treatment'. However, to suggest that the model proposed is 'fool proof' and possesses the cure/remedy for every weakness alluded to, is to claim a degree of perfection that is still unreal, and also to deny the great influences of factors that are outside the sphere of control of teacher educators, and teacher education institutions.

The inability of the writer to make conclusive statements on many issues raised in the thesis point to the need for further research into several areas of teacher preparation in Antigua, Grenada and the United States Virgin Islands, as well as in the rest of the Commonwealth Caribbean. Some of these areas that seem to merit such research attention in the three locations are:

a) the tendencies among males and females towards becoming adept at mathematics - whether 'maleness' predisposes the individual in Antigua, Grenada or the USVI to mathematics;

b) how negative is the dominance of female teachers, in the three educational systems, on the 'maleness' of the male student?

c) the benefits of integrating closely and directly what takes place in a college of teacher education with the realities of the local communities - the recipients of the products of the college;

d) the cyclical relationship between levels of academic content of 'professional ' mathematics teachers and the levels of academic achievement in mathematics of their students;

e) the place of 'feed-back' from student-teachers to teacher-educators in the teacher education process.

. . . .

It is hoped that the conclusions, recommendations and proposals contained in this final chapter will prove of value to the policy-makers of Caribbean educational provision, especially in the three case territories but also elsewhere. The writer also hopes that the data derived from his field research and presented in earlier chapters will make a real contribution to the stock of knowledge of Caribbean teacher education and interest others in taking some of the issues further in their own future researches.

The remainder of the thesis comprises the appendices, mostly already referred to in the text, and the Bibliography.

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APPENDICES

Numbered according to the chapters to which they relate

APPENDIX 2A

CALYPSO : 'DAN IS THE MAN'

"According to the education you get
when you small,
You'll grow up with true ambition
and respect from one and all.
But in my days in school they
teach me like a fool,
The things they teach me I should
be a blockheaded mule.

The poems and lessons they write and
send from England
Impress me they were trying to cultivate
comedians
Comic books made more sense
You know it was fictitious without
pretence
But like Cutteridge wanted to
keep us in ignorance.

How I happen to get some education
my friends I don't know
All they teach me is about Brer Rabbit
and Rumpelstiltskin...O
They wanted to keep me down indeed
They tried their best but did not succeed
You see I was dunce and up to now
I cant read.
They beat like a dog to learn...in school
If me head was bright
I woulda be a damn fool."

Slinger Francisco
(The Mighty Sparrow)

APPENDIX 2B

'WHITE MAN LAUGHING AT WE' CALYPSO BY THE MIGHTY CHALK-DUST

(HOLLIS LIVERPOOL) TRINIDAD, 1987.

....For there are black folks who by
their works
Still providing the whites with
jokes....
When Blaize in Grenada
adore Reagan so
And made him a national hero
How could Mr. Reagan be hero in
Bishop's country
White People laughing at we, you see
And when Eugenia tell me
Reagan and Thatcher love she
White people laughing at we.

....Black people who feel that
for them to look cute
They must dress up in three-piece suit
Sun hot like fire yet they dress
for winter
English men does laugh at
the attire
When black women colour their
hair red and green
And comb it like an English punk queen
Jenny curl and plastic surgery to
hide their identity......
Black man walking in the city with
Cassette player and jamming loudly
White people laughing at we.

There are black people, they brainwashed
for so
They hate Gadaffi and Fidel Castro
They hate socialist but love capitalist
Don't mention communist
That is a curse word you know
But while blacks hating
They ent seeing is
poorer and poorer they becoming
Europe striving and capitalists giggling
For all their products black man using
On T.V we see a heap of white preachers
And blacks sending them their dollars
Preachers wearing mink and driving
Cadillacs

And laughing at blacks giving Jesus
green backs (dollars)
When Caribbean man go to London
and Kent
And copying the white man's accent
How can a Barbadian be yankee
more than a yankee
White people laughing at we......
Beauty contest annually showing black
women's belly
With calypso you don't mix
You love opera and classics...."

APPENDIX 2C STUDENT ENROLLMENT IN PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN SOME CARIBBEAN COUNTRIES, 1970-1984

COUNTRY	1970		1975		1977		1980		1984	
	Primary	Sec.	Primary	Sec.	Primary	Sec.	Primary	Sec.	Primary	Sec.
Antigua	13,124	3,198	11,837	5,440	13,285	5,440	10,660	4,526	11,394	*
Barbados	45,673	14,407	35,710	26,213	37,625	25,908	31,147	28,818	30,161	28,695
Bahamas	37,040	16,712	38,096	21,914	37,835	24,312	37,399	23,761	32,914	27,147
Belize	30,060	3,647	31,738	4,503	33,105	4,787	34,615	5,435	*	*
Dominica	20,089	17,797	20,740	2,415	25,251	2,415	16,840	2,730	13,283	7,186
Grenada	*	*	27,207	4,775	25,294	5,233	22,417	6,120	19,939	6,508
Guyana	129,527	56,618	132,063	64,206	140,394	73,285	132,335	74,966	*	*
Montserrat	2,641	222	2,635	482	2,356	702	2,116	828	*	*
St. Lucia	26,040	2,460	25,859	4,136	31,091	4,417	30,391	3,875	32,103	5,205
St. Vincent	28,225	3,073	26,016	4,685	25,191	5,219	24,346	5,421	22,454	7,473
St.Kitts/ Nevis	13,178	3,178	8,804	4,740	8,917	4,651	7,149	4,214	7,655	4,197
Trinidad/ Tobago	228,319	44,413	199,033	64,039	181,863	79,081	167,039	89,355	168,308	92,017
Jamaica	385,696	72,593	443,075	140,690	352,230	141,795	424,480	157,849	341,748	233,354

Note: *Not available

Source: Caricom Statistics Digest, 1981, Caribbean Community Secretariat; and UNESCO Statistical Digest, 1987.

APPENDIX 2D(i)

EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT 1960: POPULATION 15 YEARS AND OVER

ISLAND	PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL ADULT POPULATION				
	No Education	Primary Education	Secondary No School Certificate	Secondary With School Certificate	University
Antigua	3.3	83.1	9.4	1.9	0.4
Barbados	1.8	80.2	11.4	4.5	0.6
Dominica	13.4	79.0	4.8	1.6	0.5
Grenada	6.7	84.7	5.4	2.3	0.5
Jamaica	16.9	74.4	3.9	2.8	0.3
Montserrat	11.1	81.1	2.3	2.0	0.4
St.Kitts/Nevis	3.8	89.1	4.1	1.8	0.4
St.Lucia	26.2	69.7	2.2	1.1	0.3
St.Vincent	7.9	85.4	4.2	1.6	0.3
Trinidad/Tobago	11.3	79.9	9.9	3.7	0.7
Virgin Islands	3.2	88.0	4.0	2.2	0.5
All Islands	13.4	75.3	6.2	3.0	0.5

Note: Percentages for 'not stated' are excluded.

Source: Roberts, G.W. and Abdullah, N. (1965) 'Some Observations on the Educational Position of the British Caribbean', Social and Economic Studies, Vol.14.

APPENDIX 2D(ii)

EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT 1970/1980, POPULATION 25 YEARS AND OVER

COUNTRY	Year	Total Population	No Schooling	First Level	Second Level	Third Level
				Incomplete	Entered	
Antigua	1970	64,316	15.0	79.2	4.5	1.3
Barbados	1970	102,192	1.1	33.6	64.1	1.2
Belize	1970	39,698	12.2	78.6	7.9	1.4
Cayman Islands	1970	4,533	2.8	79.1	15.2	2.9
British Virgin Is.	1970	3,820	2.6	74.7	17.3	5.4
Dominica	1970	23,756	8.4	85.3	5.2	1.1
Grenada	1970	31,648	2.9	90.4	5.8	1.0
Jamaica *	1981	1,377,400	2.0	69.7	28.4	-
Montserrat	1970	4,896	4.3	85.3	7.7	2.7
St.Kitts/Nevis & Anguilla	1970	15,912	2.9	90.3	5.7	1.1
St.Lucia	1970	33,839	28.7	65.6	4.7	1.0
St.Vincent	1970	26,876	5.8	88.2	5.2	0.8
Trinidad/Tobago	1980	448,630	7.4	67.5	22.4	2.7
Turks & Caicos Is.	1980	2,859	0.9	74.6	16.9	7.7

Source: UNESCO Statistical Yearbook, 1985.

APPENDIX 4A

THRONE SPEECH 1969

One of the most urgent demands in education today is the provision of ways and means of keeping teachers informed of the many changes and developments that are taking place. In order to meet the demands of a rapidly expanding educational programme, trained personnel must be available at all levels of the system. My government is therefore committed to an acceleration of its teacher-training programme.

The new Teachers' College, now in the process of construction will provide not only better facilities for the training of our teachers, but also additional space for an increase in the number of trained teachers who graduate annually. In addition to the regular two-year course, it is planned to organise, as part of the programme at the College, short courses for new recruits and for student and pupil teachers.

Vacation courses for teachers and seminars for head teachers are now a regular feature of the education system. During the 1970 August vacation, in-service courses will be organised in the following fields of study - cookery, needlework, music, art, physical education, early childhood education, mathematics, language, art and social studies. There will also be the annual induction course for intending teachers.

The University of the West Indies has been asked to provide assistance in organising courses for secondary school teachers and it is expected that a comprehensive programme for the training of teachers at this level will shortly be presented for the consideration of my Government.

My Government is fully convinced that the content of the course which are pursued in our schools must be more relevant to the experiences of our children and to the needs of the State. New syllabuses in the core subjects were recently issued to the Primary schools and it is expected that one of the indirect benefits of the new courses will be the standardisation of the text books which are used in our schools.

My Government is aware of the high cost of text books at all levels of the educational system and will set up a committee to examine the situation and make recommendations. In the meantime, in order to assist parents in meeting the high cost of text books at the secondary level, Government has decided to increase the book-allowance to Government Exhibitioners from $20.00 to $30.00.

My Government fully supports the decision to establish a Caribbean Examination Council. However, Government's representatives on the Council have been advised to ensure that a more relevant examination for West Indian students will not result in a lowering of the standards which have been set by external examination bodies.

My Government has increased the number of scholarships and bursaries to secondary schools and to the technical and vocational centres by forty per cent. My Government's aim is to provide free secondary education at the earliest possible date.

My Government will continue to increase the grant-in-aid to assist secondary schools. However, the quantum of the grant to individual schools will be determined more and more by the quality of the staff that these schools employ.

Government is appreciative of the churches' role in the educational development of the State but my Government must discharge its responsibility to the citizens of the State by ensuring that the children are taught by the best qualified teachers available.

My Government recognises that there is a shortage of well-qualified teachers but, in some cases, it is evident that this shortage is aggrevated by the very unattractive salaries which are offered to graduates by some assisted secondary schools.

At present, the secondary school course is principally academic in content and does not cater for the wide range of interests and aptitudes of all the children above the age of 11 years. As a long-term policy, my Government is considering the establishment of more secondary schools in the State.

My Government believes that the future development of the State will depend, to a large extent, on the skills which are acquired by the products of the educational system. It will be the aim of technical and vocational education to produce the men and women to meet the demands of industrial, agricultural, tourist and commercial development.

To meet these demands, a new Technical College will be erected on the Tanteen compound which my Government has ear-marked for an educational complex.

My Government has taken the lead among developing countries in providing assistance for the education of the pre-school child. Grants to these schools will be increased during the coming year. Seven Peace Corps teachers have been specially recruited to provide on-the-job

training for teachers at this level, and it is anticipated that there will be an improvement in the standard of teaching in these schools which are serving a real need.

Eighteen Scholarships were recently awarded to young Grenadians to pursue courses in higher education, and in keeping with the motto of my Government "Action and Progress", the number of university scholarships will be increased next year.

A new Education Act is being considered by my Government and will be presented to Parliament during the Session, and a code of Regulations based on the Act will also be presented to Parliament.

Important changes in the Teachers' Pension Ordinance and in the pensionable status of married women teachers have recently been approved by my Government and a Bill will shortly be introduced to implement these changes.

My Government wishes to place on record its gratitude to the United Kingdom, Canadian and United States Government and to the University of the West Indies and to the United Nations Organisation for financial and technical assistance in the implementation of its dynamic education policy.

My Government has made education its number one priority because it is aware that the pace of the total development of the State is dependent on the pace of the development of its human resources. With the co-operation of the teachers, the denominational bodies and all citizens of

goodwill, and with the help of Almighty God the Products of my Government's Education Policy will be men and women who have a realistic self-concept and faith in the future of their country; citizens who will develop the ability to think so clearly and objectively that my Government will be assured of its rightful place in the history of this State.

APPENDIX 4B

THRONE SPEECH 1970

Mr President, Mr Speaker, it may be true to say that my Government is the first Government in the world which has been accused of placing too much emphasis on education. Critics have been suggesting that some of the money spent on school building should have been channelled into other services. My Government's only regret is that it cannot put more funds into education; that it cannot replace within a shorter period all the delapidated buildings which are not fit to be called schools. When my Government came into power three years ago, it decided that there was an urgent need for major rebuilding programme to improve the conditions which many teachers and pupils teach and learn, and to provide facilities in which new educational ideas could be tested and developed. My Government's policy is and will continue to be 'education for all' under the best physical conditions possible.

The School Building Programme:

My Government's massive programme of new school buildings reached a climax in 1970. The period 10th September to 13th September, 1970, will be recorded on the annals of the history of this territory as providing the most outstanding demonstration of a Government's commitment to the developing of the youth of the State. During the period, five schools and a Teachers' Training College were opened. It might seem impossible even for my record-breaking Government to repeat the performance in the immediate future, but it must be remembered that my Government does not allow records to stand too long.

As a result of my Government's attitude to records, the 1970 record will be broken in 1971. During the new year, new Primary Schools will

be opened at Crochu, St Dominic, Byelands, Munich and Carriacou, and Junior Secondary Schools will be established at Waltham and Carriacou. A modern Technical College will be erected on the educational complex at Tanteen and it is hoped to commence the second phase of the Grenada Boys' Secondary School reconstruction programme. My Government has also decided to erect a new Secondary School for Girls as soon as possible. More new educational institutions in 1971, Mr President, Mr Speaker, and the 1970 record goes by the board.

Teacher Training

My Government is aware, Mr President, Mr Speaker, that good physical facilities, important as they are, will not by themselves lead to an improvement in the quality of the educational product. The quantitative and qualitative aspects of education must be planned jointly, if the maximum benefits are to be derived from the educational process. Teacher preparation is the vital variable which determines the achievement of educational objectives.

My Government promises, in 1969, that the Teacher Training Programme would be accelerated and Government wishes to report that there was an increase in the number of students admitted to the Grenada Teachers' College from 30 in previous years to 50 in 1970. In September, 1971 there will be 100 student teachers at the College, which is now housed in an ultra-modern building. It is anticipated that by the end of 1971, all primary school teachers in the State will have been exposed to some form of training which will prepare them to make the maximum use of the modern buildings which my Government has provided for teaching the children of Grenada, Carriacou and Petite Martinique.

The proposed Junior Secondary Schools will cater for the wide range of abilities, interests, and aptitudes of the children in the 12-16 age group. The curriculum of these schools will have a strong pre-vocational bias. Activities will be extended to include subjects such as Spanish, Industrial Arts, General Science and Agricultural Science. Schools in special areas will cater for the development of skills which are specially relevant to that area. For example, the school in Carriacou will offer a course in Navigation, while the school in Waltham will offer a course embracing aspects of the Fishing Industry.

In association with the British Development Division in Barbados, the Ministry of Education and Social Affairs will conduct, during 1971, an experiment in a special project which will aim at revising the method of approach to the teaching of Science at the Secondary School level. Later this year, a seminar for teachers of Science in Grenada, St Vincent and St Lucia, will be held in Grenada to prepare teachers who will be involved in the project.

The Carnegie project in School Reorganisation will gradually be extended to all the schools in the State. There are already indications that this plan will make a significant contribution, not only to a better deployment of staff, but also to curriculum reform in our schools.

Mr Speaker, Mr President, my Government believes that broadcasting can play an important role in enriching the experiences of our pupils by bringing men and women of outstanding achievement into contact with the young people in the classroom. My Government is negotiating with the British Development Division in Barbados for the services of an

expert in school broadcasting, and it is expected that a programme will commence in September, 1971.

The development of the right values and ideals is as important in the educational process as the acquisition of knowledge and skills. My Government recognises that the young people today are living in a very different world and are ever eager to give articulate expression to their legitimate moods and feelings, but there are certain values which must determine the behaviour of young people. Courtesy and other forms of conventional rules of personal behaviour in polite society reflect the degree of maturity of any individual. As one of the means of exposing our children to the cherished values of our particular society, my Government will soon set up a Committee to prepare a suitable text-book for use in the schools of the State.

Text Book

Any reference to text books, must lead to the question of the cost of these books to parents.

My Government has already expressed its concern with the increasing cost of the text books which are used in our schools, and it has set up a Committee which is expected to submit recommendations shortly on the standardisation of text books at all levels of the education system. At present, an experiment with a new reader is being conducted in the Infant Department of twenty-five schools and preliminary reports indicate that the results are likely to be very satisfactory.

Secondary Education

At secondary level, my Government, following discussions with the relevant authorities, has agreed to consider the payment of the salaries of all secondary-school teachers. It has also been agreed, in principle, that Grenada should work towards the introduction of a common entrance examination for admission of new pupils to secondary schools. The University of the West Indies has been asked to set up a Committee to advise my Government on this matter and on other aspects of secondary education. It is hoped that the Committee will submit its report early in the new year.

Pre-Primary Schools

My Government will increase its assistance to the pre-primary schools of the State. During 1970, fifteen new pre-primary schools were established and additional ones will be established in needy areas during 1971. To provide on-the-job training for teachers at this level, my Government has created two new posts of Assistant Supervisors of Infant Education in the Ministry of Education and Social Affairs. The appointments will soon be made by the Public Service Commission.

Technical Education

Mr President, Mr Speaker, I referred earlier to the new Technical College which will be opened in September, 1971. The pace of development in the State poses a special challenge to those who are involved in the field of technical education. We want to ensure that the manpower needs are satisfied by providing the facilities in which our people will acquire the necessary skills. The new College will provide facilities for two hundred and fifty day students, and one hundred and

eighty evening students who will pursue courses at the craftsman and technician levels. A wide range of courses will be offered in the building trades, air conditioning and refrigeration technology, mechanical technology, electrical technology, automotive mechanics, agricultural mechanics and for the hotel industry.

The Commercial and Domestic Arts Institute will extend its operations to include evening classes in typing and in book-keeping in some rural areas. The enrolment at the Institute will be increased by twenty-five per cent to satisfy the demands which have grown rapidly during the past two years.

Mr President, Mr Speaker, so pleased is the British Development Division in Barbados with the efforts of my Government in the field of education, that it has decided to finance a regional scheme for the training of teachers of Domestic Science at our Commercial and Domestic Arts Institute. Teachers from the Virgin Islands and the Associated States will be selected to attend this course which should commence in September, 1971.

Education of the Handicapped

The special needs of handicapped children have not escaped the attention of my Government which has agreed to pay the salary of the teacher in charge of the school for the deaf and dumb. My Government is also engaged in negotiations with the British Development Division which has promised to provide an expert in this field for a two-year period beginning in September, 1971.

With the assistance of the Government of Trinidad and Tobago, my Government recently secured the services of a Grade I Principal of St Ann's Hospital who conducted seminars for teachers on the teaching of the mentally retarded. My Government's efforts in this field will be intensified during the coming year.

Scholarships

The success of my Government's education programme is dependent on the availability of trained personnel at all levels. Eleven Grenadians were awarded scholarships principally in the field of technical education under the Canadian Caribbean Assistance Programme; six teachers are pursuing courses under the United Kingdom Commonwealth Teacher-Training Bursary Scheme; six secondary students have received awards under the Canada/University of the West Indies Scholarship Programme; five awards were recently announced under the West Indies Training Scheme and six awards were made under various schemes to India, the United Kingdom and Canada. The total number of awards in 1971 is expected to reach the record figure of fifty. In addition, the number of exhibitions to secondary schools is being increased every year so as to bring secondary education more and more within the reach of all the children in the State.

Education Act

A new Education Ordinance is ready for presentation to the Legislature. The Education Regulations will be discussed by the Board of Education within the next two weeks. The new Act and the Regulations will be presented for the approval of Parliament early in the year.

APPENDIX 4C

THRONE SPEECH 1971

Education

Mr President, Mr Speaker, my Government will continue to give education a very high priority.

My Government maintains that, without the proper facilities, it is extremely difficult, perhaps impossible, to sustain teacher morale and pupil motivation, without, which educational objectives cannot be achieved. In keeping with this view, my Government will continue its massive school building .

New Primary Schools are under construction at Munich, Byelands, Calliste and Hermitage, and extensions will be completed to provide additional accommodation for pupils in the overcrowded Primary Schools at Chantimelle and River Salle.

