

POLICY, EDUCATIONAL PLANNING AND THE LAW IN DEVELOPING  
COUNTRIES WITH BRITISH TRADITIONS:  
THE CASE OF BARBADOS

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Fentey Berkeley Scott

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FENTY BERKELEY SCOTT

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## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to provide a general description of the policy, institutional and legal frameworks of educational planning in developing countries with British traditions and a specific description of the case of Barbados. Seven questions guided the study. The first and second questions were directed at the social, institutional and legal framework of educational planning in developing countries with British traditions and provided a comparative dimension for the study and a developmental framework for the specific case of Barbados which was the focus of the final five questions.

The study developed a framework within which the relationship between the law and educational planning may be studied. The importance of the social, institutional and legal context of educational planning for educational planners was stressed. The procedures used in the study consisted of an examination of relevant documentary evidence, and in the case of Barbados, an analysis of the results of interviews. A semi-structured interview guide was used and interviewees were selected by the nominational technique.

It was found that developing countries with British traditions exhibit a number of similarities in terms of their

social, institutional and legal contexts of educational planning and that though they do not necessarily see each problem in the same way, they see them as major variables which influence educational planning. Factors identified in the social context were, cultural variation, language diversity, growth of urban society and the subsequent disruption of traditional ways of life, the increase in social demand for education and education diffusion. With respect to the institutional context it was found that educational planning is government-dominated and has little or no participation by citizens at large. With respect to the legal context it was found that most governments now have an imposed duty to plan for and provide education for their people but that the legal framework inherited from British rule and designed for pre-independence goals and aspirations did not provide a co-ordinated framework and has proved inadequate for the goals now proposed.

It was found that educational planning in Barbados is a government-based activity with an identifiable institutional structure. It has a very heavy political input at the phase of establishing goals and objectives, and a heavy professional input during the phases of identifying means and of designing and carrying out activities. Any group of actors may initiate the planning process which can be aborted at any stage but the final outcome of any plan depends on its acceptance by Cabinet and ratification by the legislature.

Issues of educational planning were viewed as issues related to the social, institutional and legal contexts of

educational planning; namely the problem of a common language of communication among multi-lingual peoples, the changes in culture associated with urban life and the disruption of traditional ways of life, the composition of the planning body, the role of the Church, the problem of local versus central control, and most of all the need for a change in the law to permit planners freedom of scope to develop a more co-ordinated educational system.

Based on the findings of the study, seventeen recommendations were formulated. The major ones included: adoption of a man-power planning approach, formation of a national council to co-ordinate educational plans, inclusion of non-official opinion on planning bodies, establishment of a clear and unequivocal language policy, adequate reserve powers written into legislation providing for the sharing of responsibilities, concentration of statutory law on the powers, rights, duties and responsibilities of the actors in the planning process, and re-examination of the law governing the educational systems and creation of a more co-ordinated legal framework.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES . . . . .	xii
LIST OF FIGURES . . . . .	xiii
 Chapter	
1. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM . . . . .	1
BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY . . . . .	1
THE PROBLEM . . . . .	3
SIGNIFICANCE OF THE PROBLEM . . . . .	7
Significance for Practice . . . . .	7
Significance for Theory and Research . . . . .	8
PROCEDURES USED IN THE STUDY . . . . .	8
Sources of Data . . . . .	9
1. Documentary evidence . . . . .	9
2. Interviews . . . . .	9
Interview Procedure . . . . .	10
Use of Sources . . . . .	10
Analysis of Data . . . . .	10
DELIMITATIONS . . . . .	11
LIMITATIONS . . . . .	11
DEFINITION OF TERMS . . . . .	12
Actors . . . . .	12
Attitudes . . . . .	12
Church . . . . .	12
Class . . . . .	13
Common Entrance Examination . . . . .	13
Common Law . . . . .	13
Educational Plan . . . . .	13
Educational Policy . . . . .	14
Governing Body . . . . .	14
Imperative Powers . . . . .	14
Permissive Powers . . . . .	14

Chapter	Page
Regulations . . . . .	14
Statutes . . . . .	14
ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY . . . . .	14
2. FRAMEWORK FOR THE DESCRIPTION OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES . . . . .	16
EDUCATIONAL PLANNING DEFINED . . . . .	16
ELEMENTS OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING . . . . .	18
Purposes of Educational Planning . . . . .	18
Efficiency and rational action . . . . .	19
Change . . . . .	20
Planning characteristics . . . . .	21
1) Policy orientation . . . . .	21
2) Exercise of choice . . . . .	22
3) Comprehensiveness . . . . .	22
4) Achievement of ends . . . . .	23
5) Orientation to the future . . . . .	23
The Planning Process . . . . .	24
1. Identification of needs and selection of goals . . . . .	25
2. Review and selection of alternatives . . . . .	25
3. Promulgation into law and implemen- tation of the plan . . . . .	26
THE SOCIAL CONTEXT OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING .	27
Education as a major instrument of social change . . . . .	29
Education as social service . . . . .	30
Education as a major instrument of rational income distribution policy .	30
Education as a manpower industry . . . . .	31
THE INSTITUTIONAL CONTEXT OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING . . . . .	32
Actors . . . . .	33
The cabinet and legislature . . . . .	33
The national planning agency . . . . .	34
The ministry of education . . . . .	34
Specialists . . . . .	34
Interest groups . . . . .	35

Chapter	Page
THE LAW . . . . .	36
Sources of Law . . . . .	36
1. Custom . . . . .	38
2. Judicial decisions . . . . .	39
3. Legislation . . . . .	39
Statutory legislation . . . . .	39
Delegated legislation . . . . .	39
Functions of the Law . . . . .	40
The prescriptive function . . . . .	42
The intelligence function . . . . .	43
The review function . . . . .	43
SUMMARY . . . . .	45
3. THE EXPERIENCE OF DEVELOPING COUNTRIES . . . . .	46
THE SOCIAL CONTEXT . . . . .	47
Africa . . . . .	47
Cultural variations . . . . .	48
Language diversity . . . . .	50
Rural-urban problems . . . . .	51
Diffusion of education . . . . .	53
Achievement of national goals . . . . .	54
South Asia . . . . .	56
Cultural variations . . . . .	56
Language diversity . . . . .	59
Rural-urban problems . . . . .	60
Diffusion of education . . . . .	62
Achievement of national goals . . . . .	63
The Caribbean Area . . . . .	64
Cultural values . . . . .	64
Language diversity . . . . .	66
Diffusion of education . . . . .	67
Achievement of national goals . . . . .	67
THE INSTITUTIONAL CONTEXT . . . . .	69
Africa . . . . .	70
South Asia . . . . .	73
The Caribbean Area . . . . .	74
THE LEGAL CONTEXT . . . . .	76
Historical Patterns . . . . .	77
Powers, Controls and Remedies . . . . .	80
Planning Powers . . . . .	83

## Chapter

## Page

SUMMARY . . . . .	86
4. THE CASE OF BARBADOS: THE HISTORICAL CONTEXT OF THE STUDY . . . . .	89
Colonization 1627-1645 . . . . .	90
Sugar, Slavery and their Significance, 1646-1834 . . . . .	91
Emancipation 1834-1870 . . . . .	96
The Post-emancipation and Pre- independence Period, 1871-1966 . . . . .	100
Independence 1966-1973 . . . . .	108
SUMMARY . . . . .	109
5. THE CASE OF BARBADOS: EDUCATIONAL POLICY ISSUES, PLANNING STRUCTURES AND THE PLANNING PROCESS . . . . .	112
EDUCATIONAL POLICY ISSUES IN BARBADOS . . . . .	112
Aims and objectives . . . . .	113
Promotion of nationalism in a democratic country . . . . .	114
Co-operation and consolidation of the family group . . . . .	116
Wider and more effective participation . . . . .	117
Flexibility of the system . . . . .	122
Relevant education . . . . .	123
Training citizens to be efficient . . . . .	125
Efficiency of the system . . . . .	125
THE INSTITUTIONAL STRUCTURE OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING IN BARBADOS . . . . .	128
The Cabinet . . . . .	129
The Legislature . . . . .	129
The Ministry of Education . . . . .	131
The Minister . . . . .	131
Educational Planning and Development Committee . . . . .	132
National Curriculum Development Council . . . . .	133
Specialists . . . . .	134
Governing Bodies . . . . .	135
Interest Groups . . . . .	137

Chapter	Page
Teachers' Unions . . . . .	137
Parent-Teacher Associations . . . . .	138
The Barbados Junior Chamber of Commerce and the Lions' Club . . . . .	138
THE PLANNING PROCESS AND THE VISIBILITY OF ACTORS IN IT . . . . .	139
SUMMARY . . . . .	145
6. THE LEGAL FRAMEWORK OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING IN BARBADOS . . . . .	146
POWERS TO CONTROL . . . . .	146
POWERS TO PLAN . . . . .	152
THE REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING . . . . .	155
Legislative Review . . . . .	155
Administrative Review . . . . .	157
Judicial Review . . . . .	158
SUMMARY . . . . .	160
7. SUMMARY, ISSUES AND CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS . . . . .	163
SUMMARY . . . . .	164
Descriptive Framework . . . . .	164
The Experience of Developing Countries with British Traditions . . . . .	165
The social context . . . . .	165
The institutional context . . . . .	166
The legal context . . . . .	166
The Case of Barbados . . . . .	167
Historical context . . . . .	167
Policy issues . . . . .	168
The Structure and Planning Process . . . . .	170
The Legal Framework . . . . .	171
ISSUES AND CONCLUSIONS . . . . .	172
Developing Countries . . . . .	172
Social context . . . . .	172
Institutional context . . . . .	174
Legal context . . . . .	175

Chapter	Page
Barbados . . . . .	177
Social context . . . . .	177
Institutional context . . . . .	179
Legal context . . . . .	184
Descriptive Framework . . . . .	186
RECOMMENDATIONS . . . . .	186
FOR PRACTICE . . . . .	186
FOR FURTHER STUDY . . . . .	190
BIBLIOGRAPHY . . . . .	192
APPENDICES . . . . .	207
A. Countries Discussed in the Study . . . . .	208
B. Frequency of Nomination . . . . .	209
C. A Note on the Nominational Approach . . . . .	211
D. Interview Guide . . . . .	213
E. Common Entrance Examination 1968, 1971, 1972 . . . . .	215

## LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
3.1	Projected Enrolment in Education . . . . .	54
3.2	Per Cent Distribution By Educational Level of Males and Females 15 Years and Over . . . . .	61
3.3	Percentage of Literates Among Different Castes and Communities, India, 1960 . .	62
3.4	Actors in the Planning Process . . . . .	73
3.5	Growth of Government & Mission Schools 1881-1901 . . . . .	78

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure		Page
2.1	The Role of Actors in the Planning Process . . . . .	37
2.2	The Relationship of Educational Planning and the Law by Function . . . . .	41
4.1	Flow Chart of Educational System in Barbados . . . . .	110
5.1	The Visibility of Actors in the Planning Process . . . . .	140

## CHAPTER 1

### STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

#### BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

The developing countries of Africa, South Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean area share with one another certain educational problems and aspirations. According to Adams and Bjork, they show a great desire

to bolster their status in the world community, to strengthen national cohesion, eradicate neo-colonialism, spread modern attitudes and maintain the fervor of their élites for national development.<sup>1</sup>

To achieve these ends, they are seeking to expand formal education at all levels to increasing numbers of people, and to modify their educational systems to make them more efficient instruments in the achievement of national goals. New curricula, new instructional techniques and new policies are being considered. Educational planning is being seen as one of the means of fitting these changes into an educational policy designed to bring about educational progress and national development.<sup>2</sup> Until recently, the means needed to accomplish these ends were not well developed, and little consideration was given to educational planning beyond the

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<sup>1</sup>Adams, D. and R.M. Bjork: Education in Developing Areas. (David McKay Co. Inc., N.Y., 1969), p. 123.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

acquisition of new buildings. Education, especially at the secondary and higher levels, was provided for only a small proportion of the children and there was little linkage between education and economic life. Educational policy was aimed primarily at providing elementary schooling for the lower classes and more advanced instruction for the upper classes.<sup>3</sup>

Today, however, there is a growing sense of urgency about educational matters in as much as education has been recognized as an important agent of national development.<sup>4</sup> Also, the general provision of education, its link with economic life, the fact of independence for several developing countries and a world consciousness of the plight of these nations have focused attention on their problems including the problems in the field of education. The need for planning has been established.

Given this need, there is also a need to create appropriate legal and institutional frameworks, reflecting the aspirations and the new attitudes and desires of the people. According to Dror, the law is always an important

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<sup>3</sup>See Lewis, L.V.: Policy and Practice in Tropical Areas. Oxford University Press 1960, and Williams, Eric: Education in the British West Indies. Walter Goldwater, N.Y. 1968.

<sup>4</sup>See for example, Commonwealth Ministers of Education Conference, June 1970, File B 11/6, Ministry of Education, Barbados. Hug, M.S. Education, Manpower & Development in South and Southeast Asia. N.Y.: Praeger 1975 and Makulu, H.F. Education, Development & Nation-building in Independent Africa. London: SCM Press Ltd., 1971.

instrument of social policy, and as such it should be sufficiently flexible to make the adaptations required by the changing social context in which it operates.<sup>5</sup> Newton Edwards goes even further when he states:

The law as a guardian of the intrinsic values is a preservative and conservative influence in society but is also concerned with adaptation and change, that is with the application of old concepts and principles to new social conditions and with the development of new concepts and principles when a new social context requires such action.<sup>6</sup>

Effective planning will therefore require a knowledge of the law as it relates to planning, and the legal framework within which planners work will be significant in terms of what changes they can effect as well as how these changes may be effected.

#### THE PROBLEM

The necessity of extending satisfactory educational facilities to all members of the community has become apparent to developing countries as they embark on schemes of modernization.<sup>7</sup> Modernization, however, requires that

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<sup>5</sup> See Dror in American Behavioral Scientist "Law as a Tool of Directed Social Change: A Framework for Policy-making" p. 553-554.

<sup>6</sup> See Newton Edwards "Stability and Change in Basic Concepts of Law Governing American Education" in School Review Autumn 1957 Vol.65 No. 8 p. 161-2.

<sup>7</sup> See Seers, Dudley. "The Meaning of Development" in The Agricultural Development Council Inc, Reprint Sept. 1970, p. 9; also Beeby, C.E.: The Quality of Education in Developing Countries. p. 9; Lewis L.J. op. cit. p. 86 and Adams & Bjork, op. cit. Ch. II.

education be given a central place and that plans and policies be devised to eliminate the growing unemployment, poverty and hardships which generally characterize life in developing countries. This in effect means not only creating the needed educational facilities but also producing teachers and structures capable of meeting the countries' needs. It is important that planners understand the dominant attitudes of the people in the society towards education in order to produce a policy and develop institutional and legal frameworks as necessary infra-structure to the education system.

The purpose of the study was to provide a description of educational planning in developing countries with British traditions,<sup>8</sup> its policy and institutional and legal frameworks. The case of Barbados was examined as an example of this group. Seven specific questions guided the study. The first and second questions were directed at the general context of the developing countries with British traditions and were intended to provide a comparative dimension for the study as well as a developmental framework for the specific case of Barbados. The questions were

1.0 Social aspects of educational planning in developing countries. The first problem was to describe the social aspects of educational planning in developing countries at a general level.

1.1 What is the social context of educational planning in developing countries?

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<sup>8</sup>See Appendix A

1.2 What are the goals of educational planning in developing countries?

1.3 What are the common problems of educational planning in developing countries?

1.4 What is the institutional framework of educational planning in developing countries?

2.0 Legal aspects of educational planning in developing countries. The second problem was to describe the legal framework of educational planning in developing countries.

2.1 What is the legal context of educational planning in developing countries?

2.2 What powers and controls operate in educational planning in developing countries?

2.3 What forms of review or remedies operate in educational planning in developing countries?

2.4 What are the governments' powers to plan education in developing countries?

3.0 The Historical and Social context of educational planning in Barbados. The third problem was to provide a description of the historical and social factors which shaped educational planning in Barbados.

3.1 What are the historical factors which influenced educational planning in Barbados?

3.2 What are the social conditions which influenced educational planning in Barbados?

3.3 What are the main social divisions which affect

educational planning in Barbados?

4.0 The Institutional framework of educational planning in Barbados. The fourth problem was to examine the role of the minister and other actors in the planning process.

4.1 What is the role of the Minister in educational planning in Barbados?

4.2 Can various other actors be identified in the planning process? If so, what are their roles?

5.0 Policy articulation in educational planning in Barbados.

The fifth problem was to examine how policy is articulated and how it is related to educational planning in Barbados.

5.1 What are the general goals of education in Barbados?

5.2 How is educational policy formulated in Barbados?

5.3 How is educational policy articulated in Barbados?

5.4 How is educational policy related to educational planning in Barbados?

6.0 The Function of the Law and its impact on educational planning in Barbados. The sixth problem was concerned with the legal framework of educational planning and its impact on educational planning in Barbados.

6.1 What is the legal framework of educational planning in Barbados?

6.2 What is the function of the law with respect to educational planning in Barbados?

6.3 What powers and controls operate in educational planning in Barbados?

7.0 The control and review of educational planning including the role of the courts in educational planning in Barbados.

The seventh problem involved an examination of the control and review of educational planning and the role of the courts.

7.1 Are educational plans subject to judicial review, administrative review or review by the legislature or any other public body?

7.2 What legislative and/or judicial control is there over educational planning in Barbados?

7.3 What role have the courts played in educational planning in Barbados?

#### SIGNIFICANCE OF THE PROBLEM

The study should have significance both for practice and research in educational planning.

#### Significance for Practice

It is hoped that information about the law as it relates to educational planning will be useful to educators as they attempt changes in their educational systems, for as J. Roger Carter says

A framework of law that is too meticulous in the constraints it imposes on the educational system will not easily allow for such changes of mind. On the other hand, where the legal supports are inadequate, educational administration may relapse into confusion, competing claims and ambitions remain unresolved, and educational standards suffer in consequence.<sup>9</sup>

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<sup>9</sup>Carter, J. Roger. "Legal Framework of Educational Planning and Administration in East Africa." I.I.E.P. 1968, p. 182.

Acquiring knowledge about the law as it relates to educational planning is an important first step in meeting the demands being made on educational planners in developing countries. It seems probable therefore that the present study could be useful for educational practitioners as no formal study of the relationship of educational planning and the law has yet been undertaken. The study could also be a guide to formulating programs, for "in any event it [the law] plays a fundamental role in giving direction, order, cohesion and stability to the complex educational enterprise."<sup>10</sup>

#### Significance for Theory and Research

It is hoped that the study will provide not only a frame of reference for viewing educational planning but also the necessary basis or background for in depth studies for particular aspects of law and educational planning for developing countries. The reshaping of the legal framework of education to meet the vastly changed needs and aspirations of their independent societies is an important aspect of educational planning for developing countries. Research done in this area then will furnish a suitable starting point for further research.

#### PROCEDURES USED IN THE STUDY

The procedure used in the study consisted of an examination of relevant documentary evidence and an analysis

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<sup>10</sup>Ibid., p. ii.

of the results of interviews.<sup>11</sup>

### Sources of Data

1. Documentary evidence. Annual reports, circulars, policy statements and other publications of the Ministry of Education were examined as well as reports of advisory bodies and special commissions. The Education Act 1890 and Amendments and the Town and Country Planning Development Control Orders, statutes of relevance for educational planning were examined while Hansard of legislative debates and miscellaneous reports, books and articles produced valuable information for the study.

2. Interviews. The study employed the nominational approach<sup>12</sup> of investigation for the selection of interviewees. Nominations of those considered actively involved in educational planning in Barbados were requested from the following persons who were considered 'focal' persons by virtue of their positions (in education). Nominations were not restricted to those who held positions in the field of education.

- (a) The Minister
- (b) The Chief Education Officer (acting)
- (c) The Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Education
- (d) The Director of In-Service Education,  
University of the West Indies
- (e) The Planning Officer, Ministry of Education

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<sup>11</sup>See Appendix B for the list of nominees and frequency of mentions.

<sup>12</sup>See Appendix C.

- (f) The Deputy Chief Education Officer (acting),  
Curriculum Division
- (g) The Senior Administrative Secretary,  
Ministry of Education
- (h) The Deputy Director, Economic Planning Unit

The final list of those interviewed was determined by the frequency of nomination.<sup>13</sup>

Interview procedure. A semi-structured interview guide was used for eliciting information concerning the research problems from individuals nominated. Each interview was taped and transcribed. A separate interview schedule was prepared for each nominee, though where possible the same questions were used.<sup>14</sup>

Use of sources. It should be stressed that a combination of sources was used. For example, annual reports of the Ministry of Education, Policy statements, the Town and Country Planning Development Orders, the Education Act, and the use of interviews provided material for actor categories. As a means of gaining a degree of accuracy, newspapers, Hansard etc. were used to cross-check statements attributed to individuals or made by those interviewed.

