An Examination Of The Attitude Of Selected Jamaican Teachers Of English To The Caribbean Examinations Council Examination In English A (language).

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AN EXAMINATION OF THE ATTITUDE OF SELECTED JAMAICAN TEACHERS OF ENGLISH TO THE CARIBBEAN EXAMINATIONS COUNCIL EXAMINATION IN ENGLISH A (LANGUAGE)

by

Ivy Joyce Mitchell

Submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies

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ABSTRACT

The Caribbean Examinations Council (CXC) was an example of regional integration and cooperation among Commonwealth Caribbean countries. As Britain granted independence to her colonies these colonies saw education as the catalyst of regional development. Since the countries shared a common language it was logical for many to see them also sharing a common system of examinations.

The idea of a West Indian Examination to replace the traditional British external examinations was first discussed by a group of Caribbean headmasters and headmistresses in 1955. CXC was finally established in 1972 and now offers over 29 subjects.

This study examined the attitudes of the Jamaican teachers of English to the Caribbean Examinations Council examination in English A (language). Measures used in the study were the questionnaire and interviews. The subjects were the teachers of English in the 27 high schools in the county of Surrey in Jamaica.

The CXC based its English A syllabus on three "fundamental assumptions" or goal statements. The researcher used these assumptions as the criterion referents for the assessment of the attitudes of the

Jamaican teachers of English to the CXC examination in English language.

The questionnaire devised for the study was based on the goal statements and objectives as set out in the CXC English A syllabus. The questionnaire consisted of 10 questions. Three interview questions were asked of 30 teachers as additional data. Of 189 questionnaires distributed, 139 were returned, accounting for 74 percent of the teachers of the 27 high schools.

The data showed that 43 percent of the teachers with less than five years teaching experience responded positively, while 57 percent responded negatively in their preference for CXC. Teachers who had taught 5-10 years responded 48 percent negative and 52 percent positive, thus showing an increase in their preference for CXC over GCE. Teachers who had taught 10-20 years responded 30 percent negative and 70 percent positive, demonstrating approval for CXC. There was a slight falling off in teachers who had taught 20 years and over. This group responded 39 percent negative and 61 percent positive. The overall assessment was that more teachers showed a preference for the CXC examinations in English language than for the traditional British General Certificate in Education in the same subject.

CHAPTER I

AN EXAMINATION OF THE ATTITUDE OF THE JAMAICAN TEACHERS OF ENGLISH TO THE CARIBBEAN EXAMINATIONS COUNCIL EXAMINATION (C.X.C.) IN ENGLISH A (LANGUAGE)

Development of Education in the West Indies

The peculiar evolution of the West Indian person was irrevocably linked to the triangular slave trade between Britain, Africa, and the West Indies. This Negro diaspora founded during the early 17th Century a new region comprised of a small white population and a predominantly black population. Later the color of the population underwent a gradual change as plantation owners fathered children with their black slave women. This formed a new middle group, the progeny of black and white--brown skinned--called mullato. Many of the more humane and forward looking fathers had their illegitimate offspring educated on the islands while a few even went so far as to send them to England. This laid the foundation for the three main class structures found in the West Indies: a very small wealthy elitist group comprised mainly of whites and browns, a middle group mainly brown skinned and black and the third group, all black. This grouping also coincided with the degree of educational opportunities and, therefore,

educational attainment. Today the color demarcation is less marked, almost imperceptible, since the British colonials have returned home and there has been a repatriation of most whites. Many black people have risen to high ranks in the countries but the vast majority of the poorer people are black and less educated.

Eric Williams gave a general view of how the islands would have been seen by a traveler during slavery. He would have found "the most insipid conversation beginning with prices of exports and ending with the laziness of Negroes". The "Colonial Office trustee . . . could see in the West Indies only a society in which there was no counterpart in the civilized world for its entire destitution of learned leisure, of literary and scientific intercourse and even of liberal recreations." This state of affairs existed as most plantation owners did not subscribe to the education of slaves. Williams made the point that the West Indian people had come a long way in their evolution since his audience was a "positive manifestation of the capacity of [our] people to understand all the responsibilities and enjoy all the privileges of democratic citizens."

The conclusion of the speech by the Prime Minister of Trinidad and Tobago was indicative of the present view of the peoples of the West Indies:

> We have to establish in ourselves, by ourselves, and for ourselves, habits of disciplined labour, of personal responsibility of the democratic process inside and outside of politics, a constant striving in every sphere to establish the foundations of a nation which we first of all shall recognize, and others will have to recognize, as a new nation in the Caribbean - new not only in political independence, but new also in habits and thought which these islands never knew in all the centuries of their existence, and which it shall be our honour and credit that we have founded (CARICOM Perspective, April-June 1986, No. 35, p. 4).

Education had been the catalyst for the Caribbean. But for all the countries in the region achieving even the modicum of education for the vast majority of people had been a long and painful process. The Sterling Report to the British Government, gave a graphic idea of the state of the ex-slaves after Emancipation:

> About 770,000 persons have been released from slavery by the Emancipation Act, and are now in a state of rapid transition to entire freedom . . . The peace and prosperity of the Empire at large may be not remotely influenced by their moral condition . . . . lastly the opinion of the public in Britain earnestly requires a systematic provision for their mental improvement. It is plain therefore that something must be done; and it must be done immediately. . . . The law having

> already determined and enforced their civic rights, the task of bettering their condition can be further advanced only by education (Gordon, 1963, pp. 20--21).

There was a problem, however, since the population was scattered through several islands separated by vast stretches of water, the Caribbean Sea. In addition the roads were poor, many of the islands mountainous, and the people demoralized.

The stage was set for drastic changes in the whole fabric of education by the time the colonies began to gain internal self-government and, subsequently, independence. By the 1930's Britain was happy to grant independence to colonies which were becoming less profitable. The colonists were also agitating for educational systems more suitable to the region.

With independence, many saw the importance of regional integration. This resulted in the formation of the West Indian Federation in the 1950's with headquarters in Barbados. Perhaps the concept was too new for such diverse peoples for Federation failed with the withdrawal of Jamaica through a referendum in 1960. Although Federation failed, the region initiated other areas of integration. CARICOM (Caribbean Community and Common Market) was formed in 1973 and Caribbean heads of

government meet regularly in different countries to discuss mutual problems and concerns.

Another area of integration was the University of the West Indies founded in 1948, formerly the University College of London. As Chancellor of the University for years, the Countess of Athlone, had to travel to Jamaica to be at the graduation ceremonies. This affiliation to London University guaranteed that standards representative of Britain would be maintained. The University was a regional institution with the main campus at Mona in Jamaica. There were two other campuses, one at Cave Hill in Barbados and the other at St. Augustine in Trinidad. Entrance requirements varied but usually students had to gain good passes at the end of sixth form (grade 13 level). The School of Education at the Mona Campus trained teachers for teaching at the upper levels of secondary schools. The university had expanded to meet the needs of the Caribbean, offering a wide variety of subjects. All three campuses offered first and higher degrees in the Arts and Sciences, but Mona specialized in medicine, St. Augustine in engineering and agriculture, and Cave Hill specialized in law. The post-graduate law school was at the Mona Campus.

The Caribbean Examinations Council was yet another indication of regional integration which demonstrated the cooperation among the Commonwealth Caribbean countries. The idea of a "West Indian examination to replace the Cambridge local examination" was first suggested at a meeting of the Caribbean Headmasters' and Headmistresses' Association in 1955 (Whyte, 1977). It was not until 1964 however, that at a conference of the Heads of Government of Commonwealth Caribbean countries held in Jamaica that the actual setting up of a Caribbean Examinations Council was seriously considered. The dissatisfaction with the British examination system was clearly stated:

> For years students of secondary schools in the Caribbean have been writing examinations set by external examining bodies--mainly the Cambridge local Examinations Syndicate and the University of London. These examinations have been based on syllabuses drawn up by the overseas bodies; and though efforts have been made in recent years to bring these syllabuses into line with the situation in the Caribbean, by and large they cannot be said to have been related to the needs, objectives and aspirations of the communities making up the region. Yet the examinations--as examinations always tend to do--have dominated, and to a great extent dictated the Programmes of the schools. Students have been selected for entrance to the University on the basis of qualifications gained at these examinations. Entry to the public service and to other fields of employment has been through such qualifications. One result of this has been that the territories have expended large sums of money on educational plans and programme with little

> regard for the realities of the Caribbean situation. The Caribbean seems to have been educating its citizens for export, and not really for the benefit of the region. (Regional Cooperation in Education, pp. 1-2).

The heads of government also envisaged that the setting up of the Caribbean Examinations Council would "afford the countries of the Commonwealth Caribbean another opportunity of managing their own affairs and of pooling their skills and resources in an effort to find solutions to a problem common to the region as a whole" (Regional Cooperation).

The most universal and pervasive link, however, was the sharing of a common language. As former colonies of Britain, English was the spoken language notwithstanding regional dialects. Gloria Cummins stated that, "Grammatical, well-phrased English . . . is the only language that Caribbean adults can ever use as common currency." She made a plea throughout her article for the reintroduction of formal grammar in the curriculum. She believed that the "crisis decline in fifth and sixth form performance" is the result of the lack of proficiency in certain grammatical skills (Caribbean Dialogue I, 1983, p. 8). Many saw the C.X.C. as a panacea for the ills of the educational systems, others are pessimistic, but whatever views one held,

the Council's problem was to conduct examinations suitable to the region, especially in the crucial subject of English language.

Need for the Study

Given the region's history of external British oriented examinations and the profound effects these have had on Caribbean education, the necessity to assess the impact of C.X.C. was obvious. It was particularly important to know how the teachers perceived the examinations since the success or failure of C.X.C. was largely dependent on the attitudes of the teachers to the examinations. The researcher believed that educators in the Caribbean would benefit from an insight into how practicing teachers saw the C.X.C. as fulfilling or not fulfilling the needs of the children. In this case Jamaican teachers of English would be seen as representative of the region's teachers of English.

The observation by Stedman and Kaestle (1985) was a succinct summation of the Jamaican situation where examinations were concerned. They saw:

> The recent focus on testing . . . already having serious negative consequences . . . less attention is paid to other goals, such as sharing, learning to make decisions, developing self-esteem, and acquiring higher-level thinking skills and aesthetic sensitivities (pp. 209-210).

Although Stedman and Kaestle were writing from an American perspective, what they wrote was relevant to the Jamaican situation. The system of examination, among other things, had through the years done great damage to the self-esteem of young children. A young child at age 10 plus to 11 was required to sit for an examination which determined the path his life and career would take. The following list showed the examinations administered in the country during 1973 when the survey was done:

(i) The Common Entrance Examination (age 11+) for pupils from primary and private preparatory schools for admission to high schools; (U.K. examination).

(ii) The Common Entrance Examination (age 13+) for pupils from all-age, junior secondary and high schools for admission to technical high schools; (U.K. examination).

(iii) The Grade Nine Achievement Test examination for pupils from all-age and junior secondary schools for admission to high schools, technical high schools and vocational schools; (Jamaican local examination).

(iv) The Jamaica School Certificate Examination (approximately grade 10). This is recognized for admission to the Police Force and Nursing Profession as well as minor private business enterprises; (Jamaican local examination).

(v) The London City and Guilds Examination, The Royal Society of Arts Examination, The Union of Lancashire and Chesire Institutes Examination. The Associated Examining Board

General Certificate Examination, mainly for students of technical schools; (U.K. examination).

(vi) The General Certificate of Education Examination, Ordinary level ('O' level) external examinations set by the Universities of Cambridge and London (for pupils enrolled in comprehensive, technical and high schools; U.K. examinations).

(vii) The General Certificate of Education Examination, Advanced Level ('A' level). external examinations set by the Universities of Cambridge and London, for pupils in grade 13 of high schools; (U.K. examinations) Sector Survey, pp. 87-88.

Some general questions were asked by the Educational Sector Survey team about these examinations: (a) How well do they measure what they are supposed to measure? (b) Is what they need to measure what is actually being measured? (c) To what extent are the examinations helping to make the education system more effective? (d) To what extent are the examinations meeting Jamaica's needs, both for the individual and the society at large? (p. 88).

Recommendations were that the examination system should be evaluated relative to what each was measuring and whether these were relevant to Jamaica's needs. There was a call for the "Jamaicanization" of the system and that the system should provide a continuing assessment of student achievement (Jamaica Educational Sector Survey, p. 141).

In 1973, when the survey was done, the C.X.C. was a proposal on paper as far as everyone was

concerned. It was hoped that the first examination would be ready for May 1979 but no one was certain whether this target date would have been achieved. The Caribbean Examinations were still nebulous, hence the uncertainty as to the role these would play, as perceived by the survey team. The ninth recommendation of the team concerned Jamaica's relationship with the proposed Caribbean Examinations Council:

> There is a need to clarify and develop the relationship of the Jamaican system and Ministry of Education with the Caribbean Examinations Council (C.X.C.) especially since the function of the C.X.C. appears mainly that of improving the administration of the current overseas-based examination system. There is a need for a Jamaican policy on examinations and student evaluation relative to the activities of the C.X.C. There should be a Jamaican strategy on how the C.X.C. might best serve Jamaica's educational needs (p. 142).

In response to the Sector Survey the Five-Year Education Plan (1978-1983) was drafted. This sought to rectify the anomalies in the education system. The response was a very ambitious document and although many of the plans had not been accomplished, a number had been carried out both by the government which formulated the plan and by the present administration.

The C.X.C.

The Caribbean Examinations Council was established finally in 1972. A. Z. Preston, former Vice-Chancellor of the University of the West Indies, in an address to the Jamaica Teachers' Association said:

> . . . C.X.C. represents a break with the past. What of its potential for the future? I personally have experienced deep satisfaction and a sense of excitement as I have watched the growth of C.X.C. through a somewhat difficult period up to the present time. All of you who have been closely involved with the whole experiment, can reflect on its contribution to Caribbean education. . . .
>
> C.X.C. was conceived as an instrument of change. The C.X.C. mandate requires that the Council should ensure that the syllabuses and examinations are relevant to the needs of the Caribbean Region (C.X.C. News, p. 5).

One of the Council's pamphlets states that:

> One of the main objectives of the Council is to provide relevant secondary school leaving examinations to replace those traditionally set by overseas boards, and to ensure that the standard of these examinations is regionally and internationally recognized (C.X.C. and the Candidate, p. 2).

Despite the fact that C.X.C. should provide an examination suitable for the region it had always stressed that the Council was mandated to develop syllabi and conduct secondary school-leaving examinations of equivalent standards to the G.C.E. "O" level. The "overseas syndrome" would prevent unqualified acceptance of a system developed wholly in

the Caribbean. The perennial question as to the validity of anything local was very much a question as to the validity of the C.X.C. The new examinations engendered great public debate in all the Caribbean countries. Jamaicans contributed their share to these debates with a spate of letters and articles in the local newspapers. The following is an example:

> The Minister of Education has been commenting on those who are reluctant to see Jamaican students switching from the G.C.E. examination to a new Caribbean one. His point, a perfectly valid one, is that the world accepts the degree of the University of the West Indies and a Caribbean-marked examination for secondary school students will also be accepted.
>
> However correct a deduction is the foregoing, we think that Mr. Cooke has not appreciated one of the objections of those who have been speaking out against a switch from the G.C.E. The U.W.I. graduates obtain degrees from an institution which grew out of another one, the University College, which had proved its worth by producing students who had done well in London exams. . . (The Star, October 13, 1975, p. 5).

Thus C.X.C. gained technical support from Examining Boards and International Agencies.

> . . . During its nascent years C.X.C. sought and received advice on all aspects of examining from Cambridge Overseas and London Boards. . . , the Scottish Board of the West African Examinations Council (The Examination System, p. 6).

The Cambridge Syndicate assisted in the training of Chief and Assistant Chief Examiners and markers.

These people marked scripts of the "O" level entry from the Caribbean during the period 1975-1978. Assistance was also gained from the Educational Testing Service of Princeton.

> Following the decision to include an objective test paper as part of its examinations, E.T.S. was contracted during the period 1978-1981 to train the MED staff in psychometric techniques, to pretest items and develop the multiple choice item bank. Under the contract ETS also provided data Processing support for the first examinations held between 1979 and 1981 and provided guidance in the establishment of the existing data processing facility (Caribbean Examinations Council: The Examination Systems, p. 7).

Statement of the Problem

There has been much controversy over the switch from the traditional General Certificate of Education at Ordinary Level (GCE O/L), to the Caribbean Examinations Council Examination (C.X.C.) at the General and Basic Proficiency levels. Since the introduction of secondary education during the mid-eighteenth century the pupils of the British Caribbean have been sitting for British external examinations. The British curricula were slavishly followed by the schools in the colonies and regardless of relevance, pupils were prepared for the examinations that were set in England by the English authorities for Caribbean Children. As Caribbean countries gained their independence their first priority

was the reorganization of the educational systems. One of Jamaica's stated goals, for example, was the revision of all school syllabi.

The controversy was between those people who were pro-British, or pro-foreign, and who saw anything West Indian as inferior and between those people who felt that it was time the Caribbean developed its own examinations. These, they hoped, would be more suited to the needs of the region's people.

Since English is the common language of the region, the teaching of English and the relevance of English language curriculum are of great importance. C.X.C. based its English A syllabus on "three fundamental assumptions" or goal statements. To ensure complete understanding of these broad goals, C.X.C. elaborated on each. Each goal was presented followed by the objectives which specified the skills to be developed.

> (i) At the primary and secondary levels of education language should be regarded as an activity rather than a subject.
>
> The teaching programme . . . will embody . . .
>
> (i) an emphasis on the student's ability to use the English language effectively to communicate his ideas, to read and listen and to respond to drama and the various forms of literature with understanding and discrimination.

(ii) Language varies according to the purpose for which it is being used in a particular context.

The teaching programme . . . will embody . . .

(ii) the provision of opportunities to use the full range of practical language skills required in everyday life and to appreciate the differences in language registers, codes and styles appropriate to different social contexts. Particularly, it will provide opportunities for students to recognize what the place of regional dialects is in social intercourse.

(iii) Language is essential to personal growth and development.

The teaching programme . . . will embody . . .

(iii) a concern for deepening the students' imaginative and emotional responses to and through language and literature as well as for increasing awareness of ideas and values through language.

The program must also provide further stimulus to read literature for the personal satisfaction and growth that literature offers (English Syllabus, p. 1).

These goals and objectives specified by the C.X.C. as crucial in the teaching of English language, must also be seen as an attempt to meet the language needs of Caribbean pupils. To what extent did teachers and the writers of the syllabus agree? The researcher used the goals as the criteria referents against which to measure the perceptions of the teachers. If the analysis of data showed that teachers were in agreement

with C.X.C.'s stated goals, then the examination would be serving the purposes which C.X.C. intended. On the other hand, if teachers were in disagreement, then the Council would have cause to review these goals.

The problem, then, was to assess the effects of the Caribbean Examination in English as perceived by the teachers of English in Jamaican high schools.

Design of the Study

Tools used were questionnaire and interviews thus approaching the problem from a descriptive stance. The researcher was convinced that participants' perceptions and concepts would be valuable. The population was all teachers of English in all high schools in the County of Surrey in Jamaica. Jamaica is divided into three counties: Cornwall, Middlesex and Surrey. Surrey is the smallest county but has the largest concentration of schools containing as it does the island's capital city of Kingston. The parishes in Surrey are Kingston, Saint Andrew, Saint Thomas and Portland. These parishes are representative of all facets of the socio-economic status of the people as different strata are represented in urban, suburban and rural settings.

The questionnaire was administered to all teachers of English in all 27 high schools in the county

of Surrey. There were 189 teachers. The questionnaire was tested first in pilot schools in the counties of Cornwall and Middlesex before being administered to the group of teachers in Surrey. Of the 189 teachers, 139 returned the completed questionnaire. A sample of 30 teachers from those who participated in the final questionnaire was chosen and these were interviewed. These interviews were conducted to provide additional supporting data.

Definition of Terms

For the purposes of this study, the following terms used were defined as follows:

Caribbean: The word Caribbean was used interchangeably with West Indies or West Indian, as the West Indian islands are surrounded by the Caribbean Sea and the whole region is often referred to as the Caribbean. British West Indies referred to those countries which formerly belonged to Britain.

C.X.C.: This abbreviation was used throughout the study to refer to the Caribbean Examinations Council Examination. C.X.C. or CXC was written both ways since both are acceptable.

English: The term English A referred to the CXC English language examination.

The term English B referred to the literature examination.

Form: The term form referred to grades in the secondary schools, especially in traditional high schools. Thus fifth form is equivalent to grade 11, the pupils who at age 16-17 sit for the external, comprehensive school leaving GCE O/L or CXC examinations.

Sixth form referred to grades 12 and 13. These are the students who, having done well in the external examinations at fifth form, returned to school for an additional two years. During these years they concentrated on three subjects related to their career goals in order to qualify for entry to the University.

GCE Advanced Level: This referred to the General Certificate of Education taken at upper sixth form or grade 13. This was an external British examination which qualified the students for entry to the university of the West Indies for three to five years depending on the choice of career.

GCE O/L: This referred to the General Certificate at Ordinary level. It was also a British school-leaving examination taken at the end of fifth form or grade 11. Both GCE O/L and CXC enabled students

to terminate their education with a certificate or formal document of academic achievement.

Level: The word "level" used in GCE A/L or O/L simply referred to the stage of academic achievement; for example, the advanced level was at a more advanced stage.

High School: A high school may be compared with the British Public Schools. The high school, also called traditional high school, was considered more prestigious than the newer type of secondary schools. When the term high school, or traditional high school, was used it referred to the older secondary school patterned after the British "public school".

Negro: The term Negro, referring to a racial group, was used interchangeably with the word black. The term Negro was used throughout the Caribbean without any pejorative connotations and was used almost exclusively until quite recently.

Summary of Chapters

Chapter I presented an historical background of the evolution of the people of the West Indies and their adherence to colonial norms and mores. It indicated the gradual development toward nationhood and the necessity for each country to formulate its goals, especially in

education which was perceived as integral to nation building. The chapter gave a brief overview of the development of education in the West Indies with special reference to Jamaica.

Chapter II was the review of related literature and research findings which set the theoretical framework for the study. This chapter was divided into four sections, namely:

(i) Tests and examinations--how these are perceived, their effects on students and teachers.

(ii) The British Examination system and its effects on curriculum in Jamaica.

(iii) The emergence of the C.X.C. and its effects on curriculum.

(iv) Research Methods.

Chapter III discussed in more detail the aims and aspirations for education in Jamaica as perceived by various ministers of education and how these relate to some concepts discussed in the preceding chapter. It viewed these aims and aspirations in terms of their practicability given certain problems in the Jamaican society.

Chapter IV discussed the methods and techniques used in the study and the analysis of data.

Chapter V summarized, drew conclusions and made recommendations.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The purpose of Chapter Two was to review the literature related to the study undertaken. The chapter is divided into the following categories: (1) Tests and examinations; how these are perceived and their effects on students and teachers, (2) The British Examination system and its effects on curriculum in Jamaican secondary schools, (3) The Caribbean Examinations Council and its effect on curriculum in Jamaican secondary schools, (4) Research methods.

TESTS AND EXAMINATIONS: HOW THESE ARE PERCEIVED AND THEIR EFFECTS ON STUDENTS AND TEACHERS

Dwyer (1982) stated that achievement can be defined in:

> relationship to the concept of aptitude by a simple contrast: measuring the learning that takes place during a definable course of instruction is achievement testing: measuring the outcomes of a very lengthy and diffuse set of learning experiences is aptitude testing. . . (pp. 12-13).

Achievement tests are used to assess the outcome of previous schooling or the cumulative learning students have acquired over a period of time from a specified curriculum (Mehrens 1982). Aptitude tests, on the other hand, were not as closely intended to predict how a

student will perform later in higher education or in employment. According to Dwyer (1982),

> . . . performances on tests labelled achievement tests may be expected to improve relatively rapidly as a function of instruction, whereas performances on tests labeled aptitude tests may be expected to improve more slowly, even with additional specific instruction, (p. 13).

Ebel (1983) in defense of external testing, nevertheless, acknowledged that:

> The scope of human knowledge is very wide. No one test can assess more than a part of achievement in learning. A test is likely to be valid as a measure of achievement in only that part. So it is quite important for the test maker to specify as exactly as possible what part of the totality of human knowledge the test deals with and is intended to provide a valid measure of. Also important is determining that the test is measuring something with reasonable precision (p. 271).

Anastasi (1983), in an article entitled "What Do Intelligence Tests Measure," discussed some of the unfortunate side effects of the "testing boom" and the misuse of the term I.Q. but noted that:

> . . . like other tests, intelligence tests yield measures of the individual's present status. They assess what the individual has learned to do and what he knows at the time. Tests can serve a predictive function only in so far as they indicate to what extent the individual has acquired the prerequisite skills and knowledge for a designated criterion performance. . . . What the individual can accomplish in the future depends not only on his present intellectual status, as assessed by the test, but also on his subsequent experiences (p. 8).

Andrew Strenio (1983), in his article "Branding Children" spoke strongly against standardized tests. According to him, these tests were not ordeals reserved only for mature adults competing for higher education but children were subjected to standardized tests even before entering nursery school in some instances. The "winnowing out of the select few and the branding of the rest as failures," he said, cannot be put off until the "children reach adolescence." He gave a grim picture of a catalogue of tests as he saw it in the American system:

> . . . I.Q. tests, reading readiness tests, reading tests, tracking and achievement tests, all form a gauntlet that most children have to endure in the course of their schooling. . .

Hoffman (1964) had expressed the same reservations as Strenio. In his book, The Tyranny of Testing, he found the discrepancies in grades allotted to a single essay by different markers "frightening" (p. 46). (See also McIntosh, 1970, p. 3; Connaughton 1969, p. 167.) Hoffman was critical of the multiple choice test of aptitude and achievement such as those given by College Entrance Examination Boards. He saw these tests as not measuring motivation, creativity, and "other important ingredients of greatness." Hoffman questioned whether it could be denied that "such tests

favor the superficially brilliant and penalize the student who has depth, subtlety, and critical acumen" (p. 94). In an interview with Hoffman, Paul Houts (1977), asked him, "What kind of testing would you like to see?" Hoffman's reply was:

> I would like to see any type of testing that allows the student to do something himself, and in which the concern is not just with the answer or with the choice, but with the reasoning process used to arrive at the answer. That is what teachers must be most concerned with (Houts, p. 205).

The debates concerning different types of tests have continued in pedagogical forums as well as by individuals and various groups in society. All seemed to view tests with mixed feelings. Tests have been used for a variety of purposes: for providing information, aiding in administrative planning and decisions, and in directing curriculum. Payne (1982) stated that tests were useful in stimulating and motivating student learning, and aiding in the academic and vocational guidance of students.

Ebel (1983) felt that for most pupils the pressures tests apply were far more beneficial than harmful as tests encouraged competition. To the questions people might ask, whether tests put pupils under too much pressure, harmed the self-esteem of slow

learners or emphasized competition at the expense of cooperation, Ebel thought only a very few pupils were affected in these ways. Ebel thought that the tests were not to be blamed for harmful effects on pupils. It was more likely the effects of the school or the teachers who sometimes bruise a child's ego unnecessarily, and who generated too little or too much motivation.

Several critics viewed tests as providing reliable information about pupil achievement but that often tests were maligned when other aspects of life such as socio-economic conditions were more at fault. Among these critics are Anastasi (1983), Ebel (1983), and Wechsler (1969). Wechsler, in a response to the elimination of the I.Q. from pupils' records in New York city, had this to say:

> The I.Q. has had a long life and will probably withstand the latest assaults on it. The most discouraging thing about them is not that they are without merit, but that they are directed against the wrong target. It is true that the results of intelligence tests, and of others, too, are unfair to the disadvantaged, deprived and various minority groups but it is not the I.Q. that has made them so. The culprits are poor housing, broken homes, a lack of basic opportunities, etc. etc. If the various pressure groups succeed in eliminating these problems, the I.Q.'s of the disadvantaged will take care of themselves (p. 306).

White and Duker (1973) supported the use of intelligence tests as these, they said, allowed us to make fairly accurate predictions about a child's future school concern. The authors felt that "intelligence test scores correlate positively with the ability of children." White and Duker acknowledged that the information could be used in various ways, both "good and bad" (p. 250).

One question asked was whether tests measure what they are supposed to measure. Tests, whether achievement or aptitude or minimum competency, were indicators of student ability or mental development in areas of learning. Payne (1982) saw the importance of whether "test items match both curriculum and instructional objectives." He questioned:

> . . . do test items measure not only the professed educational goals or the system, but also what is taught? The demonstration of acceptable types and levels of reliability is also important. It is crucial that the developer of a minimum competency test be able to demonstrate that the test is measuring general characteristics of the examinee (p. 185).

On the question of minimum competency tests, writers indicated mixed reactions. Schumann (1983) stated that Competency Based Education (CBE) as a movement, gained high visibility during the 1970's. She saw this as an outcome of declining enrollments in

schools, declining test scores, and other factors plaguing the American school system. This was not a new concept for during the nineteenth century "payment by results" was established in England. Payment by results was also introduced in the British West Indian colonies in an attempt to foster teacher accountability and upgrade pupil enrollment. New York state mandated Basic Competency Tests in an effort to help the schools achieve specific educational goals. The dissatisfaction with pupil achievement led the New York State Regents to establish as a top priority the improvement of the performance of pupils, Schumann (1983). The New York Regents stipulated certain basic requirements which must be met in order to receive a local high school diploma.