Plans are under way for the construction of new Primary Schools and a number of new Junior Secondary Schools - the latter, to accelerate the process of change in the educational system so as to provide equality of opportunity for all children between the ages of 12 and 16.

The College "In-Service Course" will be intensified, with particular emphasis on the teaching of English.

My Government is pleased to announce that arrangements have now been finalised for the establishment of a "Regional Home Economics Teacher Training Centre" at the Commercial and Domestic Arts Institute, and this Centre will begin operation in September, 1972.

In order to increase the quality of graduate staff in Secondary schools and to provide a pool of teachers for Junior Secondary schools, my Government will award ten (10) scholarships, in various subjects, annually, over a five-year period. The scholarships will be tenable at the University of the West Indies and will be for a period of four years which includes one year of professional training leading to a Diploma in Education.

More scholarships will be awarded, to experienced primary school teachers, to pursue courses of training in the United Kingdom, under the Commonwealth Teacher Training Bursary Scheme and at the University of the West Indies, under the West Training Scheme.

Six of the twelve annual awards to pursue courses in Canada in 1972 will be reserved for the preparation of teachers for the New Technical and Vocational Institute.

My Government has secured the service of an expert in school broadcasting to assist in the accelerated programme of In-Service Teacher Training and in the process of curriculum reform. In the meantime, arrangements are being made to train a local person who will eventually take over from the expert.

The new Technical and Vocational Institute will admit its first batch of students in September, 1972. The Institute will offer three levels of training: short-term training courses to fill immediate needs, as thei arise; two-year craft courses, and two-year technician courses. It is also expected that as the Institution develops, short courses for Supervisors and Foremen, will be organised.

The activities of the commercial section of the Commercial and Domestic Arts Institute will be transferred to the new Institute and will be replaced by the Regional Home Economics Teacher Training Centre, which also offer day and evening courses in Housecraft, to school leavers and adults. The two institutions will co-operate in conduct courses in the Hotel Trades.

The Grenada Technical Centre will continue its present "day and evening" programme, but will gradually adjust its day programme to fill vital educational needs within an expanded secondary school programme, aimed at the G.C.E. and City and Guilds standards. All secondary schools in St George's will be encouraged to participate and share in the education programme at the Centre.

Mr President, Mr Speaker, a few weeks ago, my Government opened the first Junior Secondary School at Hillsborough in Carriacou. The introduction of Junior Secondary Schools is the first stage in the implementation of my Government's policy to provide free, equal education opportunity to all. The broad curriculum, in the Junior Secondary School, will enable pupils, with no particular interest in academic pursuits, to develop their special gifts; it will also enable the slow learner to gain as much as his capabilities would permit, in

an atmosphere of self-respect and dignity, and without the stigma of failure.

After the junior secondary school building programme has been completed, it will eventually become necessary for the present scholarship examinations to be abolished, and selection for specialised education at Senior Secondary Schools, Technical and Vocational Institutes and the Domestic Science Training Centre, will be made at age 15 when consideration of educational and vocational interest, aptitude and abilities enjoy vastly superior validity than they could at age 11.

My Government's concern for and interest in the welfare of children are manifested in the provisions which my Government have made for education at the pre-primary school level. The Infant Education Division of the Ministry of Education will provide on-the-job guidance to the teachers in these schools so that the educational experience to which these children are exposed will satisfy their psychological needs and leed to the development of right attitudes and values.

Earlier this year, my Government appointed a committee of experts from the Institute of Education, University of the West Indies, to advise on the question of grant-in-aid to assisted secondary schools. The implementation of one section of the committee's recommendations will result in an increase in the grant to these schools from $195,000 in 1971 to $540,000 in 1972.

Short-term educational goals, must be regularly evaluated, in order to help the teacher to discover how effective is his teaching and to

enable Government's educational advisors to receive feed-back, on the efficiency of innovations in the system. My Government has, therefore, decided to seek technical assistance under the United Nations Development Programme in setting up an Educational Measurement Service which will be responsible for construction and selecting standardised achievement tests for all levels of the educational system, but especially for the third year of the junior secondary school course, when selection for further education will eventually be made.

Of equal importance is the need for vocational guidance. Similar negotiations are, therefore, being conducted to obtain expertise in this field so that school leavers will receive guidance before they take the vital decision on the choice of a career.

THRONE SPEECH 1972

Mr President, Mr Speaker, my Government will continue to emphasise and to give priority to the education of our people; it believes that education trains not only for livelihood. Government's aim is to provide school places for all children of school age, and will therefore continue to expand its school building programme, including pre-primary schools, and with particular reference to Junior Secondary Schools. New Senior Secondary Schools will be built, one of which will be for girls. My Government will continue to expand its primary school building programme. It will ensure that all existing primary schools provide reasonable standards of accommodation and facilities for our children. School buildings will be repaired or replaced, where necessary.

Mr President, Mr Speaker, my Government will place great emphasis on further expansion of the Teacher Training Programme, and the number of scholarships to Secondary Schools and to Universities and other institutions of higher learning will be further increased and an expanded educational programme designed to suit our local environment, our problems and our objectives will be vigorously pursued. My Government will ensure that our educational system reflects and is geared to the needs and aspirations of a West Indian society, as West Indian people. Subjects taught in our schools will be relevant to ourselves and to our community.

APPENDIX 4D

Experts from Feature Address Delivered by
Prime Minister Maurice Bishop
at
The Opening of the National Training Seminar
"A NEW KIND OF TEACHER FOR THE NEW SOCIETY"
Friday, January 4th, 1980

1980 has been declared the Year of Education and Production in the belief that only an educated man can be a truly free man and in the further belief that only a productive people can be a truly liberated people.

Sisters and Brothers, today, you find yourselves as teachers facing a task of the greatest importance. Your single most urgent task will probably be to assist in the process of wiping out the colonial prejudices and beliefs associated with the nature of education: the task of creating a curriculum relevant to the lives and experiences of our people, the task of raising higher and higher our organisational capacity to handle our school system.

Today, marks another important and historic step in the development of education within the Revolution. Because with this Seminar, we are beginning the process in which rigid distinction between teacher and student will be changed. For we believe and recognise that the teacher too is a learner and has the sacred responsibility to the students and to himself and to the Revolution to further develop himself as he goes along.

The central point that I have been hoping to make this morning is that education and the Revolution are inseparable aspects of the process of changing the society in which we live in the direction in which we wish to change it.

The Revolution must be educational and the educational system must be revolutionary. It is because of this stress that we have always given to education, that 1980 has been proclaimed Year of Education and Production. Education does not take place only in schools. Rather, I would suggest to you that education is the process by which through reflection and study, people become more aware of the conditions in which they live and apply the knowledge they gain in their everyday actions.

I would like to suggest that a revolutionary educational system has at least four main elements:

a. Firstly, it attempts to teach people a greater understanding of their own reality in order for them best to understand how to change it;

b. Secondly, it attempts to develop the inate abilities of the masses of our people and not just in entrenching the privileges of a few.

c. Thirdly, it should seek to develop the productive capacity of our society since it is only through an expansion in production that the standard of living, including the educational system can be improved.

d. And fourthly, it tries to promote the democratisation of our society: i.e. the process by which people are encouraged to take an active part in the educational system itself and in all major decisions that affect our lives.

Education for liberation then, must ensure that all these backward elements of the old educational system are reversed. We must, for example, develop a curriculum that has more relevance to our own reality. This training course is, in fact, one element of a higher project being organised by the Ministry of Education to restructure the curriculum in the Primary schools. This restructuring will be done in close collaboration with the teachers in the various grades and questionnaires seeking the views of teachers have already been drafted and sent out. Participation of parents and students themselves is also planned.

A revolutionary educational system must ensure that education is not just for the privileged ones among few of us but that every single child has a right to an education to develop his or her own ability to the fullest. Fortunately in Grenada, primary education is already universally available. Our position as Government is that secondary education should also be provided for all children, but having regard to our financial problems at this point, we know that it will take some time before this dream can be made into full reality.

Again, we must ensure that the new education that we develop is geared towards the expansion of a productive capacity of our economy.

In this regard, I will very much emphasise the promotion of work-study programmes of all levels of the educational system. We view this as being a matter of the greatest importance. Because if we have to break the artificial distinctions between worker and student which has been developed over the years - coming out of our colonial history - it is necessary that we begin at school to encourage our students, while they are still students, to begin to develop an approach to work, to begin to make a contribution towards the education that they are receiving. Therefore, this whole question of the work study programme is one of the most critical aspects of the programme that we wish to see developed in 1980.

For those teachers who continue to see this important job that they are doing as being simply a form of mobility, as being simply the gap between heaven and hell - Limbo, it would certainly be the time - 1980 - for us to begin to re-examine those attitudes, to begin to put in proper perspective the importance of the role that you have, as teachers, shaping the minds of the young people of our country. We have been concerned, too, in the past, and still to some extent, about the fact that several teachers appeared totally resistent to change; appeared to be extremely conservative in their points of view, appeared not to feel that the revolution is about change, progressive change. The sort of responses, for example, that we have gotten from some teachers to the work study approach seems to suggest that what they are really concerned about is that they themselves might have to go out and become involved in some work outside of the classrooms. There have been some complaints by teachers already that they are being over-burdened, that too many requests are being made for too much extra work and that as Government we must understand that they are not

accustomed to working hard. Well, of course, we can sympathise with that position. We understand that this has been a historic problem, not just in the teaching service, but in the public as a whole and we understand that these problems take time to get resolved.

One of the important reasons we are insisting, at this time, on in-service training is precisely to ensure that the teaching service gets into the revolution and catches up with other areas that might have been moving ahead in trying to develop a revolutionary and more progressive approach to the work that they are involved in. We certainly believe that one of the key roles of the teacher in the New Society will be to be involved, to a greater extent, in the community affairs. We would certainly like to see our teachers much more involved, much more actively involved, in the community. Teachers are usually very respected members of the community and therefore, with the kind of respect they control, and serious attempt at involvement by teachers in community life will have a tremendous impact on the particular community to which they belong..
....

And the final role that we wish to stress, at this point here, for teachers would be the critical role that you have to play in helping to develop the new curriculum for the new society that we are trying to build. That, sisters and brothers, is of the greatest importance because as I have said before in these brief remarks, it is extremely urgent for us as a people to begin to train our young people for playing a role in the society into which they are going to have to come, the society in which they are going to live after they have finished their schooling.

And the kind of curriculum that we now find ourselves faced with, is not appropriate to the real needs, to the realities of our country today. And therefore it is going to be one of our major tasks that as teachers you are going to have to find yourselves involved in it.

It is quite clear that the teacher must see himself or herself as being part of the wider society and must begin to understand the link and the relationship between education and teaching on the one hand and politics and development of the country on the other. Parents, students, teachers - all the various components that go to make up school are obviously involved in some way or another in what is going on in the community in general and therefore we need to ensure that the students that come out of our school system come out with this new understanding - this new knowledge of themselves - this new confidence, that will better help to prepare them for playing a more important role, for making a greater contribution in building the kind of society we want to see. That is going to make one of the major tasks that, as teachers, you are going to have to help to fashion and to shape.

APPENDIX 4E

OBJECTIVES OF JUNIOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS (GRENADA)

1. To provide an environment in which the adolescent is understood and which makes a smooth transition from early education to what is to follow.

2. To provide a form of education that will acquaint students with various occupational skills, so that they may discover their vocational interest and increase their desire to pursue further educational avenues in those fields.

3. To challenge the abilities and attract the interest of students.

4. To provide opportunities for the development of more favourable attitudes to self, to work and to people and things local.

5. To establish a more balanced education programme which would integrate manpower needs with skills offered through the educational facilities, and to correct the imbalances in the educational facilities offered through the existing educational institutions.

6. To continue the training already begun in the basic skills and knowledge and to broaden this training to include more opportunities for students to think critically and to develop a respect for truth.

7. To raise the level of students entering second-cycle secondary schools in order that the level of these outputs may, in turn, be raised.

Source:

APPENDIX 4F

CATEGORIES AND DESCRIPTION OF TEACHERS IN THE TEACHING SERVICE (GRENADA) 1987

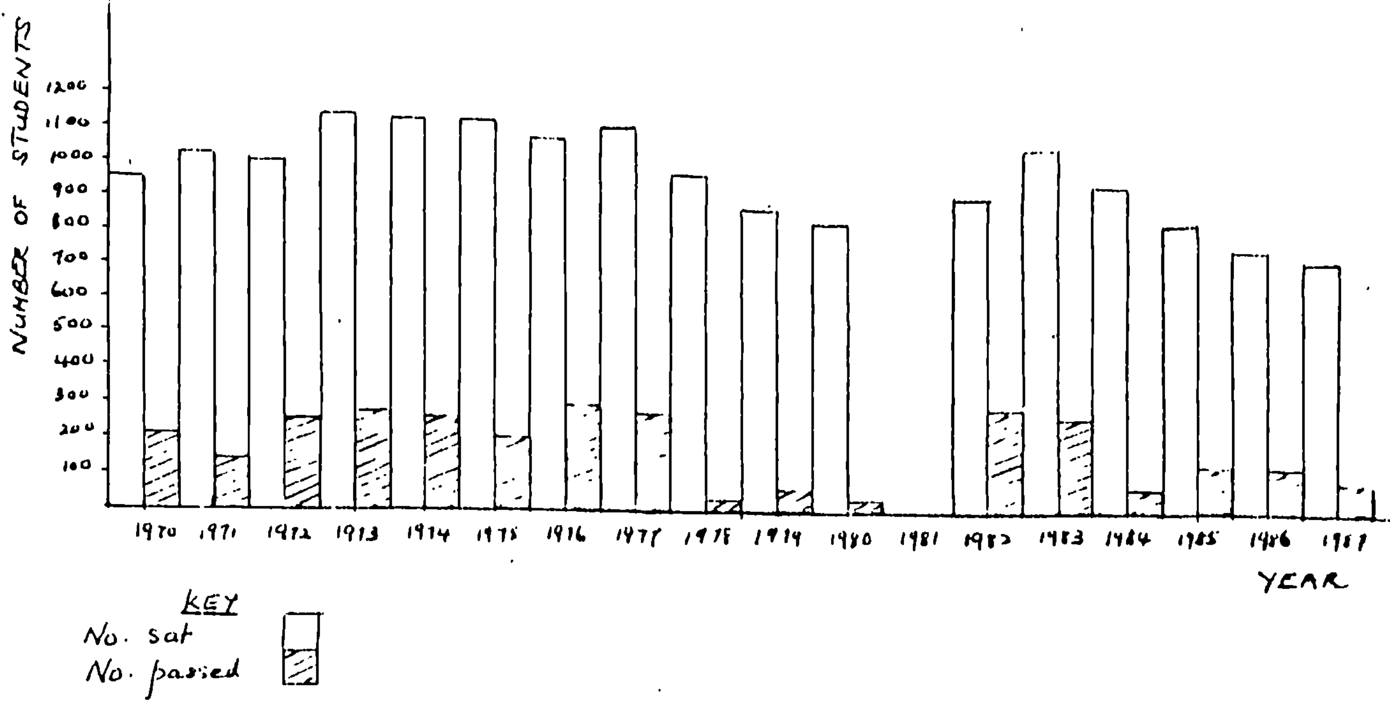
Category of Teacher	Description/Qualification
Pupil/Temporary	Primary School Leaving Certificate or one G.C.E. O'Level subject.
Student Teacher	Pupil Teachers' Examination, or two G.C.E. O' Level subjects.
Probation Teacher	a) Three G.C.E. O'Level subjects with or without English Language. b) Four or more G.C.E. O'Level subjects without English Language.
Certificated II	Teachers' Certificate - Parts I and II or four G.C.E. O'Level subjects, including English Language.
Certificated I	a) Four or more G.C.E. O'Level subjects including English Language, plus Teachers' Certificate - Parts I and II. b) Or two or more G.C.E. A'Level subjects.
Qualified	One year training, plus three years' teaching experience, or two years of teaching training.
Graduate	At least a First Degree from a recognised University.

NOTE: Teachers who have completed the National In-Service Teacher Education Programme, but failed to satisfy the School of Education, U.W.I., certification requirement are regarded as qualified/trained teachers but are not paid the salary of a qualified/trained teacher until they satisfy the U.W.I certification requirement.

Source:

APPENDIX 4G(i): EXAMINATION RESULTS (GRENADA)

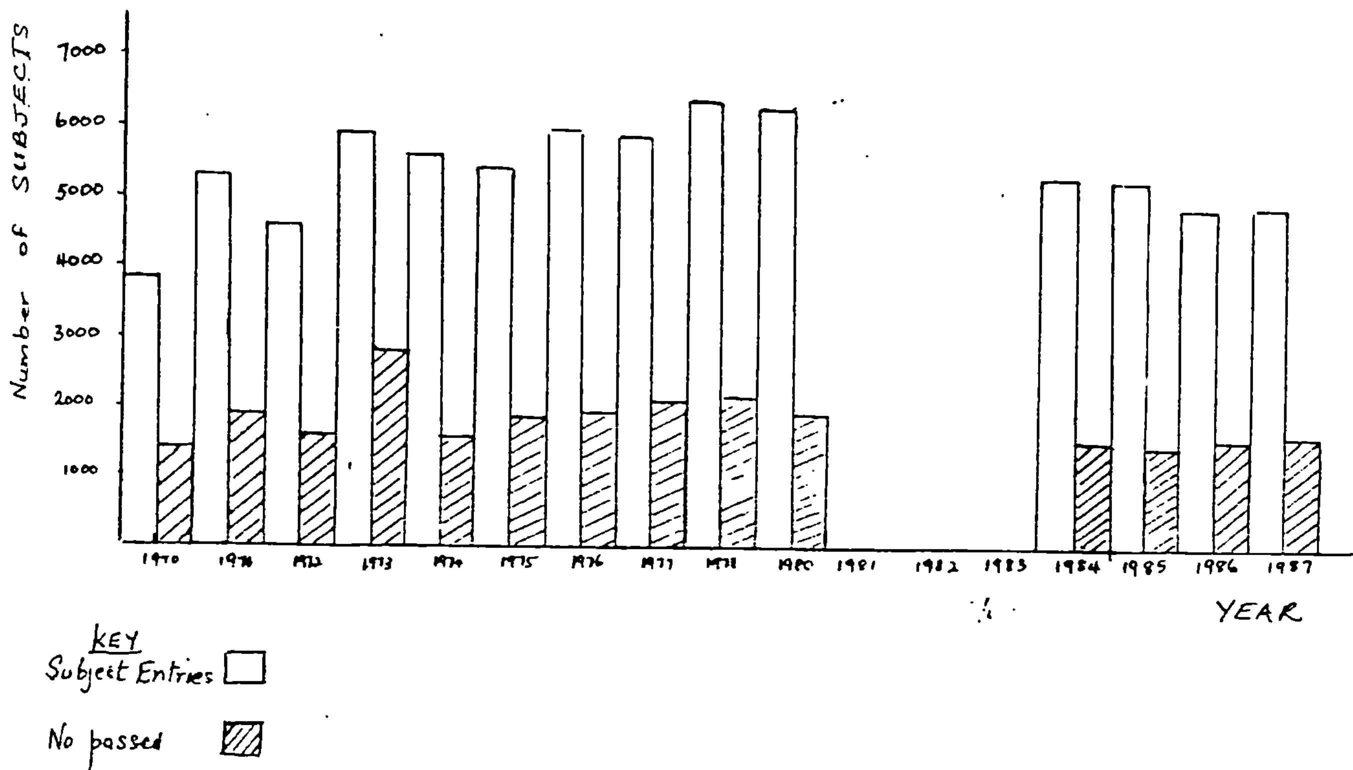
SCHOOL LEAVING EXAMINATION 1970-1987



Source: Devised by the writer from data obtained from Statistical Unit, Ministry of Education, St.Georges, Grenada, (1987).