Analysis of data. Each transcript derived from the interviews was edited and analysed for content. Responses were combined before being reported. Following this, a sort

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<sup>13</sup>See Appendix B

<sup>14</sup>See Appendix D

was made to develop sub-topics within general categories determined by the questions which guided the study. This information was then combined with data gathered from other sources.

#### DELIMITATIONS

1. In planning the study, it was neither possible nor intended to examine the whole scope of education in all developing countries. Only former British colonies in the tropical areas of Africa, South Asia and the Caribbean area have been considered.

2. The study was further delimited to Barbados as a means of gathering detailed information about the experience of a specific developing country.

#### LIMITATIONS

The study should be viewed in the light of the following limitations:

1. Information-gathering techniques in developing countries are not always very sophisticated and some statistical information and documents were not available. Interviews, Hansard and newspapers were used to ameliorate such situations in the case of Barbados.

2. The choice of persons interviewed must be considered a limitation even though the list of those interviewed was determined by the frequency of nominations made by educational notables.

3. Government officials are usually discreet concerning matters which they feel are not completely within their sphere of authority and so are loathe to disclose information. However approval of the study by the Chief Education Officer made it easier for them to supply information.

#### DEFINITION OF TERMS

The terms defined below are used generally throughout the study. The definitions are brief as the terms are more fully explained in the text. Sources used were

1. H. C. Black's Law Dictionary; 4th ed., 1968
2. Earl Jowitt The Dictionary of English Law, 1969
3. George Theodorson & Achilles Theodorson, Modern Dictionary of Sociology, 1969

#### Actors

This refers to agencies, institutions and persons involved in the planning process.

#### Attitudes

A tendency to act in a consistent manner toward certain related objects and situations. In education, this is manifested in relation to educational plans, policies or directives.

#### Church

A formal organization serving as a focal point for

religious activity. It is here restricted to the Anglicans, Moravians and Catholics who have influenced education in the countries described in this study.

### Class

This refers to social class and consists of persons with a similar level of prestige symbols. Symbols may be based on factors considered significant in society. In developing countries, type of occupation, social activities and educational background are generally considered significant.

### Common Entrance Examination

This is an examination which is used to determine allocation of places to secondary schools. It is taken at about the age of eleven.

### Common Law

Law as used in contradistinction to law created by the enactment of legislation. It denotes the "unwritten law" and derives its authority from the recognition given by the courts to principles, customs and rules of conduct previously existing among the people.

### Educational Plan

This refers to a document or set of documents outlining the activities which will guide educational personnel in the operation of the educational systems. Plans may be elaborate, long term or short term, or may be designed to deal with one specific objective.

### Educational Policy

A set of decisions about aims and objectives of education and the means of achieving them.

### Governing Body

A legal body charged with the control and operation of a school. Members are appointed by the Minister of education from among prominent members of the community. Boards range from three to fourteen members.

### Imperative Powers

Statutory powers granted an individual. These do not permit nor require subjective judgment on his part.

### Permissive Powers

Powers related to regulatory action in education. They allow an individual to exercise judgment before acting.

### Regulations

Decree promulgated by the minister through his department with the approval of Cabinet.

### Statutes

Law as enacted by Legislature.

## ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

Chapter 2 sets out a framework for the description of educational planning in developing countries. It gives a description of educational planning, outlines the elements

of educational planning and considers the social, institutional and legal contexts of educational planning. Chapter 3 outlines the social and legal contexts of educational planning in the former British colonies in Africa, South Asia and the Caribbean. Information about the historical and social context of Barbados from colonization through Independence is given in Chapter 4 while Chapter 5 describes the actors in the planning process, policy-formulation and the planning process in Barbados. Chapter 6 outlines the powers to control and plan education in Barbados and examines means of review of educational planning. Chapter 7 gives a summary, discusses issues and conclusions reached in the study and makes certain recommendations for practice and for further study.

## CHAPTER 2

### FRAMEWORK FOR THE DESCRIPTION OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

In order to facilitate a systematic examination of the policy and the institutional and legal frameworks of educational planning in developing countries, the present study first developed a framework within which the relationship between the law and educational planning may be investigated. The following section gives a definition of educational planning, and sets out the purposes and characteristics of educational planning; it also describes the planning process, the social context and institutional framework and outlines the sources and functions of the law as well as the possible relationship of the various components.

#### EDUCATIONAL PLANNING DEFINED

Definitions of educational planning are varied and diverse, ranging from idealized statements such as that produced at an Inter-American Seminar in 1958:

the overall planning of education is a continuous, systematic process, involving the application and co-ordination of social research methods, and of principles and techniques of education, administration, economics and finance, with participation and support of the general public, in private as well as State activities, with a view to securing adequate education for people, with definite aim, and in well defined stages, and to providing everyone with an opportunity of developing

his potentialities and making the most effective contribution to the social, cultural and economic development of the country,<sup>1</sup>

to simple definitions such as

the process of preparing a set of decisions for future action pertaining to education.<sup>2</sup>

A more complete definition was offered by Ackoff as

a process that involves making and evaluating each of a set of interrelated decisions before action is required in a situation in which it is believed that unless action is taken a desired future state is not likely to occur, and that, if appropriate action is taken, the likelihood of a favorable outcome can be increased.<sup>3</sup>

Coombs<sup>4</sup> has attributed the difficulty in defining educational planning to the rapid growth of educational planning and to its diversified and complex nature as well as to its 'youth'.

Though most definitions have certain elements in common, certain limitations may be noted. Adams and Bjork<sup>5</sup> have pointed out that most definitions make no mention of the relationship between innovation and educational planning, and that there is no distinction made between educational planning and other related processes. It may be added that they ignore the fact that educational planning in any setting is

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<sup>1</sup>Quoted in Elements of Educational Planning: Unesco, Paris, p. 13.

<sup>2</sup>Don Adams & R.M.Bjork op. cit. p. 142.

<sup>3</sup>Ackoff, R.L. A Concept of Corporate Planning N.Y. Wiley-Interscience, 1970, p. 4.

<sup>4</sup>Coombs, P.H. What is Educational Planning? Paris, Unesco, 1970 p. 12.

<sup>5</sup>Adams & Bjork op. cit. p. 142.

guided by the goals or policy to be implemented, by the needs of the given society and by the existing legal realities. Educational planning will be used here to refer to a sanctioned means of determining the policy and priorities of an educational system, considering the economic, political, social and legal realities for meeting the needs of a society.

The definition presented here serves as a means of guiding the discussion which follows. It implies that there are certain purposes associated with educational planning; that there needs to be some legitimacy for educational planning; that it does not exist in isolation from other institutional arrangements and that a certain process exists for determining choices within a framework of legal and other realities.

## ELEMENTS OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

### Purposes of Educational Planning

Viewed generally, educational planning is an instrument for defining and developing the resources required to grapple with the immense needs in a developing country. It may be employed for a number of reasons--for the improvement or expansion of the educational system or of its curriculum and instruction, or of the auxiliary services and the balance of its different parts. In short there is a means-end relationship implicit in planning which appears to have as its major purposes, two classes of objectives, namely, efficiency and

rational action and change or widening of choice.<sup>6</sup>

Efficiency and rational action. Developing countries have an urgent need for the efficient allocation of resources, especially of trained manpower. Educational planning has as one of its purposes the efficient allocation of these resources and the increase in production of trained personnel as well as the reduction of waste within the educational system.

According to Davidoff and Reiner,

the efficient utilization of resources would be that which satisfied the particular preferences of individual actors - as such preferences are determined and aggregated in a manner accepted in a given society. Efficiency thus is measured in terms of the purpose it serves.<sup>7</sup>

Rational action on the other hand is considered the 'sine qua non' of planning and refers to increasing the reasonableness of a decision. This view is supported by Simon's model of "satisficing"<sup>8</sup> and by Kaplan who pointed out that

man will doubtlessly operate somewhere in the realm of bounded rationality rather than reach perfect rationality.<sup>9</sup>

Perfect rationality would imply perfect knowledge and the ability to compute all possible alternatives. Man however cannot compute all possible alternatives or would

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<sup>6</sup>See Davidoff P. and T. Reiner "A Choice Theory of Planning" in Journal of American Institute of Planners, Vol.28, 1962. p. 105 where they point out that though a number of reasons may be employed, any one can serve independently or in combination with others as the objective of planning.

<sup>7</sup>Ibid.

<sup>8</sup>Simon, Herbert A. Models of Man. John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York, 1957, Ch. 14.

<sup>9</sup>Kaplan, A. op. cit. p. 104.

find the cost of doing so too great. He therefore operates on imperfect knowledge, or in other words, in the realm of "bounded rationality". Rational action, that is, taking into account and weighing the ends, the means and the secondary results,<sup>10</sup> may be considered a means of achieving efficiency in educational planning. For the educational planner it implies the provision of information both about what can be expected in the future and about the existing state of affairs, and requires an identification of alternatives.

Change. Change is viewed as a function of planning. Developing countries have been described as "century-skippers" because of their tendency to seek to achieve greater results in much shorter time than was required of the now developed nations. While in the past, change was gradual and based on chance discoveries of solutions to practical problems of survival or was limited to one sphere, and little effort was exerted to anticipate resultant changes in related activities; recently attempts have been made to obtain specific consequences in change, whether a change in values, in structural reconstruction or a change in direction. The assumption made here is that man, through rational action, can affect the rate and direction of on-going change, thereby improving his lot.

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<sup>10</sup>Max Weber contrasts this with "social action that is traditionally oriented through the habituation of long practice." For a lengthy explication see John Friedman discussion in Bertram M. Cross, (ed.) Action Under Planning: The Guidance of Economic Development, Ch. II.

Planning characteristics. There are several characteristics of the act of planning: (1) policy orientation,<sup>11</sup> (2) exercise of choice,<sup>12</sup> (3) comprehensiveness,<sup>13</sup> (4) achievement of ends,<sup>14</sup> and (5) orientation to the future.<sup>15</sup>

1) Policy orientation. In attributing to planning certain purposive activities, one acknowledges the presence of goals or objectives. Policy is concerned with goals and can be viewed both in terms of the statement of goals or objectives, and in terms of the legislation in which these goals find more concrete expression. In this way, this characteristic is a fundamental component of planning. The formation of policy in education constitutes a complex process involving many people working through various institutions in various settings.