The minimum competency test may be compared with the British examinations: The General Certificate of Education (GCE) and the more recent Certificate of Secondary Education (CSE). The even more recent Caribbean Examinations Council Examination (CXC) is a school-leaving examination and offers a certificate at end of the period attesting to pupils' competence in certain subjects. Although the New York Regents, the British examinations and the CXC are different in certain aspects they have some things in common. They

are approved by the state, the county or region and provide certificates at graduation from secondary school.

The report, A Nation at Risk (1983), saw the American nation expressing its educational standards and expecta- tions in terms of "minimum requirements." The report stated:

> . . . In some metropolitan areas basic literacy has become the goal rather than starting point. In some colleges maintaining enrollments is of greater day-to-day concern than maintaining rigorous academic standards. And the ideal of academic excellence as the primary goal of schooling seems to be fading across the board in American education (p. 14).

The concern for standards has pervaded most societies and this concern has placed great burdens on both teachers and pupils. The 1982 Gallup Poll of the Public Attitude Toward the Public Schools, according to A Nation at Risk, saw people affirming that education was the foundation of America's strength, that education should be a priority for additional Federal Funds (p. 17). The public:

> . . . has no patience with undemanding and superfluous high school offerings. In another survey more than 75 percent of all those questioned believed every student planning to go to college should take four years of mathematics, English, history/U.S. government, and science, with more than 50 percent adding two years each for a foreign language and economics or business (p. 17).

This view of the public's reaction was not wholeheartedly shared by the writers of The Carnegie Report (1985). The authors of the Carnegie Report said that while the European tradition of intellectual rigor was maintained in the American Educational system, "In our country, by contrast, real intellectual effort in schools is not often demanded by parents and is generally frowned upon by students' peers" (p. 21). The authors of The Carnegie Report advocated that society should place a higher value on education and that schools should ensure that all get an equal education.

In all of this debate, the focal point was the teacher. The Carnegie Report placed great emphasis on teachers as crucial in any educational reform:

> The focus of schooling must shift from teaching to learning, from the passive acquisition of facts and routines to the active application of ideas and problems. The transition makes the role of the teacher more important, not less (p. 25).

The Carnegie Report suggested several ways to improve teacher quality, teacher accountability, and teacher satisfaction thus enhancing, as they saw it, teacher productivity. According to the report, teachers have become cynical (p. 26) since they see few changes in the things that really matter to them. But this is not peculiar to American teachers. Jamaican teachers have

become restive and cynical, too, as promised reforms had not taken place.

The profession was an aging one (p. 31) and the problem of recruiting quality teachers must be faced. Unless teaching as a career was made more attractive, young people would not be attracted to teaching. Teaching has to be seen as a profession in which experts enjoy a high degree of autonomy (p. 36).

Teachers, the authors said:

> . . . work in an environment suffused with bureaucracy. Rules made by others govern their behavior at every turn. . . . Decisions made by curriculum supervisors, teacher training experts, outside consultants and authors of teachers' guides determine how a teacher is to teach (p. 39).

The comment by the writers of The Carnegie Report was crucial to an understanding of why some teachers were accused of teaching to the test and why others were said to label some children as unable to learn. Mehrens (1982) said that it was occasionally argued that teachers used low aptitude test scores as an excuse for not teaching some students. Mehrens believed that while this might be true of some teachers there was little evidence that the attitudes of teachers toward their students were unduly influenced by test results (p. 140); but he agreed that aptitude tests were biased against the socially deprived.

Strenio (1983) affirmed that when test scores were published for school districts that teachers, in self-defense, felt compelled to teach to the tests (p. 276). Strenio saw test subjects gaining precedence over school curriculum and having undue influence over students, parents and the general public. Teachers worried about the impact of test scores on the children and their own reputations. A bad teacher can be hidden behind a good class while an excellent teacher who has gained much with a class of slow learners might be unfairly attacked (p. 177). Strenio saw standardized tests as measuring only a few specific sub-skills for the tests are passive measurements which preclude the use of the imagination. Subjects such as art and music, among others, cannot be assessed in a multiple choice item and students tended to feel that these were unimportant since they were not tested. A poor scorer may become a self-fulfilling prophecy as he tended to "live down" to expectations of failure. "The child and teacher may both give in to the inevitability of the child's continued poor performance, thus making that prediction a reality" (p. 278).

A more positive view was taken by Ebel (1983) and Inlow who both saw teachers in a different light.

Ebel said that a competent teacher will discern the causes of low achievement and devise remedies. In regard to teaching to the test, he felt that if teachers were evaluated on the achievement of their student in external tests they would teach to the test. But this occurred if teachers felt that what the test asked was important in the judgment of many expert teachers. Wise teaching to the test:

> . . . involves teaching that ought to be done whether the tests are given or not. Wise teaching to the test does not give pupils the answers to particular questions which happen to appear on the test. If such information is available to the teacher before the testing, the results of the test are not to be trusted. Wise teaching to the test helps pupils to acquire knowledge and develop skills that will enable them to answer any question in the expected test. Teaching to the test can be, and ought to be, educationally productive and beneficial (Ebel, p. 272).

Inlow (1970) viewed the maturing teacher as capable of pursuing a course that proceeded from "self to others, from a restricted to an enriched environment, and from a naive to a sophisticated interpretation of life" (p. 15). Although Inlow noted the danger in the use of test scores by some administrators as teachers' rating devices, and that this encouraged teachers to teach for the tests at the expense of the curriculum

(p. 331), it was hoped that the maturing teacher was aware of this problem.

This section has given a broad view of tests in general. It should also specify, however, that unlike the United States of America, with the possible exception of the New York Regents' examination, the Caribbean countries used criterion referenced tests. Standardized, normative, tests have been criticized for not measuring specific skills a pupil mastered but placed him relative to other pupils in society. The criterion referenced test, on the other hand, indicated the pupil's accomplishment in specified areas. These tests related to specific goals and subject matter of a course (Averch, Carnoll, Donaldson, Kiesling, Pincus 1972). The examinations taken by the pupils in the Caribbean, like the British Examinations, assessed whether pupils have covered the relevant subject matter and to what level. As Avench et al. stated:

> The purpose of a criterion referenced test is to indicate a student's status on a set of specific tasks necessary for the completion of a course of instruction. The test not only assesses his accomplishments but is also used to determine what tasks the student is ready to undertake. . . . Their greatest potential value is that they focus on instructional content, yield information for remediation, and allow for individual differences in performance (pp. 27-28).

Examinations and tests have deleterious effects on many students. They do not take into account the individual's state of health or mind at the time of testing. A pupil might be above average in his own environment but when tested in a different environment with different types of tests this pupil could be considered below normal in intelligence. This was even more true of the pass/fail concept where a young person's whole future was made or marred by one examination. McIntosh (1970) said that:

> The pass/fail examination is a weak measuring instrument because all measurements of human ability are approximate and to use an examination to distinguish between a pupil who scores 50 and is awarded a "pass" and another who scores 49 and is awarded a "fail" assumes a degree of accuracy which is beyond the resources of a written examination (p. 1).

McIntosh viewed the objective tests as a technique which had been successfully developed to overcome the unreliability of examinations (p. 4) but Paul King (1985) said that:

> CXC recognizes the criticism that . . . objective-tests do not permit the assessment of certain important higher-level abilities . . . a major limitation of objective-tests; therefore none of its examinations depends entirely on scores achieved in a multiple-choice examination (p. 17).

In countries such as France, Britain and the Caribbean region, the essay type tests will remain an

integral part of testing procedures. The traditional view that pupils must demonstrate skill in written expression and the use of higher cognitive skills ensured the retention of essay tests. The validity of the multiple-choice had always been questioned by teachers in Jamaica, for example, but this dislike seemed to be lessening and objective tests will become more widely used as time passes. Paul King, in defense of the objective test, reminded us that:

> The first important advantage is implied by the name given to the type of test-"objective". It is so termed because the scoring is objective: that is, a student's score does not depend upon the subjective evaluation of any examiner. There is no necessity, therefore, as may be in the case of an essay-examination to interpret what the student may or may not have intended. Nor can the examiner be exposed to the possibility of being unduly influenced by the amount of writing, nor by the facility with which the student writes (p. 17).

King (1985) pointed out the restrictions imposed on the amount that can be tested in any subject area with only essay questions. The objective tests gave a more comprehensive and fairer coverage of the syllabus. Thus CXC employed both the free response mode and objective tests in the examination of English.

Gladstone Holder (1985) expressed his view about objective tests which he saw as a "jettisoning of educational values" for:

> there is no doubt that testing methods strongly influence teaching methods and the educational shortcomings of the multiple-choice test ought to ring alarm bells about what is NOT happening in the classroom: the young child is not being taught to express its own thoughts and perceptions in its own words (p. 21).

If a proper perspective on the effects of examinations and their influence on education was to be achieved then immediate and in-depth research should be undertaken. Areas to be explored should include the effects of socio-economic differences in attitudes to tests and education generally; attitudes to essay type tests in contrast with multiple-choice and the influences of variables such as stress and anxiety on achievement.

THE BRITISH EXAMINATION SYSTEM AND ITS EFFECTS ON CURRICULUM IN JAMAICAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Jervier (1976) observed that:

> In democratic societies the educational patterns reflect many ideals of democracy. When a society is a colony its culture demonstrates many features, ideas, ideals, and methods of operation which arise from its relationship with an imperial power. The education offered in colonial societies may be described as colonial education (p. 20).

The adaptations of the British system of education, and therefore curricula more suited to the metropolis, was always a feature of the British West Indian islands. An overview of the British Examinations was, therefore,

necessary for an understanding of the heritage of the Jamaican system.

King (1977), Baron (1965), Halls (1970), and Gross (1965) had all commented on the system of secondary education in Britain and the elitism that had traditionally been maintained through education. Holton (1982) noted that:

> In Europe at the time of American Colonization, there was a clear delineation of social classes. This was reflected in the process of education. The children of the masses were taught only the rudiments of reading and writing, morality, and a useful occupation. The gentry were separately educated as gentlemen with a knowledge of Latin and Greek (p. 1684).

The assumption existed that certain knowledge and academic skills were the prerogatives of those children destined for high level professions. This knowledge was gained from books especially of a classical nature and was assessed by examinations. The upper and middle classes had no real need to apply themselves to any but theoretical studies, as the more practical subjects, work with the hands, were reserved for the lower or working class. The public school system was maintained by the two upper groups in society. The public school aided in the class structure by its organization and the type of curriculum offered.

Education and societal structures were irrevocably linked since different educational systems were devised for different sections of society. Money, family background and traditions, and social status determined whether a child received a classical education or not. King (1977) noted that while the American public school system, the comprehensive high schools, enabled a pupil to move through to higher education and a profession of his choice, the British system precluded this movement. Formerly a pupil in Britain could only achieve the highest goal if he had been lucky enough to attend a grammar school, and access to these schools was reserved for a minority. The majority of children from the lower class were instructed in the three R's in the elementary schools until age 12 when their education ceased.

The concept that secondary education was confined to a few select academic subjects came into being with the Regulations for Secondary Schools issued in 1904. These regulations "shaped the English understanding of secondary education" by stressing "literary and scientific studies at the virtual exclusion of those of an aesthetic or practical character" (Baron, 1965, pp. 101-102). Secondary school

curricula were further shaped and influenced by the requirements of the universities which stressed ability in English subjects in languages, mathematics and the sciences. Baron stated that:

> until the age of 15 or 16 it is normal for a boy or girl to enter upon the first stages of the major subjects studied in the universities, that is, one or more classical or foreign languages, mathematics, history and geography and one or more sciences (p. 104).

In addition to the core of academic subjects, religious instruction, physical education and courses in music, art, domestic science for girls and woodwork for boys were given, which broadened the curriculum. At the completion of the fifth form year the student had to sit for the General Certificate of Education at Ordinary level in six to eight or nine of these subjects. If he were highly successful in five or more subjects he was qualified for entry to the prestigious sixth form (grades 12-13) where he studied for a further two years toward acceptance to a university. At the sixth form level the student prepared for the Advanced level (A/L) examination in three subjects in addition to the General Paper. The student usually chose either the arts or sciences although recently students have been allowed a combination of arts and sciences (Baron, 1965; Halls, 1970).

Gross saw the "near tutorial approach in the sixth form years 16 to 18 year-olds," where they were "cultivated like rare hot-house plants" (p. 557) as expensive but effective. He considered that the "university-bound sixth-former is unusually well prepared for the particular, although often quite narrow, subject in which he will read during his subsequent three years of higher education" (p. 557).

In 1964 the then Ministry of Education, now the Department of Education and Science, set up the Schools Council for the Curricula and Examinations. This council began research into the objectives for education and made some concrete proposals for reform. "The Schools Council has come forward with proposals for reform that are still a subject for debate" (Halls, 1970).

The Norwood Report of 1943, discussed by Gross (1965) and King (1977), had untold influence on the classification of pupils and what they were expected to accomplish academically. Norwood's report on Curriculum and Examination in Secondary Schools was a most controversial document, since he proposed the theory of three categories of children. In the first category were the academic, those interested in learning for the

sake of learning and who could grasp arguments and follow connected reasoning. The second category was the technically able whose abilities lay in the field of applied science or applied art. These had insight into the intricacies of mechanism but could not cope with the subtleties of language. The third category comprised those who were good with their hands and found it easy to deal with the concrete (King, p. 79; Gross, pp. 20-27).

The Eleven Plus examination seemed to reinforce this view by Norwood. Gross saw it as "invidious" and a real curse of British education as many young people were not given the opportunities they should have received (p. 572). King said that:

> The socially selective eleven-plus exam means that middle-class children are over-represented in the grammar schools, and the social class differences in the rates of staying on lead to their being even more over-represented in the sixth forms (p. 77).

The fact that this examination relied heavily on acquired knowledge militated against the poorer classes and could be seen as culturally biased (Eysenck, 1981). Eysenck's explanation was that the educationalists who put the Eleven Plus examination together, and who constructed similar tests in other countries. . .

> prefer such a test to a pure test of fluid ability because it draws on a mixture of pure intelligence and acquired knowledge which gives a better prediction of academic achievement (p. 30).

According to Eysenck this examination was discontinued because prediction was not perfect. The tests were severely criticized since the tests did not have much to do with prediction of intelligence.

Reorganization of the British educational system was urgently needed if every child would get equal opportunity especially in the area of examinations. The general concensus seemed to be that neither the School Certificate and Higher School Certificate introduced in 1917 nor the General Certificate of Education of 1947 satisfied the needs of all the children in the 16 to 18 age cohort. Bruce (1969) pointed out that the policymakers of the 1947 reforms:

> In framing the GCE as a subject examination. . . imagined that the candidates would have much more freedom of choice of subjects. . . but many users of examination results demanded English language, a foreign language and mathematics, so that they have remained a compulsory core for most candidates (p. 6).

It was not until the Crowther Report (1959) and the Beloe Report (1960) made recommendations that an examination system be set up for children below the "0"

level ability that action was taken (King, 1977). But even this action categorized the children as inferior.

The Certificate of Secondary Education (CSE) was introduced in 1965. As King said: "The coming of the CSE created a new category of pupils in the schools: the non-examinees" (p. 79). The CSE was administered by regional boards with teacher representation. The highest grade was the equivalent of a pass in the External GCE at ordinary level. Despite the effort to save the children the rigor of the GCE, many schools allowed them to take the external examinations as a chance at success. Most of the children who sat for the internal CSE attended the secondary, modern and comprehensive high schools both of which were viewed as inferior to the traditional high schools. Jervier (1976) gave an overview of European models of education and how this colonial education affected the systems in the former colonial territories (pp. 20-37).

The British system of education has had lasting effects on the Jamaican education system. While the Eleven Plus examination had been abolished in England, that examination, also termed the Common Entrance Examination, was used in Jamaica as the means of selection for pupils to attend secondary schools.

Jervier (1976), who wrote at a time when numbers were relatively small, said that "The Common Entrance Examination dramatizes a traumatic transition from elementary to secondary school," (p. 64). Although 70 percent of the available places were reserved for pupils from the primary schools, the competition for limited places eliminated most pupils in the age range in these schools. As Jervier stated:

> The underlying rationale and objective of this examination was not essentially a Jamaican formulation. Conceptually, the Jamaican Common Entrance Examination is an English selection system adopted in some detail and exported to Jamaica. . . Jamaica also accepts the English explanation that small countries with limited resources must identify, as quickly as possible, the intellectual elite group (p. 64).

Jervier also realized that this examination presented "pupils with a stern, irrevocable and fundamental career decision at the age of 11" (p. 65). The Common Entrance was crucial, as Miller (1976) and King (1979) pointed out, because the examinations maintained the social composition of the high schools. The introduction of the 70/30 ratio in favor of the primary schools had little effect since those children who did best were from middle class homes with all the educational amenities. Parents who could afford high fees also sent their children, from age four years, to

private preparatory schools where numbers were much smaller and opportunities correspondingly greater for learning. The children who got the free places to high schools were predominately middle and upper class. As King (1979) said:

> Under these circumstances it cannot be said that there exists equal educational opportunities for all children. As long as secondary education remains a scarce service, the ideal of equal educational opportunities must remain largely illusory (p. 53).

As in the case of the English Eleven Plus examination, the Jamaican Common Entrance maintained the status quo and militated against the majority of the age group who were ready for secondary schooling.

Finlay (1984) emphasized the influences of British educational systems on Jamaica in chapter four of his dissertation. For the high schools:

> modeled (especially the older ones) on the English Public schools, prestige was of great importance in selecting staff and students, since their ultimate purpose was simply the education of leaders. As happens so often in the wholesale adoption of aspects of a foreign system, Jamaican secondary schools far outdid England in the rigidity of the selection process (p. 168).

As in Britain, where teachers' training was equated with their social class and, therefore, where the teacher taught, in Jamaica teachers do not have to possess a university degree to teach at the primary or lower

levels of the secondary school. This meant that "old-type secondary schools were traditionally better staffed. . .". Over 66 percent of their teachers. . . were graduates, while in the New Secondary schools the ratio tended to be less than two graduates per school" (Murray, 1979). Murray described the "unsoundness" of the curricula but said that changes had been made, for example:

> classical studies have long lost pride of place, and in 1976 only 47 Jamaicans entered for Latin in the Cambridge examinations. . . No candidate took Greek; Science, mathematics, and geography English language and literature, West Indian history, and social studies form the core of the studies (p. 61).

The function of the high schools in Jamaica, like the English grammar schools, was primarily to prepare students to enter English universities (Jervier, 1965). The curricula had been formal and subject instead of pupil-oriented, with little room for individual experimentation. The General Certificate of Education at Ordinary level determined who went on to the Sixth form and preparation for university abroad. Since 1948 students had been prepared for the University of the West Indies. The sixth form was an exact replica of the English model. Those children who failed to reach the Advanced level often went to work and attended evening

classes in order to meet the entry requirements of tertiary institutions. Jamaican education will be dealt with more fully in Chapter III.

THE CARIBBEAN EXAMINATIONS COUNCIL (CXC) AND ITS IMPLICATIONS FOR CURRICULUM PLANNING IN JAMAICAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Background

The Caribbean Examinations Council emerged out of the need in the region for an examination more in keeping with the aspirations of the Caribbean peoples. The idea was first proposed by the Caribbean Association of Headmasters and Headmistresses during the 1950's and endorsed by the Caribbean Heads of Government in 1964. The association of heads of secondary schools was concerned that the English General Certificate of Education did not effectively deal with the cultural problems of the region. In addition to this, the examination assessed only a fraction of the school leaving population. The proposal of a West Indian examination was well received by most "teachers and representatives of ministries of Education and Education Departments" (Information on the Caribbean Examinations Council, 1978, p. 2). By January 1973, the CXC, was formally launched at the site of its headquarters in

Barbados. Before the launching of CXC, as early as 1971, R. N. Murray, Chairman of the Meeting of Commonwealth Caribbean Education Officials and University Representatives, reported the recommendation of the meeting in relationship to setting up of the examinations Council. It recommended:

> that the Faculty of Education of the University of the West Indies and the Faculty of Education of the University of Guyana should be requested to set up a Regional Study Group to work along with territorial syllabus committees and subject panels in dealing with such vital educational questions as the rationale of the transfer to a Caribbean Examinations, the Philosophy that should underlie new examination syllabuses, alternative styles of examinations that might be appropriate to the Caribbean school system, and the avoidance of the domination of school courses by university entrance requirements (p. 6).

The Caribbean Examinations Council Report for 1973-74 specified the goals and objective of the Council. The major goal was: "the replacement of the existing ordinary level overseas General Certificate of Education examinations by a Caribbean Secondary School leaving examination" (p. 5). Several meetings took place to discuss and effect plans for the new examinations. The Council was not merely taking over the running of the British examinations but would

> replace those examinations in both form and content by others which had direct bearing on the achievement of the national goals of the Commonwealth Caribbean (Information on the CXC, p. 2).

The task CXC set itself seemed unrealistic given the differences in the region, yet the CXC group saw itself endeavoring to satisfy the region's educational assessment and evaluation needs even as it preserved the individual characteristics of each contributing country. The Chairman of the CXC Council, Dr. Dennis Irvine, specified the nature of some of the problems the Council would face:

> . . . one of the major problems facing the Caribbean Examinations Council is trying to encourage national development simultaneous with Caribbean integration. Due to the different stages of development and the varying ideologies of Caribbean territories it has been difficult to formulate plans which do not conflict with national development (Information on CXC, p. 4).

The Council would have far more problems to solve before the examinations became reality. Among these problems were the training of teachers to understand the aims and objectives of CXC and to train them as markers, and item writers. The group of countries separated by long stretches of sea also had to be taken into consideration. CXC had to decide how the marking exercises had to be organized, and had to get

the approval from the various ministries of education in all the participating countries for teachers to be relieved from schools early in July.

The greatest problem, however, was how to write examinations to satisfy parents, the general public and institutions of higher learning, and to make them realistic in terms of the region's needs. The very fact that the examinations would be "local" would immediately lower their standard for a majority of people (Boothe, 1978).

The process of change was slow and people on the whole do not welcome anything that will disturb their well-ordered existence. CXC was, therefore, viewed with suspicion and with cynicism. It was local, therefore the Council could not be as good as the British examinations and, furthermore, it would not last. In an effort to allay the fears of the skeptics, CXC repeatedly emphasized the point that the new examination would be equivalent to the outgoing Cambridge O/L examination and that Britain was working closely with the Council in the initiation of the CXC. (See CXC Regulations, 1983, p. 5; CXC Fact Sheet, pp. 9-10; CXC The Examination System, 1984, pp. 5-7; CXC and the Employer, 1983, p. 3; CXC and the Candidate,

1983, p. 6.) The Council had to ensure that the standards of the examinations would be such as to satisfy even the most pessimistic critics.

At a meeting of Caribbean Ministers of Education at CARICOM Headquarters in Georgetown, Guyana, in January, 1974, the Council not only reiterated the interest of the Cambridge University Local Examinations Syndicate but advised that:

> The aim is to provide certificates with international currency for the Caribbean school leaver and eventually to extend operations to meet other specific examination or testing needs in the Caribbean in respect of both the public and private sectors for persons below and above school-leaving age.
>
> The Council is mindful of the magnitude of the task and hopes that the deliberate attempt to involve active educators and educationalists in its work will prove fruitful (p. 9).

Examinations

The CXC was designated for pupils who had completed five years of secondary education. The tests were administered at two levels, a General Proficiency level and a Basic Proficiency level. The General Proficiency could be equated with the General Certificate of Education (GCE). The general proficiency level required a "sufficient breadth of knowledge and depth of understanding. . . to allow candidates who respond well to undertake study of the specific subject

of examination beyond the fifth year of secondary school (Fact Sheet pp. 7-8; CXC Regulation, 1983, p. 5). The Basic Proficiency provided for the candidates who

> (1) will subsequently pursue further studies in areas not related to the subject and who may be tempted to drop the subject at the end of the fourth year or earlier to concentrate their energies elsewhere. At present such students have no qualification to show for three or four years work which furthermore comes to an abrupt conclusion often in mid-course. . .
>
> (2) at the moment are entered for O level subject without any real prospect of gaining a moderate grade or who for this reason are advised not to enter. The reduced scope of the Basic Proficiency syllabus and/or the concentration of the Basic Proficiency on the fundamentals of the syllabus, should provide such candidates with a more realistic target (CXC Regulations, 1983, p. 5; Fact Sheet, pp. 7-8).

The Council stipulated an Examining Committee of three persons for each subject and question papers were written by these persons under the supervision of a Chief Examiner and with the "technical advice from a CXC staff member from the Council's Measurement and Evaluation Division" (The Examination System, p. 3). Practicing teachers were invited to send in suitable prose passages, poems and multiple choice items for the "bank." From these the Examining Committee often found suitable material. All multiple-choice items were tested before use by the technical staff but most

teachers who supplied these items had been specially "trained in psychometric techniques under the CIDA and USAID Technical Assistance Program." The complete question papers, free-response and multiple-choice papers, were sent to two external Moderators (one an educator in the Caribbean, the other a GCE "O" level Chief Examiner), who were invited to scrutinize the paper and comment on:

(i) syllabus coverage
(ii) adherence to specifications
(iii) difficulty level
(iv) range of skills and abilities tested
(v) length of paper
(vi) clarity of questions
(vii) standard of paper

When finalized, the examination question papers were printed in the United Kingdom by a firm of security printers (The Examination System, p. 3).

There was no upper age limit for a person taking the CXC but the Regulations specify that candidates should have completed five years of secondary schooling and be 16 by 31st December of the year in which the examination was taken. Entrants were expected to have completed the syllabus requirements before taking the CXC. Private candidates may take the examinations but could not sit for those subjects with school Based Assessment Components. The exceptions were those

candidates who were re-sitting subjects for which they sat the year before at their secondary schools. The examinations usually began in mid-May and continued through toward the end of June and the results were sent to the schools by the first week in September. Certificates were ready by the end of the current year of the examination.

The certificates showed the candidate's performance in the examination as set out:

GRADE 1 -- The candidate had a comprehensive working knowledge of the syllabus.

GRADE 2 -- The candidate had a working knowledge of most aspects of the syllabus.

GRADE 3 -- The candidate had a working knowledge of some aspects of the syllabus.

GRADE 4 -- The candidate had a limited knowledge of a few aspects of the syllabus, and

GRADE 5 -- The candidate had not produced sufficient evidence on which to base a judgment.

The profile grades as well as the types of proficiency tested were also recorded on the certificate as follows: A - Above average; B - Average; C - Below average; N/A - No assessment possible (CXC Regulations,

1983, p. 20). A list of the CXC subjects and their profiles may be seen in Appendix E.

The essay or free response questions were marked by teachers throughout the Caribbean. Markers were usually teachers with more than two years teaching experience in the subject at the secondary school level and had at least a first degree. Exceptions had been made but with great scrutiny from those CXC officers with the responsibility of recruiting markers. As far as possible markers were not permitted to mark scripts from their schools or their country. The chief examiners in each subject area were responsible for preparing marking schemes for each question. "The aim is to ensure that all members of the examining team responsible for marking a paper use the same methods of assessment and adopt a common standard which is fair to all candidates (Fact Sheet, p. 9).

Conflicting Views on the CXC

The Jamaican people, as mentioned earlier, had a great deal to say for and against the new examination. Many expressed skepticism with regard to the future of the examination. The Daily News editorial of April 5, 1977 entitled "Why the Outcry Now Over CEC Exams" (CEC later changed to CXC) reviewed all the problems as the

problems appeared then. Teachers expressed dissatisfaction with the syllabi, especially in the sciences. Teachers were not sure whether they should continue teaching the GCE syllabus or switch to CXC. They thought the CXC syllabus too difficult and called for "modification in both content and in the topics." Geography teachers also wanted modifications in syllabi. The editor summed up the situation as he saw it.

> For something as important as examinations it seems to me that the proposed CEC syllabuses did not get sufficient input from the people who will be involved in teaching the subjects.

There was lack of communication and therefore lack of understanding. The article, "All is not well with Caribbean exams" by a staff writer in the Daily Gleaner, April 17, 1977, stated that only St. Kitts had said it would let its students do the CXC to the exclusion of the GCE but said the writer, "The big ones--Trinidad and Jamaica, and Barbados, have remained strangely silent." These countries were reluctant to let the candidates leave the known for the unknown. By May, however, the Minister of Education in Jamaica had decided that it was optional for schools to enter candidates for the CXC examinations in 1979 and 1980 (The Daily Gleaner, May 2, 1977).

The Daily News editorial Sunday, October 23, 1977 stated that:

> There are many reasons why we need the CXC exams . . . . The amount of money leaving the Caribbean countries like Jamaica to pay for exams is one of the things that has made them urgent.