APPENDIX 4G(ii): EXAMINATION RESULTS (GRENADA)

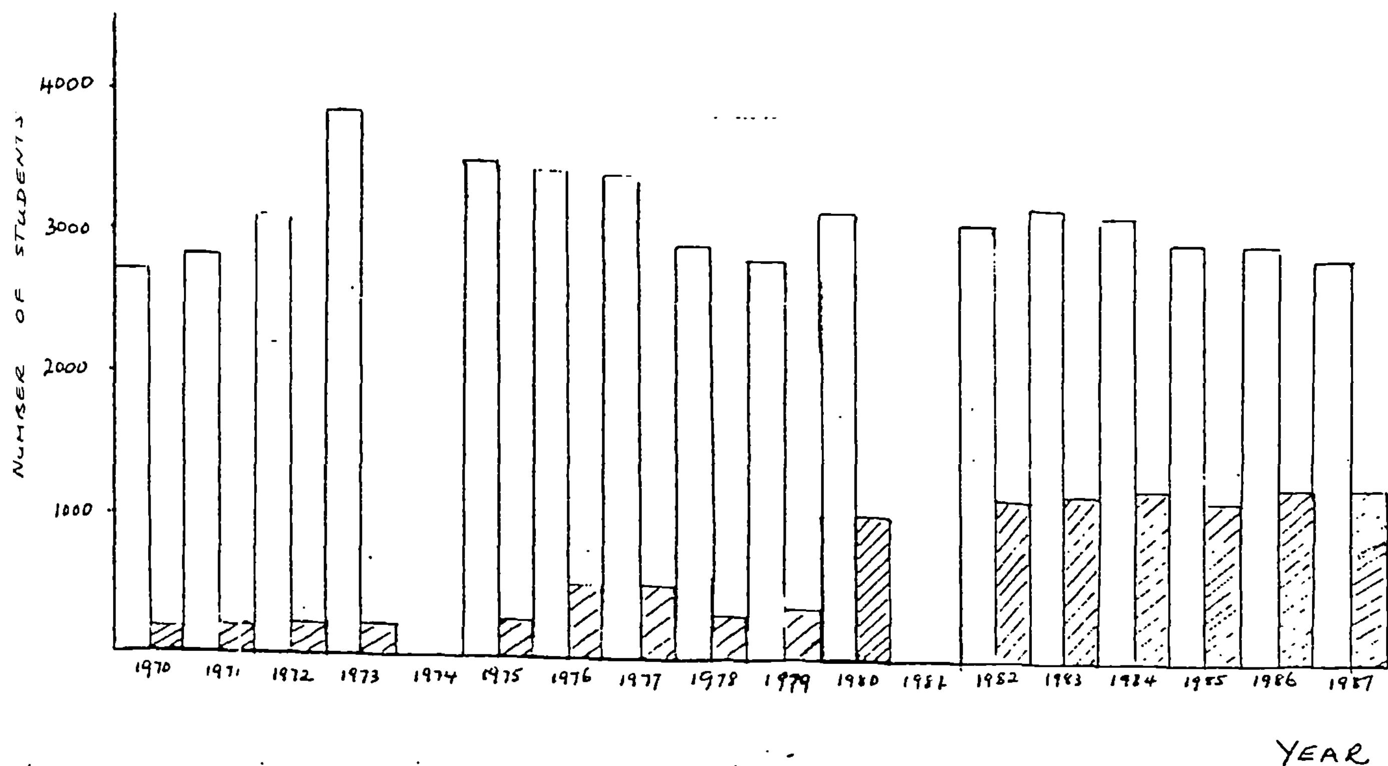
GCE 'O' LEVELS 1970-1987



Source: Devised by the writer from data obtained from Statistical Unit, Ministry of Education, St.Georges, Grenada (1987).

APPENDIX 4G(iii): EXAMINATION RESULTS (GRENADA)

COMMON ENTRANCE: 1970-1987



key

No. sat

No. passed

Source: Devised by the writer from data obtained from Statistical Unit, Ministry of Education, St.Georges, Grenada (1987).

APPENDIX 4H

QUESTIONNAIRE : QA

PRINCIPALS, COLLEGE TUTORS, EDUCATION OFFICERS/SUPERVISORS

DIRECTIONS: Please circle the appropriate letters, e.g.

a (b) c d

I. SEX: a. male b. female

II. TITLE: a. Principal
b. College Tutor
c. Education Officer/School Supervisor

If your answer to question II is (a), please respond to III and IV.

III. Which type of institution do you head?

a. Infant school c. Secondary
b. Primary school d. Tertiary

IV. What percentage of the formally trained teachers that you supervise do you rate as successful/effective, using the criteria in item (V)?

a. Under 25% c. 50% - 75%
b. 25% - 50% d. 75% - 100%

V. Which of the following evaluation techniques do you use?

a. Observation c. Student grades
b. Student evaluation d. Peer assessment
e. Other: Specify

VI. Which of the competencies/qualities, on the attached list, do you consider very important for effective/successful teaching?

VII. Students in my institution/the education system do best in

a. Mathematics c. Social Studies
b. Language Arts d. Science

VIII. Students in my institution/the education system do worst in

a. Mathematics c. Social Studies
b. Language Arts d. Science

IX. In your opinion, further teacher training is needed in

a. Mathematics c. Social Studies
b. Language Arts d. Science

APPENDIX 4H

QUESTIONNAIRE : QB

TEACHERS ONLY

DIRECTIONS: Please circle the appropriate letter, e.g.

a. b. c. (d)

I. SEX: a. Male b. Female

II. In which of the following types of school do you teach?

a. Infant c. Secondary
b. Primary d. Tertiary

III. Did you have formal teacher training?

(i) a. Yes b. No

(ii) Year(s) of formal training? ....

IV. For how long was that preparation?

a. 1 year b. 2 years c. 3 years d. Other: Specify

V. Did you complete the course?

a. Yes b. No

VI. Name of institution(s) where you received your formal teacher training ....

VII. For how many weeks did you 'practice teach' during your formal teacher preparation?

a. 8 weeks b. 12 weeks c. 18 weeks d. Other: Specify

VIII. By which method/form of teacher training were you prepared?

a. full time college c. In-service
b. part time college d. Other: Specify

IX. For how long have you been teaching? ....years

---

X. Which of the following academic qualifications do you possess?

a. Less than 4 G.C.E./C.X.C. passes

b. More than 4 G.C.E./C.X.C. passes

c. University/College Degree

d. Other: Specify ....

XI. Which of the following subject(s) do you teach?

a. Language Arts

b. Mathematics

c. Social Studies

d. Science

XII. Do you think that you are well-prepared to teach?

a. Yes

b. No

XIII. Which of the competencies/qualities on the attached list do you consider very important for effective/successful teaching?

XIV. How do you rate yourself as a teacher?

a. Very successful/effective

b. Successful/effective

c. Not effective/successful

XV. Which of the following evaluation techniques have you used to arrive at your response to question XIV above?

a. Student grades

b. Principal's evaluation

c. Student evaluation

d. Self-evaluation

e. Other: Specify ....

QUALITIES AND COMPETENCIES OF A SUCCESSFUL/EFFECTIVE TEACHER

	A Agree	D Disagree	N Neutral
1. Love of teaching and children	A	D	N
2. Dedication/commitment to the profession	A	D	N
3. Motivator/catalyst/inspires and stimulates	A	D	N
4. Sociable/approachable/has a sense of humour	A	D	N
5. Good communicator/explains very well	A	D	N
6. Thinks positive of self and students	A	D	N
7. Innovator/Initiator/is creative	A	D	N
8. Flexible/Adaptable re teaching (techniques/ situation)	A	D	N
9. Kind, Fair, Friendly, Firm	A	D	N
10. Evaluates self and students regularly	A	D	N
11. Co-operates with peers, parents, community	A	D	N
12. Prepares work thoroughly	A	D	N
13. Competent in subject area(s)	A	D	N
14. Demonstrates sound, mature judgement in reaching decisions	A	D	N
15. Uses a variety of methods/approaches in teaching	A	D	N
16. Sees and treats students as individuals	A	D	N
17. Enables students to compete with self so as to realise fullest potential	A	D	N
18. Respects the views of students, peers, parents	A	D	N
19. Very patient listener and keen observer	A	D	N
20. Tactful/a strategist	A	D	N
21. Makes maximum use of available resources	A	D	N
22. Uses rewards and punishment effectively	A	D	N
23. Accepts and nurtures divergent thinking	A	D	N
24. Knows the children that he/she teaches	A	D	N
25. Sees and uses the class as a resource unit			
26. Sets realistic goals which challenge students	A	D	N
27. Has effective class control			
28. Always seeks new knowledge/open to suggestions	A	D	N
29. Sensitive to students needs	A	D	N
30. Instils feeling of self-worth within students	A	D	N

APPENDIX 4H

QUESTIONNAIRE TO BE COMPLETED BY TEACHERS IN TRAINING : QC

INSTRUCTIONS: Please circle the appropriate letter(s)

I. SEX a) Male b) Female

II. Which school did you teach in last?
Name the school ______________________

III. For how long have you taught? ______________________

IV. Which of the following were you exposed to before you were admitted to the teachers' college?

a) In-Service Course
b) Induction Course
c) Workshops on aspects of teaching
d) Other: Specify ______________________

V. For how long did that course last?

a) ......weeks b) ......months c) ......years

VI. Are there adequate library facilities and available resource materials at the teachers' college?

a) Yes b) No

VII. Are you satisfied with the guidance given to you by college tutors?

a) b) No

VIII. Is the college programme meeting your most pressing needs as a teacher?

a) b) No

IX. Which of the following do you consider as your three most pressing needs as a teacher?

a) makes you better at imparting knowledge to pupils

b) need for more content

c) to be better able to understand pupils and deal effectively with classroom problems as they arise

d) make me 'a teacher for all seasons' - flexible and adaptable

X. Indicate your reaction to the statement by putting a tick beside one of the codes:

SA - strongly agree U - undecided
A - agree D - disagree
SD - strongly disagree

	SA	A	U	D	SD
A. LANGUAGE ARTS:					
1. content challenging and suitable					
2. methodology applicable to real classrooms					
3. course is well taught					
4. objectives of lessons always clear					
5. adequate opportunities to give feedback on how course is taught					
6. course is necessary					
B. MATHEMATICS:					
1. content challenging and suitable					
2. methodology applicable to real classrooms					
3. course is well taught					
4. objectives of lessons always clear					
5. adequate opportunities to give feedback on how course is taught					
6. course is necessary					
C. GENERAL SCIENCE:					
1. content challenging and suitable					
2. methodology applicable to real classrooms					
3. course is well taught					
4. objectives of lessons always clear					
5. adequate opportunities to give feedback on how course is taught					
6. course is necessary					
D. SOCIAL STUDIES:					
1. content challenging and suitable					
2. methodology applicable to real classrooms					
3. course is well taught					
4. objectives of lessons always clear					
5. adequate opportunities to give feedback on how course is taught					
6. course is necessary					

E. EDUCATION:

	SA	A	U	D	SD
1. content challenging and suitable					
2. methodology applicable to real classrooms					
3. course is well taught					
4. objectives of lessons always clear					
5. adequate opportunities to give feedback on how course is taught					
6. course is necessary					

XI. When would you like your teaching practice sessions to be held?

a) every term
b) third, fourth and sixth
c) third and fifth term only
d) Other: Specify ....

XII. How many weeks of 'practice teaching' should teachers in training be given?

a) 9 weeks b) 12 weeks c) 16 weeks d) Other: Specify ....

XIII. Principals and Education Officers/Supervisors should assist College tutors in assessing/evaluating student teachers when on teaching practice

a) Yes b) No

XIV. Within which age group are you?

a) under 20 years
b) 20 - 25 years
c) 26 - 30 years
d) over 30 years

XV. Which of the following forms of teacher training do you think can be most effective?

a) Full-time In-college
b) In-Service training
c) Part In-Service and part In-College
d) Other: Specify ....

NOTE: Please add any comment that may help to point out strengths and weaknesses in the college programme.

THANK YOU

APPENDIX 4H

QUESTIONNAIRE : QD

CURRENT UVI STUDENTS WITH A CONCENTRATION IN EDUCATION

Please circle the appropriate letter, e.g. a b (c) d
Fill the blank spaces.

1. Sex: a. Male b. Female

   Country of Permanent Residence __________ Nationality __________

2. Within which age group are you?

   a. under 20 years
   b. 20 - 25 years
   c. 26 - 30 years
   d. over 30 years

3. In what year were you admitted to the UVI teacher preparation programme 19 ___.

4. When do you hope to complete that programme? 19 ___.

5. In which of the following subject areas do you hope to specialise?

   a. Mathematics c. Language Arts
   b. Social Sciences d. Science
   e. Other: Specify ________________

6. Have you received initial teacher training at a teachers' College?

   a. Yes b. No

7. If YES, where did you receive that training? ___________________

8. If you have taught before, for how long did you teach?

   a. 1-3 years b. 4-6 years c. 7-10 years d. over 10 years

9. Which of the following academic qualifications did you obtain before being admitted to UVI?

   a. High School Diploma
   b. Cambridge School Certificate

c. 4/more GCE/CXC subject passes

d. Less than 4 GCE/CXC subject passes

e. Other: Specify ______________

10. Are you satisfied that the subject area in which you are specialising at UVI

	SA	A	N	D	SD
i) is adequate and challenging?					
ii) is well taught?					
iii) offers adequate opportunities for you to give feedback to professors on how that subject is being taught?					
iv) offers relevant and practical methodology to teach it effectively?					
v) can be related to Caribbean reality?					
vi) always offers instructional objectives that are clear to you?					

SA - Strongly Agree; A - Agree; N - Neutral; D - Disagree

SD - Strongly Disagree

11. What aspects of the teacher preparation programme at UVI do you consider

i) strong and very useful?

ii) weak and/or irrelevant?

12. What education related courses and/or activities would you like to have introduced in the teacher preparation programme at UVI?

13. What education related courses and/or activities in that programme would you like to have removed/modified?

14. Are you required to 'practice teach'?

a. Yes b. No

15. If YES, for how many weeks?

16. Are there adequate and easily available resource materials at the UVI library?

    i) in your area of specialisation? a. Yes b. No

    ii) on education courses studied by you? a. Yes b. No

17. Are the professors who teach your courses Yes No

    i) easily accessible to you?

    ii) approachable?

    iii) helpful

    iv) capable of offering sound professional guidance?

18. Which of the 30 competencies/qualities on the attached list do you consider very important for effective/successful teaching?

19. If you received initial teacher training at a teachers' training college, state any fundamental difference(s) between the two training programmes.

NO.	COMPETENCIES	A Agree	D Disagree	N Neutral
1.	Love of teaching and children			
2.	Dedication/commitment to the profession			
3.	Motivator/catalyst/inspires and stimulates			
4.	Sociable/approachable/has a sense of humour			
5.	Good communicator/explains very well			
6.	Thinks positive of self and students			
7.	Innovator/Initiator/is creative			
8.	Flexible/Adaptable re teaching (techniques/situation)			
9.	Kind, Fair, Friendly, Firm			
10.	Evaluates self and students regularly			
11.	Co-operates with peers, parents, community			
12.	Prepares work thoroughly			
13.	Competent in subject area(s)			
14.	Demonstrates sound, mature judgement in reaching decisions			
15.	Uses a variety of methods/approaches in teaching			
16.	Sees and treats students as individuals			
17.	Enables students to compete with self so as to realise fullest potential			
18.	Respects the views of students, peers, parents			
19.	Very patient listener and keen observer			
20.	Tactful/a strategist			
21.	Makes maximum use of available resources			
22.	Uses rewards and punishment effectively			
23.	Accepts and nurtures divergent thinking			
24.	Knows the children that he/she teaches			
25.	Sees and uses the class as a resource unit			
26.	Sets realistic goals which challenge students			
27.	Has effective class control			
28.	Always seeks new knowledge/open to suggestions			
29.	Sensitive to students needs			
30.	Instils feeling of self-worth within students			

APPENDIX 4H

QUESTIONNAIRE : QE

UVI GRADUATES WITH A MAJOR/MINOR IN EDUCATION

Please circle the appropriate letter, e.g. a b (c) d

1. SEX: a. Male b. Female

   Nationality ______________ Country of Permanent Residence __________

2. At which level do you teach?

   a. Elementary c. Senior High
   b. Junior High d. Tertiary
   e. Other: Specify ____________

3. Name of school where you teach ________________________________

4. Did you receive initial teacher training at a teachers' training college?

   a. Yes b. No

5. In what year did you receive your teacher training at the teachers' training college?

   From 19 ___ to 19 ___

6. In what year did you attend UVI?

   From 19 ___ to 19 ___

7. How many years of practical teaching experience do you have?

   a. 1 - 5 b. 6 - 10 c. 11 - 15 d. 16 - 20
   e. 21 - 25 f. 26 - 30 g. over 30 years

8. For how many years did you teach before receiving any formal professional training?

   a. 1 - 3 yrs b. 4 - 6 yrs c. 7 - 10 yrs d. over 10 yrs

9. In which subject area did you specialise at UVI?

   a. Social Sciences b. Mathematics c. Science
   d. Language Arts e. Other: Specify ___________

10. Is this your main area of teaching activity?

a. Yes b. No

11. Which of the following academic qualifications did you obtain before being admitted to UVI?

a. Cambridge School Certificate
b. High School Diploma
c. 4/more GCE/CXC
d. Less than 4 GCE/CXC subject passes
e. Other: Specify ________________

12. Are you satisfied that the subject area in which you specialised at UVI

	SA	A	N	D	SD
i) was adequate and challenging?					
ii) was well taught?					
iii) offered adequate opportunities for you to give feedback to professors on how that subject was being taught?					
iv) offered relevant and practical methodology on how to teach it effectively?					
v) can be related to Caribbean reality?					
vi) had instructional objectives that were always clear to you?					

SA - Strongly agree; A - Agree; N - Neutral; D - Disagree;
SD - Strongly disagree

13. Now that you are back in the real classroom, what aspects of the teacher preparation programme at UVI would you consider

i) strong and very useful?
ii) weak and/or irrelevant?

14. What education related courses and/or activities would you like to see introduced in the teacher preparation programme at UVI?

15. What education related courses and/or activities in that programme would you like to see removed/modified?

16. Were you required to 'practice teach' in the school system during your training at UVI?

a. Yes b. No

17. If YES, for how many <u>weeks</u> did you 'practice teach'?

18. Were there adequate, and easily available resource materials at the UVI library

    i) in your area of specialisation? a. Yes b. No

    ii) on education courses studied by you? a. Yes b. No

19. Were the professors who taught your courses

	Yes	No
i) easily accessible to you?		
ii) approachable?		
iii) helpful?		
iv) capable of offering sound professional guidance?		

20. Do you consider yourself an effective/successful teacher?

    a. Yes b. No

21. Which of the following evaluation techniques/criteria you used to arrive at the conclusion that you are/are not an effective/ successful teacher?

    a. principal's evaluation
    b. students' evaluation
    c. peer assessment
    c. students' grades
    d. self-evaluation
    e. Other: Specify ___________

22. Which of the 30 competencies/qualities on the attached list do you consider very important for effective/successful teaching?

23. If you received initial teacher training at a teachers' training college, state any fundamental difference(s) between the two training programmes.

NO.	COMPETENCIES/QUALITIES	A Agree	D Disagree	N Neutral
1.	Love of teaching and children			
2.	Dedication/commitment to the profession			
3.	Motivator/catalyst/inspires and stimulates			
4.	Sociable/approachable/has a sense of humour			
5.	Good communicator/explains very well			
6.	Thinks positive of self and students			
7.	Innovator/Initiator/is creative			
8.	Flexible/Adaptable re teaching (techniques/ situation)			
9.	Kind, Fair, Friendly, Firm			
10.	Evaluates self and students regularly			
11.	Co-operates with peers, parents, community			
12.	Prepares work thoroughly			
13.	Competent in subject area(s)			
14.	Demonstrates sound, mature judgement in reaching decisions			
15.	Uses a variety of methods/approaches in teaching			
16.	Sees and treats students as individuals			
17.	Enables students to compete with self so as to realise fullest potential			
18.	Respects the views of students, peers, parents			
19.	Very patient listener and keen observer			
20.	Tactful/a strategist			
21.	Makes maximum use of available resources			
22.	Uses rewards and punishment effectively			
23.	Accepts and nurtures divergent thinking			
24.	Knows the children that he/she teaches			
25.	Sees and uses the class as a resource unit			
26.	Sets realistic goals which challenge students			
27.	Has effective class control			
28.	Always seeks new knowledge/open to suggestions			
29.	Sensitive to students needs			
30.	Instils feeling of self-worth within students			

APPENDIX 4H

QUESTIONNAIRE ON TEACHERS' COMPETENCE : QF

TO BE COMPLETED BY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS AND SUBJECT SUPERVISORS

Please complete this questionnaire by circling the appropriate letter and filling the blank spaces.

1. SEX: a. Male b. Female

2. In which of the following educational institutions do you work?

   a. Elementary school b. High school c. Tertiary d. Other:

3. Name of institution ....

4. How many University of the Virgin Islands graduates do you supervise? ....

5. Of the number of UVI Education graduates that you supervise, what percentage will you rate as successful or effective? ....

   a. Under 25% b. 25% to 50% c. 50% to 75% d. 75% to 100%

6. On a scale of 5 points, please rate only the following categories of professionally trained teachers. 5 indicates the highest and 1 the lowest level.

	5	4	3	2	1
a. Non-UVI trained teachers					
b. Teachers with UVI training only					
c. UVI graduates with teachers' college initial training					

7. Which of the following evaluation techniques or criteria do you use?

   a. observation b. students' evaluation c. students' grades

   d. peer assessment e. other: specify ....

8. Please list any special strengths or weaknesses of UVI graduates.

9. Which of the following 30 competencies on the attached list do you consider very important for effective or successful teaching?

10. Please add any comments which may help in this evaluation.

THANK YOU!