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<sup>11</sup>See OECD Background Study No. 5 Conference on Policies for Educational Growth & Ruscoe, G. "The Conditions for Success in Educational Planning". Unesco, IIEP, 1969 which both stress the centrality of policy in educational planning.

<sup>12</sup>Davidoff & Reiner op. cit. See exercise of choice as operating mainly in the area of values. One needs however to exercise choice in the areas of means and alternatives as well.

<sup>13</sup>See Ackoff, R.L. A Concept of Corporate Planning. N.Y. Wiley-Interscience, 1970 pp. 4-5 & Mendes, D.T. Toward A Theory of Educational Planning: The Brazilian Case, East Lansing, Michigan, 1972, pp. 24-29.

<sup>14</sup>Mendes, op. cit. p. 119.

<sup>15</sup>Coombs, op. cit. pp. 14-15.

2) Exercise of choice. As planners set up priorities, they are faced with establishing certain alternatives and with choosing from these alternatives. Waterston sums up this exercise of choice very well in economic terms.

Educational planning involves the application of a rational system of choices among feasible courses of educational investment.<sup>16</sup>

Planning must not only determine significant variables but must assign a degree of probability of outcome to these variables. Generally, planners will be guided in this exercise of choice by the established policy, by the law or by some need articulated within the society. Le Breton and Henning in relating the dimensions of a plan to a theory of choice, point out that

the greater the significance of a plan, the greater the likelihood that the planner will find it advantageous to include a greater variety of alternatives; to use sophisticated techniques of decision-making.<sup>17</sup>

Exercise of calculated choice is considered by Davidoff and Reiner as the characteristic intellectual act of planning.<sup>18</sup>

3) Comprehensiveness. Planning not only relates the components of a system to each other but also serves to provide a link between various systems; educational planning, for example, has to consider not only the educational system

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<sup>16</sup>Waterston, Albert A. "What do we know about planning?" International Development Review, Vol. 7 (December 1965)

<sup>17</sup>Le Breton, P. P. and Dale A. Henning. Planning Theory. Prentice-Hall, Inc., N.J., 1964, p. 115.

<sup>18</sup>Davidoff & Reiner op. cit. p. 106.

but also its relationship to the economic, political and legal systems. Furthermore in order to allow decision-makers to choose rationally among alternative programs, planning must be comprehensive, given the state of imperfect knowledge. "Comprehensiveness" according to Mendes, "is a requirement of planning and precludes unilinearity . . . its real significance depends upon the degree to which it dovetails with reality rather than to ignore 'real world' aspects,"<sup>19</sup> This characteristic is of extreme importance since any form of lag or dysfunctional activity will greatly hinder progress and development of societies.

4) Achievement of ends. This is another major characteristic of planning which entails a concept of purposive, goal-oriented activities. These may take various forms but invariably are associated with change. The ends envisaged will also determine both the directions and the rate of change as well as the means needed to accomplish the given ends as established by the prevailing policy directives.

5) Orientation to the future. Educational planning determines future action pertaining to education and as end-directed activity implies an orientation to the future. Coombs, for example, acknowledges this and states that

educational planning deals with the future,  
drawing enlightenment from the past. It is the

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<sup>19</sup>Mendes, Durmeval Trigueiro, op. cit, p. 24.

springboard for future decisions and actions,  
. . . concerned not only with where to go but  
with how to get there and by what best route.<sup>20</sup>

Every goal of planning, every area of policy requires or utilizes information about future states as there is need to know what controls, alternatives and sanctions will be designed.

### The Planning Process

While it is useful to note these characteristics separately for purposes of analysis, one ought not to lose one's view of the total planning process. In devising an optimal model of the educational planning process, Riffel points out that

planning is now thought of as a continuing process, not one started at whim or under pressure and finished when a blueprint of programs is drawn up. A second feature is that planning is an iterative process . . . The product of a single planning cycle is thus, at best, a series of steps toward a set of objectives, and as one cycle follows another, it becomes possible to approximate the hoped-for state of affairs even more closely.<sup>21</sup>

In educational planning, this process ideally may be divided into three distinct phases as follows: identification of needs and selection of goals, review and selection of alternatives, and promulgation into law and implementation of the plan. Each phase is useful for analytic purposes as each is concerned with a different aspect of the process.

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<sup>20</sup>Coombs, P. op. cit. pp. 14-15.

<sup>21</sup>Riffel, J.A. Education Planning Re-examined.  
Edmonton, Alberta, H.R.R.C., 1971, pp. 12-13.

1. Identification of needs and selection of goals.

This phase is primarily directional in that it is concerned with identifying needs and establishing goals and objectives. It appears to be the first logical step since not only must the government's main objectives and educational policy be examined but more detailed objectives must be provided for those involved at later stages. Objectives as intended outcomes of planning must first be identified since it is impossible and unrealistic to decide what or how to plan until we know why we are engaging in planning. There is here an analogy to the doctor who must know why an operation is necessary before deciding what part must be removed and how the operation must be carried out. In education, after objectives at the social and institutional levels are understood, a number of sub-objectives usually follows as the system's capacity to achieve the goals set for it, is assessed. In this way, this phase is inextricably linked with policy-formation as educational planners need to know how and where their educational plans will fit with the economic and social development plan.

2. Review and selection of alternatives. This phase involves the description and outline of the methods and means it is proposed to use to meet the stated objectives; it also provides details on procedures and machinery for supervision and correction. In other words, ends are converted into means. Since planning as stated above is guided by rational action, planning seeks to eliminate arbitrary steps of

proceeding from general objectives to specific programs.<sup>22</sup>

It is in this phase that

facts and opinions bearing on each major issue are assembled and weighed one against the other, and decisions made, tentatively or finally, that will determine the general direction of all activities coming under the plan.<sup>23</sup>

This phase involves the identification of a universe of feasible alternative means and an evaluation of these means according to the ends sought. Arbitrary decisions are avoided in this process as planners realise that not every means has the legal sanction of modern contemporary societies and that the means chosen must usually meet certain political commitments that must be honoured and certain obligations that are imposed by the law or by custom.

3. Promulgation into law and implementation of the plan. While this phase may be equated with "implementation", it here implies that planning does not cease with the adoption of a strategy. Furthermore, it underlies the "iterative" process mentioned above. This view of planning embraces implementation which often involves securing of legislation for the adoption of a plan, for as Beeby has stated,

the plan is an abstraction until it is legally embodied in a series of annual budgets that determine the speed at which it shall be applied, the parts which shall be dropped entirely, and the amendments that must be made to adapt it to unforeseen conditions.<sup>24</sup>

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<sup>22</sup>Davidoff & Reiner, op. cit. p. 111.

<sup>23</sup>Beeby, C.E. Planning and the Educational Administrator. Unesco, 1967 p. 31.

<sup>24</sup>Ibid. p. 34.

The importance and centrality of implementation in the planning process is acknowledged by Riffel.

The execution of the plan depends on designing and carrying out field activities. These processes not only make up the implementation phase, but are important to the planning process in two other ways: (1) replanning the initial program is carried out during this phase, and (2) the way in which the plan is executed determines its real substance. In other words, effective planning requires that plans be recycled and revised when they go off course during implementation and also that concrete indicators for measuring the progress of the plan and assessing its direction be developed.<sup>25</sup>

In short, implementation is a necessary and integral phase of the planning process regardless of the issue at hand.

#### THE SOCIAL CONTEXT OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

The educational system in any society is linked to the social setting in so far as it trains young people in skills they will require as adult members of the society. In this respect educational planning cannot be divorced from the social setting in which it operates. Parsons and Smelser<sup>26</sup> have pointed out that the functions that all societies must constantly perform are accomplished by social entities which become more and more specialized as societies develop, and that new institutions come into being as older patterns of meeting societal needs fail to adjust adequately to changed conditions.

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<sup>25</sup>Riffel, op. cit. p. 18.

<sup>26</sup>Talcott Parsons & Neil Smelser, Economy and Society, Glencoe, Illinois, The Free Press, 1956

In developing countries, the family, the tribe or such primary groups as were found in rural areas were responsible for the socialization of the young. This tended to be a simple matter of the transmission of values and skills. However, the thrust of industrialization<sup>27</sup> and the advent of independence have altered this; the educational process has taken on the role of the allocation and selection as well as the training of individuals for their adult roles. Schools are expected to be adapted to the local society, yet to transform that society into a more developed one.<sup>28</sup> In fact, leaders expect education to change the social order. A quotation taken from a government resolution illustrates this:

Greater emphasis came to be placed on educational development because of the realization that education, especially in science and technology, is the most powerful instrument of social transformation and economic progress; and that the attempt to create a new social order based on freedom, equality, and justice can succeed only if the traditional educational system was revolutionized both in content and extent.<sup>29</sup>

Education then has to perform many functions in a developing country.

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<sup>27</sup>The rationalization of the educational system is usually associated with industrialization. For an explication of the relationship see Herriott, R. and Hodgkins, B. The Environment of Schooling: Formal Education as an Open Social System. Prentice-Hall Inc., New Jersey 1973, pp. 12-15.

<sup>28</sup>Anderson, C.A. The Social Context of Educational Planning. Unesco, IIEP, 1967, p. 11.

<sup>29</sup>The Times of India, Delhi, July 17, 1964 quoted in John W. Hanson and Cole S. Brembeck (eds.) Education and the Development of Nations. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston. 1966, pp. 344-345.

Necat Erder has grouped the functions of education in a developing country into four main categories: 1) education as a major instrument of social change, 2) education as an important social service, 3) education as a major instrument of rational income distribution policy and 4) education as a manpower industry.<sup>30</sup>

Education as a major instrument of social change.

This implies that a choice has been made of a way of life with particular patterns of social behaviour, values and organisation and that education can effectively bring this about.

There are some special problems which arise from the variety of social groupings exhibited in the developing countries.

For example, ethnic groups respond in different ways to the spread of education;<sup>31</sup> matters of religion, caste and class need to be considered as the degree of attachment which an individual shows or the amount of protection he demands from such groups may greatly restrict his behaviour and influence the kind of support given to educational change.<sup>32</sup>

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<sup>30</sup>Necat Erder "Some Administrative Problems in Educational Planning" in OECD Organisational Problems in Planning Educational Development, Paris, 1966.

<sup>31</sup>Witness, for example, the attitude of the Pakot of Kenya who have a negative attitude to British-oriented education as compared with the Ibo of Nigeria who place great emphasis on education as a means of making one's way in the world.

<sup>32</sup>See Adams & Bjork, op. cit, pp. 80-84 who point out the difference in receptivity to the spread of education between the Hindus and the Moslems.