The article went on to point out the dissatisfaction with foreign-marked examinations which did not consider cultural, geographical and linguistic variables. The writer thought that CXC was overly ambitious in its undertaking and ended with questioning whether the whole system could not be simplified and some innovations postponed. Claudine Booth (1978) was positive about the new examinations as she explained some of the goals of CXC. She said:

> One of the objectives of the CXC is to make it extremely difficult and even impossible for a student to go through the Secondary School system and leave without some certification as is now the case in many instances (The Star, July 12, 1978).

Phyllis Reynolds, teacher of history, thought that:

> A commendable aspect of the CXC is that the student will be assessed in history . . . over a two-year period . . . no longer will the child's whole future be dashed because he did badly in a one-shot examination (The Star, September 27, 1978).

Dr. Dennis Irvine (1978), chairman of the Caribbean Examinations Council, expressed the view that the "lack of confidence was a main reason for some territories expressing second thoughts." This Daily News headline "Lack of confidence hurting CXC--Irvine" (October 11, 1978) again sparked off a spate of letters to the newspapers. One satisfied observation was made by the Guyanese Minister of Education when he said: "We are ahead of the British in that we have already recognized that the GCE was an inadequate examination." This comment by the Guyanese Minister was quoted by The Daily Cleaner on November 10, 1978, from the Georgetown CANA news.

When the examination started and marking was being done "in secrecy" at the Jamaica Pegasus, Ruddock (1979) noted that: ". . . it is understood that moderators from Cambridge are also here, working closely with the CXC examiners (Daily News, Sunday, July 29, 1979). Tull (1979) congratulated the Council on the smooth and professional manner in which the inaugural examinations were conducted but enjoined CXC to practice realism in some of its programs. For example, he said:

> . . . the CXC panel in agriculture recommended an acre of land to be provided for every 30 pupils. You can understand my position when I am encouraging agriculture for all students in secondary schools.

The excerpt was taken from an address made by the Barbados Minister of Education at the opening session of the ninth annual meeting of CXC and reported by the Jamaica Daily News on Tuesday, November 20, 1979 and also The Sunday Gleaner on November 25, 1979. Minister Tull expressed the sentiments of many, that CXC demanded too much from everyone in the region. The rationale seemed to have been that being new, CXC had had to prove its worth.

Another topic of debate was whether CXC really represented a change in perspective. W. V. Chambers (1980) asserted that "CXC is only a neo-colonialist upgrading of the old reliance on testing as education" (The Sunday Gleaner, April 13, 1980). Washington (1980), a teacher, agreed with him in this respect adding that:

> the GCE examination was imposed upon us by the mother country as a means of furthering British cultural imperialism. Students sat overseas exams based on syllabuses largely out of context in the West Indies but which would ideally fit them into British society were it not for their skin colour.

But, continued Washington, "The CXC is unlike the GCE in many significant ways. Washington noted the differences.

> . . . In the first place the former is a Caribbean examination body (within the West Indian situation) manned by highly qualified West Indians conversant with the region, its culture, its needs, problems, etc., in a way that metropolitan examiners just could never completely identify with.
>
> Another important difference is that the CXC exams are more reliable than GCE exams for evaluating candidates' knowledge and academic skills. In history, for instance, where the Cambridge Syndicate uses one essay type question paper to test the candidates' knowledge of the wide expanse of the syllabus, CXC uses the essay type question in addition to a multiple choice paper and a form of continuous assessment which enables students to score marks toward their final grade (The Daily Gleaner, Monday, April 28, 1980).

The question of international recognition was another matter of debate and many parents insisted that their children do both examinations rather than rely on the acceptability of CXC. The Daily News, September 10, 1980 announced in headlines, "CXC now recognized in UK, USA, Canada." The article assured candidates that according to "CXC western zone office, the general proficiency examinations have been recognized as being equivalent to 'O' level" by the two regional universities--the University of The West Indies and the University of Guyana--as well as "O" level examining

boards in the United Kingdom and the university admission offices in the USA and Canada. Further good news was presented that a limited number of Basic Proficiency exams would be accepted as supporting qualifications for satisfying matriculation by the University of the West Indies and the "Joint Matriculation Board (of the universities of Manchester, Leeds, Sheffield and Birmingham)." The National Council on Evaluation of Foreign Students' Credentials in the USA accepted two subjects at Basic Proficiency grades and one or two as equivalent to certification at General Proficiency. Roy Burke (1983), a student, saw CXC as having gained recognition over the years and "acceptance both abroad and at home," but he saw the high cost of the examination denying "thousands of students both at secondary and high schools the opportunity of taking the exams" (Daily News, Saturday, March 26, 1983).

The new examinations created doubts and fears, but also hope and faith in the Caribbean peoples. The purpose of this study was to gather data on the CXC so that some of these issues would be answered. The present perceptions of the teachers should indicate how others feel about this examination after nearly 10 years

in existence. Had CXC lived up to the expectations of the optimists or the pessimists?

The English Syllabus (Language)

Humphress (1981) stated that:

> The inclusive nature of English contributes both to its lack of definition and to its prominence in the curriculum. English is further regarded as significant because of its long-range effects (p. 5).

Humphress studied three models of English: the Academic, the Industrial, and the British. She discussed the dilemma faced by teachers of English because of the different goals, different approaches, and divergent theories involved in the subject. She saw the three models performing different functions and fulfilling the needs of different groups. The curriculum of the academic model was knowledge centered and oriented toward the higher cognitive skills of the student "who is able to use knowledge as an agent for predicting, controlling, and ordering chaos" (p. 24).

The industrial model she saw as being functional and epitomized the needs of the world of work of the 1970's. This view would also include the decade of the 1980's. The academic model was, she said, challenged by the industrial model which:

> views education's primary aim as the cultivation of certain demonstrable acts and skills in the learner. Knowledge, therefore, finds its definition in acts, in operations. . .
>
> This skill-centered curriculum, emphasizing evaluative and measuring techniques, alerted a public who questioned whether its children were receiving a proper education and who clamored to see the results of the educator's work (p. 52).

The industrial model advocated practical education in English with a bias toward vocational training. While this model would not ignore literature, the emphasis in classroom instruction would be on contemporary writing, especially that found in newspapers, financial journals and magazines. Such activities as "telephone conversations, informal discussions, writing notes and memos would be part of the English curriculum".

The third, the British model, stressed "humanness and individual fulfillment" (p. 81). The curriculum based on this model, said Humphress, "stresses self-expression and personal growth. . . is built around a relaxed series of activities, which emphasize the creative uses of language" (p. 81). The methods used by the teachers of English utilized "imaginative and creative writing, improvisational drama, personal response to literature, and informal classroom talking" (p. 84). The writing of "essays and short answers was stressed over objective questions."

Humphress compared the British system with the American system and concluded that while Americans laid stress on "grammar study or grammatical nomenclature, on linguistic history or on varieties of English usage," the British teachers thought that a student "would develop effectiveness through practicing various kinds of writing and speaking. . ." (p. 87). Humphress also noted, however, that the British teachers in the upper level of the secondary schools de-emphasized this method when examinations were approaching. This approach was a drastic change, however, from the teaching to the tests that was traditional in British education.

The Caribbean examinations syllabus in English A (English Language) may be viewed as a composite of all three models identified by Humphress. The change in the British concept of what constituted a worthwhile curriculum in English seemed also to have influenced the developers of the CXC syllabus. The three primary goals stated in the CXC syllabus may be compared with the three models of English. They are:

(i) an emphasis on the student's ability to use English language effectively to communicate his ideas, to read and listen and to respond to drama and the various forms of literature with understanding and discrimination.

(ii) the provision of opportunities to use the full range of practical language skills required in everyday life and to appreciate the differences in language registers, codes and styles appropriate to different social contexts. Particularly, it will provide opportunities for students to recognize what the place of regional dialects is in social intercourse.

(iii) a concern for deepening the student's imaginative and emotional responses to and through language and literature as well as for increasing awareness of ideas and values through language. The programme must also provide further stimulus to read literature for the personal satisfaction and growth that literature offers (Syllabus for the Examinations in English, 1982, p. 1).

The syllabus reminded teachers that the above outline "reaffirms the concept that language and literature are not two discrete subjects but an inseparable whole." The teaching program was expected to have an integrated approach to teaching English. Although there was a separate literature examination, the English language examination paper contained a literature component.

The stated English language goals, according to the syllabus, prepared the individual for his vocational pursuits, his activities as a citizen, and his social/ cultural recreational interests. A person needed to use language skills and insights to:

(i) acquire and communicate factual information;
(ii) discriminate between and evaluate views and opinions expressed by others;
(iii) express personal views rationally and persuasively;
(iv) communicate personal experience and insight; and
(v) enjoy and derive satisfaction from language used in the various art forms to communicate penetrative insights into human experience (p. 1).

According to Janet Johnson (1987)

> . . . Perhaps the most important decision, because of its far-reaching implications, was that the syllabus and examinations would be used as tools to bring about a continuous upgrading of the language arts teaching skills of Caribbean teachers.

Johnson made special mention of the protest by the teachers of English against the compulsory short story which candidates had to write in the examination. With the teachers' effort and the challenge to the students' imaginations, "every year some students are able to produce stories of remarkable quality - so that the Council decided to publish a selection of the best stories" (p. 3). Johnson said that "Tribute should be paid to the students who respond to the challenge of these new exams by producing work of a higher standard than was ever elicited by the GCE 'O' level syllabus (p. 8).

Teachers of English

Krug (1972) summed up the task of the teachers of English in most secondary schools. They were still:

> involved in the teaching of literature, composition, grammar, drama, speech, reading, journalism, creative writing, business English, debating, literary criticism. . . Many English teachers do not know what they will be teaching until the day that school starts. . .
>
> Who are the paragons who are able to undertake such an awesome variety of teaching tasks? Usually they are people with a little work beyond a bachelor's degree in English. . . (p. 9).

Many educators agreed with Krug's view of the English teacher. This view had not changed significantly as English incorporated all the elements mentioned by him. The language of a country is the means of communication and where the national language of a country is spoken mainly by the educated there were usually problems for the English teacher. All the countries of the British Caribbean recognized English as the universal language but each had its peculiar dialect, vernacular or creole. Often teachers had to ignore correctness in order to encourage expression of the student's experience (Dixon, 1966 and Humphress, 1981).

Young (1985), in his paper entitled "Belize Creole: A National Language?" discussed the advantages and disadvantages of elevating Belize Creole to the

national language. One problem was the old colonial ethos, which believed that whatever came from the metropolitan country was superior to the indigenous culture. As he saw it:

> Even the "best" usage of highly educated Belizeans was measured against the yardstick of British standard English and was found to be not merely different in many ways, but, where different, inferior (p. 10).

There were numerous problems militating against any Caribbean country wishing to upgrade its creole to standard usage. Among these problems were the cost of producing books, dictionaries, changing the alphabet and the acceptance of the language as a language of communication in the wider society. What Caribbean countries did was to recognize that the local dialect was an integral aspect of society and should be respected. Many people learned several languages so there was no reason why standard English could not co-exist with creole. Medina (1982) made the point that:

> The language which children are required to use in school is good ENGLISH. English is more than a good subject. It pervades every avenue of our teaching. The fact that we do not conscientiously connect both the local language and the language of instruction with nearly everything else that happens in school, is to deny a child that has already developed his language, even if he is slow, the full and speedy growth of which he is capable. . . .

> There has been a long history of intolerance toward the Trinidad vernacular and the Tobago vernacular, local dialects and nonstandard forms. Whereas linguists would simply call these forms different "language," many people, including teachers, have labelled them as "incorrect," "undesirable" and "bad English" (p. 24).

Medina stated that although there was more knowledge available now than ever before about the importance of language in learning and that there was valuable and reliable research in "Creole," linguistics teachers were slow to change their attitudes. He saw an ambivalence in the approach to creole in the classroom by both teachers and parents. This posed a real problem in the Caribbean and one with which the teacher of English had to cope.

Dixon (1966) was correct in suggesting that a teacher had to understand the process in the development of the mastery of language. This understanding sharpened the teacher's awareness of a "pupil's potentialities, problems and limitations" (p. 30). Julie Jensen (1982) supported Dixon's view and added that the "roots of language lie outside the school." She felt that the classroom was one of many places where language continued on its life-long course. Teachers should be more concerned with language experience than with the study of language since language grew from use (p. 570).

Medley (1982) said that:

> . . . The role of the classroom teacher in education is central. The teacher is, after all, the point of contact between the educational system and the pupil: the impact of any educational program or innovation on the pupil operates through the pupil's teacher. It is, therefore, quite accurate to say that a school's effectiveness depends directly on the effectiveness of its teachers (p. 1894).

Medley's assessment of the role of the teacher was vital to an understanding of what this meant to developing nations with new examinations. The success of the CXC depended on the attitudes of the teachers. Each year CXC sent comprehensive reports on each subject taken in the examinations to each school. The 1982 report on the English A examination stated that the work of the candidates showed general improvement in the standard of writing, that there was a more sophisticated approach to section three (the short story section) and that it was obvious that in some schools teachers were teaching good short story techniques. But the report went on to say that:

> There is sufficient evidence to lead one to suspect that teachers are preparing their students for the examination on the basis of the format of previous examinations, rather than teaching the syllabus. Students were not at all comfortable in answering questions that were different from those set in previous years (p. 1).

The 1985 report also suggested that teachers continued to base their teaching on the format of previous examinations. In addition, it appeared that the "requirements of the syllabus" were not always "understood or effectively implemented by teachers" (p. 1). Since teachers were crucial in the learning process it was imperative that they were well trained and versed in that which they taught.

RESEARCH METHODS

Despite the human element in education it has been generally agreed that educational research must be scientific (Hilway, 1969; Van Dalen, 1979). Educational research in searching for those facts which can be used for problem solving required scientific inquiry as a basic ingredient. The discovery of relationships between important educational variables so that one can make successful predictions was crucial if educators were to solve problems. It should be understood, however, that the human element, involving psychological and social forces, often engendered uncertainties. There was ambivalence in educational research as it combined both the synthetic or real world with the analytic or logical world. The connection was achieved with the use of measurement.

Van Dalen (1979) distinguished between the experimental, historical and descriptive studies. While the investigation of the experimental study exercised control, the investigation in the other two studies observed evidence. The historical and descriptive studies cannot manipulate the independent variable because these studies have no control. This lack of control has weakened the reliability in some descriptive studies.

Mouley (1963) warned against the improper use of the questionnaire often employed in descriptive studies. This, he said, "has definite advantages which must be weighed against its disadvantages, and its validity must be considered in the specific case" (p. 238). The decision regarding the instrument to be used, advised Mouley, must be carefully considered as too often surveys are used when the only valid answer could be gained from experimentation. In discussing the usefulness of interviews, Mouley suggested that the interview had an advantage over the questionnaire. The interview allowed for greater:

> flexibility which permits the investigator to pursue leads that appear fruitful, to ask for elaboration of points which the respondent has not made clear or has partially avoided and to clarify questions which the respondent has apparently misunderstood (p. 265).

Berdie and Anderson (1974) felt that the questionnaire should be used only when information was not directly available from other sources. The authors said that it had several advantages. One advantage was that the investigator could collect large amounts of data inexpensively. One serious disadvantage was the low response rate received by some questionnaires. Since descriptive research employed these methods of collecting data the investigator has to be aware of all the pitfalls.

Ebel (1969) seemed to favor the applied research (descriptive) over the basic research (scientific) for educational purposes. For him, applied research collected data which helped in the solution of immediate and practical problems. Experience, not experiment, was the source of most applied research data (p. 16). The view that educational research had to employ the experimental method to be acceptable in the research field was undergoing change because experimental research had not come up with satisfactory answers to educational problems. According to Ebel there were several reasons why basic research had failed in education. He said that authors who supported this, suggested that the "complexity of human behavior"

presents difficulty, that such constructs as ability, motivation, success, environment, self-concept and so on cannot be quantified or precisely defined (p. 17). Ebel felt that the:

> process of education is not a rewarding subject for scientific study. . . But formal education . . . is not a natural phenomenon. It is a human invention, a construction, a cultural institution designed and built by men. It is not so much in need of analysis and understanding as one of the givens in our universe as it is in need of redesign and reconstruction. And we make a grave mistake. . . if we believe that the best way to redesign and reconstruct it is to study its current forms scientifically with a view to understanding them (pp. 18-19).

If we should wholeheartedly accept the view posited by Ebel, then we would disregard the reasoning that educational research is searching for facts to solve educational problems. But unless the findings of a research study are based on facts which can be tested again and again by others with the same results, then that study would be invalid. We must continue searching for facts while at the same time realizing that there are research studies which are not experimental yet are rigorous enough to be accepted as having factual bases and which can be replicated.

This researcher has chosen to write a descriptive study using the questionnaire and interviews. An examination of the perceptions of the Jamaican teacher

of English language to the Caribbean examination cannot be measured with statistical tools. The findings from this study will aid in identifying strengths and weaknesses in the Caribbean examinations in order that educators might find solutions.

Chapter Two has included material related to tests and examinations, the British Examination system, the Caribbean Examinations Council and the research methods appropriate for this study. The chapter which follows focuses on the Jamaican educational system.

CHAPTER III

EDUCATION IN JAMAICA

OVERVIEW

Jamaica gained full independence in August 1962 on a wave of nationalistic feeling which had not dimmed much in 25 years despite intense disappointment that all that was envisaged for the nation had not been realized. To the new nation, "education came to be seen as the key to national development," (Finlay, 1984). Finlay pointed out, however, that Jamaican education had remained essentially colonial and had failed to respond to important social, political and economic changes. A look at the development of education would explain the strong British tradition endemic in the educational sector.

After emancipation in 1838, there was no miraculous change in the composition of the Jamaican society (Mitchell, 1980, pp. 3-14.) It remained largely as it was--three separate groups with political power in the hands of the colonial government.

> The blacks still remained at the bottom of the social ladder. The colored groups, who represented the middle classes of the society, were beginning to vie with whites for economic and political power (King, 1979, p. 41).

The black population constituted mainly small farmers, semi-skilled and unskilled laborers.

While there were a few secondary schools before 1870, regular secondary education in the West Indies started after this date. Trends which began then were to continue for a long time. The first was that the poor were precluded from secondary education since they were unable to afford fees. Since most of the poor were black this meant the blacks could not get secondary education.

The second trend was that the curriculum taught in these schools was British in content and divorced from the lives of West Indian children (Gordon, 1963; King, 1979; Whyte, 1977; Brock, 1982). The curriculum at the Jamaica Normal School of Industry (1847-52), included the "Irish National School Book, Number 5," the "Latin Delectus," "Ode to Horace," the "Greek Delectus," the "first book of Euclid," in addition to the Greek Testament, the Bible, and Knowledge of the "Terrestrial Globe" among other subjects such as algebra and history (Gordon, 1963,
p. 179). As early as 1878 there were complaints about the curricula from various schools (Gordon, 1963,

p. 253), not with reference to the British orientation but with regard to level of difficulty.

Secondary education was really for the upper and middle classes which at this time were equated with color. For the middle class, in particular, education was the passport to upward mobility (King, 1979, p. 44; Manley, 1974, pp. 141-143). By this route they entered the professions. Many vied for the few scholarships which ensured them entry to a British university. Since the members of the Colonial Office and most of the higher levels in the Civil Service were British, the colonials opted for law or medicine and a few even made great advancement in private practice. Those who were not as lucky entered teaching or sat for the Civil Service examinations which placed them in minor positions (King, 1979; Manley, 1974).

The eighteenth century saw wealthy plantation owners bequeathing money for education. Although these were for the education of all children regardless of class or color or whether they were slaves or free, the money was usually used for the education of whites or those who could be classified as white. The educational system was a dominant agent of social order because it

was "designed to fulfill certain social goals" (Miller, 1975, p. 47).

Miller saw the system as reflecting the social order which suggested that education was not an agent of change but a mere mirror image of any change in society. While educators would not perhaps agree with Miller's view, given the Jamaican frame of reference he was correct.

As evolution took place in the Jamaican society, this was reflected in the composition of various schools. Yet there was also upward social mobility through education, as Miller explained. One change in Jamaican society, according to him, was the emergence of a sub-group he called the Emerging Middle Stratum. For Miller, Jamaican society had four instead of three groups and this was reflected in the schools. The first group is the Upper Social Stratum--white, with members from the Jewish Syrian community; the second is the Traditional Middle Stratum--brown, but with a large Chinese and Black element, and a minority of white and Indian. (See also King, 1979, p. 41.) This was the traditional middle class with its roots going back into the nineteenth century.

Miller's third group focused on the upper section of what would have been the lower class or stratum. This was a recent development of artisans. This group, he said, was the Emerging Middle Stratum challenging the traditional middle class. This third group was mainly urban. The fourth stratum, Miller said, was the largest group--black, and mainly rural with some of its members in the urban areas. Table I showed how Miller saw the distribution of children, according to classes, in the island's schools. The table showed that the children from the upper and traditional middle strata attended what Miller termed "Posh" schools. Although he was correct to a certain extent, a number of parents from the third stratum who had the money also sent their children to these schools. This was their means of ensuring upward mobility for their children as indicated earlier. In Jamaica today there is no color barrier so the color criterion would not preclude a child from entering one of the "Posh" schools.

The matter of choice was not as easy when the children reached 11 and took the Common Entrance Examination. As the name implied all children took this examination and so all had the same opportunities to go

TABLE I

SOCIAL STRATIFICATION AND THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Stages of the Educational System	SOCIAL STRATA			
	Upper	Traditional Middle	Emerging Middle	Lower
Early Childhood	Posh Private Preparatory	1. Posh Private Preparatory 2. Gov't. Infant	1. Gov't. Infant 2. Basic 3. Posh Private Preparatory	1. Basic 2. Gov't. Infant
Primary	1. Posh Private Preparatory	1. Posh Private Preparatory 2. Govt. Primary	1. Gov't. Primary 2. Posh Private Preparatory	1. Gov't Primary
Secondary	1. Posh Private Preparatory 1. Gov't. Aided High	1. Gov't. Aided High 2. Posh Private High 3. Private High 4. Jr. Sec. 5. All Age	1. Junior Sec. 2. All Age 3. Gov't. High 4. Private High 5. Vocational	1. All Age 2. Junior Sec. 3. Vocational 4. Gov't. High

TABLE I (CONT'D.)

Stages of the Educational System	SOCIAL STRATA			
	Upper	Traditional Middle	Emerging Middle	Lower
Further	1. College or University Abroad 2. U.W.I.	1. U.W.I. 2. College or Univ. abroad 3. CAST 4. JSA 5. Teachers' College 6. Theological College	1. U.W.I. 2. CAST 3. JSA 4. Teachers' College 5. Theological College 6. University abroad	1. U.W.I. 2. CAST 3. JSA 4. Teachers' College 5. Theological College

N.B.- "Posh" means exclusive, charging high fees.
JSA - Jamaica School of Agriculture, now College of Agriculture
CAST - College of Arts, Science and Technology

(Miller, 1976)

to secondary school (traditional high school) and on to University. This was good in theory but did not work in practice. The reason was that there were far more children than school places at the secondary level. Here again the system militated against the poorer children. They were from disadvantaged backgrounds where amenities of books, erudite conversations, proper meals and other facilities germane to the acquisition of knowledge were missing. These children often performed poorly on the examination and found themselves either remaining at the All Age primary schools or going on to the new secondary schools.

Table II illustrated the organization of the educational institutions but Jervier stated that, "The impression of a mature educational system similar to those in economically advanced countries" was misleading (Jervier, 1976, p. 53). (See also Miller (1976), King (1979), Finlay (1984).)

TABLE II

ORGANIZATION OF THE EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

STRUCTURE	GRADE	AGE GROUP	INSTITUTIONS
Higher Education			University of the West Indies, College of Arts, Science and Technology, College of Agriculture and Teachers Colleges
Secondary Education (Second Cycle)	12-13 11 10	18-19 17-18 16-17	High Schools Technical High Schools (Comprehensive) Vocational, and Junior Secondary schools
Secondary Education (First Cycle)	9 8 7	14-15 13-14 12-13	Junior Secondary School and lower forms of high schools, last 3 grades
Primary or Elementary Education	6 5 4 3 2 1	11-12 10-11 9-10 8-9 7-8 6-7	Primary (elementary) or Preparatory schools
		5-6 4-5	Infant and "Basic" schools
Early Childhood		2-4 2-3	Nursery School or Day Care Centers

N.B. Ages vary at grade 7, depending at what age a child gained the Common Entrance Examination. A child could be 10+ on entry to secondary school.

Since Jervier wrote in 1979 there had been more organization of the system but inconsistencies remained. One area of inconsistency was the movement from primary to secondary school. The lack of adequate places in the traditional high schools placed a strain on the new secondary schools which had become overcrowded. Many youngsters were forced to remain in the all-age primary school until age 15. Although these schools were to provide secondary education, this did not take place owing to, among other things, inadequate facilities.

In examining the various levels of the educational system, the team of the Educational Sector Survey found that the junior secondary school (later named new secondary) was the most adequate in terms of quality, the nature of the facilities and educational contents, but only 13 percent of the children who completed primary school could be accommodated in these schools. The researchers found that the system was even weaker at the upper level of the secondary school, that is, grades 10-12, where the facilities were inadequate. They found a major weakness of the system to be the general neglect at the primary level. The examinations they saw as outmoded "which do not" measure what needs to be measured and which are "socially, economically and

academically completely dysfunctional to the needs of the society and the individual" (Educational Sector Survey, p. 10).

Dr. Mavis Gilmour, Minister of Education 1980-86, said that:

> A formal education system is basic to human development. It is true to say that the prosperity and growth of any nation is directly related to the opportunity provided for all its citizens to avail themselves of a good formal education (Action Program 1980-84, p. 1).

Gilmour expressed the sentiments of all ministers of education and leaders of government since Jamaica gained its independence in 1962.

Manley declared that:

> . . . for a country like Jamaica education is crucial since every aspect of our country reflects the failure to achieve a harmony between aspiration and performance or even between the existence of resources and their use. For us, therefore, it is not enough that education should transmit our accumulated knowledge and skill from one generation to the next because most of our difficulties can be traced to the inadequacy of our skills and the mis-direction of our knowledge (The Politics of Change, p. 138).

Writing from the perspective of the Prime Minister of Jamaica, Manley felt that the Jamaican educational system did not reflect a balance between the education of the children and the needs for economic development. He said that an "independent nation. . .

must build an economy equal to its appetite (p. 142). He saw the educational system responding to this challenge but only to expand its offering in its old form which was based on the old colonial system. To overcome this trend he advocated the organization of one stream of "education through which all must pass," (p. 39). Manley, however, recognized the constraints which, in the third world country, might militate against achieving this goal. One had to face the economic realities and process of selection which, of necessity, placed limits upon how far a child could achieve educational opportunities. Not all children were able to be provided with a secondary education, for example. But he said:

> the objective must be crystal clear: all children must pass through similarly endowed institutions where they must mix, regardless of parental background, and from which they must proceed to higher levels on the basis of merit alone. . . . parental accomplishment does not confer a privileged status upon children (Politics of Change, pp. 39-40).

Manley's concept of educational opportunities for all was not a new one as the philosophy of the New Deal for Education, 1967, was that every child should have the opportunity of the best education the country could offer, regardless of socio-economic status (p. 4). In the same way that Manley saw education as fostering

an egalitarian society so the New Deal saw education as breaking down the class education which was integral to colonialism. King (1979), in her discussion of the New Deal, questioned whether it could be assumed that:

> by simply increasing the facilities for secondary education, the new policy of providing equal educational opportunities for all children . . . will in fact be implemented.

Finlay (1984) seemed to support King's reservations, for he stated:

> there is still a strong tendency to see educational goals and values in terms of the traditional class structure of the society; and while it is fair to say the system has been making efforts to erase this tendency, the way it is administered does have the effect of reinforcing it, and plays a major role in perpetuating the plural nature of the society ("Recent Educational Changes" p. 14).

In discussing education in Jamaica, this writer focused on recent trends rather than going over material that had been well documented by writers such as White (1977), King (1979), Miller (1976), Manley (1974), Jervier (1976), and Finlay (1984). All these writers, among others, had given detailed renditions of educational development in Jamaica from the time of colonial rule. This writer examined how the present administrators saw education and some of their goals, for as Jervier (1976) stated, "today efforts are made to

reflect the aspiration of independence throughout the system" (p. 18).

EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

There had been continuity in respect to the long term goals and objectives of succeeding governments and ministers of education. All had agreed that it was vital for education to begin as early as possible, that the quality of exposure the child had before beginning formal schooling would largely determine his later achievements. When the Jamaica Education Sector Survey team made their report in 1973, they were able to see growth in this area of education. Since 1966 the Van Leer Foundation, in cooperation with the University of the West Indies and the Ministry of Education, had been training teachers and providing materials for the preschool children, age four to six years. According to the report:

> . . . In 1971/72, there were 26 infant schools and 9 infant departments within the public sector with an enrollment of 9,705 and 1,983 respectively. There were also 672 basic schools with an estimated total average enrollment of 20,200, established by communities and religious bodies, which were given financial assistance by Government (Sector Survey, p. 20).