NO.	COMPETENCIES/QUALITIES	A Agree	D Disagree	N Neutral
1.	Love of teaching and children			
2.	Dedication/commitment to the profession			
3.	Motivator/catalyst/inspires and stimulates			
4.	Sociable/approachable/has a sense of humour			
5.	Good communicator/explains very well			
6.	Thinks positive of self and students			
7.	Innovator/Initiator/is creative			
8.	Flexible/Adaptable re teaching (techniques/ situation)			
9.	Kind, Fair, Friendly, Firm			
10.	Evaluates self and students regularly			
11.	Co-operates with peers, parents,community			
12.	Prepares work thoroughly			
13.	Competent in subject area(s)			
14.	Demonstrates sound, mature judgement in reaching decisions			
15.	Uses a variety of methods/approaches in teaching			
16.	Sees and treats students as individuals			
17.	Enables students to compete with self so as to realise fullest potential			
18.	Respects the views of students, peers, parents			
19.	Very patient listener and keen observer			
20.	Tactful/a strategist			
21.	Makes maximum use of available resources			
22.	Uses rewards and punishment effectively			
23.	Accepts and nurtures divergent thinking			
24.	Knows the children that he/she teaches			
25.	Sees and uses the class as a resource unit			
26.	Sets realistic goals which challenge students			
27.	Has effective class control			
28.	Always seeks new knowledge/open to suggestions			
29.	Sensitive to students needs			
30.	Instils feeling of self-worth within students			

APPENDIX 4I

QUALITIES AND COMPETENCIES OF A SUCCESSFUL/EFFECTIVE TEACHER

		A Agree	D Disagree	N Neutral
1.	Love of teaching and children	A	D	N
2.	Dedication/commitment to the profession	A	D	N
3.	Motivator/catalyst/inspires and stimulates	A	D	N
4.	Sociable/approachable/has a sense of humour	A	D	N
5.	Good communicator/explains very well	A	D	N
6.	Thinks positive of self and students	A	D	N
7.	Innovator/Initiator/is creative	A	D	N
8.	Flexible/Adaptable re teaching (techniques/ situation)	A	D	N
9.	Kind, Fair, Friendly, Firm	A	D	N
10.	Evaluates self and students regularly	A	D	N
11.	Co-operates with peers, parents, community	A	D	N
12.	Prepares work thoroughly	A	D	N
13.	Competent in subject(areas)	A	D	N
14.	Demonstrates sound, mature judgement in reaching decisions	A	D	N
15.	Uses a variety of methods/approaches in teaching	A	D	N
16.	Sees and treats students as individuals	A	D	N
17.	Enables students to compete with self so as to realise fullest potential	A	D	N
18.	Respects the views of students, peers, parents	A	D	N
19.	Very patient listener and keen observer	A	D	N
20.	Tactful/a strategist	A	D	N
21.	Makes maximum use of available resources	A	D	N
22.	Uses rewards and punishment effectively	A	D	N
23.	Accepts and nurtures divergent thinking	A	D	N
24.	Knows the children that he/she teaches	A	D	N
25.	Sees and uses the class as a resource unit			
26.	Sets realistic goals which challenge students	A	D	N
27.	Has effective class control			
28.	Always seeks new knowledge/open to suggestions	A	D	N
29.	Sensitive to students needs	A	D	N
30.	Instils feeling of self-worth within students	A	D	N

APPENDIX 4J

COMPARISON OF TIME DISTRIBUTION AMONG AMONG FOUR (4) LEVELS, (GRENADA) 1985

SUBJECT	Senior Primary %	Junior Secondary %	Comprehensive Secondary %	Grammar Secondary %
English	20	15	15	15
French/Spanish	5	6	6	18
History/Geography/Social Studies/Religious Education	20	23	6	28
Mathematics	16	14	15	15
Sciences/Health Science	12	12	14	15
Physical Education	3	-	6	6
Performing Arts/Music	3	-	6	-
Industrial Arts/Home Economics/ Agriculture/Commerce/Research	21	30	26	3
Research	-	-	6	-

APPENDIX 4K

RESPONSES OF 45 EDUCATORS TO THE FOLLOWING REQUEST

Indicate, from the list given, the "technical" and "human/social" aspects of the successful/effective teacher (B.V.I) 1987

	Frequences in Response	
	Technical	Human/Social
1. Love of teaching and children		45
2. Dedication/commitment to the profession	25	18
3. Motivator/catalyst/inspires and stimulates	31	38
4. Sociable/approachable/has a sense of humour		42
5. Good communicator/explains very well	43	2
6. Thinks positive of self and students	41	35
7. Innovator/Initiator/is creative	39	27
8. Flexible/Adaptable re teaching (techniques/ situation	34	37
9. Kind, Fair, Friendly, Firm	25	31
10. Evaluates self and students regularly	44	
11. Co-operates with peers, parents, community	11	40
12. Prepares work thoroughly	45	
13. Competent in subject area(s)	45	
14. Demonstrates sound, mature judgement in reaching decisions	39	5
15. Uses a variety of methods/approaches in teaching	44	
16. Sees and treats students as individuals	41	24
17. Enables students to compete with self so as to realise fullest potential	43	15
18. Respects the views of students, peers, parents	29	27
19. Very patient listener and keen observer	45	
20. Tactful/a strategist	43	4
21. Makes maximum use of available resources	45	
22. Uses rewards and punishment effectively	44	
23. Accepts and nurtures divergent thinking	40	18
24. Knows the children that he/she teaches	43	16
25. Sees and uses the class as a resource unit	45	
26. Sets realistic goals which challenge students	37	25
27. Has effective class control	45	42
28. Always seeks new knowledge/open to suggestions	31	29
29. Sensitive to students needs	37	33
30. Instils feeling of self-worth within students	43	37

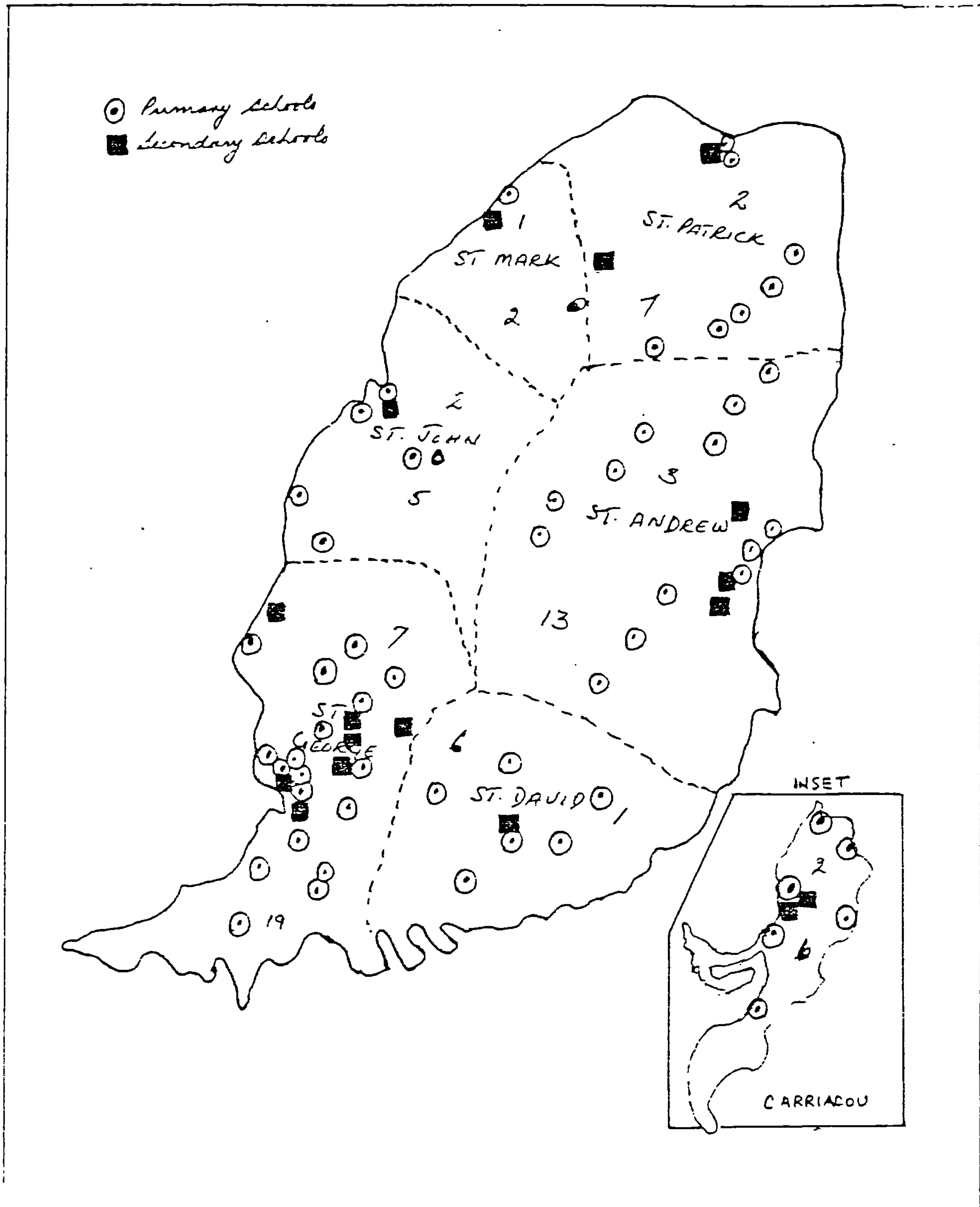
APPENDIX 4L.

TABLE SHOWING SCHOOLS FROM WHICH STUDENT-TEACHERS WERE SELECTED (GRENADA) (1987)

	No. of Teachers		No. of Teachers
Belair Govt.	1	Chantinelle R.C.	2
Birch Grove R.C.	1	Hermitage Govt.	1
Holy Innocent's Ang.	2	Mt. Rose S.D.A.	2
St. Andrew's Ang.	2	Samaritan Presbyterian	1
St. Andrew's Meth.	5	St. Patrick's R.C.	2
St. Andrew's R.C.	2		
St. Giles Ang.	2	St. David's R.C.	2
St. Mary's R.C.	1	St. Joseph's R.C.	3
Tivoli R.C.	3	St. Theresa's R.C.	
Vendome R.C.	2		
		Dover Govt.	1
Constantine Meth.	1	Hillsborough Govt.	1
Mt. Moritz Ang.	1	Mt. Pleasant Govt.	1
South St.George Govt.	1	Petite Martinique R.C.	1
St. Luke's Ang.	1		
St. George's Meth.	1		
St. George's S.D.A.	2	Grand Roy Govt.	1
Sunny Side	1	St. John's Ang.	1
		St. John's R.C.	2
Corinth Govt.	1		

APPENDIX 4M

SCHOOL MAP OF GRENADA AND CARRIACOU, SHOWING LOCATION OF SCHOOLS, AND PARISHES



Source: Structured by the writer based on information obtained from the Ministry of Education, St.Georges, Grenada (1987).

APPENDIX 4N:- (i) TIME FRAME OF U.W.I AND NISTEP EXAMINATIONS (GRENADA) 1981-1984

Month	Year	Type of Examination	Courses
August	1981	NISTEP Year 1	Language Arts, Mathematics Education
August	1982	Final NISTEP	Language Arts, Mathematics Education
June	1983	Final U.W.I	Language Arts, Mathematics Education
August	1983	Final NISTEP	Social Studies, Science, Agricultural Science, Health Ed.
June	1984	Final U.W.I	Social Studies, Science

APPENDIX 4N:- (ii) NISTEP TRAINEES RESULTS OF U.W.I EXAMINATIONS (GRENADA, 1984)

Grade	Language Arts	Mathematics	Education	Practical Teaching	Social Studies	Science
A+						
A						
A-				1		
B+				2		
B	1		1	4		
B-		1	7	9		
C+	2		16	14		
C	4	3	20	12	100% Passes	100% Passes
C-	14	9	10	7		
D+	15	8	8	8		
D	10	20	1	4		
E	12	22		1		
Absent				1		
TOTAL	63	63	63	63		

APPENDIX 4P(i)

TIME DISTRIBUTION AT WALTHAM (JUNIOR) SECONDARY SCHOOL (1987)

	Form I	Form II	Form III
Language Arts	6	5	5
Mathematics	5	5	5
History	2	2	2
Geography	2	2	2
Social Studies	2	2	2
General Science	2	2	2
Health Education	2	2	2
Religion	1	1	1
Spanish	2	2	2
Business Studies	-	1	-
General Assembly	1	1	1
Industrial Arts	3	3	3
Nutritional Science	3	3	3
Typing Craft	2	2	2
TOTAL	35	2	34

APPENDIX 4P(ii) : (COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOL)

DISTRIBUTION OF TIME AT BERNADETTE BAILEY SECONDARY SCHOOL (1987)

	Form I	Form II
English	5	5
Literature	-	1
Social Studies	2	2
Spanish	2	2
Mathematics	6	5
Integrated Science	4	4
Home Economics	2	2
Needle Craft		
Industrial Arts	3	3
Games	2	2
Performing Arts	2	2
Research Skills		
Health Education	1	1
Agricultural Science	3	3
TOTAL	35	35

APPENDIX 4P(iii)

DISTRIBUTION OF TIME AT THE GRENADA BOYS SECONDARY SCHOOL (1987)

(GRAMMAR SCHOOL)

	Form I	Form II	Form III
Mathematics	5	5	5
Language Arts	5	5	5
General Science	5	5	5
Geography	3	3	3
History	3	3	3
Social Studies	3	3	3
Spanish	4	3	4
French	4	3	(4)
Physical Education	2	2	2
Religious Instruction/ Literacy and Relative Activities	1	1	1
Industrial Arts	-	2	(3)
Agricultural Science	-	-	(3)
TOTAL	35	35	35

APPENDIX 4Q(i)

ENROLMENT OF PUPILS IN PRE-SCHOOLS, GRENADA (1982-1986)

Year	Male	Female	Total	No. of Teachers	Pupil/ Teacher Ratio
1982-83	•	•	2674	108	1:25
1983-84	1214	1367	2581	116	1:22
1984-85	1355	1426	2718	111	1:24
1985-86	1353	1352	2705	117	1:23

APPENDIX 4Q(ii)

ENROLMENT AT THE PRIMARY LEVEL, 1979-1985 (GRENADA)

Year	Male	Female	Total	Pupil/Teacher Ratio
1979-1980	11540	10881	22421	1:28
1980-1981	10064	10385	21449	1:28
1981-1982	10636	9799	20445	1:27
1982-1983	10605	9679	20284	1:27
1983-1984	10378	9358	19736	1:27
1984-1985	10508	9431	19939	1:26

APPENDIX 4Q(iii)

WASTAGE AT THE PRIMARY LEVEL (GRENADA, 1985)

Wastage	1981-82		1982-83		1983-84		1984-85	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Repetition	10.12	9.31	9.27	7.02	8.60	6.59	14.82	10.60
Dropouts	1.64	1.92	2.19	2.01	2.15	1.76	1.63	1.26

APPENDIX 4Q(iv)

ENROLMENT AT SECONDARY LEVEL (GRENADA) 1987

Year	No. of School	Students			Student/ Teacher Ratio
		M	F	T	
1980-81	18	1196	2696	3892	1:23
1981-82	18	1251	2984	4235	1:24
1982-83	18	2050	2887	4937	1:27
1983-84	18	2284	3371	5665	1:26
1984-85	18	2749	3759	6508	1:21
1985-86	18				
1986-87	18				

APPENDIX 4Q(V)

REPETITION AND DROPOUT RATES AT THE SECONDARY LEVEL, 1981-1987

Year	Repetition Rates			Dropout Rates		
	M	F	MF	M	F	MF
1981-82	24.30	17.66	19.62	.	.	.
1982-83	7.95	11.19	9.84	2.97	2.29	2.57
1983-84	13.66	17.83	16.12	3.06	2.88	2.95
1984-85	14.84	18.09	16.73	3.20	4.33	3.73
1985-86						
1986-87						

APPENDIX 5A

SECTORAL ORIGIN OF GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCE AT CURRENT FACTOR COST, 1976-79, (EC$ MILLION)

		1976	1977	1978	1979
1	AGRICULTURE				
	1.1 Agriculture	1.3	0.8	1.2	1.2
	1.2 Livestock	6.2	7.3	7.9	8.5
	1.3 Forestry and Lodging	-	-	-	-
	1.4 Fishing	3.3	3.5	3.7	3.8
	1.5 TOTAL	10.9	11.6	12.8	13.5
2	Mining and Quarrying	1.1	1.0	1.2	1.6
3	Manufacturing	5.1	6.9	9.3	13.3
4	Construction	10.4	10.9	11.0	13.5
5	Electricity and Water	1.3	2.1	3.6	4.9
6	Transport and Communication				
6.1	Road Transport	7.3	8.3	9.2	11.0
6.2	Sea Transport	1.0	1.7	3.1	3.9
6.3	Air Transport	8.2	9.1	10.1	11.7
6.4	Communication	5.5	6.8	7.3	6.3
6.5	TOTAL	22.0	26.0	29.7	32.9
7	Trade	14.0	17.1	19.2	24.3
8	Hotels and Restaurants	14.1	18.5	22.2	29.1
9	Banks and Insurance	7.5	9.7	10.6	13.1
10	Ownership of Dwellings	16.5	18.4	19.8	23.3
11	Producers of Government Services	16.6	19.8	23.5	26.0
12	Other Services	6.2	6.9	8.4	10.0
13	Less Imputed Banking Service charges	-5.0	-6.6	-7.1	- 8.8
14	GDP at Current Prices	120.0	142.0	164.2	196.7

Source: Economic Memorandum on Antigua, World Bank, May 18, 1981, Report No. 3403-CRG.

APPENDIX 5B

EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE FOR THE PERIOD 1986-1988. (ANTIGUA)

YEAR	PRIMARY	SECONDARY	STATE COLLEGE
	E.C.	E.C.	E.C.
1986	$ 5,601,252	$ 4,852,971	$ 1,476,927
1987	$ 5,650,441	$ 5,541,848	$ 1,732,668
1988	$ 9,177,830	$ 8,683,826	$ 2,143,581

Source: Adapted from Ministry of Education Estimates, Antigua (1986-88)

APPENDIX 5C

ABBREVIATIONS AND CORRESPONDING FULL NAMES OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS% ANTIGUA, 1988

Abbreviations	Name in Full	Abbreviations	Name in Full
A.G.S	Antigua Girls High	A.S.S	All Saints Secondary
C.H.S	Clare Hall Secondary	J.S.S.	Jennings Secondary
P.M.S	Princess Margaret Secondary	O.C.S	Ottos Comprehensive
P.S.S	Parcs Secondary	H.T.S	Holy Trinity Secondary
A.G.H.S	Antigua Girls High School		

Source: Department of Education Annual Report, Antigua (1988)

APPENDIX 5D

Excerpts from Speeches

of

The Minister of Education (Antigua)

APPENDIX 5D (i)

Address by the Hon. Reuben Harris, Minister of Education, Culture, and Youth Affairs, to declare open Teachers' Week, 1986 - Radio/TV, 4 May, 1986.

CITIZENS OF ANTIGUA AND BARBUDA, STUDENTS, PARENTS, TEACHERS

On this occasion of the observation of Teachers' Week, I bring to you a message of optimism and hope about the future of our youth, and of our society in general. This message represents both a calm and confident assessment of the state and directions of our major instituitons; but it is also presented as a challenge, fittingly summed up in the theme chosen for Teachers' Week calling this Nation to excellence.

In almost every field of our National life, there are clear signs that Antigua and Barbuda now stands poised to move beyond a stage of consolidation, to a stage of significant, qualitative and quantitative advancements - in areas relating to the improvement of health and housing, to employment and the economy, to the improvement of the physical infrastructures for social and economic development, to the improvement of education, culture and sport, we seem ready to make a great leap forward.

These might appear to be very courageous words in the midst of global economic and other crises; so let me hasten to satisfy you that my optimism is well-founded. I shall confine my remarks to the field of education, as the present situation requires.

About three years ago the Ministry of Education, within the context of the UNESCO-sponsored Major project in Latin America and the

Caribbean, outlined a three-pronged policy for educational and social advancement, as follows:

- to reduce wastage or increase the level and quality of educational output;
- to link education with productive activity; and
- to preserve and enrich our National Culture.

To guide the execution of this policy, nine clear objectives or strategies were decided upon, and I am extremely pleased to note that in every single area substantial action has been taken or is in progress. Let me make some very brief reference to some of these objectives and activities:

- We have sought to strengthen and upgrade the technical and vocational offerings in the school curriculum, and are laying the groundwork for providing meaningful and sound work-oriented skills training for unemployed youth.
- We are in the process of establishing a solid agricultural programme in selected schools.
- We have been paying careful and fruitful attention to the developmental needs of the Antigua State College, in the areas of physical, programme, and staff development.
- We have strengthened the resources and expanded the services of the Curriculum Resource Centre, to help teachers to maximise the efficiency of instruction. We have provided increased opportunities for advanced training for teachers in industrial arts and crafts, science, agriculture, and the visual and performing arts.
- We have also increased opportunities for adult education through non-formal training offered by such agencies as the Women's Desk, and the Community Development Division, including the Handicraft Centre.