Education as social service. Understanding the existing pattern of demand for education as revealed by the parental attitudes and the values attached to education is significant for the production of an effective plan. Education may be considered as an important social service in that it gives the individual the possibility of acquiring the 'tools of knowledge'. Generally, this is associated with the social demand for education as reflected in the evolution of attitudes towards various forms of education which follow compulsory primary schooling. Developing countries cannot yet afford free secondary education or even a secondary place for every child as can the more developed nations. An understanding of attitudes as they develop towards education is important to educational planners especially where there is widespread advocacy for orienting the schools towards the country's economic needs.<sup>33</sup> This in effect means increase in areas of technological education and orienting curricula in village schools toward work on the land and increasing respect for farming as a way of life. The peculiar situation is that developing countries have grown accustomed to a more traditional type of education and regard schooling as an escape from the physical labour associated with such endeavours.

Education as a major instrument of rational income distribution policy. It may be argued that education is a rational instrument because it results in distributing

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<sup>33</sup>Anderson, C. op, cit. p. 30.

social tasks on the basis of talent and ability and, therefore, maximizes productivity. In this respect it approximates what Max Weber would term "rational orientation to a system of discreet individual ends."<sup>34</sup> In addition, it may be considered an instrument of rational income distribution policy because it creates equality of opportunity and consequently, social mobility. Developing countries have to consider class, caste and ethnic differentials as well.

Education as a manpower industry. Skills required by the growing industries of developing countries are increasingly being acquired within formal educational institutions. The more modernized a community becomes, the more emphasis seems to be placed on this function of education. A developing country, however, cannot offer schooling impartially to all categories of people or to all localities at the same time. It has to widen opportunities so that progressively larger parts of the population receive an education, thereby improving its human resources. In this respect, education serves a selection function as it helps to allocate pupils to various types of schools and subsequently to various types of occupation.

The functions noted above are not all-inclusive, but may be considered of major importance to educational planning in developing countries. To them may be added the fact that

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<sup>34</sup>In this way it stands in contrast to social action, which is "traditionally oriented through habituation of long practice." Cited in Bertram M. Gross, Action Under Planning: The Guidance of Economic Development. McGraw-Hill Book Company New York, 1967, p. 70.

schools are regularly seen as instruments for value re-orientation in that they conserve new along with old values; leaders in developing countries bent on modernization wish to have an educational system adapted to their own customs and aspirations as well as to produce a technological society. Schools are therefore expected to stabilize new social patterns and at the same time foster receptivity to change. But whatever the stated functions, as Anderson says,

schools are always coloured by the surrounding society, and a school system that is functioning effectively in a society will be localized to its milieu.<sup>35</sup>

#### THE INSTITUTIONAL CONTEXT OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

Educational planning may be viewed as taking place in different settings and at different levels characterized by certain actors (in the planning process) who have a responsibility to their community. The degree of success of their actions is dependent in part on the degree of legitimacy accorded the actors themselves, or the products associated with their actions. The actor categories identified are mainly a formal type distinguished from other social groupings such as primary groups which develop as a result of continuing face-to-face contacts and cliques which develop from commonly held feelings. The distinction is made because educational planning is viewed as a legally sanctioned act thereby making planners responsible for their actions.

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<sup>35</sup>Anderson, C. op. cit. p. 22.

Actors. The term actors<sup>36</sup> covers both the institutions or agencies and the physical persons involved in the planning process. They are considered to be playing key roles in the planning act, at different times and at different places where policy is determined and plans are formulated. They may be members of the cabinet or legislature or part of the national planning agency or of the ministry of education or of some defined interest groups. Wherever the location, or whatever the name,<sup>37</sup> they will have the responsibility for their nation's destinies, for deciding what the goals of the educational system will be and for choosing the means of reaching these goals. Actors will be found in several categories. The first general category envisaged is the cabinet and the legislature.

The cabinet and legislature. These officials are generally elected in a democratic government, and usually have responsibility for deciding policy for the educational system. They therefore determine what the goals and objectives will be and instruct their subordinates to develop strategies by which these goals can most effectively be reached. They may decide to initiate a shift in the balance in types of education, stressing scientific and technical education at the expense of literary or general education. Such policy

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<sup>36</sup> See Jan Tinbergen. Central Planning. Yale University Press, New Haven, 1964, p. 16.

<sup>37</sup> The names here are representative of categories and functions. Names will undoubtedly differ from country to country though the functions may be the same.

is made as a matter of political choice and needs the sanction of high political authority before it can be fully implemented.

The national planning agency. While the cabinet and legislature determine goals and objectives, the national planning agency functions at a more technical level. It looks at the process by which the plan is prepared on the basis of approved goals, and takes into account the roles of persons who are attached to the national development planning agency.<sup>38</sup> It may employ economists, social scientists, educators and others, all of whom are expected to have an understanding of the interaction between political, social and educational factors. It usually considers proposals from the planning group in terms of the efficient allocation of all resources.

The ministry of education. The minister and senior officials translate government policy into ministry practice. Most often these are the people who are involved with the expansion and improvement of the system according to the goals set out. They speak for the system before the national planning agency.

Specialists. These are persons trained in statistical, budgetary and other skills. Their expertise is called into play when principles are to be translated into specifics. They deal with such things as detailed procedures, building programs, financial implications of the proposed changes and

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<sup>38</sup>See Waterston op. cit. p. 687 for a complete list of national planning agencies around the world.

extended enrolment. They are also involved in the planning of improvement in such specific areas as teacher training, adult education or expansion in their particular fields. Foreign consultants also fall into this category as they are sometimes called to advise on specific issues.

All the categories mentioned above may be considered as playing particular roles in the educational planning process. Whatever the individual roles, the involvement of actors in the educational planning process is a formal one, and what they do will be reflected in the policies and plans for the educational system. This is not however to deny that the planning process is influenced by interest groups and by the public at large at certain times and under certain given conditions.

Interest groups. These must also be included in the setting of educational planning. Because of the nature of education, interest groups may be considered at two levels. At a very broad and general level, these may be considered as groups which from time to time take an interest in education and influence the direction of policy by actively supporting or objecting to policy. They may sometimes even propose specific projects. At a more specific level, groups which are formally a part of the educational system may be included. The Junior Chamber of Commerce or Parent-Teacher Associations are representative of the former and Teacher Unions and Governing Bodies are representative of the latter. The view taken of interest groups is important, for if the

group is considered high in status, its opinions will hardly be ignored, whereas opinions of groups considered low in status will often be ignored.

While the principal actors in the planning process have been identified above, Figure 2.1 below shows how these roles may be viewed in relation to the planning process. It is obvious from the illustrations that various levels of government provide the legal mechanisms through which planning is done.

#### THE LAW

Plans are made at the sufferance of legislative enabling action and within several governmental jurisdictions, and, as Barr has stated, "most importantly, we assume that such legitimacy must precede the planning act."<sup>39</sup> It is for this reason that one involved in planning needs to understand the particular relationship between educational planning and the law.

#### Sources of Law

The law may be viewed as a combination of legislation (including statutes and administrative regulations, directives, orders-in-council, rules, relationships and routines) and judicial decisions. Actually there are three major sources of law, namely, (1) custom, (2) case or judge-made law,

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<sup>39</sup>Barr, Donald A. "The Professional Urban Planner" Journal of American Institute of Planners, May 1972.

Phases in the Planning Process

Actors in the Planning Process	PHASE I		PHASE II	PHASE III
	Identifying Needs	Establishing Goals and Objectives	Means Identification, Evaluation of Alternatives	Designing and Carrying out Field Activities
Cabinet				
Legislature				
National Planning Agency				
Minister of Education				
Education Officials				
Governing Bodies				
Interest Groups				
Specialists				
Public at Large				

Figure 2.1 The Role of Actors in the Planning Process

i.e. judicial decisions and (3) legislation, all of which at one time or another are reflected in the policies and plans for education.

1. Custom. Customary law derives, as the name indicates, from local custom. According to Hart,

it is not in the modern world a very important source of law. It is usually a subordinate one in the sense that the legislature may by statutes deprive a customary rule of legal status.<sup>40</sup>

Allen, however, makes the point that the customary derivation of some statutory rules should be kept alive, for he regards custom as

carrying its own justification itself as it would not exist unless some deep-seated need of the people or some native quality of temperament gave rise to it.<sup>41</sup>

Every legal custom however, represents an exception from the general law of the land and is accepted by the courts according to the following conditions:

1. The custom must have existed since time immemorial;
2. The custom must have existed without interruption;
3. The terms of the custom must be reasonably certain; and they must not be in opposition to some fundamental principle of law;
4. People observing the custom must have done so because they felt that they were bound to observe it;

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<sup>40</sup>Hart, H.L.A. The Concept of Law, Clarendon Press, Oxford, 1963, p. 23.

<sup>41</sup>Allen, Sir, C.K. Law in the Making. Oxford University Press, Slodon, 1964, p. 87.

5. The custom must not have been exercised by force or violence.<sup>42</sup>

2. Judicial Decisions. This represents the accumulated decisions of judges in courts of law. It is a significant source of law in that when a judge decides a case, he both disposes of the problem before him, and lays down a legal principle which other judges will have to follow, subject to certain reservations. Changes in case law are effected gradually by judges as they distinguish between cases.

3. Legislation. The term 'legislation' is generally considered synonymous with 'statutes', but in its broadest sense includes all law that originates in an official body having power to make general rules. Legislation may therefore be divided into two categories (1) statutory and (2) delegated or subordinate legislation.

Statutory legislation. According to W. F. Frank, statutes as the formal embodiment of the acts of parliament have been used

as a means of supplementing case law, remedying its defects and consolidating its provisions where this has become necessary . . . In more recent years statute law has become the main tool of the social reformer.<sup>43</sup>

Delegated legislation. The legislature may delegate

<sup>42</sup> Frank, W.F. The General Principles of English Law. George Harrap & Co. Ltd.; London, 1967, p. 24.

<sup>43</sup> Ibid, p. 25.

its powers to other persons or bodies. Ministers of the government are delegated countless powers which they can exercise to make regulations, orders-in-council, directives, rules and orders. Similarly, powers are given to various units of local government which use them to pass by-laws and resolutions and to various occupational and professional organizations for regulating the conduct of their members. There is one major difference between parliamentary legislation and delegated legislation, namely, in a unitary state, courts may not question the validity of a statute of Parliament on the grounds that it exceeded its authority since there are no limits to the powers of Parliament, but subordinate legislation is different and may be so challenged. The increase in volume of delegated legislation during the past couple of decades has made it a very important source of law.