According to the writers of the Five-Year Education Plan (1978-1983):

> the Government is committed to the development, expansion and strengthening of Early Childhood Education programmes throughout Jamaica and accepts the principle that good Early Childhood Education is not only valuable and fundamental, but for some children of the nation it is essential if social change and social justice are to be achieved (p. 50).

The document also emphasized that government supported the move toward the establishment of nurseries and day care centers. While some children were fortunate in having parents who could supply them with books, read stories to them and prepare them for formal education, many were from low socio-economic backgrounds and needed the start which early childhood education gave them. This may be compared with the "head-start" program of the United States. The report stated that the enriched environment would prepare these children to develop their fullest potential and "initially prepare them for primary education" (p. 50).

This concern for the deprived had continued and was documented in The Ministry of Education Action Programme (1980-1984). It stated that:

> At the Pre-Primary or Early Childhood level the Ministry is mobilizing community support and external funding for the expansion and improvement of education in our Basic Schools (p. 8).

With the continued support of the Van Leer Foundation and the additional support of Alpart (a bauxite

company), a building was refurbished and opened to provide training for basic school teachers thus taking the programme one step further. This was accomplished in 1984.

Among the objectives set out in the Five Year Plan for early childhood education, the following were most important.

> To identify social, intellectual, physical, and emotional needs of the child and develop and implement programmes to meet these needs.
>
> To provide at least a minimum nutritional level for children enrolled in early childhood institutions.
>
> To identify, educate and train various types of personnel needed for optimal development and utilization of suitable curriculum materials and methodologies in early childhood education on an ongoing basis.
>
> To help parents understand the specific role they can play in the physical, mental, social and emotional growth of their children and to improve the quality of parent-child interaction (p. 51).

Most educators would support the view that a child's early exposure to a learning environment would largely determine how he would cope later with schooling. Developmental psychologists have affirmed that the environment played a crucial part in the child's development. The above objectives reinforced the need to focus on the young child as the center of learning.

If his needs were met, if he were well fed and healthy with parents and teachers working together for his welfare, then that child benefited from education. Early childhood education in Jamaica over the last two decades had been doing much to prepare children for primary education and life-long learning. Despite this effort, however, much remained to be done.

PRIMARY EDUCATION

Each child deserved the right to achieve success and the primary (elementary) school is a place where success can be achieved. The primary school stage is the most crucial stage on the educational continuum for any child. Since many children were not fortunate enough to be exposed to early intervention programs such as day care centers and infant schools, this was their first exposure to "real" education. What happened to the child at this level largely determined the kind of individual to emerge from the educational system. This was especially true for those children deprived of the experiences gained from books, travel, or an emphasis on the cognitive and affective domains which many homes fostered. The primary school for most Jamaican children provided not only training in the basic skills, the

three R's, but also the experiences they should have gained in a family situation.

Since the primary school was so important to the beginning learner the findings on Jamaican primary schools by the Sector Survey team were frightening. The Report declared that:

> The problems at the primary level are demonstrably the most acute of all the various levels of the education system. A major constraint to the functioning and development of the primary level is the lack of adequate school facilities. This is both qualitative and quantitative, involving a direct shortage of physical space, and present buildings whose conditions often have a decidedly negative effect on the educational process (Jamaican Education Sector Survey, p. 60).

Children cannot learn in conditions not conducive to learning and these physical conditions described by the team in the 1983 report were not new. Finlay (1984) suggested that the 1944 hurricane flattened a "significant percentage" of the primary schools as "if to underscore the dilapidated condition of so many. . ." (p. 166). With a grant from the British government for reconstruction and repair, "Efforts at improvement of the generally poor conditions included revising the curriculum to make it more relevant to the needs of the society" (Finlay, p. 166).

The dilapidated conditions of the primary school buildings in 1944, described by Finlay, seemed not to have changed at all by 1973, for according to the Sector Survey,

> . . . Many schools are essentially long sheds, and movable blackboards are used as partial partitions. Ventilation is poor. . . . The classes are overcrowded and noisy, with the students in the back seats hearing the teachers in the class behind them better than their own teacher (p. 62).

The team described this as "harsh physical conditions" and thought that many of the schools were "badly in need of rehabilitation and modernization" (p. 62). This chronic problem of lack of educational facilities at the primary level had always been the main concern of the Ministry of Education. One factor which had militated against early and drastic improvements had been the economic constraints of a third world country. Money had to be found to service all sections of education for there was also an urgent need at the secondary level. This meant that there could not be wholesale improvement in any one area to make much of an impact.

The Five-Year Education Plan (1978-1983) identified several areas in which primary education had not been fulfilling its aims and objectives. The reasons specified were:

* the inadequate proportion of certified teachers to pupils,
* the lack of adequate teacher/learning materials,
* overcrowding,
* poor facilities and other working conditions,
* inadequate management and supervision,
* general lack of community interest and involvement (p. 56).

Having identified these problems, seven long-term goals were formulated to remedy the situation. One immediate objective was the development of curricula for grades 1-6, then to gradually deal with the reasons identified above as militating against adequate education at the primary level. The Plan stated all the programs that would be instituted or maximized over the five year period, among them teacher development, student evaluation, guidance and counseling, new accommodations for all children in the 6 to 11+ age group, and experiments which would lead to improvement in attendance at school (pp. 56-57).

Despite this, however, when the UNESCO team made its report in 1983, conditions had not improved much in some areas at the primary level. The UNESCO report added another dimension to the problem in addition to what was generic. The team found that "one of every two primary school-leavers is considered illiterate. . .", that "through the remedial efforts in secondary schools the students are, in effect, learning what they should

have learned in primary school" (p. 1). The report found the following factors contributing to the situation in the primary schools:

> (i) early streaming leading to student groups that are classified early in their educational careers according to their expected performance; these groups become relatively impermeable and the result is a self-fulfilling prophecy;
>
> (ii) the crowded conditions that prevail in many primary schools due to lack of adequate premises;
>
> (iii) the general lack of instructional material such as textbooks, exercise books, etc.;
>
> (iv) the lack of in-service teacher training as well as supervision and professional advice and support leading to a sense of relative professional isolation on the part of many teachers;
>
> (v) a curriculum that is, in reality, determined by individual schools more as a function of the CEE than by the Ministry's guidelines, leading to a situation where students are often drilled to pass an examination rather than led calmly through curricula materials;
>
> (vi) malnutrition of pupils;
>
> (vii) low and irregular attendance (UNESCO Report, 1983, pp. 1-2).

In an elaboration of the above findings, UNESCO viewed teaching in grades 4-6 in the primary schools as a "travesty of good pedagogical practice" (p. 72), as children were merely drilled for the Common Entrance Examination (CEE). The pupils who gained entry to secondary schools were good takers of tests but one was

not sure they had a good grasp of the subjects. This was, of course, true in a number of cases as many children failed to do well academically at high school. Many entered high schools as "robots" and have had to be "de-robotized" before they began regular learning. All the skills they should have learned at the primary school level were not learned. Many of these students who passed the CEE could not think for themselves, could not operate at the level of the symbolic, could not form judgments because they had become so accustomed to drill.

The UNESCO team found that although the Ministry of Education had issued a curriculum for grades 1-6, the schools did as they wished. They found that where in the curriculum it was recommended that grades 1-3 should get 60 percent of instruction time in English and mathematics, schools varied from 30 percent to 80 percent. Because the Ministry had no way of enforcing its curriculum, "the CEE has become the major regulatory mechanism or force in the determination of primary school instruction" (p. 73).

Another factor which the UNESCO team saw as inveighing against primary education was the language of instruction. Although English was the country's

official language, the language of instruction and in which examinations were set, many children entered primary school unable to communicate well in English. These were the children who were at a disadvantage in the competitive CEE where the spaces were limited for entry to high schools. The children from homes where standard English was spoken were at a strong advantage over the others (UNESCO Report, p. 73). Early streaming also militated against the late developers. Streaming for the Common Entrance usually took place at grade 4 since grades 4-6 were "Common Entrance classes." This meant that a child's whole future was determined as early as the age of nine years.

This situation explained, in part, why parents who were better able financially sent their children to preparatory schools (private primary schools). Although "cramming" went on, the children in better schools were exposed to a wide variety of subjects. Instruction was more patterned after the American elementary schools; teachers had smaller classes and parents had a much greater role to play in the education their children received. The high fees fostered vested interest and so these private schools were assured of parental support. These were the children who gained places in the high

schools, especially the traditional high schools. In this way the class structure was maintained. In an effort to see that all children were given equal opportunities at secondary education, the Minister of Education, E. L. Allen, instituted in 1962 the device of the 70:30 selection ratio in favor of primary school children. King (1979) pointed out that, "The examination continued to select for high schools a disproportionate number of those children who at 11+ have had advantages of regular, earlier, or superior schooling" (p. 53). Before the advent of free secondary education these were the children who would have paid fees.

Primary education had come a long way, however, and today many of the plans made earlier have been realized. As stated before in this study, succeeding governments, despite their political biases, saw education as integral to national development and to this end continued to a great degree many programs that were formulated or started by the previous regime. Thus in The Ministry of Education Action Programme (1980-1984) it was stated that:

> The educational policy of the government of Jamaica is to improve the quality of primary education so that secondary education may have a base on which to build.

> This is being brought about through the provision of relevant instructional materials, improvements in the training of educators, improvements in physical conditions of schools, the provision of support services such as school meals and uniforms for the students and compulsory attendance (p. 16).

The project for the "New Curriculum" for grades 1-6 begun in 1972 was completed in 1983 and provided one book for each grade level. The title of the curriculum was "Foundations for Self-Development" and the focus was on teaching the child how to expand his own life experiences, develop the spirit of inquiry, problem solving and knowledge of his immediate environment. According to The Ministry of Education Programme 1980-1984,

> Teachers from all grades, Principals, Lecturers, Education Officers and Subject Specialists have all worked hard for some 12 years to produce an excellent Jamaican Curriculum by Jamaican Educators for Jamaican children (p. 16).

Not only had much been done in curriculum development but a textbook project was launched in 1984. The UNESCO Report - 1983 had seen the high rate if illiteracy at the primary level as being partly the result of lack of instructional material. Even though efforts were being made to supply each child with his own textbook in mathematics and language arts, the

Ministry's budget was unable to meet the full cost. The schools were provided with:

> Instructional materials in Mathematics, but only at grades 1 and 2.
> Language Arts textbooks: 1 book per 2 students in grades 1-3; 1 book per 5 students in grades 4-6.
> The Language Materials Workshop Series (LMW) for grades 1-3, and the Doctor Bird series for grades 4-6, have been written and illustrated by local writers and artists with an accent on local stories and selections relating to the child's culture and environment (Action Programme, p. 18).

The inadequacy of instructional materials was obvious. With the help of the Gleaner Company, international organizations (UNESCO, UNDP, CODE, CIDA, USAID), and the Ministry of Education, $3.6 million worth of books were contributed to 350,000 children. The books were printed, as an additional donation in celebration of its 150th anniversary, by the Gleaner Company. From this project each child in the primary school was able to have his own textbooks in at least two basic subject areas, mathematics and language arts. The Ministry believed that World Bank 11 Project would provide additional books as well as materials for teachers (Action Programme, pp. 18-19).

Another area which had shown marked improvement was the physical accommodation of students at the primary level. Between 1962-1972, 108 new schools were

built, mostly under the Canadian Primary School Scheme. The Five-Year Plan (p. 176) pointed out that a construction program was part of the plan, and 20 new primary schools were to be built in addition to the refurbishing of another 116. Action Programme (1980-1984) told of the Inter-American Bank Loan Agreement for the United States $57.2 million which provided for:

> * 42 new schools to be built to enable every child 6-12 years of age to have access to a school within three miles of home;
> * 18 new teachers cottages;
> * 14 libraries to be established as Resource Centers for permanent in-service training of teachers serving 270 schools;
> * In-service training for: 40 education officers; 1,520 Principals and Vice Principals; 2,880 classroom teachers, to ensure the introduction, implementation and evaluation of the new primary school curriculum issued by the Ministry of Education (p. 20).

Despite the fact that the government must negotiate loans for the improvement of education in general and primary education in particular, the progress was heartening. The contrast of the several new primary school buildings with the old buildings was summed up in the Action Programme:

> . . . No one could possibly expect effective learning to take place in buildings that were dark, airless, hot, dusty, congested and non-functional in every way for both teachers and students.

> Staffrooms were either inadequate or non existent. There were no libraries or Resource Learning Centers . . .
>
> The new buildings have been designed to improve and encourage learning . . . , (p. 20).

With the expansion of the feeding program, the continued distribution of uniform materials and the continued effort to institute compulsory attendance, primary education in Jamaica began to train youngsters for life in the twenty-first century.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

Whyte (1977) stated that:

> One of the objectives of the 1965 Education Act was to provide an integrated system of education to the primary, secondary, and tertiary levels (p. 122).

This goal had not been achieved. In 1987 one unusual feature of Jamaican secondary education was the multiplicity of institutions which offer different opportunities to the graduate at the grade 11 level. These institutions were the traditional high schools, the new secondary schools, technical high schools, comprehensive high schools, the agricultural high schools, the last three grades of all-age schools, trade and vocational schools and private high schools. According to the 1983 UNESCO report:

> . . . Each one of these types of secondary schools caters for a different clientele, has a different curriculum and different entrance requirements, offers different chances of employability and trainability to grade 11 leavers (p. 45).

The table below showed the distribution of students in these institutions during the 1976-77 school year.

Schools	No. of Schools	Enrollment
New Secondary	71	94,190
All-Age (Grades 7-9)	520	67,410
High	44	36,446
Comprehensive	5	5,984
Technical	6	5,175
Vocational	2	290

(Five Year Plan, p. 68)

Action Programme (1980-1984) made reference to a variety of institutions and stated that "The Ministry therefore sees it as a priority that there should be a rationalization of the programmes at this level" (p. 32). One grave problem of Jamaican education was the multiplicity of schools offering some aspects of secondary education. The various Ministers of Education had seen the need for uniformity but the enormous financial outlay needed to remedy the situation had always been beyond the budget allocated for education. But unless there was uniformity of opportunity from primary to the end of the secondary stage, the education

system showed no real improvement. Even as government was upgrading the primary system there existed the need for a parallel upgrading of the secondary system. Unless this happened there was continued frustration at the end of the primary system for children unable to enter secondary schools. Better facilities, a more satisfying curriculum and more motivated teachers and pupils meant more pupils qualifying for secondary education. There must be adequate provision made to accommodate the influx of children which resulted when primary education was upgraded.

THE ALL-AGE SCHOOL

Blang (1973), in discussing the problems of education and the employment problem in developing countries, found that there seemed to be underinvestment by almost all developing countries in primary education. He saw these countries spending more money on higher education instead of giving primary education top priority (p. 18). While one must agree with Blang that primary education must receive top priority, it cannot be denied that these children's education must not terminate at the primary level as was happening with far too many children in Jamaica. One area which had been neglected was the All-Age school.

In 1976-77 the number of children at the grade 7-9 level in all-age schools stood at 67,410 and in 1980-81 the number was 68,908 (UNESCO Report, p. 60). This high percentage of children left the All-Age school at age 15 ill-equipped for the world of work, yet there was no place for them in the secondary system. The All-Age school had children from age 6 to 15 years, that is, from grade 1 to grade 9. The first six grades were primary grades while the last three were the first cycle of secondary school. The truth, however, was that all children continued to work at the primary level up to grade nine. These schools were found mostly in the remote rural areas and lacked most of the amenities found in secondary schools. While these children were given the opportunity of sitting for the Technical High School Entrance examination at age 13+ or the Grade Nine Achievement Test (GNAT), few were successful in gaining entrance to a secondary school. There were no places for them in the already overcrowded secondary schools. According to the UNESCO Report (1983):

> About 40% of Jamaican school children between the age of 12 to 15 are in grades 7-9 of these All-Age schools, receiving a sub-standard (secondary) education. No more than 4% of the grade 9 pupils have a chance of entering full secondary institutions, mostly new Secondary Schools; whereas 96% of them leave school altogether (p. 59).

Assessing the "merits" of the All-Age school Sector Survey (1973) declared that it was "a mechanism or an institutional arrangement to look after, or keep out of, the market place until age 15, some 60,000 youths for whom there are no secondary facilities" (p. 63). The report saw the system as demoralizing for the teacher and pupils. Sector Survey suggested that the top three grades should be removed from these schools thus leaving space for more children at the primary level. This, of course, necessitated the provision for over 60,000 pupils in the secondary system. This idea was proposed in the Five-Year Plan, 1978-1983. It found these schools "deficient as institutions for providing either primary or secondary education" (p. 175) and the strategy:

> for providing primary places is to build new secondary places to take off the tops (age 12-14+, grades 7-9) from the all-age schools and to let the places released by this transfer to the secondary schools be taken by children in the primary age group (6-11+, grades 1-6). All-age schools will then be converted into primary schools (p. 175).

The UNESCO team (1983) made recommendations somewhat similar to what had been discussed and the Action Programme (1980-1984) stated that the following had been given priority:

* The establishment of a unified curriculum for grades 7-9;
* A project for the upgrading of the system catering for the over 70,000 students of ages 12-15 locked in the All-Age schools.

This problem was a perennial one, yet lack of funding militated against all the proposed reforms. The Ministry of Education sought international funding in order to effect the urgent reforms needed in secondary education at this level.

NEW SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Wynter (1987) referred to the advent of the Junior (New) Secondary School as "Perhaps the most revolutionary movement in the history of education in modern Jamaica." He was referring to the building of 50 of these schools in 1967 which added secondary school places for well over 30,000 children. In his vignette to E. L. Allen, the then Minister of Education, Wynter said that Allen "was insistent that secondary schools needed instructors, not lecturers." To this end he supported the scheme which enabled 50 teachers to gain scholarships to the University of The West Indies in order to further their qualifications (Sunday Gleaner, January 11, 1987). These scholarships continued for some time until lack of money caused them to cease.

The UNESCO Report on Jamaica (1966) suggested the need for junior secondary schools, since only nine percent of the children completing the sixth grade could be accommodated in secondary schools. This percentage was compared by the Sector Survey team with 13 percent in 1973 when 50,000 were then enrolled in these schools. Even so, Sector Survey saw that another 60,000 places had to be provided to satisfy the needs of children leaving primary schools at that time. The junior secondary schools were built with the aid of World Bank Education Loan 1 (Sector Survey, p. 62 and Whyte 1977, pp. 120-121). The need for this type of institution was obvious but not everyone agreed with the concept. Many saw standards of secondary education falling, especially since there were not enough teachers qualified for teaching at the secondary level.

Murray (1979) acknowledged that the plans for upgrading and diversifying secondary education reached the peak of expansion about 1968-69 but he voiced grave doubts as to real achievements:

> This expansion [he said] was achieved not by developing multiplier factors such as teacher trainers, teachers, and school supervisors, but by diluting standards through the effecting of primary teachers' certification and achievement levels far below the traditional. It was given out that the junior secondary schools would be the new-found mass elevators taking

TABLE III

NUMBER OF SUBJECT ENTRIES IN THE SSC BY SUBJECT
1978-1981
(New Secondary School)

Subject	1978	1979	1980	1981
Compulsory Subjects				
Language (functional)	11,610	8,332	8,531	9,322
Language (continuing)	3,405	3,406	2,668	2,574
Maths (functional)	11,356	8,433	9,851	9,321
Maths (continuing)	2,397	2,008	1,948	1,973
Optional Subjects				
Social Studies	2,465 (5.0%)	2,336	2,743	2,394 (5.8%)
Science	2,571 (5.2%)	2,697	2,998	2,746 (6.6%)
Office Procedure	1,083	1,059	917	937
Business Communication	1,099	968	320	827
Typewriting	1,160	933	787	923
Shorthand	-	48	33	30
Accounting	1,212	709	603	578
Basic Economics	692	d i s c o n t i n e d		
Salesmanship/Marketing	372	208	417	419
Commerce/Principles of Business	621	282	567	587
Sub-Total	6,239 (12.6%)			4,301 (10.4%)

TABLE III (CONT'D.)

Subject	1978	1979	1980	1981
Music	-	-	-	7
Art	55	62	-	-
Crafts	434	555	-	-
Child Care	1,416	1,413	1,450	1,469
Clothing and Textiles	937	943	987	1,072
Beauty Culture	24	41	22	28
Foods and Nutrition Catering	1,669	1,592	1,539	1,561
Sub-Total	4,535 (9.2%)			4,137 (9.9%)
Carpentry and Cabinet Making	807	825	1,002	1,019
Electrical Installation	1,438	1,425	1,337	1,243
Machine Shop and Welding	969	863	954	966
Auto Mechanics	591	690	598	610
Plumbing	223	238	218	230
Drafting	81	53	31	49
Farm Mechanics	28	29	24	72
Agriculture	634	555	540	569
Sub-Total	4,771 (9.7%)			4,758 (11.5%)
TOTAL ENTRIES	49,349 (100%)	40,703	41,085	41,526 (100%)
No. of Students Sitting the SSC	14,328	14,883	15,227	15,084

Source: Ministry of Education documents

> the youth to the secondary high schools and on to the professions. In manning these new secondary schools, however, the government of the day adopted a course which left the total situation worse off than before -- the best primary school teachers were simply drawn off into the new schools, to assume responsibilities for which they had had previous little preparation (pp. 61-62).

Murray conceded, however, that the situation he described had improved since the teachers' colleges had introduced secondary course options in their programs. The sudden expansion of secondary education caused upheavals in the system and consequent negative effects. Teachers who were trained to teach at the grade 1-6 levels were suddenly asked to teach a new curriculum at a higher level. With training they would have done well, but with no preparation, the task was beyond many.

The junior secondary schools were received with distrust and got off to a bad start because of the stated curriculum. The curriculum was designed to give students some academic and some vocational training in order that they would be prepared for the world of work (UNESCO Report, 1983, p. 46). This immediately identified them as inferior to the traditional high schools where the curriculum was largely classical and, therefore, academic. The country needed students with skills which the educational system was not producing.

The junior secondary school was seen as the place where skills would be taught. To compound the problem children who were unsuccessful in the Common Entrance examination ended up in these schools. Primary schools were also feeders to the nearest junior secondary school and children from grades 4 to 6 were sent to these schools while they had reached age 12 years. With all these militating against them the junior secondary schools came to be seen as schools were non-achievers went.

In 1979 the school leaving age for the junior secondary school was raised from 15 to 17 years and by 1975 two additional grades were added - grades 10 and 11 (Whyte, 1977, p. 125; King, 1979, p. 52). The name was also changed to New Secondary. Again the system came in for sharp criticisms as new curricula were developed for these two grades but teachers were not prepared to meet the challenge. The curricula required new teaching methods, new assessment procedures emphasizing continuous assessment and the issuing of a secondary school certificate at the end of the course (Five Year Plan (1978-1983), p. 38).

The Secondary School Certificate (SSC) was "envisaged as a single certificate to provide

certification of all students completing a Secondary Education programme in Jamaica" (UNESCO Report, p. 105).

The plan was that students should not be judged from a single examination but their course work would be a part of their final assessment. The certificate for all school-leavers at the secondary level had not, however, materialized and the SSC National Assessment Examination was taken only by students of the new secondary schools. Since the examination was taken from the grade 10 and 11 syllabus which was felt to be written specifically for the new secondary schools, the high schools and technical high schools would not take the examination. Table III indicated the curricula content and explained why this was not popular with the traditional academic oriented high schools.

The deep rooted antipathy that parents have always had against their children studying vocational subjects had, in part, attributed to the low opinion several still had toward the new secondary schools. The aim was for a smooth movement of children from primary school at age 11 to junior high school and into senior high school. This would eliminate the various secondary institutions all offering different versions of secondary education.

Blang (1973) made an interesting comment about vocational education. He said that Philip Foster wrote an article entitled "The Vocational School Fallacy in Development Planning" in which he felt that giving vocational training within an academic setting was not effective in aiding economic growth. Foster felt that neither general education nor vocational education could be substitutes for the other. He saw academic education as being a necessary foundation for vocational training and believed that vocational training could be had on the job (p. 21). If there was merit in this view then what developing nations should do is to provide one type of education at the secondary level, mainly academic. This, of course, would be restricting and perhaps not challenging to some students, but it would eliminate feelings of inferiority and allow children more time to choose their career. At the end of grade 11 there would be tertiary institutions offering a wide variety of skills training and continuation in academic work. This would afford equal opportunities for all children.

The New Deal (1966) set out its objectives for junior secondary education. One objective was to provide "vocational opportunities for those students who will not benefit from second cycle secondary education

and will enter the labor market" (p. 57). This objective pre-supposed that one determined at age 11 in what direction a child would go. There was great potential for these schools if only they could serve as a transitional stage between elementary and second cycle secondary (Jervier, 1976). Despite the need for certain skills in a developing country such as Jamaica, students had the choice of which subjects they studied for their examinations. Most students chose the academic and not the vocational subjects. As the UNESCO Report put it:

> . . . It seems that the efforts displayed by the Ministry of Education and the schools at introducing practical subjects in the New Secondary School programme fail to convince employers.

The academic subjects had more social "currency" and good passes in them paved the way to better chances at more prestigious jobs.

A good deal of money was spent on providing well equipped technical vocational facilities and laboratories to enhance learning in the junior secondary schools. This expenditure did not eliminate the deep seated feeling of inferiority for those educated in vocational skills. But Blang (1973) identified several of the problems which had to be overcome before these schools fulfilled their purposes. He pointed out:

> that vocational schools are expensive; that vocational school teachers ought to be well trained teachers as well as having industrial experience, but that such people are scarce in any country; that the equipment of vocational schools is liable to be either outmoded or so advanced as to have little relevance to the country in question; that it is virtually impossible to simulate the actual rhythm and discipline of factory work in the classroom; and that most students regard vocational schools as second-best opportunities and hence are reluctant to take their training seriously (p. 22).

Many of the teachers, as stated earlier, were ill-equipped to teach at this level. Many teachers had no specific training to even handle some of the equipment provided and many had no scientific background.

The teachers were also handicapped since the Common Entrance had screened off the best children for the high schools. Instead of teaching the skills to be learned at this level, much remedial work had to be done in basic language arts and mathematics. The best students were apathetic as they had aimed to enter high school and were not interested in the offerings of the junior secondary school. With the lack of career motivation and skilled teachers to interest them in new directions, the system lost the vibrancy that would produce students with a taste for discovery, experimentation and life-long learning, Sector Survey (p. 64).

During the 1960's, one response to the problem of elitism was the introduction of the comprehensive school. The introduction of this type of institution highlighted the colonial attitude of the people of Jamaica. The response was slow and hesitant reflecting the attitude of the British to the introduction of comprehensive schools in that country (Finlay, 1984). The lack of enthusiasm continued and, like the new secondary schools, these were seen to be in a lower category than the traditional high schools.

TECHNICAL HIGH SCHOOLS

While parents and employers viewed the graduates from the junior secondary and comprehensive schools as inferior to the graduates of high schools, they showed more regard for those graduating from the technical high schools. The technical high school offered technical/ vocational training in addition to the academic subjects. The reason for the higher esteem could be that the majority of the graduates found employment while about five percent entered the University and another 20 percent entered the College of Arts, Science and Technology (CAST) (UNESCO, 1983, p. 56).

During the early years these schools were also seen as sub-standard. The problem cited was, "That

Jamaican education tradition has always tended to see education of a practical nature as inferior" (Finlay, 1984, p. 170). The greatest boost to technical education was the founding of the Jamaica Institute of Technology in 1958. The name was changed in 1964 to the College of Arts, Science and Technology. CAST provided training in technical subjects such as Business, Construction, Construction Technology, Electrical Technology, Home Economics, Mechanical Technology, Secretarial Studies, and Computer Studies among several other subjects, including the purely academic. When technical schools were built, CAST provided teachers of caliber capable of teaching in these schools. The technical schools did not start off with the same disadvantages as the junior secondary schools.

There were seven technical schools oriented toward technical and vocational training which included applied science, industrial and agricultural skills, and courses in commercial areas among other subjects. All these schools offered courses leading to the CXC and GCE O/L and many students went on to sit for the GCE A/L in one year. Entry to these schools was by the Grade Nine Achievement Test (GNAT), but recently some technical schools had had to add grade seven classes to alleviate

the space problem at the regular high schools. Pupils who gained the Common Entrance to the technical high school saw themselves as on the way to achieving their goals. This was due in part to the rationale of technical education which said that:

> . . . Technical studies at the secondary stage emphasize the theory and practice that lead to further education at the tertiary stage (Five Year Plan - 1978-1983, p. 78).

HIGH SCHOOLS

The ambition of Jamaican parents had always been to secure a high school education for their children. High schools had the longest history in the country's comparatively new educational system, dating back to the early eighteenth century. The earliest surviving high school was founded in 1744 as Beckford and Smith, now St. Jago High School (Whyte, 1977, p. 45). Many of these schools were begun by the church or by endowment and mainly for the education of the planter class. As stated earlier in this study, high schools were patterned from the British Public schools. Some of the boarding schools extant portray vestiges of British public schools in other areas besides curriculum. There were, for example, morning and evening preparatory periods, pianoforte examinations, and the learning of

manners suitable for "polite" society. Now, as then, the curriculum is mainly academic although efforts have been made at diversification and students have begun to see the necessity for some vocational subjects.