- The Cultural Division has launched upon a revitalised programme of activities, and will soon receive technical assistance for organisational enhancement and for developing a cultural research capability.

- The last, but not least area I wish to mention is a vigorous schedule of restoration and maintenance of school buildings and facilities, including the Antigua Grammar School, Claire Hall Secondary School, Liberta Primary School, while plans are well advanced for an entirely new primary school for Bendals, and a secondary school for Bolans.

Citizens and Friends! I have sought to avoid a conceptual discussion of the notion of excellence in the world of education, and how such excellence could be attained - this will most certainly be done by others in programmes to follow. What I chose to do instead was to give a practical illustration of the efforts of the Ministry of Education in pursuit of the highest standards of educational provision for our citizens, to provide the conditions and climate conducive to the search for excellence.

It could be said that in the early years of education reform, the focus of attention and effort was the expansion of opportunity for those who were previously denied a chance for self-fulfilment. After expansion, the preoccupation was relevance. From relevance, a search for institutional efficiency and individual competence. I think our challenge today is to move from mere competence and efficiency to a pursuit of excellence, and I therefore find the chosen theme most timely and appropriate.

Although I eelected to forego any theoretical consideration of the concept of excellence, I cannot resist the urge to do battle against an idea that seems to have been set adrift in our society today by some apparently well-meaning but, in my view, misguided individuals, who would not take heed of the words of Tennyson:

> "The old order changeth, yielding place to new.
> And God fulfills himself in many ways,
> Lest one good custom should corrupt the world"

In brief, there seems to be an idea in some circles that the attainment of educational excellence is appropriate for a narrow category of academic subjects, or for a pre-ordained and chosen few, perhaps in clearly demarcated corners of the town. To revive or surrender to this idea will be to abandon all the hard-won gains our people and their leaders have struggled for.

We must seek to urge <u>all</u> our students and educational institutions to the highest standards of which they are capable, and which <u>is</u> appropriate to their individual circumstances; and we must do our best to provide all with the necessary support in fair measure. Indeed, I would hope that the Teachers' call to excellence is, ultimately, a call to the entire nation to reach for new heights in every field of endeavour.

My Ministry is heatened by the good work that continues to be produced by our long-standing and historic educational institutions, but we are not complacent. At this moment, we are seeking to make them stronger and greater. But I should let you know that we are equally pleased with the efforts being made by many of the newer or less conspicuous schools, at both the primary and secondary levels towards the attainment of excellence in various fields. Whatever the risk involved, I shall make bold to give two examples.

It was the Five Islands Primary School that won a Commonwealth-sponsored Regional song-writing competition to mark the International Year of the Youth. And the Princess Margaret Secondary School, at the 1985 CXC examinations, obtained a number of Grade 1 subject passes at the General Level, equal to the total number gained by all the other schools taking the examinations, though accounting for only about 13 percent of the total entires. Since we value high achievement, we should not hesitate to praise its accomplishment.

Listeners and Viewers, there is much for which we must commend the Antigua and Barbuda Union of Teachers, at this particular moment of the history of their organisation, but I shall soon have another opportunity to say more in this regard.

I only wish now, with great pleasure, to declare the 1986 Teachers' Week officially open.

I THANK YOU!

APPENDIX 5D (ii)

Address by the Hon. Reuben Harris, Minister of Education, Culture, and Youth Affairs, at the Official Opening Ceremony to mark the Hundredth Anniversary of the Antigua Girls' High School - 17 July, 1988.

M. Chair ......

...... Ladies and Gentleman!

Anniversary celebrations produce an emotional effect on us, however tough we think we are. For those who are an integral part of the history of this event being celebrated, as well as those who are less directly, but perhaps no less significantly connected, this hundredth anniversary of the founding of the Antigua Girls' High School must be a moving experience.

At the personal level, this is an occasion for reunion, for rekindling fond and even painful memories, and for feeling satisfied over individual contributions made to the life of this institution. But the entire Nation of Antigua and Barbuda shares in this anniversary celebration - the celebration of an educational tradition, a tradition of excellence, excellence in the development of character, no less than in the stimulation of learning and academic achievement.

This anniversary event, like any other anniversary celebration, also prompts a desire to take stock of ourselves, to reflect upon our past difficulties and successes, and to examine where we are; it inspires us further, to chart our course for the future, to renew our resolve to work harder for even greater accomplishments.

I know the arguments will never cease concerning the relative merits of the Antigua Girls' High School of today, and the school of each

graduate's glorious days gone by. On this occasion, however, I shall follow the advice implicit in the words of that famous British statesman, Sir Winston Churchill, in one of his wartime addresses to the British Parliament: "If we open a quarrel between the past and the present, we shall find that we have lost the future."

All I wish to say about the past is that this school has been able to survive as one of the foremost institutions of its kind, by adapting to the demands and circumstances of changing times, while holding fast to those values that transcend time and place - values such as discipline, application, respect for self and for others, love for learning, social consciousness, and commitment to doing one's best at all times.

Some of the adaptations that this school has made through the years, in response to the needs and conditions of the society, include the introduction of practical subjects in its curriculum, the appointment of male teachers to its staff, and more recently, aligning itself with the system of the Caribbean Examinations Council. I am sure that we all agree that these adaptations can only work to the good of the school.

Ladies and Gentlemen, most of you will recall that this school has had to survive a temporary aberration from its traditional mission and character, as a school for the education of girls, because of actions that were perhaps well intentioned, but that sprang from superficial doctrinnaire positions. Happily, the tradition of this school was rescued by a Government of the Antigua Labour Party, which has

recognised, no less than any, the value of education and the school as an instrument of social cohesion, and of the promotion of social growth and social awareness.

In the development of this country's education system, the Antigua Labour Party is guided by some very fundamental social and educational principles, among which are:

- to extend education opportunity to all;
- to make education relevant both to the needs of the society, and to the demands for maximising individual achievement, according to each person's interests and abilities;
- to develop a concern for the well-being of one's community and one's country; and
- to maintain the highest educational standards.

We do not believe that standards can be maintained by destroying our traditional institutions that have worked, but by further strengthening these institutions and building new ones, as we have done, to provide increased opportunities for all; not by attending to the needs of some schools while ignoring the demands of others, but by planning for the development of all on the basis of urgency of need, and within the limits of our resources. That is why, if you look at the pattern of school development and restoration, you will see that attention has been given to schools of varying types and geographical location - primary, secondary, technical, post-secondary, in the villages as well as in the city.

M. Chair ... , I also find it necessary to observe that as far as the programmes in our secondary schools are concerned, we make no apology for seeking to strengthen the practical components of the curriculum of all our schools, but we shall not do this at the expense of what are normally called the academic subjects.

Nor do we equivocate about viewing one function of the school as that of nurturing an elite, but an elite based not on membership by birth of particular social groups, or the study of particular subjects; rather, our concept of an educational elite finds apt expression in these words from an American educator, James Bryant Conant: "Each honest calling, each walk of life, has its own elite, its own aristocracy based upon excellence of performance." Yes, one of our avowed aims is to develop an aristocracy of talent, and of contribution to the improvement of our society by the use of that nurtured talent.

The challenge of our education system is to cater for the development of all pupils, while stimulating the most gifted in any field to work to the limits of their capabilities. In the one hundred years of its existence, this school has responded well to that challenge. That is why this school has produced so many outstanding individuals, who have made such sterling contributions in every important sphere of social life. That is why, also, each Antigua Girls' High School graduate must feel proud of her association with this school.

M. Chair .... , Ladies and Gentlemen! You may have noticed that I have made no reference to the new look of these premises, and the improvements that have been effected, at considerable cost of money and human energy, to coincide with this anniversary celebration.

My reason was not to distract attention from the reality of this school not merely as a historical site or set of buildings, but as an educational tradition. Yet, I would be less than honest if I did not express my overwhelming satisfaction with what all of us have been able to achieve cooperatively - the Centenary Committee, the Alumni, the Government, the supporting public, and very importantly the contractor Mr George Ryan and his team.

For many of us, this occasion is not only the celebration of a hundred years of history, but the completion of the last hundred strenuous days of toil to bring these buildings and premises to their present condition. I extend sincere gratitude to all who have contributed to this restoration process.

For Mr George Ryan and his workers, no praise can be too great. Mr Ryan has been a great friend of the Ministry of Education over the last few years, having undertaken and completed with amazing despatch and efficiency similar demanding tasks. Some of my cynical officials would tell me that Mr Ryan's concessions to us, in our programme of deficit financing, has a rational purpose; they would explain that Mr Ryan undertakes each new job for the Ministry of Education in order to ensure that he gets paid for the last one, and that is why we would ever have a hold on him. Yet, there are others who might say that this particular contractor has been steadily developing an expertise in school restoration and construction through working for the Ministry, and that we should therefore begin to charge him for the privilege of this specialised training and experience.

I want to assure you, Sir, that your dedicated service, beyond normal professional expectations, is deeply appreciated. Let me also put you on notice that this is certainly not your last job, and that even the present job is unfinished. (Further developments are planned for this school, including the improvement of library and laboratory facilities, the home economics centre, the playing field, and the general environment). And when the news gets around, the standards set here are sure to excite the jealousies - and even perhaps the fantasies - of other school heads, who must receive due attention as the situation warrants. May the Lord truly bless us, AND MR RYAN, for what we are still about to receive.

In closing, Ladies and Gentlemen, let me assure the students and teachers who have passed through this school, that the Government and People of Antigua and Barbuda are extremely grateful to you for preserving this tradition of excellence through the years. I have also a word for those whose task it will be to sustain this tradition now and in the future. To the students I say, yours is a great institution. Continue to wear its uniform with dignity, but not with snobbishness; with pride, but not with arrogance; with confidence, but not with conceit.

And to the Headmistress and Staff, you have a mandate from the Government, I represent to continue to exact the highest standards of discipline and work from your students; to pay as much attention to the promotion of learning as to the building of character; and to seek the cooperation of parents and the community in your endeavours. In this way, you will honour the debt owed to generations of the past one hundred years, and make generations of the next one hundred years indebted to you.

I THANK YOU!

APPENDIX 5D (iii)

Address by the Hon. Reuben Harris, Minister of Education, Culture and Youth Affairs, at the Ceremony for the Renaming of The All Saints Primary School as The J.T. Ambrose Primary School, 16 October, 1986.

Madam Chairperson, ...
.... Ladies and Gentlemen!

This afternoon we are commemorating the life and achievements of another of our great and outstanding teachers of the past, the late Mr J T Ambrose. We are, in a small but significant way, paying a debt of gratitude to one who has made a sterling contribution to the building of this nation, by devoting his life to the education of its youth.

As all of you may know, this is the third such event within the last three years, in which we have sought to recognise, in a meaningful symbolic fashion, the value of our teachers to society, and especially the value of teachers such as J T Ambrose, and the others whom we have so far honoured.

As we reflect upon the qualities of these outstanding teachers to which many have borne witness, we find, not surprisingly, that there are some common themes and attributes, and I have chosen four of these common attributes as the focus for this brief address this afternoon.

Firstly, it was said of J T Ambrose that he was a man of discipline. And indeed, the same can be said, and has been said, about all the great teachers who have left their mark upon their time... they were persons of discipline. They sought to exact the highest standards of discipline from those under their supervision; but what is equally important, they displayed the highest standards of discipline in their own professional behaviour.

At this particular time in our National life, when we are making preparations for the celebration of the fifth anniversary of our independence as a State, it is good for us to remind ourselves that a nation without discipline has no hope of stable survival; a people without discipline have no future; a school or a classroom without discipline cannot achieve any notable success.

Another recurring virtue in the lives of our great teachers is that of a total commitment or dedication to work. Madam Chairperson, this question of commitment and dedication has come to be a subject that excites strong passions when the performance and attitudes of teachers are discussed. There are some who vigorously protest that the demands of living in today's world compel us to place financial rewards and considerations above all else in rendering or evaluating any kind of professional service, teaching not excluded. They say that motivations to take up or to retain teaching as a career cannot simply be based on such factors as love for teaching, or love for children, but that financial inducements are critical.

There must be no doubt about my own view that the total material and other less tangible benefits enjoyed by the teacher in our society do not adequately match the value and extent of the contribution which teachers make to all aspects of personal and national development. There is no doubt that we need, in many cases, to improve the terms and conditions under which our teachers work; and our people must be prepared to make sacrifices for a good education for their children, as much as they are prepared to pay for good hospitals, for good roads, or for other amenities of living.

Having said all this, however, I must declare with equal firmness, that anyone who enters teaching has an obligation to provide the highest standard of dedicated service, for the progress and well-being of our children and our society. Teachers, like anyone else, have a right to demand a fair day's pay for a fair-day's work; but once they have elected to teach, the society has a right to expect the highest levels of service of which they are capable. It would be unforgivable, mean, and evil for teachers to limit their service according to any perceived inadequacy of remuneration.

We can all be thankful that through the years, hundreds of teachers like J T Ambrose, though enjoying no greater benefits from society than the rest in their profession, gave to society all that they could give.

Another attribute common to the heroes we have honoured, and no doubt central to their success, was a desire for the attainment of excellence, a readiness to set high goals for themselves, for their school, and for their pupils, with a steady determination to achieve these goals. I wish particularly to commend this attribute, or this policy, to our teachers and our school administrators in their dealings with their pupils.

I often wonder, Madam, whether we parents and teachers today are not a bit too 'soft' on our children and our pupils, perhaps through a genuine but misguided concern for their comfort and well-being, and as a result fail to set high standards for them to aim at. Do I see evidence of this 'soft' attitude, for example, in such matters as the number of subjects we require our children to study in some cases, in the standards of behaviour we accept, and even in the quality of

handwriting with which we are satisfied?

If we set low standards for our pupils, they quickly adjust to our expectations, and their efforts and abilities become limited accordingly. We are told that a favourite motto of Mr J T Ambrose was "Aim at the sky and you will fall on the treetops." The life of Mr Ambrose signals to us that we must lift our students' sights above the ordinary and the mediocre; we must encourage them to be all that they can be; we must demand the best that they are capable of at all times. This must be our approach in all areas. In academic work, in habits of punctuality and regularity, in social relationships, let us insist on the highest standards for both our pupils and ourselves.

The final attribute I wish to mention relates to the concern which we are told that J T Ambrose showed for others, in his work as a teacher, as a headmaster, and as a lay preacher. We find this same concern for the welfare and progress of others present in the lives of the other great teachers whom we have honoured, and, I am sure, in all the great teachers whom you and I can personally remember. We find that they sought to open up opportunities for self-fulfilment and growth, both for the disadvantaged and for the more fortunate. The extra attention which we are told that Mr Ambrose paid to his pupil teachers to improve their qualifications and general competence, the fatherly care and counsel received by his pupils and even by young and old adults in the community - these are but a few examples of the concern to which I refer.

While on this question of opportunity and concern for the less fortunate, allow me to make a brief observation. It is the success of your Government that in the field of education, no less than in other areas of life, it has been able to provide increased opportunities for those in need of help, while also preserving and even strengthening opportunities for the further development of those who are more fortunate. We have been able to build and maintain primary and secondary schools to make educational opportunities readily available to all the towns and villages, but we have also improved the conditions of the older and well-established institutions.

It is a tribute to teachers and other persons like J T Ambrose of the past when similar opportunities did not abound, that they sought to provide avenues for development to a needy boy or girl with native ability, sometimes with their own resources, and often at great sacrifice, when such needy children would have had no other chance for personal fulfilment.

We should not believe, however, that since more opportunities are available today, the concern showed by teachers like J T Ambrose is no longer necessary. In fact, we still need that kind of commitment and concern to ensure that the fullest use is made of the opportunities provided. It is therefore a cause for great sadness and anger when I find that there are some unpatriotic elements in our midst, who, instead of helping our children make good use of the opportunities available, seek instead to destroy such opportunities by wanton acts of vandalism on school property.

The hundreds of thousands of dollars which Government spends in carrying out repairs to facilities affected by wilful damage or improper use, could be better spent in upgrading or increasing instructional resources. I wish that all our citizens could recognise what it means to our country, and to each of us personally, to have an efficient and well-maintained educational service, and accordingly unite in protecting the educational plant.

Considering the importance of our schools to National progress and personal fulfilment, school buildings should be regarded as sacred, almost like our churches. I therefore call upon public-spirited persons in this village and throughout Antigua and Barbuda to protect and preserve our schools from the intentional ravages of vandals, as well as from the less purposeful or malicious, but equally costly destruction by an assortment of holidaymakers, campers, social party gatherings and the rest.

Madam Chairperson! To the teachers, pupils, and parents of this historic All Saints Community, I must offer a word of congratulations for the achievements you have made through the years in every field of activity. You have been blessed with many distinguished teachers and other community leaders, and it is no surprise that this All Saints Village has, in its day, won a lot of glory and success.
I am reminded that at one period this village won just about every trophy or prize that was up for competition among villages or village groups. I trust that this simple ceremony will help to rekindle your pride and renew your efforts for the educational and general progress of your community, and of our country as a whole.

Ladies and Gentlemen, I have a final word of appreciation for two sets of persons. Firstly, for the Education Officer for this zone, Mrs Gloria Samuel, her colleagues in the Minsistry of Education, Headmistress Miss Violet Wilson, her staff and pupils, and all others who worked so hard in organising this event. Secondly, but no less important, for the relatives and other acquaintances of the late J T Ambrose, who by your presence have demonstrated your awareness of the significance of this occasion. I want you to know that the sense of pride which you must be feeling at this moment is fully justified. May God bless you all!

I THANK YOU!

Address by the Hon. Reuben Harris, Minister of Education, Culture and Youth Affairs, to declare open the A.B.U.T. Sponsored Seminar for Headteachers - Cortsland Hotel, Tuesday, 18 November, 1986

Mr. Chairman, ...

.... Ladies and Gentleman!

As most of you may know, a few weeks ago I submitted a report to the 1986 Convention of the Antigua Labour Party, on the activities of the Ministry of Education, Culture, and Youth Affairs. That report highlighted the successes achieved, for that was its main purpose, a purpose that needs no defence. It is appropriate for us to take stock from time to time of the positive aspects and results of our work.

Not to recognise the successes of our system would be unfair to you the teachers, the heads, and not least the pupils, who are primarily responsible for those successes. I take this opportunity to thank you and your staff for the work you have been doing and the accomplishments you have made. I note that there are some private school heads here, and I wish to assure you that although my Convention report referred mainly to the Government-controlled system, my Ministry is very much aware of the value of your work as well, and you are included in these words of appreciation.

Yes, we have undeniably had some successes, but as you all know, there are serious problems as well within our educational system, some of which were referred to in my report, and this is a fitting occasion to comment on some of these problems, particularly as they relate to your role as leaders. I wish in this brief presentation to draw attention to three main difficulties, and to indicate how we can all help to deal with these difficulties.

Before proceeding further, I wish to commend the Antigua and Barbuda Union of Teachers and their Executive for organising this professional seminar, and for conducting it with the full involvement of personnel from the Ministry's Headquarters.

There are three thoughts that occur to me, or three inferences I draw, about this initiative of the Teachers' Union. Firstly, this activity of the Union further reinforces our awareness that the Union does not perceive its role in the narrow terms of salary negotiation or grievance settlement, but accepts its responsibility to assist in the professional development of its membership - and this is good indeed!

Secondly, by inviting the Ministry's headquarters staff to participate fully in this exercise, the Union continues to signal its intention to work with the Administration for the improvement of education, and rejects the position that it must resolutely or unswervingly adopt an adversarial stance and declare us a natural enemy, as I understand a few misguided persons would prefer. This cooperative orientation of the Union is also good indeed!

The third and final inference I draw from this activity and from the agenda for this seminar is that the Union recognises the pivotal role played by our school heads in the operation of the educational system. I am a firm believer that whatever the difficulties under which a school operates, or whatever the advantages that school enjoys, it is the headteacher that makes the ultimate difference between success and failure for that institution.

It is the headteacher who sets the general tone of the school, who defines what image the school will convey to the public. It is through the headteacher's leadership style, and his or her own conduct, that the patterns of professional behaviour by the teachers will be determined, and ultimately the conduct or discipline of the pupils, at least within the school environment. So I applaud this decision by the Union to pay attention to the professional needs of this important group of leaders.

Now Mr Chairman, I noted earlier that this is a fitting occasion for me to comment on some of the problems facing the school system, and you can see why. If we are to make any headway in grappling with these problems, then you the heads will have to play a central role. I think you know as well as I do, and in some cases even better than I do, what some of these problems are.

Let me be frank. If it were not for the professionalism and commitment of many of our teachers, the physical conditions of some of our schools would certainly depress the heart, destroy the will, and demoralise the spirit. I would not go into any long defence of my Ministry's efforts to improve the situation as best as we can, because these efforts are well documented and are plain to see by all who wish to know - indeed, that is why I can be so frank with you. Those of you who know what is going on around you will readily concede that we are not sleeping on this problem.