#### Functions of the Law

In order to make possible an adequate discussion concerning the relationship of educational planning and the law, the following section details the functions of the law with respect to educational planning. Figure 2.2 shows how this relationship may be viewed. The approach views the operation of the law in terms of both its structural parts and the function they perform in regards to the educational system. It is presumed that the law and education as social institutions are in interaction and mutually influence and adjust to each other. In this regard, the law may be conceptualized as having three major functions in educational planning: a prescriptive function, an intelligence function and a review function.

Phases in the Planning Process

Functions of the law	PHASE I		PHASE II	PHASE III
	Identifying Needs	Establishing Goals and Objectives	Means Identification, Evaluation of Alternatives	Designing and Carrying out Field Activities
1. <u>Prescriptive Function:</u>				
(a) Statutes				
(b) Constitution				
2. <u>Intelligence Function:</u>				
(a) Ministerial regulations				
(b) Board policies				
3. <u>Review Function:</u>				
(a) Court decisions				
(b) Court of appeal decisions				
(c) Appeals to the Minister				

Figure 2.2 The Relationship of Educational Planning and the Law by Function

The prescriptive function. This is concerned with giving guidelines and assigning limits or duties to which the actors and the act of planning must conform. The country's constitution and the large body of legislation which each country over the years builds up fall within this category. The constitution on the one hand assigns responsibility to government for making laws respecting education and other enterprises and affects the actors' role in that they may through constitutional constraints be restricted from performing, or urged to perform certain acts. Statutes on the other hand contain provisions establishing a ministry of education and outlining the powers of the minister. Generally they embody policy in the form of guides and directives to educational authorities for the planning, governing and administering of the educational system and may define privileges, duties, responsibilities, limits and so on, to which educational planners must adhere. Statutory provisions are binding on the actors. Garner points out that

any such rule made in due form will be accepted  
as law by the courts of a unitary state without question.<sup>44</sup>

Generally a proposal for legislation will spring from some real or supposed defect in the existing statutory or case law, or in the organization of society.<sup>45</sup>

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<sup>44</sup>Garner, F.F. Administrative Law. Butterworths, London, 1963, p. 10.

<sup>45</sup>Griffith, J.A.C. Principles of Administrative Law, Sir Isaac Pitman & Sons, London, 1967, p. 28.



The intelligence function. This element is represented in Figure 2.2 by ministerial regulations and board policies. These may range from regulating school meals to the extension of teacher training programs and have the force of law when specified by statute. The Minister, and to a lesser extent school boards, are empowered to make regulations embodying their policy which

when validly made have the force of law  
within the sphere of their legitimate operation.<sup>46</sup>

It facilitates the tasks of the actors and is accomplished through the promulgation of policies and regulations rather than through legislative enactment. It usually specifies means for implementation. While it is essentially closely akin to the prescriptive function, its procedure does not involve the formality of the pure legislative methods. It gains effectiveness by reason of the speed of its efforts.

The review function. The review function comes into focus only after the planning process has been set in motion and the plan or procedures of planning are in one way or another challenged. It is concerned with whether statutes, administrative regulations, directives, etc. have been conformed to or not, and if not, who failed to conform to them. In this way it is basically fact-gathering in nature and serves an informing function for planning as it publicly expounds the true meaning of the rules whenever doubts in

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<sup>46</sup>McCurdy, S.G. The Legal Status of the Canadian Teacher. The McMillan Co. of Canada Ltd., 1968, p. 20.

reference to their meaning arise. There is a human element involved in the review function quite unlike the mechanistic implications of the prescriptive sphere. Decisions of lower courts and courts of appeal as well as appeals to the minister fall within this category.

The particular function of the lower court is to hear and determine cases brought before it on appeal or for review when a dispute arises over the meaning or application of the law. The decisions propounded in their interpretation of the laws in relation to specific situations will usually give some indication of the legal framework within which planning must take place. It should be noted that judicial decisions are complementary to the statutes and subordinate legislation in that they interpret and clarify them for the benefit of those engaged in the act of planning. The function of appeal courts is to hear and determine appeals from decisions made in the lower courts. The decisions resulting from these appeals can affect the way in which planning may occur since they indicate whether provisions of the statutes have been carried out or whether the actors have followed the procedures set out for them.

The above outline of the relationship of planning and the law seems rather complex and comprehensive in nature. Some elements may be more appropriate and significant than others in the analysis of educational planning and the law in developing countries. It is hoped, however, that its comprehensive nature will make it adaptable to the situation

in any given developing country.

#### SUMMARY

This chapter has set out the frame of reference underlying the study. It began with a definition of planning as a sanctioned means of determining the policy and priorities of an educational system. It outlined the purposes and characteristics of educational planning as well as the planning process while stressing the significance of the institutional, social, and legal contexts for educational planning. It also detailed the functions of the law as giving guidelines and assigning limits or duties with which actors and the act of planning must conform. Finally, it showed how the law through its various functions relates to educational planning.

## CHAPTER 3

### THE EXPERIENCE OF DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

As early as the sixteenth century, the British had established footholds in Africa, South Asia and the Caribbean. Their initial contact with these countries was related to trade, but their influence eventually spread to government. By the middle of the nineteenth century, India had passed from the authority of the East India Company to the control of the British government; Africa had settled down to a similar pattern of colonialism, controlled by the British, the French or the Belgians; most of the islands of the Caribbean, fought over by the French, Spanish and British, were now in the hands of the British. The countries being studied here<sup>1</sup> therefore have a common history which grew out of the British push to expand their empire.<sup>2</sup> Though the early British efforts were concerned with commerce, the later introduction of educational institutions and curricula reflected a desire to spread the presumed benefits of

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<sup>1</sup>See Appendix A for a complete list.

<sup>2</sup>For a good account of the British hegemony over the colonies see Pares, R. Merchants & Planters. CUP: London, 1960. Figueroa, J. J. op. cit. p. 7 & Parry, J. H. The Establishment of the European Hegemony: 1415 - 1715. N.Y.: Harper, 1960.

Christianity and Western civilization to the area.<sup>3</sup> The result was that the colonies shared a history of close association with Britain, its economic policies and its educational practices and traditions.

This chapter is devoted to a description of the social, legal and institutional contexts of educational planning in these developing countries with British traditions. It sets the background for an examination of the educational planning process in Barbados. The similarities and dissimilarities which the various countries face in planning to increase the quantity and improve the quality of their education are outlined since it is upon such circumstances that the applicability to other countries of any conclusions will depend. The social and institutional contexts have been arranged according to geographical areas. No such arrangement was made for the legal aspects since it was clear that most legislation in developing countries has been based on British ordinances and that the inheritance of common forms of management afforded a common point of entry.

#### THE SOCIAL CONTEXT

##### Africa

In order to understand the enormity of the task facing educational planners, one must first understand the

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<sup>3</sup>See for example Figueroa, J. J. op. cit., Lewis, L. J. Society, Schools & Progress in Nigeria. Pergamon Press, London 1965, pp. 23-27, Makulu, H. F. op. cit. pp. 17-18 and Fafunwa, A. B. op. cit.

diversities in language, values and behaviour among the different ethnic and social groupings. The contrasts and differences however operate within a sufficiently general framework to allow for the societal characteristics outlined below, for though each country does not necessarily see the problems as the same, they see them as major social variables which influence educational planning.

Cultural variations. The cultural history of various groups, the structure of tribal society and other factors have been major influences in terms of educational planning and the acceptance of change on the part of African people. For example, some peoples of Africa like the Pakot of Kenya see no value in adopting European ways, including the traditional skills of reading, writing and arithmetic, since they are satisfied with their traditional culture and consider it more desirable than European civilization,<sup>4</sup> while others, like the Ibo of Nigeria, strongly emphasize the ability to make one's way in the world and value education as an avenue to success evaluated in European terms.<sup>5</sup>

It is important to note that tribal societies of Africa were for the most part tradition-oriented through old and long-standing practices.<sup>6</sup> The chiefs and parents were

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<sup>4</sup>Bascom, W.R. & Herskovits, M.J. (eds.) Continuity & Change in African Cultures: University of Chicago Press, 1959, p. 159.

<sup>5</sup>Adams & Bjork op. cit. p. 59.

<sup>6</sup>Foster, P. Education & Social Change in Ghana Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1965, pp. 104-108.

the major authority figures. With the spread of education, however, these traditional authority bases began to be challenged,<sup>7</sup> thereby setting up a situation of conflict between the traditionally-established authority figures and the newly-educated élite who displayed

an emotional ambivalence vis-a-vis traditional African culture and their shrewd perception of the realities of the colonial situation.<sup>8</sup>

Philip Foster has pointed out the kind of culture problems created by this situation in Ghana where in most cases the educated élite were not members of the traditional ruling class as most people surmised.<sup>9</sup>

The result is that there has been a break-up of the original primary groups in African societies, and new social relations are coming into being. Makulu has observed that there now exist groups

which unlike the original tribal social groups, are not based on blood relationship and are no longer drawing for their cohesion on the common ancestral heritage.<sup>10</sup>

One consequence is that educational planners in order to make successful changes, have to redefine the role of traditional leaders, and have to consider the cultural variations in the society since the differences and changes in basic value

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<sup>7</sup>Ibid.

<sup>8</sup>Ibid. p. 110.

<sup>9</sup>Ibid.

<sup>10</sup>Makulu. op. cit. p. 37.

structures are invariably responsible for different approaches to both policy and planning for education.

Language diversity. Closely allied to the question of cultural variation is the problem of language. There are over 800 languages spoken in Africa, most of which were not written before the arrival of the Christian missionaries.<sup>11</sup> Several still do not appear in written forms, while others do not extend much beyond translations of the Bible. Tanzania is somewhat exceptional in this respect. Though there are more than 120 dialects, Swahili is used by most of the population, and has a considerable literature.<sup>12</sup> The problem of language is further complicated by the fact that several of the languages serve only a fraction of the population and hardly extend beyond tribal boundaries as exemplified by Twi, Ga and others of Ghana.<sup>13</sup> In Uganda, there are 7 major languages and at least 20 tribes.<sup>14</sup>

It is obvious that the multiplicity of the languages places a burden on educational planning. The report of the 1961 Addis Ababa Conference on African educational development stressed the re-orientation of African education to the

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<sup>11</sup>Adams, op. cit. p. 55.

<sup>12</sup>Skorov, G. Integration of Educational & Economic Planning in Tanzania. Unesco, Paris, 1967.