Until the early 1960's, the principals in high schools were expatriates and many of the teachers also. With the advent of independence the need to train Jamaicans to fill these positions became an urgent priority. Recruiting teachers from England was too costly since passages had to be paid and their wages were higher than those for native Jamaicans. In the same way that the curriculum was divorced from the needs of the country, it was also true that the expatriates often did not understand the Jamaican child's experience.

Several changes in the curriculum of the high school occurred during the 1960's. Geography and history, which mainly consisted of learning, by rote, of the coal fields of England, the Great Lakes of North America and the countries of South America, began to be more attuned to content about the West Indies. Latin began to disappear and French was replaced with the more utilitarian Spanish. Science, which was seen as mainly for boys in certain schools, began to appear in even the

curricula of girls' schools. High schools were not free. Students had to pay fees, although many of the schools were given grants by the government and the salaries of teachers were also paid by the government. The poorer children of Jamaica were unable to receive secondary education. Even when the schools offered a few scholarships and children performed best in the early Jamaica local scholarship examination they were unable to attend. The poorer children "could not afford the attendant costs which included fees" (Murray, 1979, p. 59).

Blang (1973) commented that: ". . . It is a striking thing and still unappreciated fact that the abolition of tuition fees does not suffice to make education free to students" (p. 23). Blang's statement could apply specifically to Jamaica except that Blang was discussing underdeveloped countries in general. When education became free in 1973, all pupils who used to pay full or half fees would no longer pay. Govern-nment was now faced with the demand to find more sec-ondary school places for the children. Those students who were attending private schools also sought entry to the government schools. The private high schools were of varying quality and received no assistance from

government. They charged lower fees than the grant-aided schools used to charge, had teachers with less qualifications and a curriculum that was prescribed in many areas. Laboratory facilities which were minimal in the high schools were almost unheard of in these private high schools.

High school education took a new direction in the late 1950's with the gradual expansion to accommodate more pupils. The Five-Year Plan was the most important ministry document of 1957 and had far-reaching effects. The Common Entrance Examination was introduced and by 1959 enrollment in high schools had increased by 113.7 percent to a total of 17,400 (Murray, 1979, p. 60). Murray said that:

> Although the government did not respond to a proposal for a massive increase in science teaching, efforts were made to augment teaching facilities of all kinds in absolute terms and relative to increases in per capita enrollment. Woodwork, Metal-work, art, and home economics rooms were added to many schools, and teaching fairly widely introduced in those subjects. In three years, 1953 to 1956, 43 science laboratories were built (p. 60).

By 1973, when UNESCO reported its findings, many of the high schools needed repairs and refurbishing, laboratories were needed for the grades 12 and 13 program (UNESCO Report, 1983, p. 52). With the demand

for free education and the clamoring for more places, government had to find short-term solutions. One solution was to take over many of the private schools and make them grant-aided. The increasing pressure for secondary places at this level continued and motivated some high schools to begin Extension Schools. Extension schools began in the afternoon after the regular day classes were completed. Teachers for these schools were mostly those who worked in the day schools. One good aspect was that there was uniformity of teaching and curriculum. Additional teachers came from the University of the West Indies. The Extension School was private, fee paying and offered a second chance to children who had failed to achieve selection by CEE. The extension schools formed the basis for the Shift System which was yet another method of providing additional places in high schools. Extension schools were soon absorbed by government and incorporated into the regular system.

While the shift system alleviated the space situation, the problem of inadequate furniture and other facilities was heightened (UNESCO Report, 1983). Academic standards were lowered and, in some cases, discipline showed a slight decline. The system,

however, caused great improvement in the numbers who could now gain places in high schools through the CEE.

Access to the high school in Jamaica had been through the Common Entrance Examination (CEE) with each principal having the chance of selecting five percent by his own criteria. This selection system, although maintaining the class structure, had also democratized the high school. With free tuition, children who would not normally have been able to attend now had the same opportunities providing the student "passed" the CEE.

The terminal examinations were important in the high schools and largely determined the course of the curricula of these schools. The examinations had been the British external examinations and the General Certificate Examination at ordinary and at advanced levels. Teachers had, through the years, tended to teach to the test. Syllabi were prescribed and material mainly British oriented, especially up to the 1970's. Since that time, with recommendations from teachers, one or two West Indian novels have been included in both the Advanced Level and Ordinary Level syllabi.
Comprehension passages were exclusively British and sometimes too obscure in content for the understanding of the Jamaican child.

The overseas examinations prepared pupils for tertiary institutions and the university but many students did not perform well enough to continue to higher education. The Ministry of Education "Research Bulletin 1985" stated that of the students who took the Advanced Level examinations for the five year period 1978-1983, 29.7 percent passed two or more subjects. This meant that two-thirds of those who sat for this examination would not go on to the university. Since these were the fortunate few to have reached this standard, many of them would attend teachers' colleges or find employment. What of the vast majority of children, however, who took the Ordinary level and did not qualify for the Sixth form? These would join the ranks of the unemployed without a certificate which indicated the level they had reached or how they had performed in the terminal examination.

The need for an examination more in keeping with the majority of school-leavers was obvious. Baron (1965), in writing about the British examination, pointed out that:

> In one sense, the General Certificate of Education is not "general." It is based on examinations appropriate for children of grammar school caliber and even so the proportion of passes to failure in each subject at both "ordinary" and "advanced"

> level is of the order of about 60 percent. As the work of the secondary schools developed, . . . there was a demand for other examinations, suitable for children not able to reach the high standards required for the General Certificate but whose parents and teachers keenly desired some worthwhile mark of attainment. . . (p. 115).

Britain was reforming her system of education to meet the needs of her pupil population and Jamaica, with the rest of the Caribbean, also realized that the traditional G.C.E. examinations were not filling the needs of the region. To this end the Caribbean Examinations Council was instituted to replace the Cambridge and London "O" and "A" level examinations, but Brock (1982) stated that:

> . . . The outcome has on the whole been to produce syllabuses and examinations not radically different in style from their predecessors. In other words the colonial model has persisted. Such an outcome has been inevitable, given the anxieties of parents in particular in respect of the status and equivalence of the certificates gained, for proceeding either to employment or higher education (p. 136).

Even as CXC faced the ambivalence of its position there were several other problems with which the Council had to deal. One such problem was cited by Peter Maxwell in his article "Apart from the Exam Itself." He said that:

> [Another] area of serious neglect that the CXC has helped us to recognize concerns the training of teachers of English for the upper levels of Secondary Schools. Traditionally, and even now in some instances, the teaching of English Language has been entrusted to just about anyone who seemed to have a reasonable command of the language. Such people have not always been finding it easy to handle the variety of language--and literary--skills demanded by the CXC English "A" syllabus. In Jamaica, it has been suggested that the CXC is to blame for a recent shortage of High School English teachers, at present rivalling the dearth of Science teachers! (Caribbean Dialogue I, p. 23).

The matter of the teaching of English in Jamaican High Schools, and in the Caribbean region, had always posed problems. Maxwell (1980), in reporting Cecil Gray's address to the Caribbean Association of Principals, quoted Gray as saying that English was a disaster area in schools. Mr. Gray blamed four factors. The first factor was the linguistic environment of the child, that the pupils spoke Creole rather than English. He saw most teachers teaching a "description of the workings of the English language" rather than helping pupils to "develop a second set of language habits for the use of English" (Journal of English Teachers (JET), 1980, p. 14).

The second factor Gray cited was the feeling that there was no need for English to be learned. Some teachers even spoke a mixture of creole and English to

"improve rapport and communication with pupils or for reasons of cultural or nationalistic pride." Gray saw this as belittling the pupils' response to an appropriate range of English and ignoring the fact that English had international value.

The third factor cited was that teachers of English lack adequate knowledge and skills. Only 40 teachers were being prepared to teach English in the region each year at the secondary level. Many teachers of English continued to teach as they had been taught. Gray felt that not many teachers had any knowledge of the comprehension skills which would help students understand anything they read. Students were taught to comprehend a single passage. According to Gray:

> Teachers of English must recognize that their pupils are to be taught the language, just as they have to be taught Spanish; this must involve a lot of practice in listening, speaking, reading and writing. And we will need help from teacher-trainers who know the techniques of teaching English as a second language (p. 16).

The fourth factor stated was that teachers of any subject were often appointed to teach English. Teachers of English must be equipped and trained for the task of teaching the subject. Gray also drew attention to the lack of continuity in teaching English in primary and in secondary schools. He saw the Common Entrance

Examination as the main barrier. The students who were taught through rote learning in preparation for the CEE would find it difficult to adjust to the CXC English A Curriculum. The CXC program, Gray said:

> offers the challenge of preparing pupils to recognize the practical value of mastering the English language, relating its use to everyday life in a way that Cambridge examinations have never done (p. 16).

Gray's criticisms of the quality of teaching in English found an echo in the Five-Year Plan - 1978-1983. Several strategies were set out in the plan for teacher upgrading. Among these strategies were:

> . . . Seminars and workshops will be organized on the regional basis to deal with problems of curriculum and methodology as they arise, as well as being part of the general process of teachers upgrading. . . (p. 75).

The plan realized that:

> . . . The quality of the learning experience. . . depends greatly on the quality of the teacher or learning facilitator. . . Crucial, therefore, to the provision of quality education is the need for quality teacher education. . . (p. 88).

Since the 1970's a number of innovations and changes have been effected in teacher education as a means of improving the quality of teaching and ultimately the quality of education. Despite these changes, however, the teachers, especially at the

secondary level, lack many of the basic skills to perform effectively.

TERTIARY/FURTHER EDUCATION

Halliwell (1986) made the point that in Jamaica "Over 400 units, departments, institutions and organizations make available more than 1,200 widely different kinds of further education and training programmes" (p. 1). Since this segment of the educational system will not be dealt with in detail, the following quotation from Halliwell will indicate the availability of education after grade 11. He wrote that:

> . . . The University of the West Indies alone offers 119 different courses via 8 faculties and 48 departments on 3 campuses, and has 23 affiliated institutions. CAST has courses in over 50 different occupational areas. . . . The Social Development Commission provides training in a small range of handicrafts via 150 different Community Craft Centers, for example, Jamal, and the Agricultural Extension Service are other cases in point. A remarkably rich profusion of offerings lie in-between (p. 1).

Halliwell's book, Directory of Further Education and Training in Jamaica, is a valuable source of information on this subject. Teacher education will be dealt with briefly since it had a direct bearing on the topic being studied.

TEACHER EDUCATION

In 1973 the Sector Survey team found that more than 50 percent of the "teachers in primary and all-age schools were not trained to acceptable pedagogical standards" (p. 69). In 1983 the UNESCO Report concluded that the "issues concerning teachers are qualitative rather than quantitative" (p. 9). The latter report did not see an alarming shortage of teachers except in the area of the science but said:

> there are problems of distribution between rural and urban areas, relatively low morale and motivation, and a need to integrate the teachers more thoroughly into the processes of pedagogical renovation and strengthening (p. 9).

Finlay (1976) observed that trained teachers tended to gravitate to the urban areas leaving a shortage in the rural areas especially where there was no electricity. Since 1983 when the UNESCO team made its report the teacher attrition rate had increased. Many of those qualified in the areas of science and business had found more lucrative jobs in industry and others had migrated. Several schools, especially in the rural areas, had lost science teachers because of the lack of laboratory facilities. Teachers could not perform without adequate supplies of chemicals and the necessary apparatus needed to conduct experiments.

One problem that had compounded the teacher shortage was the fact that the schools had not been producing enough children who performed well in the sciences in the external examinations. Those who excelled pursued medicine or careers other than teaching. Until there was an oversupply of students in the science courses at CAST and the University level, the schools would remain understaffed. Yet this was a circular problem as the oversupply must come from the schools. Without trained teachers and adequate equipment there was no motivation and, therefore, few science students. Jamaica was lagging behind in this respect and attention had to be directed to the sciences if the country was to move forward technologically. Despite the fact that the College of Agriculture, CAST and the University were training people who could go into teaching, a sufficient number of science teachers was not available.

Miller (1986) discussed the paucity of male students in the teachers' colleges. He noted that several reports on education have stressed the importance of teacher training as an important aspect of educational and national development. All these reports have seen the number of untrained teachers in the

primary schools as an "obstacle to the achievement of good quality education." But Miller said that only the "UNESCO Report of 1964 and the New Deal for Education of 1966 took note of the imbalance in the number of female teachers at the primary level (p. 71).

This situation explained part of the problem in the inadequacy of teachers in certain subjects. Traditionally it was believed that boys did best in the sciences; girls did best in the arts. This stereotype had not changed significantly in the minds of most Jamaicans over the years. Since men were still considered the "bread winners," though women were in every area of industry, the men considered teaching as the last resort. Many remained only until something better was available. Far more boys than girls pursued science and mathematics, yet more girls than boys graduated each year from all the institutions. These facts help to explain two things: first, why the teaching profession was overwhelmingly female dominated and secondly, why there were teacher shortages in certain subjects.

Teacher education had always been seen as inadequate for Jamaica's needs. Sector Survey (1973) said that the system:

> needs improvement in quality and professionalization of teaching personnel and elimination of high teacher attrition rate of approximately 18% per year. Also requires greater coordination of teaching function with curriculum development, and guidance programs and greater relevance to needs of system, and more comprehensive, integrated and well-planned upgrading program for under-qualified teachers (pp. 49-50).

The Sector Survey team recommended that there should be a major in-service program to upgrade the 50 percent of unqualified teachers in the system and that teachers and administrators/professionals should be kept abreast of changes and reforms. The report also recommended that teacher training colleges should be involved in all upgrading plans.

Adhering heavily to the recommendations made by the Survey team, the Five-Year Plan affirmed that there was a need for quality teachers in sufficient numbers throughout the system. If there was to be quality education then there must be quality teacher education. With this as a goal the following objectives were outlined to be achieved over the five-year period.

1. Reviewing and modifying current training programs and developing and implementing new programs for the training of school administrators, teachers and other school personnel.

2. Developing and implementing training programs for teacher-trainers.

3. Ensuring an equitable distribution of certified trained teachers throughout the system and operating at the stage or level of the system for which they are trained.

4. Providing adequate physical facilities for training the numbers and categories of teachers required by the system.

5. Providing training institutions with the staff necessary for efficient and effective management and implementation of training programs (p. 89).

To ensure adequate numbers of teachers when secondary education expanded during the late 1960's and early 1970's, teacher training was reduced to two years intra-mural with one year's internship in the schools. The program, of course, was conceived as short term since it meant a lowering of qualifications and standards. One objective stated in the Five-Year Plan was to revert to a three-year intra-mural program in the teachers' colleges in order to upgrade standards and prevent an over-production of teachers at the primary level. The proposal was made to introduce a four year program for secondary teachers grades 7-11. Three years of education would be intra-mural followed by a fourth year of internship. The most far-reaching proposal, if it had been implemented, was the following:

> Degree programs, at the Bachelor's level, for primary teachers, will be developed and implemented. These programmes will be directed to both specific and general pedagogical areas to provide teachers with improved social competencies to deal with special problems in the primary area such as remediation, special instructional strategies, techniques in assessment, basic supervision and administration and special education (p. 93).

In continuation of some of the proposals made in the Five Year Plan (1978-1983), the Action Programme (1980-1984) stated that the three-year intra-mural teacher training program had been reinstated. In addition, entry qualifications had been raised and prospective students should have had four GCE "O" levels or four CXC (p. 38). Teachers who formerly entered teachers' college with the Jamaica School Certificate were ill-equipped to cope with the work demanded by the colleges. This new entry requirement ensured a better caliber of students and, consequently, better qualified teachers. With the College of Agriculture being able to provide associate degrees, the status of teaching, especially at the primary level, should receive a boost. This upgrading process would extend to the G.C. Foster College of Physical Education, CAST and the teachers' colleges.

The needs of the Jamaican educational system required that the examination system be streamlined and updated to meet the demands of higher education. The CXC with its examination at two levels, basic and general proficiencies, could be greatly utilized in this program. Since CXC offered examinations in over 29 subjects which covered the range of subjects taught at all levels of the systems this could be the one terminal examination for all second cycle secondary schools. As the UNESCO Report suggested:

> . . . The GCE "O" levels are being formally replaced by the CXC and the JSC has been steadily losing clientele over the past years. The CXC organization is doing extensive work on the development of syllibi in the subjects for which they examine. Given this situation, it would be desirable to streamline the examination possibilities at the end of secondary education in such a way as to give uniform meaning to the remaining examination CXC as well as clearer signals to the students, teachers and curriculum makers concerning the content, value and meaning of secondary education.

Several positive values would accrue, among them the reduction in the number and variety of expensive textbooks now being imported. With one final examination at two levels the children would be able to share and pass textbooks on to brothers and sisters. In a developing country where a grade seven book list could cost up to $300, this was important. Many secondary

schools have ceased the book rental system because of the high cost of replacement for damaged and lost books.

Another value accruing from the uniformity of the education curricula and a single examination would be an increase in equal opportunities for all children. Owing to the low value of the Jamaican dollar against the United States dollar, developing the CXC was expensive. If the Jamaican government did not need to subsidize several examinations, nor to provide varying equipment for different schools, the government might have the ability to subsidize the examination fees. The expenditure to subsidize examinations would pay off in the long run with fewer children losing self-esteem and self-worth. At least many would get passes in subjects at the basic level and have certificates to show for their years in secondary schools. Murray (1979) stated that:

> The picture of failure in the school-leaving examinations of the Cambridge Syndicate is somewhat dismaying, the hurt being sustained by so many thousands of young self-images cannot be good for character (p. 59).

In order to examine the perceptions of teachers about the CXC examinations, it was necessary to examine the Jamaican educational system and the relationship of the examination system in the schools. Examinations

have been an integral part of school programs since British colonial times.

THe following chapter, Chapter Four, will present the methodology of the study and the analysis of the data collected. The research methods enabled the researcher to examine how teachers who taught the curriculum perceived the CXC examination.

CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Methodology

The purpose of this study was to assess the attitudes of teachers of English of Jamaican high schools to the Caribbean Examinations Council (CXC) examination in English language and to ascertain the effects of the examinations as perceived by the teachers. To achieve this, a questionnaire was devised and administered, first, to the teachers of English in four pilot schools in the counties of Cornwall and Middlesex, then to the 189 teachers of English in the county of Surrey. Thirty teachers from Surrey were selected to be interviewed.

Conducting the Study

Permission was gained for administering the questionnaire from the Ministry of Education, first orally and then by formal letter. (See Appendix C for letters.) The principals of the pilot schools were then telephoned and permission obtained for a visit.

At a meeting of principals of high schools, the researcher explained the nature of the research and asked to be allowed to send letters to the heads of

English departments, to be followed by a visit. The principals agreed.

The researcher administered the questionnaire to the teachers of English in the four pilot schools. After the teachers completed the questionnaire the copies were collected and a discussion followed which gave ideas on the suitability of items and the time allocation for completing the questions. No changes were made in the original questions. The four schools comprised one technical high school, one comprehensive high school, one all girls high school and one coeducational high school. Twenty-eight teachers in the pilot study completed the items. There was only one teacher absent, due to illness.

During November 1987 the researcher took the questionnaire to the 27 high schools in Surrey. Contrary to expectations that the completed questions could be collected on the same day, the questionnaires had to be left with the heads of the English departments. The department heads were requested to ask their teachers to complete the questionnaire. After completion each department head was asked to put the questionnaires in the stamped addressed envelope provided and post within two weeks. The researcher sent

telegrams to those department heads who had not returned the questionnaires by the end of December. Many questionnaires were held up in the Christmas mail. During the first week in January questionnaire sheets still outstanding were collected by messenger. At the end of January the researcher began analyzing the data of all returned questionnaires.

Of the 189 questionnaires distributed, 139 were returned, accounting for 74 percent of the number of teachers available in the 27 high schools.

After analyzing the data collected for the questionnaire, the researcher identified three questions which would add supporting data to the responses in the questionnaire. (Please see Appendix B.) These questions were used in interviews with 30 teachers selected from the 27 high schools in Surrey. The names of the high schools (Appendix B) to which the questionnaire had been administered were placed in a box for chance selection. Ten names of schools were drawn from the 27 schools. The investigator visited these 10 schools and interviewed teachers as they were available. The interviews were conducted over a two week period.

Analysis of Data

The Caribbean Examinations Council based its English A (language) syllabus on three "fundamental assumptions" or goal statements, namely:

(i) "At the primary and secondary levels of education, language should be regarded as an activity rather than a subject."

(ii) "Language varies according to the purpose for which it is being used in a particular context."

(iii) "Language is essential to personal growth and development."

The syllabus sets out quite clearly what these three "fundamental assumptions" would entail in the teaching program.

> Consequently, the teaching programme envisaged will embody the following characteristics:
>
> (i) an emphasis on the student's ability to use the English language effectively to communicate his ideas, to read and listen and to respond to drama and the various forms of literature with understanding and discrimination;
>
> (ii) the provision of opportunities to use the full range of practical language skills required in everyday life and to appreciate the differences in language registers, codes and styles appropriate to different social contexts. Particularly, it will

provide opportunities for students to recognize what the place of regional dialects is in social intercourse;

(iii) a concern for deepening the student's imaginative and emotional responses to and through language and literature as well as for increasing awareness of ideas and values through language. The programme must also provide further stimulus to read literature for the personal satisfaction and growth that literature offers (CXC English A Syllabus, p. 1).

The investigator used these assumptions as the criterion referents for the assessment of the attitudes of the Jamaican teachers of English to the CXC examination in English language. The questionnaire devised for this study was, therefore, based on the goal statements and objectives as set out in the CXC English A syllabus. The questionnaire consisted of 10 questions coded in the following schedule: Questions 1 and 5 refer to goal and objective 1, questions 7 and 9 goal and objective 2, questions 2 and 4 goal and objective 3. Questions 3 and 6 deal with the comparison between CXC and the GCE O/L, question 8 deals with the preparation of the teachers to teach for the CXC. Question 10 elicits more information on goals and objectives 1 and 3 which deal with components new to the system of examining English language. These components stress drama and literature in the language paper.

The questionnaire was administered to teachers of English in all the high schools in the county of Surrey. The teachers' responses indicated how they saw the CXC fulfilling, or not fulfilling its stated goals and objectives.

Responses to the questionnaire were reported according to the professional qualifications of the teachers. There were three categories, namely:

1. University graduates with professional training;
2. University graduates without professional training;
3. Graduates of teachers' college.

The types of responses were also noted as follows: NA or not applicable to the question; NR when no response was given; Negative for responses disagreeing with the question or against CXC's position; and Positive for those in agreement with the question or with CXC's stand. In arriving at the positive responses, all NAs, NRs, and Negative answers were coded as negative for the sake of convenience.

The type of responses the teachers gave was indicative of their knowledge or lack of knowledge of the CXC syllabus. Questions 3, 5 and 6 invited comparisons with the GCE syllabus which CXC had replaced.

Bogle (1981) made a comparison between the CXC and GCE O/L syllabi in English. She pointed out that: ". . . the CXC Syllabus lists the objectives of the program and the skills and aptitudes to the developed. The GCE Syllabus does not list aims and objectives and skills and aptitudes; . . . (p. 129). Bogle did, however, state that the GCE gave the skills to be developed in the "textual question." A study of the GCE syllabus, she said, did not provide guidelines for teaching. She made the observation that:

> . . .where these objectives also serve as guidelines for teaching, they do more good than harm, since organizing the material for a course of study to be tested by others sometimes presents serious difficulties (p. 130).

Since the CXC is replacing the GCE, and since many teachers have, in fact, sat for the GCE and have taught it for years, it would be interesting to see whether they agree or disagree with Bogle's findings. For instance, Bogle saw the CXC syllabus as:

> . . . more than just a composite of concepts to be taught; it includes suggestions for teaching these concepts. Suggestions or recommendations are absent from the GCE Syllabus whose focus is solely on the concepts to be examined (p. 130).

In analyzing the teachers' responses to the questionnaire, the investigator assessed the questions as they reflected CXC's goals and objectives as set out

in the English A Syllabus (pp. 1 and 2). Goal One stated that, "at the primary and secondary levels of education, language should be regarded as an activity rather than a subject." The objective was that the teaching programme should embody "an emphasis on the student's ability to use the English language effectively to communicate his ideas, to read and listen and to respond to drama and the various forms of literature with understanding and discrimination."

Question One

Question One of the questionnaire related to goal and objective one as set out in the syllabus. Question One was: "The CXC English A examination is based on the integrated approach to the teaching of English. What does this mean to you?"

Table IV indicated the type of responses the teachers gave to this question. Of the 139 teachers who responded there were 44 NA responses. This relatively large number of answers not applicable to the question would suggest that many teachers were still not conversant with this aspect of the CXC syllabus or did not understand the educational concepts of the goal. Many respondents seemed unaware that "the integrated approach" for CXC meant that, "language and literature

TABLE IV

RESPONSES TO QUESTION ONE

Type of Response	University Graduates with Professional Training (N=78)	University Graduates without Professional Training (N=13)	Graduates of Teachers' Colleges (N=48) (Total 139)
Not Applicable	17	6	21
No Response	7	3	6
Negative	1	-	-
Positive	53	4	21
Percent Positive	68%	24%	44%
Percent Negative	32%	75%	56%

N.B. In reporting the data, Not Applicable, No Response and Negative have been combined since these positions reflect a direct variance with the CXC position.

are not two discrete subjects but an inseparable whole" (English Syllabus, p. 1).

Despite the NA, NR and negative responses, the table showed that of the 78 university graduates with professional training, 53 or 68 percent understood Question One and saw this as meaningful. Of the university graduates without professional training, only four or 24 percent understood or saw the integrated approach as meaningful. Of the graduates of teachers' colleges, 21 or 44 percent understood the question and agreed with CXC's approach. Both the pre-trained university graduates (without professional training) and the graduates of teachers' colleges had higher negative than positive responses. For the university pre-trained graduate the negative response was nine or 76 percent while for the teachers' college graduates the negative response was 27 or 56 percent.

A further analysis of the teachers' responses showed that the teachers' college graduates, without university education, saw integrated approach to mean an incorporation of all subjects in the teaching of language arts. Teachers stipulated that English should not be divorced from the other subjects but many of the respondents did not specify that CXC advocated that

language and literature should be seen as interrelated. A typical response was that:

> All four areas of the language arts are involved in class teaching, so each area will complement the other areas. They i.e. (Reading, Writing, Listing and Speaking) are not seen as four different and unrelated areas, but as areas that are interrelated.

The above response was made by a teacher who had been teaching less than five years. She sat for a combination of CXC/GCE O/L subjects and taught at various times grades 7 to 11.

Another teacher who had taught between 5-10 years in grades 7 to 11, at different times, had this to say: "It is a combination of language plus literature, e.g. poetry questions were not included in the GCE examination. This now makes up a part of the CXC exam." This teacher had sat only for the GCE O/L examination and had taught only for the CXC examination.

One teacher who had taught between 10-20 years said in response to the question that, the "Syllabus is wider, much more preparation is necessary" and that it was a "more interesting way to teaching the language." This reacher's response is not applicable to the question because she did not indicate an understanding of integration. She was now teaching grades 7-9 but had taught for both GCE and CXC although she sat only for

GCE. The only teacher in this group who had taught for over 20 years gave a brief response. She said, "That's a good idea because all subject areas are incorporated." Not one of the 48 teachers in this group had ever marked CXC scripts.

Thirteen teachers with university degrees and no professional training responded to the questionnaire, the smallest of the three groups. Only one teacher in this group had ever marked CXC scripts. He had taught 5-10 years and taught for both CXC and GCE at the grades 10-11 level. To the question that the CXC English A exam was based on the integrated approach he said that:

> English A Examination Syllabus is an integrated one as it provides materials and devices which are very practical and suitable for the present everyday life situation in the W.I. This places more stress on the oral presentation of the language, as learning a language is regarded as learning to speak the language.

One teacher who had taught for 5-10 years also said, "I gather that it is based on a combination of ideas about English." Both teachers quoted missed the point of the question and demonstrated a lack of knowledge of CXC's purpose. Another teacher, however, had this to say:

> To me this means that the CXC English A is an exam which takes into account some aspects of literature and also in general the utilization of knowledge of other subject

> areas. In addition this exam seems to demand that teachers be more creative in imparting knowledge.

Seventy-eight teachers with university degrees and professional training responded to the question as to the meaning of the integrated approach to the teaching of English. Of these 78, twenty-five had marked CXC scripts. One teacher who had taught for over 20 years and had marked CXC scripts was, however, vague in her response to the integrated approach. What does this mean to you? She responded:

> This is very appropriate, since English A should embody several key aspects of the knowledge and presentation of other subjects. The integrated approach strengthens the base and widens the scope of the subject.

One department head who had taught for over 20 years and had also marked CXC scripts said that, "the teaching of literature is an integral part of the language programme. In other words, these two are not taught as two separate subjects." Another teacher who had taught up to grades 10-11 said that the question meant nothing. She had taught between 5-10 years.

Another respondent was adamant that both language and literature should be taught as separate subjects and that CXC was doing no good in advocating the integrated approach. One other sample, however,

seemed to give a more adequate reflection of what teachers thought. This teacher commented:

> This means that English A will disregard the traditional boundary between English language and English literature. The integrated approach will see the teaching of material once considered as literature--such as poetry. . . The new approach calls for the use of literature in the teaching of language.