Problems of vandalism, and of misuse of the school property even by legitimate users, often make my Ministry's staff feel like children of Sisyphus, condemned to toil endlessly at a task that gets nowhere,

for as fast as we build, others destroy. I challenge you the head-teachers to join with us and see if we can devise ways to alleviate this serious situation.

The second problem I wish to refer to is the attitude of some teachers to their work. I have so far been showering praise on the teaching force as a whole for their commitment and professionalism, but we cannot deny that not all teachers deserve such praise. Habits of unpunctuality and irregularity, lack of serious attention to the needs of individual pupils, inadequate preparation for classes, dis-respect for the authority of the head, apathy towards self-improvement, unwillingness to be involved in co-curricular or school-based National events, a general inclination to do the barest minimum that will be tolerated - these are only some of the negative and undesirable attitudes that afflict some of our teachers and prevent them from giving of their best.

Headteachers can help to correct these attitudes by playing a more positive and active role in the professional development of their staff, and by mixing mercy with firmness in the application of dis-ciplinary measures. From the matters that reach my desk, one gets the impression that school heads are often too ready and content to throw their staff-behaviour problems at the doorsteps of the Ministry's Headquarters. Many heads are reluctant - I would not say, afraid - to chide or take steps to discipline their wayward staff, such as to document stubborn and recurrent lapses of conduct. I hope that all concerned will take a more serious approach to the cultivation of desirable professional attitudes throughout the ranks.

The third and final problem is one that has undoubtedly reached serious proportions - I refer to the problem of staffing and staff recruitment. The number of teachers leaving the system is causing much concern, as we struggle to attract enough qualified recruits to fill the void. To the best of my knowledge, no systematic and reliable study has been made of this problem, so we can only speculate on a number of possible reasons. It is highly probable that two major contributory factors are the terms and conditions of work, and competing opportunities available in other fields as a result of our expanding economy. What then can we do to control this problem?

In a short while I propose to take to Cabinet two separate proposals which, if accepted, will create increased career opportunities for teachers at both the primary and secondary levels, and will reward teachers for additional qualifications gained after initial training. It will not be proper for me to go into further detail until the proposals have been formally submitted and considered.

We have tried to increase teachers' competence and confidence to do their work by carrying out a vigorous programme of training of all kinds, ranging from short-term seminars and courses, to more substantial long-term overseas programmes of study. We are now beginning to wonder whether it makes sense for teachers who have had the privilege, above others, of costly specialised training, to leave the profession soon after they have completed their training. Given the demands and difficulties of our system, it is perhaps a moot point whether training fellowships should not have a stipulation of service within the profession for a specified period, except in cases where it is officially and collectively agreed that the National interest could otherwise be better served.

I have mentioned some of the steps the Administration is taking to deal with the problem of staffing, but you the heads can also help in important ways. You can help by communicating positive attitudes to the profession through the example of your own behaviour. If you constantly grumble about one difficulty or another, instead of using your initiative in creative ways to deal with these difficulties, if you convey the impression that there is a Big Enemy in Church Street called "The Ministry" which is unmindful of their existence and welfare, if you send a message that you are longing to reach retirement, you will help to worsen our staffing problems. Through proper guidance and assistance, you can help teachers to take command of their job, and through the delegation of responsibility you can imbue them with a sense of purpose.

Mr Chairman, I hope that at the end of this three-day seminar all the participants will emerge with a renewed vision and zeal to press on in what is still one of the noblest professions in the world. For this, we would have to record our appreciation once again to the Antigua and Barbuda Union of Teachers, as well as to their Canadian counterparts who, as we have been advised, are partly instrumental in the holding of this workshop.

I have great pleasure in declaring your workshop open, and wish you every success.

I THANK YOU!

APPENDIX 6A

GENERAL EDUCATION REQUIREMENTS (UVI) 1988-89

All students preparing for a Bachelor of Arts degree at CVI must take specified courses from the academic areas as follows:

ACADEMIC AREAS	TOTAL CREDIT HOURS
Humanities	38
Mathematics	6/8
Natural Sciences	8
Social Sciences	12

In addition to these courses in the academic areas, all full-time students are required to complete four semesters of Physical Education as a graduation requirement.

A student majoring in elementary education is reminded that only Spanish may be used to satisfy the foreign language requirement within the Humanities area.

THE TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS

(MAJOR AND CONCENTRATION)

A person holding a CVI degree in elementary education or a graduate in another area who earns 24 credits in education is eligible for certification to teach in the USVI.

Professional preparation in education at the undergraduate level at CVI is provided through two programs, viz:

1. a baccalaureate major in elementary education;
2. a concentration in secondary education which is taken in addition to fulfilling the requirements of an academic major.

Only the professional requirements are provided through the Division of Teacher Education.

ELEMENTARY MAJOR

The four-year elementary program is designed to provide a substantial liberal arts foundation upon which professional competence is built, and to permit further growth through graduate study.

SPECIAL REQUIREMENTS

Elementary Education majors, in addition to the College's general education requirements, are expected to select one of several areas in the liberal arts from which to take a minimum of eighteen credits. At least six of these credits must be at the 300-level or above. Courses satisfying the general education requirements may be included in the total of eighteen credits. The areas from which selection may be made are:

English
Mathematics
Science
Social Sciences
Spanish

Students electing to take the 18-credit component in the Social Sciences are strongly advised to take the following if they intend to teach in schools in the United States Virgin Islands: One course in sociology, at least one course in African history, and the remainder in Caribbean history and geography.

This liberal arts component is intended to provide more rigorous study beyond the general education requirements in one of the subjects which a graduate will be expected to teach, thus providing, with electives, a strong background in liberal arts and general studies.

It should be noted that the required liberal arts preparation can, in some cases, be adequate preparation for teaching at the Junior High School level in the United States Virgin Islands, thus allowing a graduate some wider scope in employment opportunities.

Because the eighteen-credit liberal arts component is a part of the required program it will be necessary for a student to maintain the same average grades for graduation as in the professional component.

PROFESSIONAL REQUIREMENTS

The professional component consists of 36 credits as follows:

Edu. 221	Foundations of Education	3 credits
Edu. 230	Educational Psychology	3 "
Edu. 250	Curriculum Development and Instruction	3 "
Math 257		
Edu. 257	Mathematics and the Elementary Teacher	5 "
Edu. 350	Instructional Design and Technology	2 "
Edu. 351	Classroom Management	2 "
Edu. 353, 354	Teaching and Language Arts	3,4 "
Edu. 450	Measurement and Evaluation in Education	2 "
Edu. 452	Student Teaching in the Elementary School	9 "

Students should be aware that Psych. 120: General Psychology is a pre-requisite to Edu. 230: Educational Psychology. It can be used towards satisfying the general education requirements in Social Sciences.

It is advisable to register for this course during the Freshman year in order to facilitate entry into the professional program. Edu. 230 are the only professional courses for which a student may register prior to admission to the Division: these may be taken separately or concurrently and students are advised to take them during their sophomore year.

SECONDARY PREPARATION

The secondary concentration is normally pursued by students majoring in English, the Humanities, Mathematics, Natural Sciences, Social Sciences, or Spanish and who wish to teach at the secondary level. Preparation for secondary school teaching requires satisfying (a) the general education requirements pursued by other baccalaureate students; (b) the requirements of the selected major; (c) the professional requirements of the Division of Teacher Education.

Students intending to pursue the program of secondary preparation are advised to begin registering for professional courses as early as the first semester of the sophomore year. Taking one education course each semester or thereafter is advisable. Psych. 120 should be taken during the Freshman year (see the preceding section) to facilitate early entry to the professional courses. The following courses comprise the program of secondary preparation.

Edu. 221	Foundations of Education	3 credits
Edu. 230	Educational Psychology	3 "
Edu. 250	Curriculum Development and Instruction	3 "
Edu. 351	Classroom Management	2 "
Edu. 450	Measurement and Evaluation in Education	2 "
Edu. 497	Seminar in Secondary Teaching	2 "
Edu. 469	Student Teaching in the Secondary School	6 "

Together with Psych. 120: _General Psychology_ (the pre-requisite to Edu. 230) these courses constitute a 24-credit professional package which satisfies the requirements for Virgin Islands certification.

PROGRAM NOTES

Edu. 221: Foundations of Education is a survey course taught at the sophomore level, pre-requisite all other courses offered by the Division (except Edu. 230: _Educational Psychology_). It acquaints students with the historical, structural, philosophical, sociological, and physchological structure.

APPENDIX 6B

...RSITY of the VIRGIN ISLANDS

...Academic Affairs

10 October 1988

Mr. John Wright
P.O. Box 338
Road Town, Tortola
British Virgin Islands

Dear Mr. Wright:

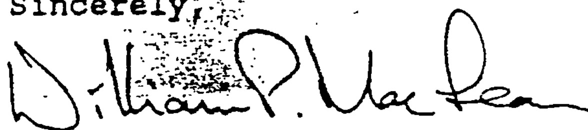
I am writing to grant you permission to carry out your research by distributing questionnaires to education majors. However, under the following conditions:

1. Distribution and completion of the questionnaires should not interfere with instruction time. They could be administered through mail or after class hours.

2. Students should be told that filling the questionnaire is voluntary and not required by the University.

Wishing you success, I look forward to a copy of your findings.

Sincerely,



William P. MacLean
Vice President for
Academic Affairs

cc: Dr. Y. Habteyes
Registrar

... U S VIRGIN ISLANDS 00802 ...

APPENDIX 6C

PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN THE TWO EDUCATIONAL DISTRICTS IN THE VIRGIN ISLANDS

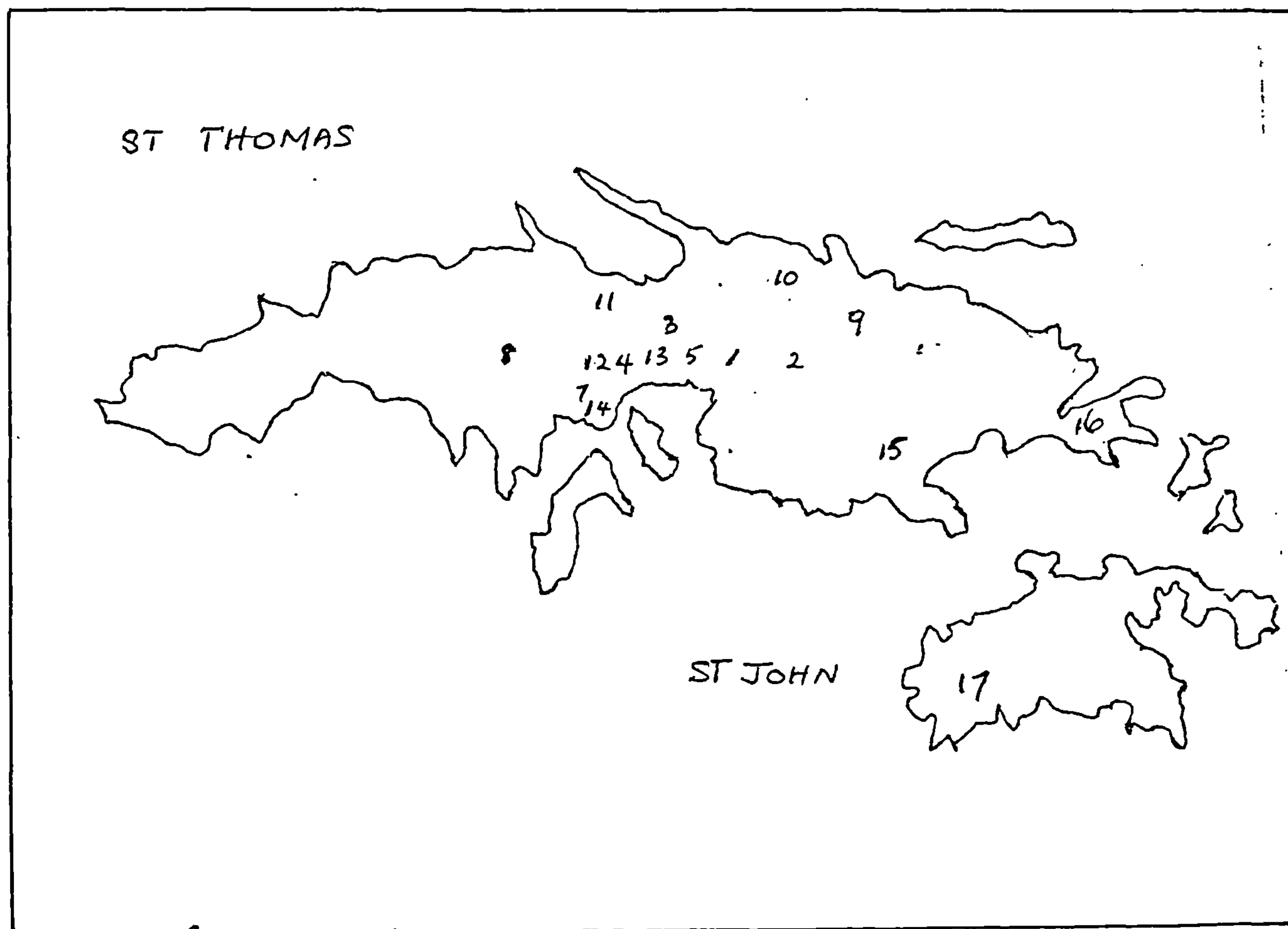
School No.	ST. CROIX (ELEMENTARY)
1	Juanita Gardine
3	Pearl B Larsen
4	Claude O'Markoe
5	Alexander Henderson
6	Eulalie Rivera
7	Charles H. Emanuel
8	Alfredo Andrews
9	Ricardo Richards
10	Lew Muckle
11	Evelyn Williams

School No.	ST. CROIX (SECONDARY)
2	Elena Christian
12	Central High
13	Arthur A. Richards
14	John Woodsen

School No.	ST. THOMAS - ST. JOHN (ELEM)
1	Dober
2	Joseph Gomez
3	J. Antonio Jarvis
4	Thomas Jefferson Annex
5	Lockhart
6	Edith L. Williams
7	Evelyn Marcelli
8	Ulla Muller
9	E. Benjamin Oliver
10	Peace Corps
11	Joseph Sibilly
12	Jane E. Tuitt
17	Julius Sprauve
18	Guy Benjamin
19	Kirwan Terrace

School No.	ST. THOMAS - ST. JOHN (SEC.)
13	Charlotte Amalie
14	Addelita Cancryn
15	Bertha C. Boschulte
16	Ivanna Eudora Kean
17	Julius Sprauve

APPENDIX 6D SHOWING APPROXIMATE LOCATIONS OF SCHOOLS ON ST.THOMAS, ST.JOHN (USVI), 1988



Source: Devised by the writer based on information obtained from Existing Professionals (USVI).

APPENDIX 6E(a)

STUDENTS REQUIRING TO WRITE ENGLISH PROFICIENCY EXAMINATION (UVI, 1986-87)

	* Freshman (F)	* Sophormores (S)	* Juniors (J)	* Seniors (S)	* Grads.
Spring Semester	1243	500	261	341	161
Not Attempted Exam	1241	498	256	332	160
Fall Semester	1201	473	253	283	159
Not Attempted Exam	1201	473	250	277	

APPENDIX 6E(b)

DATA ON STUDENTS REQUIRED TO FOLLOW *REAP PROGRAMME, (1986-87)

*Realization of Academic Programme (in English, Math, Reading)

Students	Fall Semester					Spring Semester				
	*Fr.	*Sp.	*Fr.	*Sn.	*Gn.	Fr.	Spp.	Jr.	Sn.	Gr.
Current Students	99 99	182	123	157	1	135	190	118	190	1
Passed	227	19	3	2	0	16	27	5	2	0
Not Yet Entered REAP	875	271	127	125	158	942	279	138	149	159

Source: UVI Admissions Office, USVI

APPENDIX 6F

(i) Distribution of Grades - Teacher Education College/University of the Virgin Islands (St. Thomas), 1978-1988

Year	A	B	C	D	F
1978-79	7	29	13	7	2
1979-80	70	67	34	5	5
1980-81	27	51	19	0	1
1981-82	21	33	18	5	1
1982-83	84	69	25	2	19
1983-84	114	146	167	66	28
1984-85	21	39	29	5	5
1985-86	43	65	31	5	4
1986-87	38	74	40	9	6
1987-88	14	29	33	6	1

(ii) Distribution of Grades - Teacher Education College/University of the Virgin Islands (St. Croix), 1978-1988

Year	A	B	C	D	F
1978-79	22	14	2	1	2
1979-80	15	8	8	0	0
1980-81	19	15	11	2	2
1981-82	24	22	7	3	1
1982-83	31	33	28	6	5
1983-84	38	45	24	4	0
1984-85	28	43	22	5	2
1985-86	52	59	31	9	3
1986-87	36	56	28	3	3
1987-88	21	55	18	4	1

APPENDIX 6G

BACKGROUND OF STUDENTS AND TEACHERS, (USVI, 1984-85)

(A) PLACE OF BIRTH OF TEACHERS

Place of Birth	Teachers 1,831	% Population 100.0
United States	756	41.3
Virgin Islands	611	33.4
Caribbean Islands	411	22.6
Other	50	2.7

Source: School Statistical Summary, Research & Evaluation

(B) COMMONWEALTH CARIBBEAN STUDENTS GRADUATING FROM UVI, 1982-1988

Year	No. of Students
1982-83	17
1983-84	29
1984-85	38
1985-86	19
1986-87	24
1987-88	35
TOTAL	162

Source: Office of Internal Research, UVI, 1988

APPENDIX 6G (Continued)

(C) PLACE OF BIRTH OF PUBLIC SCHOOL STUDENTS, USVI, 1981-85

	1981-82 24,706	1982-83 25,363	1983-84 25,582	1984-85 26,393
Antigua	947	883	886	823
Anguilla	193	187	188	188
Barbados	45	46	39	38
British V.I	394	341	340	333
Dominica	784	798	787	753
Grenada	98	87	89	82
Jamaica	46	42	-	36
Montserrat	120	100	109	107
St.Kitts/Nevis	1104	951	926	897
St.Lucia	740	729	684	670
St.Vincent	121	128	134	274
Trinidad	496	424	386	317
TOTAL				

Source: School Statistical Summary, 1981-1985

(D) PART COMPOSITION OF POPULATION, USVI

	1970	1980
Born in a U.S. territory	29,069	22,021
Born in the U.S.	8,058	5,606
Born in Puerto Rico	4,014	3,809
Born in British West Indies	14,424	14,125
Born in Other West Indies	3,468	953

Source:

APPENDIX 6H

NUMBER OF YEARS OF EXPERIENCE OF PUBLIC SCHOOL TEACHERS IN THE SCHOOL YEAR 1984-85 (USVI)

Years	ST. THOMAS		ST. CROIX		
	Elem.	Sec.	Elem.	Sec.	Total
1	45	66	36	51	198
2	26	37	18	23	104
3	21	14	21	20	76
4	19	17	18	35	89
5	19	25	22	22	88
6	51	28	32	37	148
7	34	30	35	43	142
8	28	28	33	42	131
9	34	29	25	49	137
10	31	21	24	39	115
11	54	23	26	60	163
12	18	10	19	21	68
13	20	10	20	14	64
14	23	12	21	13	69
15+	77	47	53	58	235
NA	-	-	-	-	4
TOTAL	500	397	403	527	1831