<sup>13</sup>Foster, P. op. cit.

<sup>14</sup>Weeks, S. Divergence in Educational Development: the Case of Kenya & Uganda. Teachers College Press, N.Y., 1967

cultural setting and emphasized increased levels of enrolment; it acknowledged that in operationalizing any plan, the desire to accelerate this re-orientation had to be tempered by the reality of the language problem.<sup>15</sup> The absence of a common language naturally acts as a brake on effective communication with diverse social groupings. Planners then face the problems of structuring their schools as an effective medium for the development of a common national language, a problem compounded by the fact that there is little reliable research in vital areas like the limitations in conceptualization and retardation in academic achievement engendered by education in a second language.

Rural-urban problems. Historically, there were few urban areas in Africa before Europeans settled and began to exercise political and economic control. One outstanding feature throughout the colonial period was the dramatic growth in the size and influence of urban areas. In Ghana, for example, in 1931 there were 19 towns with a population of between 5,000 and 10,000, while in 1948 there were over fifty towns of that size. Most of these people had migrated from rural areas.<sup>16</sup> This trend of moving away from rural areas has continued to the extent that mobile Africans have learned to look to the town or city as a source of employment

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<sup>15</sup>Final Report of the Conference of African States on the Development of Education in Africa. ECA/UNESCO, 1961.

<sup>16</sup>Foster, P. Ibid. p. 147.

to fill immediate material needs; hence there has arisen a class of semi-urban, semi-rural Africans.

The growth of urban society has greatly weakened tribal ties and has been somewhat disruptive of traditional ways of life. This has strong implications for changes in the rural areas. Traditionally, the class of chiefs was entitled to and got more education than the rest of the people. The pattern in modern cities differs from this in that status is achieved rather than ascribed.

This trend presents educational planners with two crucial problems. The first is that of urban educational opportunity and rural educational opportunity, since the percentage of those going on to secondary school in the city far exceeds that of those entering from the rural areas.<sup>17</sup> In Ghana, for example, within urban areas, 55.4 per cent of all children of school age was enrolled in school in 1960, as compared to 35.2 per cent in the rural areas, while in Tanzania in 1963, one out of four children in the rural areas entered secondary school after completing the primary cycle while one out of two in the urban areas was able to enter secondary school.<sup>18</sup> The second refers to the cumulative unemployment mainly in the urban areas where school leavers

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<sup>17</sup>See Sheffield, J.R. (ed.) Education, Employment and Rural Development. Nairobi: East African Publishing House, 1967.

<sup>18</sup>Ibid. p. 369.

tend to congregate in the hope of securing employment. Unfortunately, many meet with nothing but disillusionment. Sheffield<sup>19</sup> reports that in 1966, Kenya had 150,000 primary school-leavers for whom there was no prospect of further education or paid employment. This suggests that educational planning must be concerned with this problem.

Diffusion of education. Cries and claims for the 'just society' have become fashionable in newly independent nations. The appeal of such claims has led politicians to support the demands for rapid expansion of education at all levels. This type of approach was supported by the 1961 Conference on African educational development at Addis Ababa. The figures given in Table 3.1 show what importance the leaders at the Conference placed on such expansion. What the figures do not reveal is the change in policy and approach. British policy had emphasized insularity of regions and tended to aggravate regional disparities.<sup>20</sup> Educational planning has therefore to consider expansion not merely in terms of numbers, but also in terms of the social groupings which now exist and are demanding more education.<sup>21</sup> This present thrust for the 'just society' construed by political leaders as instant diffusion of education, cannot be treated lightly by educational planners even though it may frustrate their

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<sup>19</sup>Ibid., Introduction.

<sup>20</sup>Makulu, H.F., op. cit., p. 14.

<sup>21</sup>K.O.Dike, "Development of modern education in Africa" in J.N.Brookes, The One And The Many. Harper, N.Y., 1962.

Table 3.1. Projected Enrolment in Education

Level of Education	Position at 1966	Position at 1981
1. Primary education		
Estimated school age population	29,831,000	32,808,000
Estimated enrolment	15,279,000	32,808,000
Total number of teachers	383,300	1,014,100
2. Secondary education		
(a) General secondary education	1,320,100	3,986,000
(b) Technical & vocational	334,100	1,547,400
(c) Teacher training	179,300	372,000
Total number of teachers	113,000	336,300
3. Higher education		
Estimated enrolment in Africa	14,300	296,000
Estimated enrolment in other countries	16,000	32,000
Total enrolment	30,300	328,000

Source: Final Report of the Conference of African States on the Development of Education in Africa. ECA/UNESCO, 1961, pp. v-vi.

most elaborate long-term plans for educational development and may lead to poor fits between schooling and employment, a consequence of rapid educational expansion beyond economic and industrial expansion.

Achievement of national goals. African countries are more and more looking to the schools as a means of disseminating ideas and symbols of nationhood, economic growth and social justice which form the overriding goals of their now independent communities.<sup>22</sup> These goals imply on the one hand rejection of the colonial past and espousal of 'Africanization'

<sup>22</sup>Makulu, H.F., op. cit., p. 19.

as Dr. Kenneth D. Kaunda of Zambia put it.<sup>23</sup> In the context of Africa, however, this means that the schools are seen as a means of creating or achieving a national identity among people who have had a long-standing affiliation with Britain and with European civilization "which neither promoted nor projected African personality",<sup>24</sup> as in the early stages, the object of education in Africa was the spreading of European civilization. This meant the discouragement or suppression of all tribal institutions which seemed contrary to that objective.<sup>25</sup> The leaders at the Addis Ababa conference were therefore convinced that if education in Africa was to fulfil its many functions successfully, it had to rest on a foundation of specifically African culture and be based on special requirements of African progress in all fields.<sup>26</sup>

Economic growth is seen as closely tied to the schools' ability to implant new attitudes and skills as exemplified by the manpower planning approach adopted by some African countries,<sup>27</sup> while social justice is interpreted as equalization of opportunities among segments of the population and as an acceptable balance between primary,

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<sup>23</sup>Ibid., Introduction, p. ix.

<sup>24</sup>Ibid.

<sup>25</sup>Ibid., p. 17.

<sup>26</sup>Final Report on African Educational Development, op. cit., p. 55.

<sup>27</sup>See Skorov, G., op. cit.

secondary and post-secondary education. For example, the Federal Ministry of Education in Nigeria stated that

in deciding on the pattern of education we have been guided by the following principles: (i) It must produce enough children with post-secondary education to satisfy the nation's needs for high-level manpower. (ii) It must be properly balanced as between primary, secondary and post-secondary education. (iii) It must narrow the gap between educational opportunities in the North and the South, without producing an unbalanced education system in the North.<sup>28</sup>

Educational planning is being used as an instrument towards these ends.

### South Asia

This comprises the modern states of India, Pakistan and Sri Lanka (formerly Ceylon). Like Africa, South Asia reveals a complexity of languages, ideologies, values and behaviours among the various social groupings, any of which can be a planner's nightmare. South Asia displays a diversity of cultures represented by different linguistic and religious elements of the population. The main social factors of importance to educational planners are identified below.

Cultural variations. In South Asia, caste and religion play an important role in the life of the communities. The three most important religious groups are the Hindus, Muslims and Christians. In India, Hindus comprise

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<sup>28</sup>Investment in Education (Federal Ministry of Education, Lagos, 1960) cited in Lewis, L.J. Society, Schools & Progress in Nigeria. Pergamon Press, London, 1965, p. 133.

84.9 per cent of the population, Muslims 11.3 per cent and Christians 3.2 per cent.<sup>29</sup> One significance of the figures lies in the fact that each religious group has shown a difference in approach and receptivity to education. The Muslims for centuries had had an organized educational system based on Islamic teachings. The three R's, the 'Koran', and lectures on literacy and religious topics formed the basis of education.<sup>30</sup> They therefore did not readily accept education as introduced by the British. The Hindus on the other hand readily accepted the British type of education when the British took control.

Another significant factor is that of caste. The Hindu community for example consists of various caste and sub-caste groups. Each group and sub-group had a well-defined traditional status and economic function. Tasks of a manual nature were performed only by persons of low rank and persons of high rank did not perform any task which was not in keeping with their status. This rigid system of stratification practised by the Hindus, had its effect on the rest of the society. Adams quotes a Moslem poet who stated

There are castes and sub-castes like the  
Hindus - surely, we have out-Hindued the Hindu  
himself; we are suffering from a double caste

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<sup>29</sup> Figures computed from The Mysore Population Study, N.Y., 1961. p. 56.

<sup>30</sup> See Mukerji, S. N., History of Education in India. Baroda, 1951.

system, sectarianism, and the social caste system which we learned or inherited from the Hindus.<sup>31</sup>

In this system certain values were attached to various jobs in the community and educational opportunity varied with status in the community. The 1951 census grouped the Indian castes into four categories, viz., Scheduled castes, Scheduled Tribes, Backward castes and Non-backward castes. The population distribution was as follows: Non-backward castes 62.9%, Backward castes 18.3%, and Scheduled castes and tribes 18.5%.<sup>32</sup> In this distribution, the Scheduled castes occupy a relatively low position in the scale of social status and material well-being while the Non-backward castes enjoy the highest position. When therefore the British system of education was introduced, it was the Non-backward castes that grasped the opportunity of an education and ultimately occupied the higher status positions.

Two other factors seem important. The joint family system tended to emphasize the goal of family unity and to appeal to kin or caste rather to the community. This therefore tended to militate against development on any large scale and to reinforce traditional patterns. There is also the attitude to women. In Pakistan, for example, the attitude to women as exemplified in the institution of 'Purdah'

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<sup>31</sup>Quoted by Adams, Education in Developing Areas. p. 80.

<sup>32</sup>Figures computed from The Mysore Population Study, p. 56.

requiring the seclusion of women from all males except their own relatives, inhibits school attendance and creates problems for planners in terms of educational diffusion.

Similar religious and value orientations in India and Sri Lanka form impediments to change. Such traditional value patterns are constraining factors and lead to two obstructing forces with which educational planners must deal: (a) an appeal to the spirit of tradition which has supported the social and sex roles for years and (b) the force of family ties which fosters a kind of "insularity" and militates against national concerns.

Language diversity. South Asia displays a multiplicity of dialects. In any polyglot country, the problem usually centers around the national language. Most countries tend to see the schools as a means of creating common avenues of communication. South Asia is no exception; the problem is great. In India, there are over 1,500 dialects spoken, but Hindi, the national language, is used by less than one third of the population.<sup>33</sup> Some southern areas have shied away from the use of Hindi since they considered it another attempt by the North to dominate the South. This has led to the adoption of English as a means of communication in preference to one of the indigenous languages.