The concept of the integrated approach to the teaching of language was novel since examination papers were usually written as language or literature, not a composite of both subjects.

Having directed a question to this approach in the questionnaire, the investigator hoped to secure additional information and therefore included a question in the interview on this aspect of the CXC syllabus. The interview question asked was: "CXC believes that language and literature are complementary to each other. How do you see this affecting your teaching?" One teacher felt that she "enjoyed teaching the CXC syllabus because to teach effectively one has to teach appreciation." She saw this as a skill "you carry throughout life and that appreciation of literature would ultimately improve the quality of one's life." Yet another teacher thought that one could utilize literature for the teaching of language. One

accomplished two things at the same time, that is, getting the children to enjoy reading even as they learned the mechanics of grammar."

Of the 30 teachers interviewed only one expressed reservations. He thought the integration of language could be "carrying it a bit too far." He saw language and literature as separate subjects to be treated as such. One head of department had this to say, however: "The English teacher has to face the challenge of finding the content from which the lessons can emerge and I have always found the best content in literature."

Question Two

Question Two related to goal and objective three as set out in the CXC English A syllabus. The question asked, "In what ways do you see the CXC examination meeting, or not meeting, the needs of children in present day Jamaica?" The syllabus specified that, "Language is essential to personal growth and development."

Table V indicated how the teachers saw the CXC examination meeting the needs of Jamaican children. Eighty-seven percent of the University graduates with professional training and 81 percent of the graduates of teachers' colleges responded positively. While the

TABLE V

RESPONSES TO QUESTION TWO

Type of Response	University Graduates with Professional Training (N=78)	University Graduates without Professional Training (N=13)	Graduates of Teachers' Colleges (N=48)
NA	5	3	4
NR	1	1	3
Negative	4	2	2
Positive	68	7	39
Percent Positive	87%	54%	81%
Percent Negative	13%	46%	19%

positive response of the University teachers without professional training would suggest agreement that CXC was meeting the needs of the children, six of 13 showed lack of knowledge of the CXC syllabus. The researcher felt that the sample was too limited to give a true indication of the knowledge, or lack of knowledge, of the pre-trained University graduates. Those who responded positively seemed knowledgeable about CXC. One respondent said that, "many of the areas taught are very relevant to everyday life; writing summaries, reports, letters to the editor. Students learn to spot faulty English and to think." Another teacher in this group thought CXC "a comprehensive exam, asking more of a student in terms of his ability to express himself."

Two negative responses by the pre-trained university graduates voiced the concerns of other teachers who responded to this question in the questionnaire. One teacher thought that the exam was not adequately meeting the needs of Jamaican children "because of ignorance on the part of the public and, therefore, the stigma attached to the basic proficiency level examination." He suggested that everyone needed to be educated about the worth of basic proficiency. People thought that candidates who "sat" for subjects at

basic level were inferior. The exam would not be meeting the needs of children in present day Jamaica if those with passes at the basic proficiency were unable to be employed. In the other negative response the teacher felt that too much emphasis was placed on an examination at the end of the year. The teacher felt that, "it was absurd to think that a 17 year old boy or girl should be expected to understand poetry, for example."

The negative responses from the other two categories of teachers, that is the University graduates with professional training and the graduates of teachers' colleges, questioned the grading system. Teachers wondered why on a five point scale a grade three was not considered a pass. They compared this with the GCE O/L ABCDE where a grade C was a pass.

As in the case of the university graduates without teacher training, those with teacher training also saw the Basic Proficiency examination as not meeting the needs of the children. "The basic exam is loathed by many students even when it is impossible for them to pass the General," one teacher pointed out. Yet the consensus seemed to be summed up by another teacher who stated that, "Our Jamaican society is detaching itself

from the English stereotype. In that case CXC is meeting them half-way, gearing them for Jamaican society. . . The use of creative writing, dialect etc. relates to children's everyday life experiences." On the whole there were positive responses to the question on whether the CXC was meeting, or not meeting, the needs of children in present day Jamaica. Teachers felt that CXC was meeting the needs of the children except in the grading system and the basic proficiency segment of the examination.

Question Three

Question Three sought to determine teachers' reactions to the CXC examination in comparison with the GCE O/L examination. The question asked, "Does the CXC present a different approach to the examination of English language than the GCE O/L?" (Please explain.)

Table VI showed that all three categories of teachers who participated in the questionnaire agreed that the Caribbean Examinations Council presented a different approach to the examination of English language than the GCE. Sixty-five or 83 percent of the University graduates with professional training saw the CXC presenting a different approach from the GCE to the teaching of language. Thirteen teachers or 17 percent

TABLE VI

RESPONSES TO QUESTION THREE

Type of Response	University Graduates with Professional Training (N=78)	University Graduates without Professional Training (N=13)	Graduates of Teachers' Colleges (N=48)
NA	8	-	4
NR	5	1	3
Negative	-	-	-
Positive	65	12	41
Percent Positive	83%	92%	85%
Percent Negative	17%	8%	15%

were assessed as having made negative responses and these either gave responses that were not applicable to the question or they failed to respond to the question. The responses below were made by two heads of department. Both had taught between 10-20 years and had experience of teaching from grades 7-13 at various times in their career. These teachers had prepared candidates for both the GCE and the CXC examinations. They, themselves, had sat for the General Certificate of Education. One teacher said that:

> CXC tests a wider range of skills and language activities as it makes for more "pleasurable" teaching-learning situations. That is, there is more scope to deal with issues of interest to students while at the same time teaching/ developing language skills.

The other teacher was more detailed in her response.

> CXC has presented a different approach - the integrated approach - using literature to teach language. Whereas GCE O/L tests letters, summaries, essays, comprehension skills, CXC goes beyond to include other practical skills; speech writing, debating, statistics, using pictures for creative writing. The multiple choice paper tests a range of skills . . . CXC is by far more relevant to our needs.

The university graduates without professional training also gave positive responses to the question, "Does the CXC present a different approach to the examination of English language than the GCE O/L?"

Ninety-two percent or 12 teachers agreed that the approach was different. One teacher or eight percent gave no response. One pre-trained graduate with 5-10 years teaching experience said that the CXC required "many more skills to be learned than GCE. . . . A student who had done the CXC must be a better equipped student than a GCE student." Another said that the CXC required a more "vigorous intensive study." The response from another pre-trained university graduate who taught, at different times, grades 9-13 gave what could be seen as a summary of what this group of teachers thought. He said that:

> . . . GCE requires knowledge in only certain aspects of the English language. CXC demands preparation in almost all aspects of the use of language. CXC requires and allows the development of analytic skills rather than mere retentive capacity.

The teachers' college graduates also agreed that the CXC presented a different approach from the GCE. There were 15 percent or seven responses classified as negative. Four answers were not applicable to the question and three teachers gave no response. Forty-one or 85 percent of these teachers said that the CXC examination of the English language was different in approach from the GCE examination. One respondent said that CXC was wider in scope and because of this, "a

multiplicity of teaching techniques has to be drawn on in preparing candidates for the CXC examination."

The response quoted below was made by a teachers' college graduate who had taught for less than five years. She said that:

> The CXC differs from the GCE in that there is more scope for the child to use a wide range of skills. The subject matter chosen by the CXC is also more relevant to the Caribbean region and the subject matter usually is within the students' experience. More skills come into play, thus giving the child a better chance of scoring in the exam.

Responses from all three categories of teachers suggested that the different approach used by the CXC was marked enough to elicit concensus among the teachers. Of the 139 teachers who answered this question 118 or 85 percent gave positive answers which indicated their approval of the change in approach by the Caribbean Examinations Council.

Question Four

One objective specified by the CXC English A syllabus was that the syllabus should develop in the student, "a willingness and ability to inform himself about, and to contribute reasoned opinions on social and other issues" (p. 2). Question Four was, "To what extent does the CXC examination enable candidates to

TABLE VII

RESPONSES TO QUESTION FOUR

Type of Response	University Graduates with Professional Training (N=78)	University Graduates without Professional Training (N=13)	Graduates of Teachers' Colleges (N=48)
NA	8	5	9
NR	7	-	15
Negative	1	-	-
Positive	62	8	24
Percent Positive	79%	62%	50%
Percent Negative	21%	38%	50%

contribute reasoned opinions on social and other issues? (Please give reasons for your position)."

Table Seven showed that of 78 university graduates with professional training, 62 or 79 percent thought that the CXC examination enabled students to contribute reasoned opinions on social and other issues. Sixteen teachers or 21 percent gave answers that were coded as negative. Eight responses were not applicable to the question, seven teachers gave no responses and one teacher gave an outright negative response. The teacher who gave the negative response had taught up to the grade II level and had 10-20 years teaching experience. She said that "very little opportunity was given for reasoned opinions," that very few questions touched on social or "other" issues. She thought that, "the opinion letter does focus on issues of immediate interest to youth, but perhaps a grade 13 exam would deal with this more fully."

Another teacher was ambivalent in his comments. He thought that "in section four of paper two, there is an opportunity for candidates to write compositions giving opinions, with an emphasis on persuasive techniques." That, he thought, was "a useful complement to the narrative emphasis of section three, but there

does seem to be a need for other non-narrative (expository) writing." Yet another teacher agreed with the first teacher's comments. She said:

> Section 4 of the paper allows students to do this (give reasoned opinions) letters (formal and social) debate topics, speech. However, there is a sore point raised over and over by teachers. It is Section 111 of the paper which asks students to write a short story. This section should include essays. This would allow candidates to give more reasoned opinions on issues. This is a limitation of the English A examination.

One other opinion expressed by another teacher was that:

> CXC's coverage is satisfactory here. In the persuasive writing questions students are often invited to state views of this type. This also happens in the factual writing questions (although this is very rare). In the creative writing questions (where stories are "set") the opportunity sometimes presents itself for views to be expressed via the creative expression of the students.
>
> More than this would be dangerous as we would run the risk of testing opinions rather than the (linguistic) expression of these opinions.

The University graduates without professional training saw the CXC English A examination as allowing candidates to contribute reasoned opinions on social and other issues. Of the 13 respondents five answers were not applicable to the questions thus indicating a possible lack of knowledge of the question paper. Eight teachers or 62 percent responded positively. One

teacher said that, "During the course of study, the student is exposed to a variety of subjects, including pertinent issues in our society. He is asked to make judgments and give opinions concerning these issues, and consequently is more aware of occurrences around him. Because of these exercises, he is able to have the ability to be objective and discerning."

Of the 48 teachers with teachers' college training, 24 or 50 percent gave responses coded as negative. Nine gave answers not applicable to the question while 15 gave no response. This suggested that the teachers were not familiar with CXC's syllabus. Ten teachers "sat" for a combination of GCE/CXC while five sat only for the CXC. Thirty-three sat for the GCE in English. Since the teachers without university degrees would hardly teach above grade nine in the high schools these teachers might not have been exposed to the CXC syllabus.

One teacher in this latter category felt that "the topics that CXC covers are very much on social issues, e.g. drug abuse, teenage pregnancy, punishment etc. These are quite relevant and students can learn a great deal from them." They also engender discussions

she felt and "students give their own views and form their own conclusions."

Question Five

The Caribbean Examinations Council Examinations were new and teachers had agreed that the Council's approach to the teaching of English was different from the traditional GCE O/L. Question Five sought to ascertain the ways in which CXC affected the methods of teaching English. The question was, "In what ways has CXC affected the methods of teaching English?"

Table Eight showed that of 78 teachers, 63 or 81 percent thought that the CXC had affected the methods of teaching English. Six answers were not applicable to the question asked while eight teachers gave no response. There was one negative response. This teacher with over 20 years experience in teaching grades 7-13 had prepared candidates for both the GCE O/L and the CXC general proficiency examination. She merely said that, "It has not affected the methods of teaching."

It was stated by one teacher that "the CXC language syllabus led to more careful teaching of literature." She also found herself spending "more time on 'syntax' drills." She said that "children were

TABLE VIII

RESPONSES TO QUESTION FIVE

Type of Response	University Graduates with Professional Training (N=78)	University Graduates without Professional Training (N=13)	Graduates of Teachers' Colleges (N=48)
NA	6	-	7
NR	8	2	7
Negative	1	-	1
Positive	63	11	33
Percent Positive	81%	85%	69%
Percent Negative	19%	15%	31%

encouraged to participate more in discussions." Another teacher with 10-20 years teaching experience said that "methods had become more student-oriented." "Students were able to prepare areas of interest to them for debates and discussions. They were encouraged by teachers to compare and analyze advertisement; to report, summarize; distinguish bias; to appraise photographs that they themselves take to class." Teachers felt that more drama had to be introduced at the upper levels of secondary schools to meet CXC's stress on creative writing.

The following answers to the question indicated how two experienced teachers saw CXC affecting the methods of teaching English. The first teacher said:

> Teachers had to change from the traditional method of teaching English as two separate subjects. The teaching of poetry is now taken more seriously. Gone are the days of merely confining analysis of poetry to understanding of subject matter - what is the poem saying. Teachers now have to consider the writer's intent, devices, etc. Teachers who hated poetry have to whip up enthusiasm in students. Teachers have to introduce stimuli in class to get students to write. . . . The newspaper, the telegram, the community have entered the classroom. Teachers make more use of students' experiences. Language is now alive - oral and written. Language teaching today has seen new teaching methods - more student involvement, discussions, drama, etc.

The second teacher in response to the question, "In what ways has CXC affected the methods of teaching English?" had this to say:

(a) The demand for English specialist, rather than just any teacher, for English has been made clearer;
(b) teachers are now obliged to expose students to a wide range of language use.
(c) the inter-relationship of language and literature is increasingly felt;
(d) all students now receive exposure to poetry and literary devices;
(e) regrettably, there may have been some reduction in the intensity of practice, owing to the breadth of items requiring it.

There were 13 university graduates without professional training. Of this number, 11 or 85 percent gave positive responses while two or 15 percent made no responses. One teacher who had taught below five years thought that: "teachers now have to be more informed than ever about a wide variety of issues in psychology, politics, economics and also to encourage students to do the same. Students have to assume a wider responsibility in the learning process."

Another university graduate without teacher training had also taught below five years. He had sat for GCE O/L and had taught for CXC only. He said that CXC had affected the methods of teaching English "in that it places a constant demand on teachers to be

innovative. He thought that it had "caused quite a lot of stress." The "children's minds were moving quickly and one is burdened in order to keep up with them." The suggestion here seemed to be that young teachers graduating from university need a period of preparation in the teaching of the CXC before they enter the classroom.

Thirty-three or 69 percent of the teachers with teacher training but no university degree made positive responses to the ways in which CXC had affected their methods of teaching. Fifteen or 31 percent were coded as negative. Seven gave responses that were not applicable, another seven gave no response and one gave a negative response. The negative response was, "I do not think the method of teaching is affected in any way." The teacher who made this response had taught between 5-10 years in grades 7-9.

When responding to the question one teacher found that CXC "had increased the teachers' workload tremendously" but thought that teachers were able to "approach the subject in a practical way." It became a "learning experience for both teacher and pupil." Another teacher said that English language was no longer

"just chalk and talk as field trips were also included" in the method of teaching English.

Question Six

Question six was to ascertain whether the teachers of English thought the new CXC a proper replacement for the traditional GCE examination. The question asked: In what ways is the CXC a proper replacement for GCE? If you disagree, tell us why you disagree." Table IX showed that although the teachers agreed, on the whole, that the CXC was a proper replacement for the GCE, this question engendered some definite negative responses. The analysis of data showed that all the negative answers dealt with the grading system. This may be compared with question two where the negative responses also questioned CXC's grading system.

Of the 78 teachers in the category University Graduates with Professional Training, 66 or 85 percent responded positively to the question, "In what way is the CXC a proper replacement for GCE?" Three of the responses were not applicable to the question, while five teachers gave no response. Four teachers were, however, against the grading system and thought that this prevented the CXC from being a proper replacement for GCE.

TABLE IX

RESPONSES TO QUESTION SIX

Type of Response	University Graduates with Professional Training (N=78)	University Graduates without Professional Training (N=13)	Graduates of Teachers' Colleges (N=48)
NA	3	1	5
NR	5	-	6
Negative	4	2	4
Positive	66	10	33
Percent Positive	85%	77%	69%
Percent Negative	15%	23%	31%

One teacher who expressed no reservations with regard to grading said that the CXC was a proper replacement

> in that students are no longer at a disadvantage in relation to the material about which they are being tested. The topics about which they write are within their experience; the landscape they seek to describe is the one with which the examiners are familiar. The language they use is not artificial because they are confident that the examiner understands. This is especially true when they must write informal conversations.

The above view was expressed by a teacher who was head of the English department, had taught between 10-20 years and had never marked CXC scripts. His response may be compared with that of another teacher who marked CXC scripts and who had taught for over 20 years. She saw the CXC examination

> as more relevant, and more responsive to the target group in the region. . . The involvement of regional teachers in the marking of scripts reduces the likelihood of misunderstanding or cultural bias on the part of the examiners affecting the evaluation of scripts.

The university graduates without professional training had 10 persons or 77 percent agreeing that the CXC was a proper replacement for the GCE. One person's answer was not applicable but two expressed reservations about the grading system. One teacher in this group thought that the terms "Basic" and "General" still

seemed to be causing some confusion to some members of the public.

Fifteen responses were coded as negative, accounting for 31 percent of the graduates of teachers' colleges. Sixty-nine percent thought the CXC a proper replacement for the GCE. Four teachers saw the system of grading militating against the students. One teacher who had taught below five years said that "the exam allows less people to pass the subject not because students are not capable but it does not give average students a pass. Only the above average students are passing."

One teacher said, "I disagree . . . GCE places emphasis on vocabulary, grammar and understanding. CXC places emphasis on writing skills in much greater detail. The preparation period given for CXC is insufficient if one intends to achieve successful/ meaningful results." Yet another teacher said that CXC was not a proper replacement for GCE "where the gradings are concerned." One said that CXC caused "limitations in the expressing of one's self." She saw the objective type questions as limiting and the scope confined because the examination is "confined to the Caribbean area only."

The investigator had not asked a specific question on CXC's grading system but the teachers who participated in the questionnaire used questions two and six to raise the question of the grading system. Question Two asked, "In what ways do you see the CXC exam meeting, or not meeting, the needs of children in present day Jamaica?" Question Six was, "In what ways is the CXC a proper replacement for GCE?" The researcher will, at this point, discuss in some details findings on CXC's grading system.

The difficulty that arose in the pass/fail grading system was the result of comparison with the GCE system which accepted three passing grades: A, B, C. While acknowledging grades I and II, CXC nevertheless stated that grade III meant that the candidate has only a "working knowledge of <u>some</u> aspects of the syllabus" (CXC Fact sheet, p. 11). At the inception of the examinations:

> CXC. . . decided that the Grade II/III boundary in the General Proficiency Certificate will be equated with the C/D boundary in GCE O/Level (Fact Sheet, p. 10).

The interest in, and negative opinions on, the system of grading used by the CXC motivated the investigator to ask a question involving grading in an interview with 30 teachers. The question was, "The CXC

is not a pass/fail exam, yet many see children who receive grade III as failures. What is your opinion?"

The investigator found that of 30 teachers interviewed, 13 were against the grading system and thought that grade III should be considered acceptable. Ten teachers agreed with the present system. Of these 10, three advised that CXC should train the general public how to read the profiles on the certificates. Six teachers were uncertain about the grading system. Their uncertainty was that while they believed in CXC's stand, they wondered whether CXC should not revise its opinion in keeping with the public demand that the grade III be equated with the GCE grade C.

One interviewee thought that if the number of passes at the CXC grades I and II levels was equated with the number of passes at the GCE grades A B and C levels, then CXC should continue its present system.

The writer's interest, then, was to examine the percentage passes of the GCE and CXC systems during the period 1982-86. The aim was to determine whether there was any correlation between the percentage of students passing at the GCE A B C and the CXC grades I and II.

It should be noted that candidates sat for both CXC and GCE examinations between 1979 and 1986.

TABLE X

CXC/GCE RESULTS BY GRADE

Year (June)	GCE O/L (Percentage) No. of Candidates	Grade A	B	C	D	E	CXC General Proficiency (Percentage) No. of Candidates	Grade I	II	III	IV	V
1982	5,218	0.7	10.5	30.4	28.8	20.6	8,258	13.2	29.6	20.5	35.8	0.9
1983	5,466	0.2	4.6	23.8	27.5	24.2	10,310	12.1	33.5	28.3	23.5	2.4
1984	5,510	0.5	6.5	25.1	28.4	24.8	11,173	10.5	33.0	26.3	27.7	2.4
1985	5,042	0.5	7.0	24.6	29.7	19.9	11,387	6.8	26.9	27.8	34.0	4.3
1986	4,137	0.6	8.7	26.7	24.6	21.9	10,879	10.3	33.0	28.2	24.5	3.9

Extrapolated from:
1. Cambridge O/L Reports on Candidates 1982-1986
2. Ministry of Education - Education Statistics 1984-1985 and 1986-1987
3. CXC Reports on Candidates 1982-1986

N.B. Candidates who received U (ungraded) were not recorded in GCE so GCE percentage would not add to 100.

This meant that duplication existed. No precise figures were available to indicate the number of double entries.

The data in Table X revealed that the number of candidate entries for CXC English A doubled the corresponding figures for GCE English language during the period 1982 to 1986. The percentage passes for CXC candidates exceeded those for GCE candidates between 1982 and 1986. Far more candidates received distinctions (Grade A or 1) in the CXC English A examinations than in the GCE English language examinations.

TABLE XI

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CXC GRADES II AND III AND GCE GRADES B AND C

Year	GCE Grades B and C (%)	CXC Grade II	CXC Grades II and III
1982	40.9	29.5	50.6
1983	28.4	33.5	61.9
1984	31.6	33.0	59.3
1985	31.6	26.9	54.7
1986	35.4	33.0	61.2

Table XI gave more specific data relating to CXC grades II and III and GCE grades B and C. In light of the controversy surrounding the acceptance or

non-acceptance of Grade III as a passing grade, analysis of data from Table XI revealed that no definite trend or pattern could be recognized even though it may seem that the percentage passes for GCE Grades B and C tend to outweigh the figures for CXC Grade II. This tendency was offset by the figures for the years 1983 and 1984 which exceeded the GCE grades B and C for the same period of time.

In 1982, 1985 and 1986, the percentage passes for GCE grades B and C were higher than CXC grade II passes which would suggest that the teachers' concern about the number of candidates failing CXC would have some validity. Should the CXC grades II and III be combined, according to the data, far more candidates would be successful in CXC than in GCE O/L. The year 1986 showed 35.4 percent passing GCE at grades B and C; 33 percent at CXC grade II but 61.2 percent would have passed at CXC grades II and III, nearly twice the number of the GCE grades B and C.

Question Seven

The second goal specifically stated by the CXC English A syllabus was, "the provision of opportunities to use the full range of practical language skills required in everyday life and to appreciate the

TABLE XII

RESPONSES TO QUESTION SEVEN

Type of Response	University Graduates with Professional Training (N=78)	University Graduates without Professional Training (N=13)	Graduates of Teachers' Colleges (N=48)
NA	10	5	14
NR	20	-	21
Negative	1	-	-
Positive	47	8	13
Percent Positive	60%	62%	27%
Percent Negative	40%	38%	73%

different social context. . .". Question Seven asked, "In what ways would you say that CXC English A exam has, or has not, fostered the development of practical language skills?"

Of the 78 University graduates with professional training, 60 percent responded positively, that is, they thought that CXC was geared toward developing practical language skills. The 40 percent negative responses, however, consisted of answers not applicable to the question or no responses at all. This seemed to indicate either that the question was not understood or that teachers were not sure what was meant by "practical language skills." This trend was the same with the university graduates without professional training. Eight teachers or 62 percent gave positive responses, while five or 38 percent gave answers not applicable to the question. With the graduates of teachers' colleges, the reverse was the case. Only 27 percent or 13 teachers responded favorably while 35 or 73 percent seemed not to know how to answer the question. Fourteen teachers gave answers not applicable to the question while 21 gave no answers at all.

One teacher who had taught for over 20 years, was a trained university graduate, and who experienced teaching both for the GCE and CXC examinations said:

> I can't say there is enough scope for practical language skills, and this is a sore necessity. The language continuum remains stubbornly near to the creole, and the mastery of standard forms rests still with the minority.

A head of department who had also taught for over 20 years and who had marked CXC scripts felt that CXC had adequately provided for the learning of practical language skills. She said that:

> The syllabus deals with all the important aspects of the language e.g. (a) - drills
> (b) mechanical - grammar and usage
> (c) aesthetic - poetry and drama
> (d) creative - story writing, essay writing, letters, reports, etc. If fully pursued, the practical language skills should be adequately covered.

Yet another teacher with over 20 years' experience thought that CXC had fostered the development of practical language skills but saw that the

> reasonable demand of employers for grammatical accuracy (and, perhaps, elegance of expression) has received inadequate consideration, even in the awarding of the highest grades.

In analyzing the data the researcher saw that there were uncertainties surrounding this question and thought that clarification would be gained in interviews. One of the three interview questions,

therefore, was, "What practical language skills do you think pupils need to learn? Do you see CXC helping in this area?" Of the 30 teachers interviewed only two gave somewhat negative responses. They thought that CXC needed to focus far more on practical grammar skills such as spelling and punctuation. They felt that several students gained good passes in CXC but were unable to write without confusing the past and present tenses and the subject and verb agreements. These teachers also felt that CXC should let children choose from a variety of essay topics instead of only topics for short stories. Many children, they felt, could not write good stories and were, therefore, penalized.

While only two teachers gave outright negative responses, others were ambivalent in their attitude. When asked the question, "What practical language skills do you think pupils need to learn? Do you see CXC helping in this area?" one teacher said that she thought "the CXC had an advantage over the old GCE in stressing life skills. . . leading students to interpret such material as statistics. . . teaching students how to write and conduct interviews." But she thought that, "a drawback was that a student can pass through the CXC

programme without gaining much of the structure of the language."

Since direct quotations from the teachers provide the best expression of teacher attitudes, the following quotation seemed to sum up what most of the teachers interviewed felt:

> . . . With the old GCE syllabus people concentrated primarily on comprehension skills, summary skills and essay writing skills, although the essay writing incorporated various kinds of essay writing, narrative, argumentative, discursive abstract and so on. What CXC has done, I think, is to make their syllabus more appealing, more acceptable for teachers and students. There is greater emphasis on things people need to do like simply filling forms, sending telegrams and cables, even something as simple as finding directions from one place to another. These are practical aspects of language which were not done in the GCE examinations.

The interviews revealed a deep concern with the fact that the CXC English A examination did not enable candidates to have a wide choice in essay topics. This was the teachers' main concern as they saw CXC, on the whole, assisting children to learn practical language skills.

Question Eight

Question Eight sought to ascertain whether teachers felt that they were adequately prepared for the

TABLE XIII

RESPONSES TO QUESTION EIGHT

Type of Response	University Graduates with Professional Training (N=78)	University Graduates without Professional Training (N=13)	Graduates of Teachers' Colleges (N=48)
NA	-	-	2
NR	8	2	7
Negative	61	9	24
Positive	9	2	15
Percent Positive	12%	15%	31%
Percent Negative	88%	85%	69%

teaching of the CXC examination syllabus. The question was, "What is your opinion of the preparation teachers receive in order that they might effectively teach children for the CXC?" Table XIII showed that this question had overwhelmingly negative responses in contrast to the positive responses made to the other questions.

Of the 78 university graduates with professional training, 69 or 88 percent thought that teachers were not adequately prepared for the teaching of the CXC syllabus. Of this number there were eight who did not respond but there were no irrelevant answers. Only nine teachers or 12 percent were satisfied with the preparation received. The 85 percent negative response from the pre-trained university graduates was significant as it represented 11 of 13 teachers. Only two teachers responded favorably and they indicated that they received their training from NATE (National Association of Teachers of English in Jamaica). Of the graduates from teachers' colleges, 15 or 31 percent thought their preparation adequate while 33 or 69 percent were dissatisfied with the preparation they received. Several said that their departmental meetings

and NATE enabled them to understand the CXC syllabus, but that CXC itself had not provided much assistance.

All teachers felt that CXC, as an examining body, had not been assisting in the training of teachers, especially recently. Those who had been prepared for the teaching of the syllabus eight to 10 years ago felt that there should be refresher seminars, courses and workshops. They expressed the view that training by CXC should be an ongoing exercise. The teachers had high commendation for the work done by the National Association of Teachers of English and thought that this body should be assisted by CXC and by the Ministry of Education in the training of teachers of English.

The following three responses to the question, "What is your opinion of the preparation teachers receive in order that they might effectively teach children for the CXC?" gave an insight into how the teachers felt. The first teacher said, "This is not enough. The NATE has tried to organize workshops which have helped a few. Otherwise the teacher has to adapt. More should be done." The second teacher, however, saw the problem as having dimensions other than the necessity for training. He said,

> My impression is that, in Jamaica, many trained teachers who are asked to teach English at the secondary level (including the High Schools) are themselves uncomfortable, both with the accurate use of English and with a knowledge of its grammar and syntax. Many also have insufficient exposure to literature. The subject association of Jamaica (NATE) has done much to orient teachers to the variety of CXC demands, but cannot be expected to correct the above mentioned deficiencies.