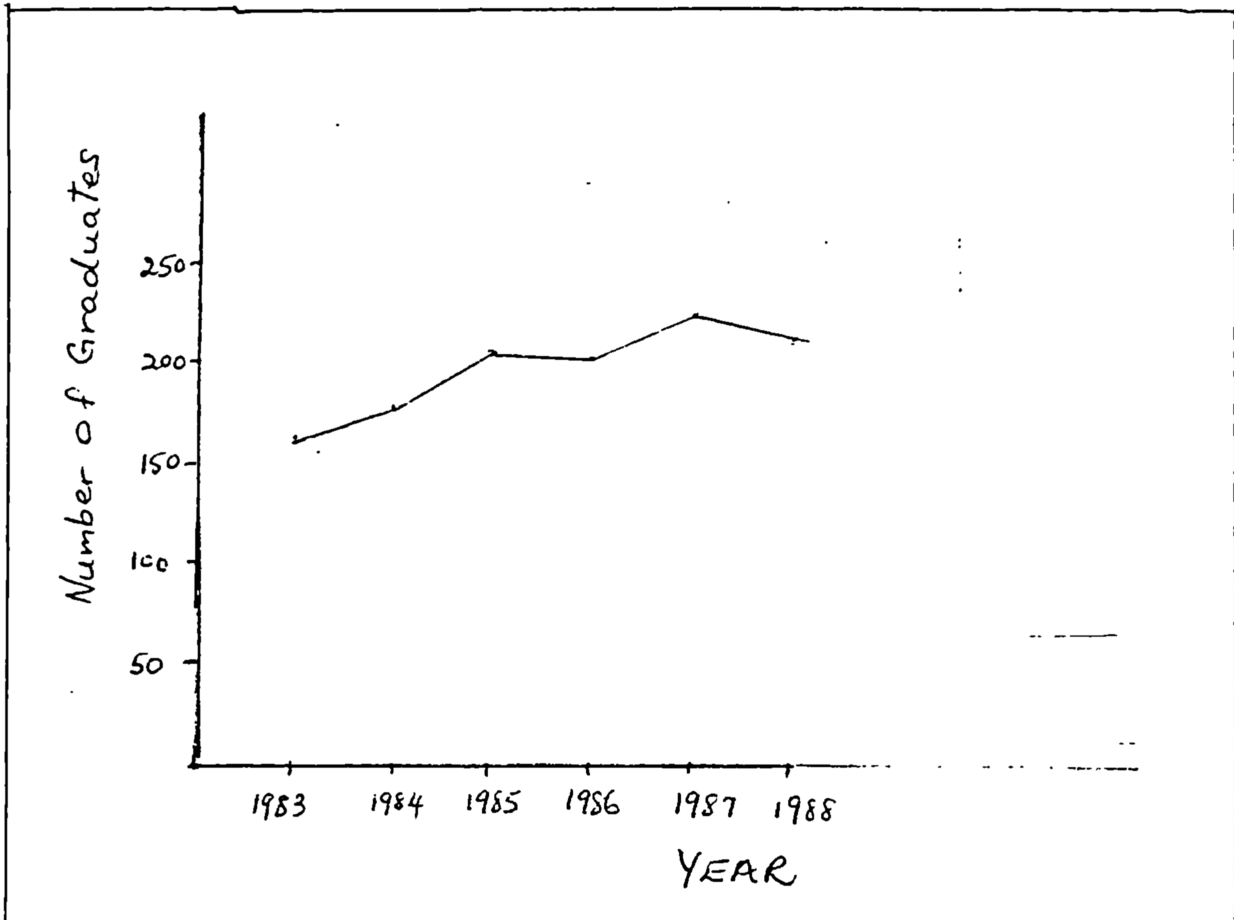
APPENDIX 6I

SUMMARY OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS CONSTRUCTED DURING THE PERIOD 1960-61 AND 1966-67 (USVI)

Year	Number of Classrooms	Cost	Name of Project
1960-61	1 - All-Purpose 32	$ 837,848	Lockhart Elementary - St. Thomas
	8	174,838	Nisky Elementary - St.Thomas
1961-62	4	92,321	Addition-Julius Sprauve-St.John
	3 - Shop Buildings	73,947	Addition-CAHS-St.Thomas
1962-63	16	325,767	Addition-CAHS-St.Thomas
	2 - Shop Rooms	33,297	Addition-Markoe-St.Croix
	1 - Music Suite 1 - Gymnasium	96,998	Addition-CAHS-St.Thomas
1963-64	3	33,000	Addition-Jane E.Tuitt - St.Thomas
	2	25,000	Addition - Robert Herrick - St.Thomas
	5	100,494	Addition - Markoe Elementary - St.Croix
	5	139,833	Addition - Christiansted High School - St.Croix
1964-65	1 - Library 3 1 - Conference Room	107,701	Addition-Julius Sprauve-St.John
	9	452,858	Grove Place-Elementary-St.John
	1 - Multi-Purpose Room 1 - Library 1 - Gymnasium 1 - Workshop	70,304	Addition-Markoe-St.Croix
1965-66	9	193,214	Addition-Grove Place Elem. -St.Croix
	8 - Prefab	18,000	Addition-Christiansted Elementary-St.Croix
	42	1,125,000	*Wayne Aspinall Jr.High - St. Thomas
	42 1 - All Purpose 1 - Library 1 - Music Building	1,375,000	*Central High School-St.Croix
	10 1 - Cafeteria	423,300	*TuTu Elementary-St.Thomas

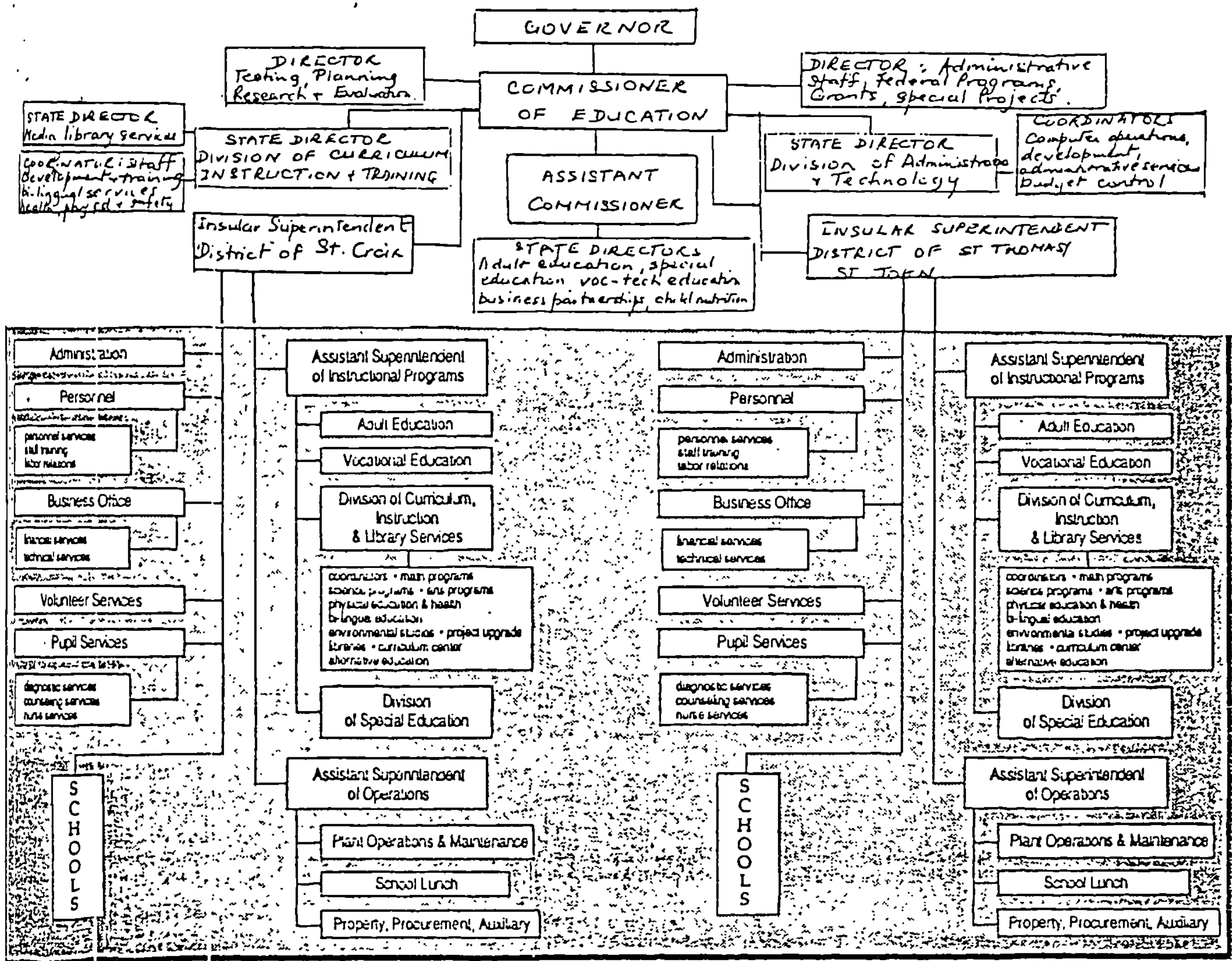
Source: Annual Report of the Department of Education, p.184, 1967 (USVI)

APPENDIX 6J DISTRIBUTION OF CVI/UVI GRADUATES FOR THE PERIOD 1983-1988 (USVI)



Source: UVI Statistical Reports, 1982-83 to 1987-88, USVI.

APPENDIX 6K OVERALL EDUCATIONAL STRUCTURE, USVI



Source: Research and Evaluation, Department of Education, USVI (1989).

APPENDIX 6L

TIME DISTRIBUTION AMONG THREE SCHOOLS: CHARLOTTE AMALIE HIGH, (CAHS), ST.PATRICK'S AND ST.MARY'S, (USVI), 1988

SUBJECT	TIME ALLOCATED PER WEEK (hours) C A H S Grade 9	ST PATRICK'S Grdes 7,8,9	ST MARY'S Grades 7,8
Reading and Vocabulary	4½	-	3½
English	4½	4½	3½
Mathematics	4½	4½	3½
Social Studies	-	4½	2
Science	-	4½	2
Spanish	-	4½	3½
Physical Education	4½	4½	-
Industrial Arts	4½	4½	-
Caribbean History	4½	-	-
Physical Science	4½	-	-
Instrumental Music	4½	-	-

Source: Structured based on information obtained from each of the above schools.

APPENDIX 7A

EDUCATION FOUNDATIONS PROGRAMME FOR TEACHERS' COLLEGES IN THE EASTERN CARIBBEAN

OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAMME

A. KNOWLEDGE

The College Education Foundations Programme will enable students to demonstrate:

1. an insightful knowledge of the structure and purpose of contemporary Education systems in the Caribbean, and of the challenges and problems facing them.

2. an understanding of and ability to analyse and compare the advantages, limitations, implications and applications of major Educational theories.

3. a knowledge of the norms of child and adolescent development in terms of physical, emotional, social and cognitive growth.

4. a knowledge of the basic principles and concepts of the learning process.

5. an insight into the factors operating to facilitate or retard progress in any learning situation.

6. an appreciation of the societal and individual needs of pupils and teachers and how these may coincide or conflict.

7. an analytical understanding of the socio-economic and cultural setting of the society in which they will function as teachers.

8. a knowledge of a variety of teaching methods and techniques with an awareness of their relevance in varying local conditions and changing classroom conditions.

9. a working knowledge of basic tools and techniques for evaluating various dimensions of the teaching/learning situation.

10. a knowledge of appropriate and adequate linguistic skills for academic and professional growth during and after their college training.

SKILLS

1. Teaching Skills

The Education Foundations programme should enable students to:

(a) practise the effective implementation of educational theory in the classroom setting.

(b) develop new techniques and styles of teaching.

(c) develop competence in adapting and varying teaching techniques and styles to meet the differing needs of pupils and the requirements of differing educational objectives.

(d) demonstrate competent use of a variety of classroom management skills.

(e) communicate effectively with pupils through the use of a variety of media.

(f) develop a variety of skills for initiating and maintaining pupil motivation and interest.

2. Interpersonal Skills

The Education Foundations programme should enable students to:

(a) develop a greater awareness of and skill in using a variety of verbal and non-verbal means of promoting effective interpersonal interaction.

(b) develop the ability to relate meaningfully and appropriately to pupils, colleagues, parents and other community members.

(c) develop skills of decision making and implementation.

3. Measurement and Evaluation Skills

The Education Foundations programme should enable students to:

(a) construct and/or use tests to evaluate teaching/learning outcomes.

(b) construct and/or use tasks to evaluate other general dimensions of classroom activity.

(c) develop the ability to judge the influence of teacher/pupil attitudes and values on academic performance and classroom climate.

(d) construct and/or use tests to diagnose the needs and abilities of individual pupils.

(e) develop skills of self evaluation.

4. Research Skills

The Education Foundations programme should enable students to:

(a) demonstrate efficient search and retrieval skills in libraries and other information resource centres.

(b) construct and/or use research designs and instruments to evaluate pupils' learning or other aspects of pupil behaviour.

(c) develop competence in analysing and interpreting educational research data.

(d) develop competence in evaluating and making recommendations from educational research data.

7. display a positive approach to their own and their pupils' personal development in a rapidly changing social system.

8. search for and understand the variety of meanings in the experience of a dynamic world.

9. seek to interpret pupil behaviours and general classroom experiences in terms of the overall context in which the school is operating.

VALUES

The Education Foundations programme should attempt to inculcate and foster the following values in trainees.

1. a belief in the worth of each individual pupil as a social being.

2. a concern for the total growth and development.

3. a secure sense of personal and professional worth.

4. a genuine sense of commitment and responsibility as a teacher.

5. a belief in the importance of self-reliance in learning and the attainment of educational goals.

C. ATTITUDES

The Educational Foundations programme should attempt to incnlcate and foster attitudes which predispose students to:

1. demonstrate appreciation of differences in the needs of individual learners, and attempt to ensure satisfaction of these needs.

2. demonstrate appreciation of the need for continuous learning as indicated by a positive approach to self-evaluation and an openness and receptivity to advice and new ideas.

3. show a willingness to learn and use a variety of methods, techniques and intuitions which will facilitate the teaching/learning process.

4. display ways of thinking, feeling and acting which are generally recognized as professional in tone and spirit.

5. demonstrate a willingness to help, cooperate with, and show concern for the feelings of others - pupils, colleagues and administrators.

6. display a positive approach to the role of parents and guardians in the educational process.

6. an appreciation of the importance of budgeting (of time and resources) in the teaching-learning process.

7. a belief in the importance of cooperative interaction between teacher-pupil and pupil-pupil in the educative process.

8. a commitment to the preservation and promotion of the community's cultural heritage, and to the part it should play in the development of national pride.

(11)

The Education Curriculum

Order of Modules

1. Child and Adolescent Development
2. Individual Differences
3. Learning
4. Classroom Management
5. Instruction
6. School and Society
7. Creativity
8. Measurement and Evaluation

ANTIGUA STATE COLLEGE

TEACHER TRAINING DEPARTMENT

MATHEMATICS COURSE

Mathematics Content Course

Objectives:

(1) To help student teacherss to develop positive attidues to Mathematics

(2) To help student teachers to acquire a range of basic mathematical skills and techniques which are necessary for-

  (a) functioning as a member of society

  (b) a teacher of mathematics at the Primary/Secondary level

  (c) further studies in mathematics

(3) To help student teachers to cultivate the ability to think logically and critically.

(4) To help student teachers to view mathematics as a unified structure (not as distinct and separate section)

(5) To help student teachers to appreciate the role and application of mathematics in everyday life and other subject areas.

Mathematics Methods Course

Objectives:

(1) To familiarise student teachers with the Primary, Post-primary and Junior Secondary mathematics syllabi.

(2) To help student teachers to develop positive attitudes to mathematics

(3) To expose student teachers to the various psychological theories and research findings relevant to teaching and learning of mathematics

(4) To expose student teachers to a variety of teaching techniques/strategies for teaching mathematics lessons.

(5) To give student teachers guidance and practice in planning, executing and evaluating units and lessons in mathematics.

(6) To help student teachers to be more aware of the importance of mathematics in the school curriculum and everyday life.

(7) To expose student teachers to a variety of teaching aids and the proper use of these aids.

(8) To expose student teachers to various techniques of assessing and evaluating their pupils performance in mathematics.

Topics

1. Nature of mathematics
   Objectives of teaching mathematics in schools.
2. Developing positive attitudes to mathematics - teacher and students; signs of negative attitudes; how to develop positive attitudes.
3. Teaching strategies/methods - inductive and deductive
   - expository and discovery
   - variety of mathematics lessons
   - catering for individual difference (grouping etc)
   - questioning techniques and use of correct mathematical language
4. Planning mathematics instruction - units, schemes of work, daily lessons.
5. Psychological theories relevant to teaching and learning of mathematics work of Piaget, Gagne, Bruner, Polya, Diences.
6. Teaching concepts, principles and problem solving.
   Teaching computational skills, including the role of drill and practise.
7. Evaluation of pupil performance - purpose of evaluation
   - types of tests and other evaluation instruments
   - types of items
   - analysis and use of test scores etc.
   - identifying student strenghts and weaknesses
8. Instructional materials - use of chalkboard, textbook, games, worksheets, audio-visual material etc
   - constructing/selecting appropriate teaching aids
   - evaluating textbooks and other materials

9. Teaching of particular mathematics topics, particularly the basic operations. This would also include the teaching of non-traditional topics such as sets, graphs, measurement (including area). In addition to topics on the primary schools mathematics syllabus some teachers may look at teaching of topics at the post primary/secondary level according to their particular qualifications and experience.
10. Enrichment/Project Topics
    - historical developments in mathematics; contributions of mathematics such as Pythagoras etc.
    - Mathematics in other subject areas
    - Mathematics in everyday life
    - Role of calculator/computers in schools

GRENADA TEACHERS' COLLEGE

MATHEMATICS SYLLABUS

APPENDIX 7A

The main objective of the Mathematics course are:

1 To develop teachers' confidence and competencies in Mathematics to ensure effective teaching of the subject at the primary level.

2 To ensure the development of positive attitudes to the learning of Mathematics.

3 To enable teachers to develop an appreciation of the usefulness of Mathematics.

4 To sensitise teachers to various strategies which can help to make the teaching and learning of Mathematics more efficient and effective.

5 To make Mathematics relevant to the interest and experience of the teachers initially and students ultimately.

6 To assist in developing abilities to apply Mathematics knowledge to the solution of problems.

7 To discover the pattern and logical structure of Mathematics.

8 To develop strategies which can assist in the teaching and learning of problem solving.

9 To enable teachers to critically analyse their methods of teaching and to compare these methods with alternate approaches with a view to making changes where necessary.

10 To expose teachers to the contributions of certain education psychologists as these influence the psychology of teaching and learning Mathematics.

METHODOLOGY

In the methodology section the course will attempt to expose students to various ideas as these relate to the teaching and learning of Mathematics.
Thus it would examine the following:-

1. Defining Mathematics objectives
2. Planning units in Mathematics
3. Writing lesson plans
4. Evaluation of lessons
5. Construction and use of a variety of aids relevant to Mathematics teaching.
6. Examining strategies which prove effective in teaching Mathematics.
7. Teaching problem - solving
8. Use of games in Mathematics
9. Grouping for teaching Mathematics
10. Contributions to Mathematics learning by
    - Bruner
    - Dienes
    - Gagne
    - Piaget
    - Polya
    - Skemp
11. Bloom's Taxonomy with reference to testing in Mathematics.
12. Diagnosis and remediation
13. Issues in Mathematics.

SOCIAL STUDIES

LEEWARDS ISLANDS TEACHERS TRAINING COLLEGE Antigua (198

1. Definition of Social Studies   A study of human interaction within the community and extending in even widening horizons to the State, region and the world. It is an attempt to study and understand society and its many facts through and multi-disciplinary approach. The social studies should promote cultural awareness and cultural understanding. It should assist the child to understand the concepts that describe and explain human society, and should develop the insights, skills and moral qualities which are desirable in democratic citizenship.

2. Objectives:
   (a) To develop the process of valuing as against teaching values - an affective objectivity.
   (b) To acquire knowledge and develop understanding of society and to foster attitudes and behaviour that make for good citizenship - a cognitive objective.
   (c) To develop skill in applying scientific thinking to social problems and skill in handling the tools of social studies - a psychomotor objective.

3. Course of Studies:

1. Education Theory
   (a) The place of Social Studies in the School
   (b) The objectives of Social Studies
   (c) The child and how he learns Social Studies
   (d) Skill in handling the tools of Social Studies
   (e) The community as a source of Social Study Content
   (f) The field trip as a link in the teaching process
      1. How to conduct it.
      2. The follow through.

2. Survey Courses:
   (a) History
   (b) Geography
   (c) Civics

Tourism.

Fishing industry.

Food.

Transportation, local and internation in relation to Antigua.

Communication.

Recreation.

Religion.

Government.

Local problems - lligitimacy, unemployment, drug abuse etc.

Our neighbours in the region.

Historical sites.

Study of Primary School Syllabus in Social Studies.

(a) Planning units of work for different age groups under the broad heading "Man creates" and other headings.

(b) Breaking down units into lesson topics.

(c) Making lesson plans based on above.

(d) The purposeful use of teaching aids.

History Content: West Indian History

Discovery and Settlement

(1) The discovery and Settlement of the West Indies by Spain.

(2) Organization of the Spanish American Empire.

(3) Indigenous people of the West Indies.

(4) Interventation of Spanish American Empire by other European Powers.

(b) The planation system:

(1) Choice of sugar as principal crop.

(2) Social and Economic structure of Salve Society.

(3) Eighteenth century - the golden age of sugar.

(4) European Rivalry over sugar colonies in the eighteenth century.

Emphasis to be placed on analysis and interpretation of historical facts. Possible historical explanation of contemporary West Indian way of life.

(c) Methods of teaching - the Social Studies approach.

History Content:

(a) Slavery:

(a) History (as per attached)

(b) Geography

(1) The world distribution of climate giving details of major types

(2) The influence of climate on world distribution of natural vegetation, soils, animals and man.

(3) The West Indies -

(4) Man's activities in simple and complex communities

(5) Group projects - production, communication, etc.