The third response was by one of the few satisfied teachers. She thought the preparation was adequate and said that:

> . . . In the early years teachers of English were not adequately prepared and experienced difficulty in such aspects of the syllabus as statistics, speech writing. Today, there are seminars arranged by the Ministry of Education, seminars presented by NATE, departmental discussions. There are the markers of English who have the opportunity to help fellow teachers with problems. . . .

From the data collected it would appear that the teachers are on the whole dissatisfied with the preparation received for CXC. They seemed to feel that much more training was needed, especially for those new teachers entering the system.

Question Nine

The CXC English A syllabus specified that one of its objectives was "to provide opportunities for students to recognize what the place of regional

TABLE XIV

RESPONSES TO QUESTION NINE

Type of Response	University Graduates with Professional Training (N=78)	University Graduates without Professional Training (N=13)	Graduates of Teachers' Colleges (N=48)
NA	-	1	2
NR	6	1	4
Negative	2	-	3
Positive	70	11	39
Percent Positive	88%	85%	81%
Percent Negative	12%	15%	19%

dialects is in social intercourse." Question Number Nine asked, "What stand do you think CXC should take on the matter of 'dialect' in the English A examination?" Table IV showed the responses of the three categories of teachers who responded to the questionnaire.

All three categories of teachers were firm in their stand against the use of "dialect" in the examination. Most teachers felt that the stand CXC had adopted was the correct one. A stipulation of CXC was that the candidates' answers must be in standard English, except where dialogue was necessary as in Section Three where short story writing was tested.

Of 78 university graduates with professional training, 70 or 88 percent were positive; that is, they agreed with CXC's policy of insisting that answers should be given in standard English. Regional dialects were allowed only in dialogue. Eight teachers or 12 percent were categorized as having given negative responses. Six gave no response and two felt that CXC could accept the "dialect" as a "language form." One teacher felt that examples of "creole interference that have crept into 'accepted' usage <u>should</u> be accepted." He gave the word "ignorant" as an example. (In Jamaica the word "ignorant" has come to mean easily angered and

lacking in manners, as well as the usual meaning of unlearned or lacking in knowledge).

One teacher, in agreeing with CXC's position, went even further. She said that "dialect should not be allowed at all because it continually interfered with standard English." "Dialect should not be allowed in the written examination." She was a university graduate with professional training and had taught for over 20 years. Most teachers reflected the views expressed by the following quotation, "The present policy, of permitting dialect in conversation quoted in Paper 2, Section 3, (the short story) only, seems reasonable in a regional examination."

The responses of the other two categories of teachers support the trained university graduates. Eighty-five percent or 11 teachers of the pre-trained university graduates agreed with the stand taken by the CXC. One gave an answer which was not applicable to the question, while another made no response. Of the graduates of teachers' colleges, 39 or 81 percent agreed with CXC's stand that candidates should write in standard English but "dialect" was permitted in conversation. Two gave answers not applicable to the question while four returned no responses.

There were three, however, who expressed the view that dialect should be accepted in specific areas other than dialogue. One teacher said that dialect was "colorful and aptly expresses the hopes and fears of its people," far more than standard English and should be accepted. Another teacher thought, "it should be accepted and used because it is a means of communication having greater effect when spoken than the "standard."

All the teachers who favored the inclusion of "dialect" only in dialogue made the point that there are numerous regional dialects. They felt that there would be problems marking scripts if CXC were to allow candidates to write in their country's dialect.

Question Ten

Question Ten repeated in a different manner the first question in the questionnaire. Question One was, "The CXC English A exam is based on the integrated approach to the teaching of English. What does this mean to you?" Question Ten was, "In what ways would you say that the English A exam has fostered an appreciation of both language and literature?"

The concept of the integrated approach to the teaching of English was not new to classroom teachers in the Caribbean but it was never incorporated in an

TABLE XV

RESPONSES TO QUESTION TEN

Type of Response	University Graduates with Professional Training (N=78)	University Graduates without Professional Training (N=13)	Graduates of Teachers' Colleges (N=48)
NA	7	1	13
NR	9	2	17
Negative	-	-	-
Positive	62	10	18
Percent Positive	79.5%	77%	37.5%
Percent Negative	20.5%	23%	62.5%

examination syllabus. CXC's stance in setting an English Language examination with a literature component was novel. The researcher wished to obtain as authentic a view as possible of the teachers' attitudes to this approach which accounted for the repetition of the question.

Table XV showed that 62 or 79.5% of the university graduates with professional training believed that CXC had fostered an appreciation of both language and literature. The responses coded as negative comprised seven answers not applicable to the question and nine teachers who did not respond to the question. Of the university graduates without professional training, 10 or 77 percent believed that the CXC had fostered an appreciation of language and literature. One teacher's response was not applicable to the question and two gave no responses. This is a change in perception from the responses of this category of teachers to question one where they had given a 76 percent negative response. The change in response could have been due to the greater clarity of Question Ten.

The response to Question Ten by the graduates of teachers' colleges was interesting. They remained negative in attitude to the integration of English.

While 18 or 37.5 percent thought that CXC had fostered an appreciation of both language and literature, 30 or 62.5 percent were coded as negative. Of these, 13 teachers gave answers which were not applicable, while 17 made no response. The researcher felt that either the teachers' college graduates were unfamiliar with the CXC syllabus or they did not see literature as related to the teaching of language. Many of their responses were vague and demonstrated a lack of understanding of the question asked.

The overall impression from the data collected, both from the questionnaire and the three interview questions, was one of preference for the CXC examination. The investigator wished to verify this impression but more so to find out which teachers preferred the CXC. Did teachers prefer CXC because they had just begun their teaching careers and did not have the means of comparing GCE and CXC? Did years of service indicate preference? The investigator thought that the preference shown by teachers who had taught both CXC and the GCE would provide valuable information of CXC's impact on the teaching of English.

TABLE XVI

OVERALL PERCENTAGE OF TEACHERS PREFERRING CXC ACCORDING TO YEARS OF SERVICE (N=139)

Years of Service	Negative Responses		Positive Responses	
Below 5 Years	(195)	57%	(147)	43%
5-10 Years	(157)	48%	(168)	52%
10-20 Years	(84)	30%	(197)	70%
Over 20 Years	(103)	39%	(163)	61)

Table XVI illustrated the total percentage of negative and positive responses from all teachers studied according to years of service. None of the pre-trained university graduates studied had taught for over 10 years. The table showed 57 percent negative responses from teachers with least experience, below five years, and 43 percent positive responses.

Of the number of responses given by teachers who had taught between 5-10 years, 48 percent were negative, while 52 percent were positive. This showed an increase over the more inexperienced teachers. There was a marked increase in preference for the CXC among the teachers who had taught between 10-20 years. Thirty percent gave negative responses while 70 percent were

positive. The highest percentage of positive responses came from this category of teachers.

The responses from teachers who had taught for over 20 years showed a 39 percent negative response and 61 percent positive response. The trend seemed to be that the more years of service teachers had in teaching, the more they favored the CXC examination in English A. Although there was a slight increase of negative responses from those teachers who had taught for over 20 years, their positive responses were the second highest.

The table suggested that teachers with less than five years of teaching had taught chiefly for the CXC and had little or no experience of teaching for the GCE. These teachers would have been unable to make comparisons. The second category, 5-10 years, would have themselves sat a combination of GCE/CXC examinations. Some would have taught for both examinations and would, therefore, have some means of comparisons. The teachers who had taught for 10-20 years would have been able to make clear comparisons. Many of those teachers were among the CXC markers and would, therefore, have been trained by CXC. The drop in positive responses from those teachers with over 20

years of service could be attributed to an adherence to the traditional British examination system.

The overall favorable response from the Jamaican teachers of English to the CXC English A examination would suggest that teachers are fairly satisfied with the CXC. The CXC seemed to have adhered to its goals and objectives as set out in the English A syllabus.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The Summary

The Caribbean Examinations Council had initiated several changes from the traditional Cambridge GCE O/L examinations. One of these changes was the introduction of 16 subjects in the area of technical/vocational education. Another change was the concept of language and literature as complementary to each other and not two discrete subjects. Yet another departure from GCE was the introduction of the school based assessment component (SBA) in several subjects. These and other changes in the concept of curricula and examinations have caused the CXC to be seen as an agent of change.

The study sought to assess the attitudes of the Jamaican teachers of English to the Caribbean Examinations Council Examination in English A (language). The CXC was a comparatively new examination having offered its first five subjects, including English A, in 1979. Since then CXC had grown rapidly to the extent that, in 1986, 29 subjects were offered at the general and basic proficiency levels. To fully understand the impact of the CXC it must be seen against

the background of the traditional educational system of the Caribbean as a whole and Jamaica in particular.

Chapter I has, therefore, presented a brief overview of the development of education in the West Indies. The CXC resulted from the necessity for examinations more in keeping with the aims and objectives of developing third world nations. The researcher wished to determine whether Jamaican teachers thought that the initiators of the CXC had gained or lost through the introduction of the new examination.

Chapter II presented the review of literature. As Jervier stated, "The education offered in colonial societies may be described as colonial education" (p. 20). The system of external examinations was a part of our colonial heritage. Whether comprehensive tests are desirable or undesirable, our heritage ensured that this system was continued even with the advent of CXC.

The Jamaican Educational system discussed in Chapter III revealed to a certain extent the difficulty experienced in the effort to streamline the system of examinations. With CXC becoming more acceptable and offering all the subjects required in all areas of education, CXC might be the tool used for streamlining the examinations system.

Chapter IV dealt with the gathering and analysis of data. The investigator formulated a questionnaire of 10 open-ended questions based on CXC's goals and objectives as specified in the CXC English A syllabus. After receiving permission from CXC's head office in Barbados and from the Ministry of Education in Jamaica, copies of the questionnaire were distributed to all the high schools in the county of Surrey. The researcher had to leave copies of the questionnaire with the department heads for completion by the teachers. Stamped addressed envelopes were left to facilitate promptness in posting. Telegrams were sent to schools which were tardy in returning the questionnaire. Seventy-four percent of the questionnaire was returned and the data analyzed.

To analyze the data the copies of the questionnaire were sorted into three categories. The first category represented teachers with university degrees in addition to professional training (trained graduates). The second category comprised university graduates without professional training (pre-trained graduates) and the third category was the graduates of teachers' colleges. These had not received university degrees. The material was further categorized according to years of service. Each response was read and noted.

Question number one was read together and so on to question 10. These were further analyzed according to negative and positive responses.

The investigator noted areas which needed supporting data or clarification and devised three questions to be used in interviews. Thirty teachers were chosen from 10 high schools by placing the 27 names of schools in a box. Ten schools were drawn and visited and teachers interviewed at random.

Conclusions

The researcher considered the reactions of teachers to the CXC English language examination according to their response to the 10 questions in the questionnaire. Those teachers who responded in the most positive way to CXC had been in the teaching profession for 10 years and over. For 10 years CXC had been setting examinations and had celebrated 15 years of existence. During the early years there were several seminars and workshops run by CXC in all participating countries. Since that time CXC has gradually left the training of teachers to the various ministries of education and subject associations in member countries.

The findings suggested that the teachers who received the early training by CXC were conversant with

CXC's aims and objectives as set out in the English A syllabus. Since they were the ones who had also prepared most students for the GCE examination at ordinary level, they would be able to more effectively assess the merits and demerits of both examinations.

Question one was, "The CXC English A exam is based on the integrated approach to the teaching of English. What does this mean to you?" Of 78 university graduates with professional training, 68 percent understood the question and commented on the integrated approach. They saw this as an innovation with merits. Both the teachers with university degrees but without professional training and the graduates of teachers' colleges responded with more negative than positive responses. Twenty-four percent and 44 percent respectively seemed to have understood the idea behind the integrated approach but 76 percent and 56 percent respectively responded with either irrelevant answers or made no response.

From the analysis of question one, it would seem that many teachers were not conversant with all aspects of the CXC syllabus. Forty-four teachers from a total of 139 gave answers that were not applicable to the question. There was a need for refresher courses or

teach-in programs whereby teachers could assist each other in understanding the CXC position on the integrated approach to the teaching of English.

Question two asked, "In what ways do you see the CXC exam meeting, or not meeting, the needs of the children in present day Jamaica?" All three categories of teachers--the trained graduates, the pre-trained graduates, and the graduates of teachers' colleges--responded in a positive manner to this question. They thought that CXC was meeting the needs of the children by setting questions with which they could relate. Their positive responses were 87 percent, 54 percent and 81 percent respectively.

The pre-trained university graduates' negative response of 45 percent was highest. This would suggest that teachers need to have professional training before they are placed in the school system. The pre-trained university graduates had four of 13 responding with irrelevant answers or not at all. The fact that there were 78 trained university graduates, 48 college trained teachers but only 13 pre-trained university teachers would suggest that high schools in Surrey endeavor to employ teachers with professional training.

Question three asked, "Does the CXC present a different approach to the examination of English language than the GCE O/L? (Please explain.)" There was no doubt in the minds of the teachers that the CXC was different in approach to the GCE examination. All three categories of teachers responded positively with 83 percent, 92 percent and 85 percent respectively. In responding to question three, one teacher said that:

> CXC tests a wide range of language use, encouraging the candidate to appreciate the relevance of language skills to practical life situations, and obliging him to demonstrate a variety of comprehension and expression skills. The GCE "O" level exams are generally restricted to testing one type of composition writing (even if two pieces are required) along with summarizing, and comprehension of one kind of writing only.

No teacher gave an outright negative response but there were 12 NA's and nine NR's from the total responses.

Question four asked, "To what extent does the CXC examination enable candidates to contribute reasoned opinions on social and other issues? (Please give reasons for your position)." Forty-four or 32 percent of all the teachers who participated in the questionnaire gave either no responses or answers not applicable to the question. Although the overall responses were positive, there were 44 teachers who did

not understand the question. "Reasoned responses" in the context of the CXC syllabus meant nothing to those 44 teachers. The syllabus needs to be studied in detail by teachers preparing candidates for the CXC examination.

Question five was, "In what ways has CXC affected the methods of teaching English?" All three categories of teachers--the trained university graduates, the pre-trained university graduates and the graduates of teachers' colleges--agreed that the CXC had affected the methods of teaching. While there were teachers who felt that the syllabus was too taxing, there were others who enjoyed the challenge. We may conclude from the positive responses that, on the whole, teachers were satisfied that CXC had enabled them to upgrade their teaching skills and to motivate students into finding new ways of expressing themselves.

Question six was, "In what ways is the CXC a proper replacement for GCE? If you disagree tell us why you disagree." All categories of teachers who participated in the questionnaire agreed that CXC was a proper replacement for GCE. Those who disagreed were 15 percent, 23 percent, and 31 percent and these questioned the CXC grading system. Teachers failed to see why GCE

awarded C as a passing grade on a five point scale of A, B, C, D, E and CXC also with a five point scale of I, II, III, IV, V should recognize only grades I and II.

The grading system came in for strong criticism. The researcher did not ask a specific question on this aspect but teachers used questions two and six to voice their dissatisfaction. Teachers thought that CXC should revise the grading system and recognize the grade III as a passing Grade. Few teachers agreed with the grading as it existed and those who saw CXC's point of view had been marking CXC's scripts for a number of years. The markers were able to judge from the scripts they had seen. Several teachers argued that CXC should equate the grade III with the GCE O/L grade C in order to get a mid point for average students. Many teachers felt that CXC was unfair to the majority of students.

The researcher gave a detailed assessment of the grading system in Chapter IV which should indicate the need for further review by CXC. Another aspect of the grading system questioned by teachers was the Profile System. Many teachers were confused that some students got different grades but the same profiles while others got the same profiles but different grades. CXC should educate teachers and the public about the whole grading

system. Although CXC is not a pass/fail exam, the general public had been geared to see students either passing or failing on examination. The researcher suggests that CXC meet the public and the teachers half way by making some adjustments.

Question seven asked, "In what ways would you say that CXC English A exam has, or has not, fostered the development of Practical language skills?" Thirty of 78 teachers who were university graduates with professional training either failed to answer the question or gave irrelevant responses. The same high percentage, 35 of 48, of the teachers' college graduates gave responses which were coded as negative. Five of 13 pre-trained university graduates gave answers not applicable to the question. The researcher felt that the teachers did not understand what CXC meant by practical language skills, again suggesting a lack of knowledge of the English A syllabus. Sixty percent and 62 percent of the first two categories gave positive responses but the teachers with teachers' college training only gave 27 percent positive response.

The findings in nearly all the questions suggested that the teachers' colleges need to acquaint the students of these institutions with the CXC English

A syllabus. They should not be left to learn about the syllabus in the schools.

Question eight asked, "What is your opinion of the preparation teachers receive in order that they might effectively teach children for the CXC?" This question elicited an overwhelmingly negative response. All three categories of teachers felt that teachers were not adequately prepared to teach for the CXC examination. The findings suggested that the teachers of English who had recently entered the system needed training in teaching the CXC syllabus. One teacher said that:

> Teachers of English are inadequately prepared to effectively teach students for the CXC examination. . . . Workshops should have been organized on a large scale to prepare teachers who are in the field because the approach of GCE is so very different from that of the CXC.

Of 78 university teachers with professional training, 61 or 88 percent responded negatively. Eighty-five percent or 11 of the pre-trained university teachers said they had received inadequate training, while 33 or 69 percent of the teachers' college graduates thought the preparation inadequate. Several teachers commended the National Association of Teachers of English (NATE) for the excellent work it was doing in preparing teachers to teach CXC English. Others said

that they received assistance from the heads of the English departments and from those who had marked CXC scripts. While most of the graduates of teachers' colleges without university degrees expressed a lack of knowledge of CXC, it was evident that training was needed at all levels.

Training was especially indicated for the university graduates without professional training. Many of these graduates were employed by the high schools to teach at the grades 10-13 levels. Teachers without university degrees were usually placed in grades 7-9 and so it was not as crucial for them if they were not very versed in the CXC syllabus. The investigator found that the need for a working knowledge of the CXC syllabus was an immediate necessity.

Question nine was, "What stand do you think CXC should take on the matter of 'dialect' in the English A examination?" This question was positively answered by all three categories of teachers. They, on the whole, agreed with the position CXC had adopted. The percentages were 88 percent, 85 percent and 81 percent respectively agreeing with the instructions in section three of the English A examination paper which stated,

"You must write in Standard English. However, dialect may be used in conversation."

The matter of the "dialect" or creole had engendered much debate since there were no overtly grammatical questions on paper two of the examination paper. The interviewer included a question on the "dialect" since CXC stated in its syllabus that opportunities were provided for "students to recognize what the place of regional dialects is in social intercourse." Teachers expressed strong views on the use of dialect by candidates. They advocated standard English since that was the national language. The few teachers who were not totally against the use of the dialect said that CXC was doing well in the minimal use it allowed candidates in the examination.

McCrum, et al (1986) said that they found good evidence for the "theory of separate language evolution in countries like India. . . and perhaps most dramatically of all, in the Caribbean" (p. 308). The authors continued:

> Jamaica probably offers among the best contemporary evidence for the beginning of what one might call "Latinization," linguistic nationalism or the disintegration of Standard English, a paradign for the separate development of English (p. 309).

While McCrum, et al saw changes in the structure of the language taking place in Jamaica, and some people are advocating the use of Jamaican creole, there are those who are strongly against the dialect. Therefore, with its encouragement of only minimal use, CXC has gained the approval of most teachers and a wide cross-section of the public.

In the chapter entitled, "The New Englishes," McCrum, et al came to the conclusion that

> The international power of English is the force that arrests the full, separate development of Caribbean English. . . . Within the Caribbean culture, there is still a considerable resistance to the recognition of Caribbean English (p. 317).

The authors pointed out that the appeal of "Standard English lies in its association with money and success." Since Jamaica and other Caribbean countries must communicate with wealthy, developed countries where English is the spoken language, then the Caribbean countries will have little incentive in promoting the creole.

The teacher of English will find that she has to meet the challenges which will arise from the dichotomy created between creole and standard English. CXC saw the need to acknowledge and encourage the use of regional dialects in dialogue but it also saw the

necessity to demand standard English in written examinations. Perhaps it is a good thing that most teachers agree with CXC in its stand on the dialect. CXC, of course, should have seen the problems if it were it allow examinations to be written in various regional dialects.

Question ten asked, "In what ways would you say that the English A exam has fostered an appreciation of both language and literature?" This question is a repetition of question one of the questionnaire because it dealt with an innovative aspect of the CXC syllabus. Eighteen of the teachers' college graduates or 37.5 percent gave positive responses, but 62.5 percent gave negative responses. This response would suggest that in the teachers' colleges there was need for dialogue with the CXC. Both the teachers with teacher training and university degrees and those with degrees but no professional training agreed that CXC had fostered the appreciation of both language and literature. These teachers saw the integrated approach exposing children to more literature and thus heightening their sensitivities to novels and poetry. "They also came to understand that different stylistic levels are used by different people in different situations."

Recommendations

As a result of the investigation conducted by the researcher the following recommendations are being made:

1. All teachers should possess at least a first degree, in addition to teacher training. Those responsible for the training of teachers should possess a Master's degree, in the subject he teaches, in addition to professional training. If CXC is to effectively continue the work it has begun, then there is need for a revision of the whole teacher education program. Specialists should be working in all areas. The researcher found too many teachers unfamiliar with CXC's aims and objectives as specified in the syllabus for English A. The data analyzed clearly demonstrated that the university graduates with professional training were those most knowledgeable about the CXC examination in English language.

   Since the teacher attrition rate is high and teachers leave the classroom for mainly economic reasons, government should make it a priority to encourage teachers to remain in teaching. In addition, then, to upgrading teacher qualification,

teachers should be better paid and conditions of work should be improved. In an article entitled, "In Search for Good Secondary Education" Rawlins pointed out that "the withdrawal of teachers from the school system has serious implications for the future of education in Jamaica and the poor performance of some students in the CXC examinations is one consequence of this problem" (The Daily Gleaner, February 22, 1988). CXC depends almost entirely on the region's teachers for the success of the examinations. Teachers have been referred to as the "linch-pin" of the system "participating as they do in a range of activities from syllabus formulation and review through school-based assessment to marking scripts" (Walter, 1988, p. 7).

The priority is to recruit young people into the educational system, train them well and encourage them to remain with worthwhile incentives.

2. The second recommendation is that teachers' colleges should work closely with CXC and the secondary schools so that teachers will be trained to fulfill their requirements. The Pro-Registrar

of CXC stated that not only did the "Ministry of Education in Jamaica make a direct contribution in the work of CXC but the two major educational institutions . . .. U.W.I. and CAST, have given direction to the Council's work" (Walter, p. 1). The researcher felt that the teachers' colleges even more than the University and the College of Arts, Science and Technology, should play a major role in CXC.

Teachers who graduate from teachers' colleges go directly into the classrooms. These graduates, therefore, should be versed in all aspects of the CXC syllabus in their particular subject area. The researcher suggests that students who enter the teachers' colleges should enter at a higher academic level than is the case at present. If students were to be accepted with five CXC General Proficiency subjects at grades one and two with perhaps two Basic subjects with grade one then these students would perform better. The education authorities could then consider making the colleges four year institutions and students graduate with at least an associate degree. Not only would the students leave college with a sense of having

achieved a degree but this would enhance the quality of teaching.

3. The researcher feels that CXC needs to have more radio and television time and newspaper coverage. Many teachers felt that CXC needed to publicize its system of measurement so that employers, parents, students and even teachers would understand the grading and profile systems. The researcher recommends that CXC approach the private sector organizations for assistance in providing publicity. The publicity would be geared toward educating prospective employers and the general public about CXC. They would understand CXC's aims and objectives, such things as why the grade III is not considered a "pass", why a candidate who gets profiles A and B can end up with a grade II in a subject, and why the Basic Proficiency is acceptable for the world of work.

4. The investigator recommends that more workshops and seminars be conducted in an effort to educate new teachers in the knowledge of the CXC syllabi. Experienced teachers, especially those who are not involved in the marking exercise, also need refresher courses. Experienced teachers could

be used as resource persons in the same way that NATE utilizes these teachers. CXC could offer assistance to the National Association of Teachers of English (NATE) to enable the association to be more effective and reach all teachers of English.

The teachers who mark CXC scripts are good resource persons. They should conduct "in-house" training. The heads of English departments should use the knowledge these teachers have gained from the marking exercises. The researcher has seen the English departments from some schools get together to discuss CXC and has seen teachers from those schools speak on aspects of CXC which needed clarification.

5. With regard to the grading system, the researcher would recommend that CXC revises its stand on grade III being equivalent to the GCE grade D. On a scale of I to V or A to E it seems logical to accept III and C as passing grades. This could be done by narrowing the very wide grade II band. In this way the lowest level of grade twos would be added to the highest grade threes. The resultant band would comprise the new, acceptable grade III. Although CXC has stated that

it is not a pass/fail examination, the general public had been conditioned into seeing a student either passing or failing.

The data on the grading system showed that should CXC add grades II and III together the number of passes would be higher than the combined GCE grades B and C. An examination should not be so difficult that children are made to fail, yet standards have to be met and well-educated students have to be produced by the schools. The researcher agreed that students who received grade III understood some aspects of the subject. The suggestion, however, of upgrading the grade III by narrowing the grade II band and also the grade III band is one CXC should consider. The Council could compromise without a lowering of standards.

6. Compulsory primary education is necessary if the CXC's program is to have maximum benefit for the country. The researcher recommends that the present policy of upgrading primary education be escalated. But, in conjunction with the improvement of primary education, secondary schools must also receive immediate attention.

When the pupils from the upgraded primary schools, with better facilities and better trained teachers, fail to gain a place in a secondary school they will become frustrated. The investigator agreed with the Sector Survey and UNESCO teams that the educational system needed to be streamlined. All children at age 11+ should be able to move smoothly from primary or preparatory school into secondary school. They should do the same curriculum until grade nine when they should be allowed to branch off into their special subject areas. At the grade 10 level there should be common core subjects which every child must study. These should be subjects such as English, Mathematics, a Science subject and a Business subject, in addition to his special options. At the end of grade 11 children would sit for a combination of CXC general and basic subjects or only the general proficiency level, depending on his ability and career options.

The investigator recommends that Jamaica minimizes the multiplicity of examinations students take. The Caribbean Examinations Council should be responsible for all examinations, including the

Common Entrance taken by the the prospective entrants to secondary schools. Since CXC had 29 subjects on stream, both academic and technical/vocational, it was not necessary to import examinations from abroad. The CXC examinations have been accepted by higher educational institutions abroad. The Caribbean Examinations Council has become an integral part of the Caribbean while the British examination system is undergoing changes. It would be practical, therefore, for Caribbean countries to support their own examination system. The Jamaican Ministry of Education should cooperate with CXC in order to streamline its system of examinations.

The researcher recommends that the region support the CXC in every way in order that the Council effectively provide suitable examinations for the Caribbean region.

Further Research

To the Caribbean people, the Caribbean Examinations Council (CXC) was a catalyst. CXC had introduced a novel system of examinations which was intended to change the colonial perspective of the

region in respect of education. How far has CXC been able to initiate change? The following areas should be investigated:

1. a regional survey comparing the attitudes of teachers who taught for the GCE and also for the CXC. How do they see the CXC in relationship to the GCE?
2. an investigation to determine whether those who mark CXC are more responsive to the examinations than non-markers.
3. an in-depth study of the grading system, since this seemed to be of concern to teachers.

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APPENDIX A

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The Questionnaire

The following questionnaire seeks to ascertain how the teachers of English view the Caribbean Examination in English language. Your cooperation is vital if the researcher is to obtain material which will be of benefit to both CXC Council, the regional ministries of education and educators in general.

You will not be required to give your name or the name of your school. All answers will be confidential and will be treated in this manner throughout the study and in the report that follows:

N.B. If you desire a summary of the research we will be pleased to provide that for you.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Section A

Please place a check (✓) on the appropriate line:

1. (a) Department head _____

   (b) Teacher of English _____

2. Level at which you teach

   (a) Grades 7-9 _____

   (b) Grades 10-11 _____

   (c) Grades 12-13 _____

   (d) Other combination _____

   (It is important that you tell exactly what and where you teach.)

3. Qualification

   (a) University graduate with teacher training _____

   (b) University graduate _____

   (c) Graduate of teachers' college _____

   (d) Other (please specify)_____ _____

4. Years of Teaching

   (a) Below 5 years _____

   (b) 5-10 years _____

   (c) 10-20 years _____

   (d) Over 20 years _____

5. Experience with GCE/CXC

(a) Taught for both GCE and CXC _____

(b) Taught only for CGE _____

(c) Taught only for CXC _____

(d) Have sat for GCE only _____

(e) Have sat for CXC only _____

(f) Have sat for combination of CGE/CXC _____

(g) Have sat for neither exam _____

6. Knowledge of GCE/CXC Grading

(a) Have marked CXC English _____

(b) Have marked GCE O/L English _____

(c) Have marked both CXC and GCE _____

(d) Have marked neither exam _____

Section B

Please read each question carefully and answer as objectively as possible in the space provided.