(c) Civics:

(1) The family as the basic unit of the community

(2) Government - Structure

(3) Religion

(4) Good citizenship

Methology:

(a) The teaching unit

(1) How to select the unit

(2) How to select subject-matter content

(3) How to organise subject-matter content

(4) The importance of proper planning

(5) Practice in Planning Teaching Units, using Primary School Syllabus.

(b) The Discovery Method approach

(c) The story of method approach

(d) The use of dramatization

(e) Using language to organise information - conversing, reporting, discussing

(f) How to prepare and use visual symbols

Project Work:

Each student to select any one of the following for research and investigation and to present findings in book form with diagrams and pictures etc., where necessary. The work to be done in consulation wisth the Tutor from time to time and to be presented by the first week of the Third term: -

The Home as the basic unit of Society
The Local Community - villiage, town
Community services

(1) Choice of sugar as principal crop.

(2) Social and economic structure of salve society.

(3) Eighteenth century - the golden age of sugar.

(4) European rivalry over sugar colonies in the eighteenth century.

Emphasis to be placed on analysis and interpretation of historical facts. Possible historical explanation of contemporary West Indian way of life.

(c) Mehtods of teaching history - the Social Studies approach.

History Content:

(a) Slavery:

(1) The African slave trade.

(2) The slave society in the west Indies.

(3) Movement towards abolition.

(4) Emancipation and apprenticeship.

(b) Post Emmancipation Labour problem and attempts to solve them:

(1) Labour saving devices.

(2) Indentured Immigration.

(3) Land distribution and rise of poosentry.

(c) Trade Unionism:

(1) The rise of trade unions.

(2) The 1930 disturbances.

(3) Trade unions and politics.

(d) United States relations in the Caribbean:

LANGUAGE ARTS SYLLABUS

Appendix 7A

Introduction

Just as the study of "Language Arts" in the schools require an integration of various elements of language and literature, so the training college programme will be a composite of listening, speaking, reading and writing activities which off into each other and shift their focus from language to literature, as the occasion suggest. Although this syllabus is presented under a set of sub-headings, they are in no way intended to suggest a separate treatment or course sub-division. It is merely a concenient way of presenting these areas of knowledge important to the scholl teacher which an integrated syllabus should cover.

AIMS OF THIS SYLLABUS

1. The achievement of an acceptable degree of fluency, both oral and written, in the most common areas of language usuage - the conversational, the expository, the formal, the scientific/objective and the literary. Special emphasis is placed on the first three of these, which are specially relevant to the classroom activities.

2. The exploration of the application of different registers of language to specific situational contexts.

3. An understanding of the nature of language which will throw into relief the linquistic problems involved in the teaching of English.

4. A development of the techniques of study which reside in such language-based skills as reading for reference and using library facilities.

5. An improvement of reading skills, to be measured in terms of spend and comprehension.

6. The recognition of the inspirational and recteational posibilities of language through the study of various literary forms and authors, including contemporary West Indian Literature.

7. A gasp of the special problems involved in the learning of language, as related to the physical, mental, emotional and environmental development of children.
8. A study and appreciation of children's literature.

9. A development of techniques for teaching the various language Art subjects.

10. The ability to diagnose pupil weaknesses in the Language Art areas and adapt methods to suit the needs of pupils.

APPENDIX 7B

university of the Virgin Islands
DIVISION OF TEACHER EDUCATION

Edu. 250: Curriculum Development & Instruction

Course Outline, (Fall 1988-89)

I. Objectives

On successful completion of this course a student will be able to:

a. define curriculum and instruction;
b. write objectives in general and behavioral forms;
c. select appropriate experiences and activities for students of various ages in relation to specific objectives;
d. select and utilize appropriate instructional media;
e. plan and execute instruction so that retention and transfer are maximized.

II. Content

A. Nature of Curriculum
   1. Meaning
   2. Changing conceptions

B. Curricular Sources and Influences
   1. Society, learner, content
   2. Technology, interest group
   3. Unions

C. Principles and Procedures of Curriculum Planning Approaches to Curriculum Planning

D. The Practice of Instruction
   1. The three domains
   2. Instructional Planning
   3. Writing Instructional Objectives
   4. Conducting effective lessons
   5. Teaching Concepts
   6. Questioning skills
   7. Using time efficiently

Edu. 250
Page 2

II. Content (cont'd)

E. Measurement and Evaluation
   1. Measurement
   2. Evaluation

      a. Placement
      b. Formative
      c. Diagnostic
      d. Summative

F. Management of Student Conduct
   1. Teacher performance that reduces the probability of student disruptions
   2. Ways of stopping disruptive conduct once it occurs
   3. Ways with dealing with serious misconduct

University of the Virgin Islands
DIVISION OF TEACHER EDUCATION

Edu. 257: Mathematics and the Elementary Teacher

Course Outline, (Fall 1988-89)

I. Objectives

Upon completion of this course, successful students be able to:

1. identify the major content areas of an elementary mathematics school program.

2. recognize and identify the basic concepts and skills for a given topic in any major mathematical content area on the elementary level.

3. determine and sequence the prerequisite performance skills for a given mathematical topic.

4. plan and develop meaningful learning experiences and opportunities for specified objectives.

5. select and manipulate appropriate physical models and other instructional learning materials that will facilitate the learning of concepts and skills.

6. evaluate and diagnose students' learning difficulties and plan appropriate instructional enrichment or remediation strategies.

7. demonstrate a knowledge and awareness of educational principles in the planning of mathematics lessons and in the utilization of instructional materials.

8. explain and demonstrate different processes for completing the algorithm for given operations.

University of the Virgin Islands
Division of Education

Edu. 354: Methods of Teaching Language Arts

Course Outline, (Spring 1988-89)

1. Course Objectives

To facilitate knowledge of the structure and use of language by children in particular social settings.

To enable students to gain insights and methods for teaching language across the curriculum.

A. To develop conscious awareness of language through children's literature.

B. To develop poetic and dramatic intuition in children.

C. To explore reading and writing connections.

D. To develop integrated language arts competencies.

E. To provide classroom experiences in language arts instruction.

University of the Virgin Islands
Division of Education

Edu. 353: The Teaching of Reading

Course Outline, (Spring 1988-89)

1. Course Objectives

To develop competencies in the content, methods and materials used in teaching reading.

A. To build a strong knowledge base in needed skills for teaching young children to read.
B. To develop strategies for teaching reading in the content areas.

To develop decision making capacity in material selection and instructional implementations.

University of the Virgin Islands
Division of Education

Edu. 452: Student Teaching in the Elementary School

Course Outline, (Fall 1938-1989)

1. Objectives

Upon the completion of the supervised student teaching practicum, successful students will be able to:

1. select and plan a variety of appropriate student experiences and activities in relation to specific objectives.

2. develop competence in those characteristics which are recognized as teaching skills.

3. execute instruction using a variety of teaching strategies, techniques and methodologies that will maximize retention and transfer of knowledge, skills and attitudes.

4. provide meaningful learning experiences for students by integrating teaching skills, subject matter competence and educational theory about learning and behavior.

5. establish, maintain, and manage learning environments that will promote and enhance the development of student self-control and other desirable behaviors.

6. cultivate and display desirable personality traits and professional attitudes.

7. demonstrate an awareness of the educational resources and community agencies that contribute to the ongoing activities of the school.

8. display sound capabilities and professional competence to assume the duties and responsibilities of a full-time teacher.

University of the Virgin Islands
DIVISION OF TEACHER EDUCATION

Edu. 469/497: Student Teaching in the Secondary School/Seminar in Secondary Teaching

Course Outline, (Fall 1987-1988)

I. Objectives

Upon completion of the supervised student teaching practicum, successful students should be able to:

1. execute instruction using a variety of teaching strategies, techniques and methodologies that will maximize retention and transfer of knowledge, skills, and attitudes.

2. provide meaningful learning experiences for students by integrating teaching skills, subject matter competence and educational theory about learning and behavior.

3. establish, maintain and manage learning environments that will enhance and promote the development of self actualization and other desirable pupil behaviors.

4. establish effective human relationships with the class and school community through a display of positive attitudes and ongoing interaction with school personnel.

5. comprehend and analyze the social and academic problems of secondary school students.

6. understand how organizational and professional factors affect the work of a teacher.

7. analyze student teaching abilities and competence based on student's cognitive and affective behaviors.

8. demonstrate sound capabilities and professional competence to assume the duties and responsibilities of a full-time teacher.

University of the Virgin Islands
DIVISION OF EDUCATION

Edu. 221: Foundations of Education

Course Outline, (Spring 1988-1989)

I. Objectives

Upon the completion of this course successful students should be able to demonstrate a knowledge of:

1. the origins of educational heritage.
2. the historical development of education in the United States and the Virgin Islands.
3. the pioneers who have contributed to educational theory and practice.
4. the organization, control and support of American education.
5. the philosophical, sociological, and psychological bases of education.
6. the social and political aspects of American Education.
7. the professional aspects of American Education.
8. major contemporary issues and influences affecting school and educational policy in the U.S.A. and V.I.

University of the Virgin Islands
DIVISION OF TEACHER EDUCATION

Edu. 230 Educational Psychology

Course Outline, (Fall 1988-1989)

I. Objectives

On successful completion of this course a student will be able to:

1. apply major psychological theories of human development and learning to day-to-day classroom practice.

2. identify children and adolescents with specific physical, emotional, social/personality, and academic needs.

3. respond constructively to and accept and respect the individual needs of children and adolescents in all areas of development--physical, intellectual, social/emotional, linquistic.

4. diagnose children and adolescents for appropriate instructional placement.

5. match the choice of instructional materials and resources with (a) individual styles of learning and (b) student characteristics.

6. set realistic and challenging goals for individual students based on their own uniqueness.

University of the Virgin Islands
Division of Education

Edu. 351: Classroom Management

Course Outline, (Spring 1988-89)

I. Objectives

1. demonstrate a knowledge of various theoretical positions and approaches to classroom management & Child development.

2. apply theoretical principles to practical classroom situations.

3. provide learning environments for students that will enhance, promote, and cultivate the attainment of self-control and other desirable pupil behaviors.

4. establish and maintain positive student-student and student-teacher relationships.

5. respond constructively to disruptive student behavior by demonstrating an awareness of those teacher actions that reinforce inappropriate student behavior.

6. demonstrate skill in planning, organizing, and maintaining environment that will maximize student involvement, increase learning and minimize disruptive social behaviors.

7. Devlop a repertoire of skills, knowledge, and attitudes useful in making appropriate, logical decisions regarding classroom management.

College of the Virgin Islands
St. Croix Campus

DIVISION OF TEACHER EDUCATION -

Spring Semester 1986

Edu. 350: Instructional Desidn and Technology

I. Catalog Description

Practical application of audio-visual methods and materials for instruction including the operation of equipment, computer uses and the planning and effective use of instruction technology with special emphasis on the development and use of learning aids.

Prerequisite: EDU 250 2 credits

II. Objectives

On successful completion of this course, the student will be able to:

(a) demonstrate the ability to operate, make minor adjustments and repairs, care for, and effectively use the audio-visual equipment listed under Major Content Areas of this syllabus.

(b) identify circumstances with which various mediums and media would be most appropriate.

(c) name the advantages and disadvantages of the various instructional media and mediums.

(d) plan, produce, and evaluate an instructional program that utilizes instructional media.

(e) describe the forms, formats, and characteristics of the various media and mediums.

(f) explain and properly utilize the techniques and principles of instructional development and instructional design.

(g) define the terminology related to the course content

Instructional Design and Technology

III. <u>Major Content Areas</u>

1. Planning and Use

   A. Instructional Design
   B. Principles of use
   C. Evaluation
   D. Selecting Instructional Media
   E. Instructional Development
   F. Media Applications

2. Operation and Effective Use of The Major Audio-Visual Equipment, e.g.

   A. 16mm projector
   B. Overhead projector
   C. Opaque projector
   D. Filmstrip projector
   E. Slide projector
   F. Video and television
   G. Computers
   H. Print copying
   I. Audio systems

3. Development and Use of Instructional Media, e.g.

   A. Print
   B. Graphic and Models
   C. Photographic
   D. Audio
   E. Television and Video
   F. Computers
   G. Simulations and Games

University of the Virgin Islands
Division of Education

Edu. 450: Measurement and Evaluation in Education

Course Outline, Spring 1988-1989

I. Course Objectives

The students will be able to:

a) Develop instructional objectives and select appropriate measurement techniques for determining learning outcomes;

b) Write sound objective and essay test items;

c) Assemble, administer, score and analyze tests;

d) Define and compute central tendency, variability, correlation, validity, reliability, and standard error of measurement;

e) List the types of standardized tests available and the uses for which they are appropriate;

f) Discuss the variables under consideration when testing special populations.

II. Content

1. An introduction to Educational Testing and Measurement
2. Special Trends in testing
3. Norm-Referenced and Criterion Referenced Tests

****

4. Writing Instructional Objectives
5. Writing Objective Test Items
6. Writing Essay Test Items

****

7. Assembling, Administering and Scoring Classroom Tests
8. Item Analyzes
9. Basic Statistical Concepts
10. Standardized Tests

APPENDIX 7C

UNIVERSITY OF THE VIRGIN ISLANDS
Teacher Education Division

STUDENT TEACHER COMPETENCY & EVALUATION RECORD

Name of Student ______________________ Date ______________

School and Location ______________________________________

Grade Taught ____________ Cooperating Teacher ______________

University Supervisor ____________________ Major ___________

TO THE EVALUATOR: Place your evaluation in the appropriate column entitled "Rating." Please evaluate according to the table below:

1. A rating of "1" indicates a continuous outstanding or superior performance with unusual initiative and imagination.

2. A rating of "2" indicates that the student's work is of a very good quality and is performed without much assistance.

3. A rating of "3" indicates generally satisfactory work with guidance and supervision, but denotes need for improvement. It also indicates average performance for a student teacher in relation to his/her peers.

4. A rating of "4" indicates a definite weakness in the area. The student teacher, however, seems; capable of attaining satisfactory standards if carefully guided and supervised.

5. A rating of "5" indicates a very serious weakness and it is questionable whether the student can attain a satisfactory level of performance in that area even with continued help. (Please add a written comment for a "5" rating.)

6. A mark of "NA" indicates that there is no basis for a rating in the area. ("NA" may apply to many areas.)

Competencies	Self-Assessment	*****	ST	CT
TEACHING PROCEDURES:				
1. Formulating instructional goals for a semester		*****		
2. Organizing the sequence of goals for the semester		*****		
3. Selecting objectives for specific lessons and units of instruction		*****		
4. Selecting content and material appropriate to identified objectives and goals		*****		
5. Preparing detailed written lesson plans, with objectives stated in behavioral terms		*****		
6. Organizing and developing lessons in a logical sequence		*****		
7. Using effective introductions to lessons		*****		
8. Using a variety of methods to motivate students		*****		
9. Carrying out instruction that is consistent with identified objectives		*****		
10. Choosing a variety of instructional methods for lessons		*****		
11. Making learning tasks clear to students		*****		
12. Breaking tasks into small steps from simple to complex		*****		
13. Using effective questioning techniques to stimulate thinking		*****		
14. Promoting critical thinking		*****		
15. Developing concepts and generalizations clearly		*****		

Competencies (continued)	Self-Assessment	*****	RATING ST	CT
TEACHING PROCEDURES:				
16. Providing for appropriate depth in lessons		*****		
17. Showing initiative and imagination through a variety of techniques and materials		*****		
18. Originating new material		*****		
19. Using a multi-sensory approach with students		*****		
20. Maintaining a desirable pace in teaching		*****		
21. Involving students in meaningful, worthwhile, and challenging activities		*****		
22. Planning activities that require active student participation		*****		
23. Providing for individual differences among students		*****		
24. Providing feedback to students during learning		*****		
25. Synchronizing different activities conducted simultaneously		*****		
26. Constructing teacher-made tests for assessing a student's status		*****		
27. Carrying out preassessment strategies to determine student readiness for specific learning activities		*****		
28. Using the results of teacher-administered tests to develop educational plans for students		*****		
29. Evaluating student progress in terms of stated objectives to verify the outcome of instruction		*****		
30. Operating audio-visual equipment		*****		

Competencies (continued)	Self-Assessment	******	RATING ST	CT
TEACHING PROCEDURES:				
31. Selecting appropriate audio-visual equipment		******		
32. Relating bulletin board displays to units of instruction		******		
33. Providing accurate facts, information and knowledge of subject matter to students		******		
34. Demonstrating enthusiasm for teaching		******		
CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT:				
35. Making classroom rules, procedures and expectations clear and explicit to students		******		
36. Reinforcing appropriate student behavior		******		
37. Using appropriate techniques to deal with unacceptable behavior		******		
38. Enforcing rules consistently and fairly		******		
39. Acting as an effective model by communicating appropriate standards for student behavior		******		
40. Maintaining neatness and cleanliness in classroom		******		
TEACHER-PUPIL RELATIONS:				
41. Encouraging students to be accepting of one another		******		
42. Encouraging cooperative interpersonal relationships		******		
43. Communicating to students that feelings are understood		******		
44. Demonstrating respect for and acceptance of all students		******		

Competencies (continued)	Self-Assessment	******	RATING ST	CT
III. TEACHER-PUPIL RELATIONS:				
45. Promoting independence in students		******		
46. Helping students accept themselves		******		
47. Listening with concern to students' articulated problems		******		
IV. PROFESSIONAL RELATIONSHIPS:				
48. Making intelligent use of criticism and suggestions		******		
49. Conferring and discussing openly observations and experiences with college supervisor		******		
50. Reading for professional development		******		
51. Asking for help or ideas from other staff		******		
52. Demonstrating ability for self-evaluation and improvement		******		
V. ORAL AND WRITTEN EXPRESSION:				
53. Using standard English (oral and written)		******		
54. Writing legibly in manuscript and cursive on paper and chalkboard		******		
55. Using vocabulary appropriate to the students		******		
56. Speaking with good pronunciation, voice inflection and modulation		******		

EVALUATION SUMMARY

Rating Key: 1 = Superior 2 = Very Good (Above Average)
3 = Good (Average) 4 = Weak (Below Average)
5 = Poor

	ST	CT	CS
I. Teaching Procedures			
II. Classroom Management			
III. Teacher - Pupil Relations			
IV. Professional Relationships			
V. Oral and Written Expression			
RECOMMENDATION: (For Cooperating Teacher and University Supervisor Only) CHECK ONE: 1. Highest possible recommendation			
2. Recommend without reservation			
3. Recommend			
4. Recommend with reservation			
5. Do not recommend			

SIGNATURES:

____
Student Teacher

____
Cooperating Teacher

____
University Supervisor

Semester Grade: _____

UNIVERSITY OF THE VIRGIN ISLANDS
Division of Teacher Education

Detailed Lesson Plan Outline

A. General Information

1. Subject, lesson, topic
2. Number of students or groups
3. Date, Time schedule
4. Name of text, unit, chapter, pages
5. Competencies to be observed.

B. Objective (s)

1. Should be stated behaviorally
2. Should be student oriented
3. Should include the condition, behavior and criterion
4. Should be written in measurable, observable terms
5. Should be clear, understandable and unambiguous
6. Should be descriptive of learning outcomes rather than student activities
7. Should reflect various cognitive levels
8. Should include cognitive and affective goals

C. Subject Matter Content Analysis

1. Should include major or key concepts to be covered
2. Should be specific
3. Should be sequenced in manner of presentation

D. Instructional Aids

1. Should include resources and materials such as maps, models, chalkboard, text, visual aids, transparencies, dittoes, manipulatives.

E. Procedure

1. Introduction

   a. Motivation (Opening statements)
   b. What you plan to say and do
   c. Probable responses of students

2. Development

   a. Should include selected learning experiences
   b. Should be logically sequenced
   c. Should include varied activities
   d. Should actively involve pupils

3. Culmination

   a. Should include the review, summary, climax, closure

F. Lesson Evaluation

1. Should include method of evaluation to determine if students achieved objective(s)
2. Should include assignments
3. Should provide for individual student differences
4. Should be consistent with objective(s)

G. Self-Analysis

1. Should state degree to which objectives were realized
2. Should state whether methods were effective
3. Should state the good learning results obtained
4. Should suggest areas of improvement
5. Should state any management problems that arose during lesson
6. Should state carry-over needed for next lesson

H. Objective(s) for Previous Day

I. Objective(s) for Next Day

UNIVERSITY OF THE VIRGIN ISLANDS
TEACHER EDUCATION DIVISION
ST. CROIX CAMPUS

EDU 250- **LESSON PLAN OUTLINE**

STAGE	**STEPS OF A PLAN**
I. Planning	A. Unit: B. Goals Objective: C. Rationale: (Why)
II. Implementing	D. Content: (What) E. Materials: F. Time Schedule: G. Teacher's Information H. Motivation I. Procedure (How) J. Culmination 1. summarization 2. needs for next lesson
III. Evaluation	K. Critique or Self-analysis of Lesson Plan: (teacher performance) L. Lesson Evaluation: (Student performance)

Student's lecture notes:

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