1. The CXC English A exam is based on the integrated approach to the teaching of English. What does this mean to you?

2. In what ways do you see the CXC exam meeting, or not meeting, the needs of children in present day Jamaica?

3. Does the CXC present a different approach to the examination of English language than the GCE O/L? (Please explain.)

4. To what extent does the CXC examination enable candidates to contribute reasoned opinions on social and other issues? (Please give reasons for your position.)

5. In what ways has CXC affected the methods of teaching English?

6. In what ways is the CXC a proper replacement for GCE? If you disagree, tell us why you disagree.

7. In what ways would you say that the CXC English exam A has, or has not, fostered the development of practical language skills?

8. What is your opinion of the preparation teachers receive in order that they might effectively teach children for the CXC?

9. What stand do you think CXC should take on the matter of "dialect" in the English A examination?

10. In what ways would you say that the English A exam has fostered an appreciation of both language and literature?

APPENDIX B

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

LIST OF HIGH SCHOOLS IN SURVEY

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. The CXC is not a pass/fail exam yet many see children who receive grade 3 as failures. What is your opinion?
2. What practical language skills do you think pupils need to learn? Do you see CXC helping in this area?
3. CXC believes that language and literature are complementary to each other. How do you see this affecting your teaching?

LIST OF HIGH SCHOOLS IN SURVEY

(N.B. Private High Schools Were Omitted.)

Alpha Academy	(girls)
Ardenne High	(coed)
Calabar High	(boys)
Camperdown High	(coed)
Campion College	(coed)
Dunoon Technical High	(coed)
Excelsior High	(coed)
Happy Grove	(coed)
Holy Childhood	(girls)
Immaculate Conception High	(girls)
Jamaica College	(boys)
Kingston College	(boys)
Kingston Technical High	(coed)
Meadowbrook High	(coed)
Merle Grove	(girls)
Morant Bay High	(coed)
Queen's High	(girls)
St. Andrew High	(girls)
St. Andrew Technical High	(coed)
St. George's College	(boys)
St. Hugh's High	(girls)
Titchfield High	(coed)
Tivoli Gardens Comprehensive High	(coed)
Trench Town Comprehensive High	(coed)
Wolmer's Boys	
Wolmer's Girls	

APPENDIX C

LETTERS OF PERMISSION

CARIBBEAN EXAMINATIONS COUNCIL
Headquarters

Telegraphic Address
CAREX BARBADOS
Telephones: 436-6261

The Garrison
St. Michael 20
Barbados
West Indies

In replying please
quote our Ref.
7/2/08

14 August, 1986

Ms. Ivy Mitchell
c/o Western Zone Office
Caenwood Centre
37 Arnold Road
Kingston 5, JAMAICA

Dear Ms. Mitchell:

I refer to your letter of 16 July, 1986 to the Registrar. We have the following documents which might be of use to you:

1. School Reports (obtainable from Western Zone Office)
2. Examination Papers
3. USAID English B Resource Booklet (Cost: Bds. $4.00)
4. Examination Scripts

Candidates' scripts as at (4) are available but may only be used if you would come to Headquarters.

Please let me know if you need any of the above materials.

Yours Sincerely,

/s/ Kofi Quansah (Dr)
Head
Measurement & Evaluation Division

KQ/mb

Hampton School
Malvern P.O.
St. Elizabeth

November 3, 1987

The Permanent Secretary
The Ministry of Education
National Heroes Circle
Kingston

Dear Sir,

Attention Mr. C.R. Smith

My advisor, Dr. Elvin Warfel, and the members of my Doctoral Committee have approved my Dissertation Proposal. This means that I may begin to collect my data in order to complete the dissertation.

This letter serves to request your permission to administer questionnaires and conduct interviews among a sample of Jamaican Secondary School Teachers of English.

The title of the study is "An examination of the attitudes of the Jamaican Teachers of English Language to the Caribbean Examinations Council Examination (CXC)". It is expected that the study will provide information about the perceptions teachers have of the examination, the relationship of the CXC English examination to the syllabus and the manner in which improvement can be affected.

I would appreciate your permission to administer the questionnaire to the teachers of English in high schools in the County of Surrey. A copy of the questionnaire is attached for your perusal.

Yours sincerely,

/s/ Ivy J. Mitchell (Mrs.)

enc.

ANY REPLY OR SUBSEQUENT REFERENCE TO THIS COMMUNICATION SHOULD BE ADDRESSED TO THE PERMANENT SECRETARY AND THE FOLLOWING REFERENCE QUOTED:—

No._____

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
2 NATIONAL HEROES CIRCLE
P.O. BOX 498,
KINGSTON, JAMAICA

January 13, 1988

Mrs. I.J. Mitchell
Principal
Hampton High School
Malvern P.O.
St. Elizabeth

Dear Mrs. Mitchell,

Your request has been duly noted. To that end, permission is granted for administering questionnaires and conducting interviews among a sample of Secondary School Teachers of English in the County of Surrey.

All success is wished for you in your endeavors. The Ministry would appreciate a copy of such a valuable thesis, on completion.

Yours truly,

. . . . . .
/s/ C.R. Smith
Assistant Chief Education Officer
Secondary Unit
for Permanent Secretary

CRS/SC

Hampton School
Malvern P.O.
St. Elizabeth

16 November 1987

The Head of English

Dear Department Head,

I thought it would have been easy getting around to the schools and spending some time with you and your teachers but found this impossible. This is why I am sending this letter to you.

I have been pursuing a course at Lehigh University, Bethlehem, Pennsylvania, leading to the Doctorate in Education. My topic is "An Examination of the attitudes of the Jamaican teachers of English to the CXC English A (language) examination".

Your cooperation will help me greatly in producing an authentic study since it is what the teachers write in response to the questions in the questionnaire that is of importance. My advisor assures me that I cannot get one hundred percent response and I have assured him that I will.

Please assist me by putting the teachers' completed response in the enclosed envelope and posting it right away to me.

Thank you for your assistance.

Sincerely,

/s/ Ivy J. Mitchell (Mrs.)

Doctoral Advisor
Dr. Elvin Warfel
College of Education
Lehigh University

APPENDIX D

QUESTION PAPERS

CAMBRIDGE O/L ENGLISH 1983

CXC GENERAL PROFICIENCY ENGLISH A 1983

ORD/S

1115/1 Caribbean
ENGLISH
LANGUAGE
PAPER 1
Monday
6 JUNE 1983
1 *hour*
Morning

1115/1 Caribbean

UNIVERSITY OF CAMBRDIGE

LOCAL EXAMINATIONS SYNDICATE

General Certificate of Education

ENGLISH LANGUAGE

ORDINARY LEVEL

PAPER 1

(Special Paper for Caribbean Candidates)
(One hour)

Write a composition on one of the following subjects.

You are advised to write not more than 500 words. Longer compositions often lose marks through carelessness.

Compositions shorter than 375 words will lose marks.

At the head of your composition write the number of the subject you have chosen.

1. "I shall always remember May 1983." Write about memorable things that have happened to you during the last month.
2. An animal with a mind of its own.
3. Describe a person who holds power in your town or village and how his activities affect local people.
4. A busy bus stop.
5. Write about times when you have received advice from friends. Was it always helpful?
6. The funniest journey I have ever made.
7. Write an original short story based on one of the following:
   Either: (a) A person who showed great cowardice when it was least expected.
   or (b) The most successful party I have ever attended.
   (N.B. You must not repeat a story that you have encountered elsewhere.)
8. "There is little exciting about life today; it's just a big bore." How far do you agree?

This Question Paper consists of 1 printed page and 1 blank page.

2
Blank Page

ORD/S

1115/2

1115/2
Caribbean
ENGLISH
LANGUAGE
PAPER 2
Tuesday
7 JUNE 1983
1½ *hours*
Morning

UNIVERSITY OF CAMBRIDGE

LOCAL EXAMINATIONS SYNDICATE

General Certificate of Education

ENGLISH LANGUAGE

ORDINARY LEVEL

PAPER 2
(For Centres in the Caribbean Area Only)
(One hour and a half)

Answer all questions.

Number your answers fully in the left-hand margin, e.g. A1, B 13.

At the end of each Section leave a clear space of about five lines.

Read the passage printed below and then answer all the questions that follow. The marks for each section are given in brackets.

1. Zabeth, as a magician or sorceress, kept herself from men. But it hadn't always been so; Zabeth hadn't always been a magician. She had a son. She spoke of him sometimes to me, but she spoke of him as a part of a life she had put behind her. She made that son seem so far away that I thought the boy might be dead. Then one day she brought him to the shop.

2. Ferdinand was to be a boarder at the lycée in our town. Zabeth had brought him to the shop that morning to introduce him to me. She wanted me to keep an eye on him in the strange town and take him under my protection. If Zabeth chose me for this job, it wasn't only because I was a business associate she had grown to trust. It was also because I was a foreigner, and English-speaking as well, someone from whom Ferdinand could learn manners and the ways of the outside world. I was someone with whom Ferdinand could practice.

3. The tall boy was quiet and respectful. But I had the feeling that that would last only while his mother was around. There was something distant and slightly mocking in his eyes. He seemed to be humouring the mother he had only just got to know. She was a village woman; and he, after all, had lived in a mining

This Question Paper consists of 4 printed pages.

town in the south, where he must have seen foreigners a good deal more stylish than myself. I didn't imagine him having the respect for my shop that his mother had. It was a concrete barn. No one could think of it as a modern place; and it wasn't as brightly painted as some of the Greek shops.

4. I said, for Ferdinand's benefit as well as Zabeth's, "Ferdinand's a big boy, Beth. He can look after himself without me."

5. "No, no, Mist' Salim. Fer'nand will come to you. You beat him whenever you want."

6. There was little likelihood of that. But it was only a way of speaking. I smiled at Ferdinand and he smiled at me, pulling back the corners of his mouth. The smile made me notice the neatness of his mouth and the sharp-cut quality of the rest of his features. In his face I felt I could see the starting-point of certain kinds of African mask, in which features were simplified and strengthened; and, with memories of those masks, I thought I saw a special distinction in his features. The idea came to me that I was looking at Ferdinand with the eyes of an African, and that was how I always looked at him. It was the effect on me of his face, which I saw then and later as one of great power.

7. I wasn't happy about Zabeth's request. But it had to be assented to. And when I swung my head slowly from side to side, to let them both know that Ferdinand was to look upon me as a friend, Ferdinand began to go down on one knee. But then he stopped. He didn't complete the reverence; he pretended that something had itched him on the leg, and he scratched the back of the knee he had bent. Against the white trousers his skin was black and healthy, with a slight shine.

8. This going down on one knee was a traditional reverence. It was what children of the bush did to show their respect for an older person. It was like a reflex, and done with no particular ceremony. It was a custom that had spread from the forest kingdoms to the east. But it was a custom of the bush. It couldn't transfer to the town, and for someone like Ferdinand, especially after his time in the southern mining town, the child's gesture of respect would have seemed old-fashioned and subservient.

9. What could Ferdinand learn from me? What would he see when he considered my establishment? My shop was a shambles. I had bolts of cloth and oil-cloth on the shelves, but most of the stock was spread out on the concrete floor. I sat at a desk in the middle of my concrete barn, facing the door, with a concrete pillar next to the desk giving me some feeling of being anchored in that sea of junk--big enamel basins, white and blue-rimmed with floral patterns; stacks of white enamel plates; enamel cups and iron pots and charcoal braziers and iron bedsteads and buckets in zinc or plastic and bicycle tires and torchlights and oil lamps in green or pink or amber glass.

10. This was the kind of junk I dealt in. I dealt in it respectfully, because it was my livelihood. But it was antiquated junk, specially made for shops like mine; and I doubt whether the workmen who made the stuff--in Europe and the United States and perhaps nowadays Japan--had any idea of what their products were used for. The smaller basins, for instance, were in demand because they were good for keeping grubs alive in, packed in damp fibre and marsh-earth. The larger basins--a big purchase: a villager expected to buy no more than two or three in a lifetime--were used for soaking cassava in, to get rid of the poison.

11. That was my commercial setting. There was a similar rough-and-ready quality about my flat. The unmarried Belgian lady who had lived there before had been something of an artist. To her "studio" atmosphere I had added a genuine untidiness--it was like something beyond my control. On the white wall at the end of the sitting room was a large oil painting of a European port, done in reds and yellows and blues. It was a slapdash modern style; the lady had painted it herself and signed it. She had given it pride of place in her main room. She had attempted to introduce a touch of Europe and home and art, another kind of life, to this land of rain and heat and big-leaved trees--always visible, if blurred, through the white-painted window panes. She would have had a high idea of herself; but, judged on its own, what she had tried to do wasn't of much value. And I felt that Ferdinand, when he looked at my shop and flat, would come to the same conclusion about me. It would be hard for him to see any difference between my life and the life he knew. This added to my apprehensions. I wondered about the nature of my aspirations, the very supports of my existence; and I began to feel that any life I might have anywhere--however rich and successful and better furnished--would only be a version of the life I lived now.

(Adapted from A BEND IN THE RIVER by V.S. Naipaul)

ANSWER ALL THE QUESTIONS

Answer the questions in this section very briefly, wherever possible in a word or a phrase.

1. Quote a phrase from the first paragraph which shows that Zabeth now had nothing to do with the father of her son.
2. From the second paragraph write the two words which indicate the nature of the contact between Zabeth and the writer.
3. Which of the following is nearest in meaning to "humouring" (line 13): honouring; making fun of; amusing; making a concession to; entertaining?
4. Name one nationality, other than African, mentioned as working in the town.

5. Quote a phrase of four words which indicates that Salim would probably not beat Ferdinand.
6. "It had to be assented to" (line 29). Say in your own words how Salim showed he agreed to Zabeth's proposition.
7. Briefly say how Ferdinand disguised "the traditional reverence" he was about to make (line 35).
8. Which of the following is nearest in meaning to "subservient" (line 40): obedient; obsequious; humble; subversive; surprising?
9. Which of the following is nearest in meaning to "antiquated" (line 50); dilapidated; old-fashioned; archaic; useless; ancient?
10. What does Alim mean by "pride of place" (line 61)?

SECTION B (15 marks)

Answer each of these questions in no more than **two** brief sentences. At the end of each answer leave a clear space of two lines.

11. Give two reasons why Zabeth had chosen Salim to take Ferdinand under his protection (paragraph 2).
12. "Ferdinand's a big boy, Beth. He can look after himself without me" (lines 18 and 19). How would Salim's comment be for the "benefit" of (a) Ferdinand and (b) Zabeth?
13. From paragraphs 9 and 10 find three single words which show that Salim was not proud of his shop or his stock.
14. What was the effect on Salim of the concrete pillar in the middle of his shop (lines 43 to 45) and why does he compare his stock with the sea?
15. What did Salim think of the Belgian lady's painting (line 59)? What does he think is her reason for painting it?

SECTION C (25 marks)

Answers to these questions must be in continuous prose and in your own words. Leave a clear space of about six lines between the two answers.

16. Using material from lines 1 to 40 write what you have learnt about the appearance, life and personality of Ferdinand. Use no more than 60 words.
17. Using material from the whole passage write an account of Salim, his business and his home. Use no more than 120 words.

ORD/S

ORD/S

1115/3 Caribbean
ENGLISH
LANGUAGE
PAPER 3
Tuesday
7 JUNE 1983
1 *hour*
Morning

1115/3 Caribbean

UNIVERSITY OF CAMBRIDGE

LOCAL EXAMINATIONS SYNDICATE

General Certificate of Education

ENGLISH LANGUAGE

ORDINARY LEVEL

PAPER 3

(Special Paper for Caribbean Candidates)
(One hour)

Write a composition on one of the following subjects.

You are advised to write not more than 500 words. Longer compositions often lose marks through carelessness.

Compositions shorter than 375 words will lose marks.

At the head of your composition write the number of the subject you have chosen.

1. Overheard conversations
2. Write an original short story based on one of the following:
   Either (a) A close friend's or relative's preparations to emigrate.
   or (b) A dispute over an unpaid bill.
3. Brothers and sisters.
4. "The countryside and the seashore seldom appear more beautiful than when one is quietly alone, with time to observe small details." Describe a place that you find particularly lovely.
5. The advantages and disadvantages of leaving school.
6. Newspaper headline: "Disturbance at cricket match, 200 arrested." Write the report that followed this headline.
7. To what extent has your area been helped and hindered by foreign influences?
8. My earliest memories.

This Question Paper consists of 1 printed page and 1 blank page.

TEST CODE 0192
FORM TP 8307 JUNE 1983

CARIBBEAN EXAMINATIONS COUNCIL

SECONDARY EDUCATION CERTIFICATE EXAMINATION

ENGLISH A

Paper 2 - General Proficiency

2-1/2 hours

Candidates are allowed 10 minutes to read the paper before starting to write. This 10 minute period is in addition to the 2-1/2 hours allowed for the examination.

Writing may begin during the 10 minute period.

DO NOT TURN THIS PAGE UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO DO SO

Candidates MUST answer questions from ALL FOUR sections of this paper.
ALL of Section I; ALL of Section 2, ONE (1) from Section 3; and ONE (1) from Section 4.

SECTION ONE
(Suggested time: 45 minutes)
Answer BOTH questions

1. Read the following passage carefully and answer all the questions on it.

Hats off to our National Swimming Team which finished eighteenth in the recent World Swimming Championships in Austria! On behalf of hundreds, possibly thousands of citizens, I apologize to them for predicting that they could never come in the first twenty-five. A regrettable error, if we overlook the fact that only eighteen nations took part this time.

The U.S.A. team comprised thirty-eight swimmers and six officials. Ours had eight and six, respectively. How then could these stupid taxpayers say that we took too many officials? Why shouldn't the Manager be accompanied by an Assistant Manager? Who would have taken over the responsibility had he fallen ill? And suppose the team doctor had been excluded, in keeping with popular opinion? Who else would have told Larry Phillips that he would be unable to swim with the broken ankle he sustained in his hasty flight from the night club?

Phillips' injury meant that we were unable to take part in the relay events. And so the other three relay men merely went to Austria, as it turned out, to twiddle their thumbs. Yet some foolish taxpayers would have sent, from the beginning, a reserve relay swimmer at an additional cost of five thousand dollars!

-No wonder the Assistant Manager, when asked to comment on the team's performance said, "Austria is nice. . . nice people. . . nice night life."

The championships will be held in Spain next year. I think I've got an old pair of swimming trunks somewhere.

GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE

(a) Give two reasons why you consider the third sentence (lines 5-6) of the first paragraph to be important. (3 marks)

(b) Why does the writer compare the National team with the U.S.A. team in paragraph two (lines 7-8)? (2 marks)

(c) What two devices does the writer use in lines 10-16 in attempting to make his argument strong? (2 marks)

(d) Why does the writer quote the Assistant Manager's comments (lines 24 to 25)? (2 marks)

(e) Quote three sentences in the passage that are different in tone from the rest. (3 marks)

(f) What is the writer's main purpose in the final paragraph (lines 26 to 27)? (2 marks)

TOTAL 14 marks

GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE

2. Read the following poem carefully and answer all the questions on it.

GROWING PAINS

My child-eyes cried for chocolate treats
And sticky sweets
" 'Twill rot yu' teet'!"
Tinkly silver wrapper hides
Germs
Worms
Decay
How can a child-eye see?

This child-heart cried for mid-teen love
A blow, a shove
"Study yu' book!"
Leather jacket
Football boots
Are not the most sought-after truths
How can a child-heart know?

So watch the young-girl-heart take wing!
Watch her groove
And watch her swing
She's old enough
She's strong and tough
She'll see beneath the silver wrapper
Beneath the flashy football boots
She'll find the great sought-after truth
That child-eye tears are not as sad
And child-heart pain is not as bad
As grown-up tears and grown-up pain
Oh Christ, what do we have to gain
From growing up
From throwing up
Our childlike ways
For dim
Disastrous
Grown-up days.

Anita

GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE

(a) (i) Who is likely to have said the following lines:

" 'Twill rot yu' teet'!" (line 3) and
" 'Study yu' book!" (line 11)?

(ii) What effect is the writer trying to create by using them? (3 marks)

(b) In what ways is the content of the first two stanzas (lines 1-15) similar? (3 marks)

(c) Why does the poet refer to "Leather Jacket" (line 12) and "Football boots" (line 13)? (2 marks)

(d) Comment on the poet's choice of the following words"

(i) "Tinkly" (line 4)

(ii) "dim" (line 31) (2 marks)

(e) What do the following lines

"She'll see beneath the silver wrapper
Beneath the flashy football boots. . . "
(lines 21-22) (2 marks)

tell us about the young girl?

(f) What is suggested by the poet in the last seven lines (line 27-33) of the poem? (2 marks)

TOTAL 14 marks

GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE

SECTION TWO

(Suggested Time: 30 minutes)

Answer BOTH questions

3. Your class is doing research on tourism in your country. You have found the following statistics which indicate tourist arrivals and their country of origin for the years 1976-1980.

YEAR	TOURIST'S COUNTRY OF ORIGIN			
	UNITED KINGDOM	UNITED STATES OF AMERICA	GERMANY	TOTAL
1976	79	758	41	878
1977	78	714	56	848
1978	76	303	62	441
1979	79	503	79	661
1980	80	712	102	894

Write a report (in not more than 200 words) on these statistics. In your report you should consider:

(i) the overall trends for each country of origin over the five year period.

(ii) the overall trends in each year over the five year period.

(Do NOT include reasons or explanations in your report.)

(18 marks)

GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE.

4. Read the entire question before attempting your answer.

The following is a conversation between the Principal of a Secondary School and a Fifth Form student:

Principal: You and I must draw up rules for the First Formers who are coming in next term. For instance, when I walk into a classroom, or any teacher for that matter, I want the pupils to know that they must stand up.

Student: Yes. By the way, are you for or against eating in class?

Principal: Definitely against it. They're eating because they have too much money. That's also why they want to wear jewellry. No jewellry, you hear.

Student: But chains are fashionable these days. And what about those girls who have had their ears pierced?

Principal: Well, we will allow tiny earrings, nothing more. As for excuses for absence, some come without any, some write them themselves, some don't even come to me to get them signed, some bring them to me days after they have returned.

Student: There's a lot of disrespect for teachers too.

Principal: Precisely. They answer the teachers any way they want. They don't even do what the class Perfects tell them to do.

Student: They tend to damage the furniture in the classroom too.

Principal: They shouldn't be there during break or at lunch time. But when they damage the furniture they'll have to pay for it and I mean money.

GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE

Student: You mean they must go home for the money?

Principal: Go home? I don't want them leaving the school during school time without my permission, or the Vice Principal's.

Student: We have problems in the cafeteria.

Principal: Yes, tell them if they don't join the queue, they won't be served. Now, will you let me have a set of rules based on our conversation?

Imagine that you are the Fifth Form student in the above conversation. Draw up a numbered list of rules for the First Formers.

ONLY A NUMBERED LIST WILL BE MARKED. (14 marks)

GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE

SECTION THREE
(Suggested time: 45 minutes)
Answer ONE (1) question

(Your answers in this section should be approximately 400 to 500 words in length)

You must write in Standard English. However, dialect may be used in conversation.

5. Write a story entitled:

"Miss Mattie's secret." (44 marks)

6. Write a story entitled:

"Why didn't anybody warn me?" (44 marks)

7. Write a story that ends with the following last line:

"And so whenever I see Harold, I try to conceal my laughter and cross over to the other side of the street." (44 marks)

SECTION FOUR
(Suggested time: 30 minutes)
Answer ONE (1) question

(Your answers to this section should be approximately 250 to 300 words in length.)

You must write in Standard English.

8. Your school wishes to start a Parent Teachers' Association. Write a letter to the Principal setting out your arguments to show why this is a necessity. (36 marks)

9. Write an article for a school magazine outlining the advantage OR disadvantages of being young in today's world. (36 marks)

10. Your father who lives abroad wants you to pursue the career of his choice. You, however, have your heart set on a different career. Write a letter to him defending your choice. (36 marks)

APPENDIX E

LIST OF SUBJECTS AND PROFILES FOR GENERAL, BASIC AND TECHNICAL PROFICIENCY CERTIFICATION

CARIBBEAN EXAMINATIONS COUNCIL
Western Zone Office

List of Subjects and Profiles for General, Basic and Technical Proficiency Certification

GENERAL EDUCATION			TECHNICAL/VOCATIONAL EDUCATION		
Subjects	Proficiency	Profiles	Subjects	Proficiency	Profiles
"CORE" SUBJECTS			SCIENCE		
English A (Lang)	Basic & General	1. Understanding 2. Expression	Agricultural Science (Double Award)	General	1. Crops 2. Livestock 3. Equipment
Caribbean History	Basic & General	1. Knowledge 2. Use of Knowledge 3. Inquiry/ Communication	ART & CRAFT		
			Art	General	1. Craftmanship 2. Design/ Composition 3. Originality 4. Inquiry Skills in the theory of Art.
Geography	Basic & General	1. Practical Skills 2. Knowledge 3. Analysis	Craft	General	1. Craftmanship 2. Composition 3. Originality 4. Inquiry Skills in Art Theory

GENERAL EDUCATION		
Subjects	Proficiency	Profiles
Social Studies	Basic & General	1. Knowledge 2. Interpretation 3. Application
Mathematics	Basic & General	1. Computation 2. Comprehension 3. Reasoning
MODERN LANGUAGES		
English B (Literature)	General	1. Knowledge & Insight 2. Organization of Responses
French	Basic & General	1. Listening 2. Reading 3. Writing 4. Speaking

TECHNICAL/VOCATIONAL EDUCATION		
Subjects	Proficiency	Profiles
Art & Craft	Basic & General	1. Craftmanship 2. Design/ Composition 3. Originality 4. Inquiry Skills in Art Theory
BUSINESS EDUCATION		
Bookkeeping	Basic	1. Knowledge 2. Application
Principles of Accounts	General	1. Knowledge 2. Application 3. Interpretation
Office Procedures	Basic & General	1. Knowledge 2. Application
Principles of Business	Basic & General	1. Knowledge 2. Application
Shorthand	General	1. Accuracy
Typewriting	Basic & General	1. Accuracy 2. Speed 3. Presentation 4. Professional Attitude

GENERAL EDUCATION			TECHNICAL/VOCATIONAL EDUCATION		
Subjects	Proficiency	Profiles	Subjects	Proficiency	Profiles
Spanish	Basic & General	1. Listening 2. Reading 3. Writing 4. Speaking			
SCIENCES			HOME ECONOMICS		
Biology	General	1. Recall 2. Understanding 3. Inquiry Skills 4. Practical Skills 5. Attitudes	Clothing & Textiles	Basic & General	1. Knowledge 2. Application 3. Practical Ability
			Food & Nutrition	Basic & General	1. Knowledge 2. Application 3. Practical Ability
Chemistry	General	1. Recall and Understanding 2. Inquiry Skills 3. Practical Skills 4. Attitudes	INDUSTRIAL ARTS		
			General Electricity	Basic & General	1. Knowledge 2. Understanding 3. Practical Ability
Physics	General	1. Recall and Understanding 2. Use of Knowledge 3. Experimental Skills	Metals	Basic & General	1. Knowledge 2. Understanding 3. Practical Ability

GENERAL EDUCATION			TECHNICAL/VOCATIONAL EDUCATION		
Subjects	Proficiency	Profiles	Subjects	Proficiency	Profiles
Integrated Science (Double Award)	General	1. Knowledge 2. Comprehension 3. Inquiry Skills 4. Practical Skills	Technical Drawing	Basic & General	1. Knowledge 2. Understanding 3. Practical Ability
Integrated Science (Single Award)	Basic & General	1. Knowledge & Comprehension 2. Inquiry Skills 3. Practical Skills	Woods	Basic & General	1. Knowledge 2. Understanding 3. Practical Ability
			INDUSTRIAL TECHNOLOGY (PILOT EXAM - 1988		
			Building Technology	Technical	1. Knowledge 2. Understanding 3. Practical Ability
			Electrical Technology	Technical	1. Knowledge 2. Understanding 3. Practical Ability
			Mechanical Engineering Technology	Technology	1. Knowledge 2. Understanding 3. Practical Ability

GENERAL EDUCATION			TECHNICAL/VOCATIONAL EDUCATION		
Subjects	Proficiency	Profiles	Subjects	Proficiency	Profiles
			NB A Vocational Proficiency Certification Scheme will be offered for subjects at the skills/craft level in Electrical Installation, Carpentry Joinery and Cabinet Making and Machine Shop Fitting by 1991.		

April 15, 1988

VITA

IVY JOYCE MITCHELL

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Children:	Garey-Paul St. Hawthorne Mitchell Sharni Simone Francesca Mitchell
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	B.A., English and History University of the West Indies, 1968
	M. Phil., English University of the West Indies, 1980
	Ed.D., Lehigh University Bethlehem, Pennsylvania, 1988

Professional Experience:

1956-1965	Franklin Town Primary School
1968-1979	Ardenne High School
1979-1982	Workers' Savings and Loan Bank
1983-1988	Principal, Hampton High School

Professional Organizations:

National Association of Teachers of English
Shortwood Old Girls' Association
Jamaica Teachers' Association