Pakistan on the other hand has more than 30 spoken languages, with no single language being spoken or understood

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<sup>33</sup>UN, Mysore Population Study. op. cit.

throughout the country. At present, English is used as the language of school instruction but Urdu and Bengali are designated as the national languages to replace English by 1976.<sup>34</sup> In Sri Lanka, Sinhalese and Tamil are the major languages apart from English. Sinhalese, the language of instruction in primary grades up to 1948, became the language of instruction for secondary education in 1959 and is now widely used at university level. It is clear that the question of language is one which those responsible for educational planning cannot ignore.

Rural-urban problems. In South Asia 82 per cent of the population lived in villages;<sup>35</sup> projected estimates for the year 1980 indicate that 41 per cent of the world's rural population will be living in South Asia.<sup>36</sup> Like the African countries, however, opportunities for education are more limited in the rural than in the urban areas. A study of the Mysore population in India illustrates this (Table 3.2).

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<sup>34</sup>UNESCO: Educational Situation in Asia - Past Trends & Present States. Tokyo, 1965.

<sup>35</sup>UN. Growth of the World's Urban & Rural Population, 1920-2000. New York, 1969. p. 48.

<sup>36</sup>Ibid., p. 74.

Table 3.2. Per Cent Distribution By Educational Level of Males and Females 15 Years and Over.

Males (15 years & over)	Primary Middle		High University	
Zone I (Rural Hills)	25.7	12.7	5.1	1.3
Zone II (Rural Hills)	22.2	11.3	2.5	0.4
Zone III (Rural Plains)	15.9	9.4	1.8	0.3
Towns	21.8	23.1	10.9	5.0
City (Bangalore)	21.6	23.4	15.5	9.3

Females (15 years & over)				
Zone I (Rural Hills)	10.9	5.4	0.5	-
Zone II (Rural Hills)	8.2	1.9	0.4	0.0
Zone III (Rural Plains)	3.6	1.3	0.0	-
Towns	17.3	13.5	1.5	0.5
City (Bangalore)	16.3	14.8	5.8	1.7

Source: UN, Mysore Population Study. 1961.

The figures clearly indicate that an urban dweller's opportunity for education was twice as good as his rural counterpart at the middle school level; this increased to three times at the level of high school and reached seven times by university. They also revealed that the males had a much greater opportunity than did the females.<sup>37</sup>

In addition to this, the educational planner also has to grapple with the problem of unequal distribution along class lines. A study of twelve villages demonstrates this (Table 3.3).

<sup>37</sup>The 1961 Pakistan figures showed urban literacy rates at 35.8 per cent as compared to 16.6 per cent for rural areas. See Adams & Bjork, *op. cit.* p. 86.

Table 3.3. Percentage of Literates Among Different Castes and Communities, India, 1960.

Caste Group	Males	Females
1. Brahmins and other high-caste Hindus	62.7	16.9
2. Cultivating Castes	29.9	8.7
3. Artisan Castes	24.9	3.9
4. Backward & Scheduled Castes	16.5	1.4
5. Muslims	27.8	6.8
6. Christians	50.0	-
All	28.2	6.4

Source: Adapted from P.C. Voshi & M.R. Rao, "Social & Economic Factors in Literacy and Education in Rural India." Economic Weekly. January 4, 1964.

The planner then has to be aware not only of the variation in educational opportunity between rural and urban areas, but also between castes and sex. One other inhibiting factor is found in the uncontrolled migration to the urban areas as educated villagers seek to extend the markets for their newly-acquired skills.<sup>38</sup> This trend makes a mockery of educational planning as the shifts in population, unsystematic as they are, are difficult to assess both in terms of qualitative and quantitative educational targets.

Diffusion of education. In South Asia, various targets for enrolment have been set in an effort to provide education for their massive populations. Pakistan, for example, had planned to increase its enrolment (primary) from 16.3 million

<sup>38</sup>Bulsara, J.F., op. cit., pp. 135-140.

in 1970 to 29.4 million by 1980.<sup>39</sup> The figures for Sri Lanka and India for the same periods were as follows: Sri Lanka, 1.9 million in 1970, to 3.7 million by 1980 and India, 71.9 million to 119.2 million by 1980.<sup>40</sup> The problem for the planner is not as simple as an increase in numbers. It has been shown above that South Asia is beset by traditional attitudes of caste, varying religious values and certain attitudes toward females which militate against development. Educational diffusion then has to be aimed at reform in such constraining factors.

Achievement of national goals. As in other developing nations, independence brought new demands to the education systems in South Asia. Goals of nationalism, economic development and social justice are seen as important.<sup>41</sup> The goal of nationalism according to Dikshit had been gradual.

The emergence of militant nationalism had significant repercussions in the educational sphere also . . . A programme of constructive educational work was embarked upon and gradually the concept of 'National Education' was popularized among the people.<sup>42</sup>

National education in India was interpreted as

education conducted along national lines, controlled by the representatives of the nation, and so controlled and conducted that it should have for its object the

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<sup>39</sup> UNESCO: Educational Situation in Asia, op. cit. p. 12.

<sup>40</sup> Ibid.

<sup>41</sup> S.S. Dikshit: Nationalism and Indian Education. Sterling Publishers (P) Ltd., Delhi, 1966, p. 138.

<sup>42</sup> Ibid., p. 140.

realization of the 'National Destiny'.<sup>43</sup>

South Asian countries also visualize a key role for education in the reconstruction of their societies and stress the paramount role of education as an instrument to achieve national objectives. India's third five year plan stated that

Education is the most important single factor in achieving rapid development and technological progress and in creating a social order founded on values of freedom, social justice and equal opportunity,<sup>44</sup>

while Pakistan in its first five year plan observed that

out-dated institutions which serve no economic and social purpose should be discarded or reordered.<sup>45</sup>

Sri Lanka set as its target the elimination of the narrowly academic nature of its educational system and a goal of free compulsory education of seven years' duration by 1980.<sup>46</sup> Its goals of this sort, nationalistic in tone, which pose problems for educational planners since they are usually tied to the electoral promises of politicians.

### The Caribbean Area

Like the areas of Africa and South Asia, the Caribbean presents great contrasts and differences from territory to territory. However, the following societal characteristics of importance to planners may be noted.

Cultural values. There have existed for some time in the Caribbean norms which reinforce 'ascribed' rather than

<sup>43</sup>Ibid., p. 140.

<sup>44</sup>Third Five Year Plan of India (1961-66), p. 563.

<sup>45</sup>First Five Year Plan of Pakistan (1955-1960), p. 2.

<sup>46</sup>UNESCO: Educational Situation in Asia. op. cit.

'achieved' status. There was, for example, an emphasis and reliance on ideas of importance of class, caste, colour and shade rather than performance which gave rise to the feeling of intrinsic value attached to such matters.<sup>47</sup> Generally speaking, educational opportunity and the resulting economic rewards were apportioned on such grounds and depended largely on one's social background.

There are also the shared values arising from what Figueroa calls "residual slavery and colonialism".<sup>48</sup> By this he means the 'outward looking attitude' which the Caribbean islands adopted. He attributed this to their geopolitical and economic realities. The vast majority of West Indian immigrants were slaves, brought forcibly against their will, and the 'free' immigrants of European backgrounds were 'absentee' owners. The result was that leadership was not cultivated in the islands, but depended on the Metropolis. Their size too often led them to look 'outside' in times of economic crisis.<sup>49</sup>

One other determinant of values should be noted, that of the ownership pattern associated with the islands; with the exception of Barbados which had always been governed by Britain, the islands have been in the hands of the Spanish, French and British at one time or another. They therefore

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<sup>47</sup>Eric Williams, op. cit., pp. 5-8.

<sup>48</sup>John J. Figueroa, op. cit., chs. 1 & 2.

<sup>49</sup>Ibid.

share a cultural and ethnic heritage arising from more than one colonizing power.

Language diversity. Closely associated with the question of cultural values is that of language. The island of Trinidad, for example, is extremely cosmopolitan. The Keenan report of 1869 stated that

There are eight sworn interpreters of French, nine of Spanish, one of German, one of Hindustani . . . for purposes of law and commerce.<sup>50</sup>

Though, however, English is the official language of these Caribbean countries, the variations in dialect are sufficiently great as to be problematical. Carrington, Borély and Knight in a study carried out in Trinidad pointed out the dangers in the language policy. They observe that

The language arts syllabus in use in Trinidad & Tobago makes the erroneous assumption that the mother tongue of the learners is English, and for all practical purposes the population of Trinidad is treated as if it were English speaking.<sup>51</sup>

Craig<sup>52</sup> in another study found that the creolization which exists is often correlated with stratification. The question of multi-lingualism and creolization then is something to which planners will have to pay increasing attention, as it is unlikely that the great percentage of the people is

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<sup>50</sup>Keenan Report on Education in Trinidad, 1969.

<sup>51</sup>Lawrence D. Carrington et al. "Linguistic Exposure of Trinidadian Children" in Caribbean Journal of Education, June 1974, No. 1., p. 14.

<sup>52</sup>Craig, D.R. "Social Class, Language and Communication in Jamaican Children" in Education in the Commonwealth 6. Commonwealth Secretariat, London, 1973.

comfortable in the official language.

Diffusion of education. Compared to Africa and South Asia, the Caribbean area has a small population; the four and a half million people however live in about 8,000 square miles. In most of the islands, population figures have grown over the last ten years. The fact that according to 1967 census figures fifty three per cent of the population was under 24 years of age poses special problems for educational development both in terms of the numbers of institutions and also the types of institutions needed.

Schools in the Caribbean have for a long time been used as a means of social stratification, allowing certain classes to dominate the first grade places and ultimately the positions of prestige in the society. Changed objectives, however, require that such a policy be reversed and that the type of institution reflect national thinking. Diffusion of education therefore has to be directed not merely at an increase in numbers but also at a change in terms of emphasis, for where it was traditional to provide a 'classical education', it is now clear that such institutions were not designed to meet the objectives now being pursued by the countries of the Caribbean.

Achievement of national goals. A conference of education Ministers in the Caribbean agreed that the Caribbean territories in a very fundamental way share certain common goals, among which are (1) efforts to maximize educational opportunities (associated in fact with the question of the

'just society' concept sweeping newly independent territories) and (2) efforts to ensure changes in curricula designed to produce citizens who have positive attitudes towards work and national development and who are strongly committed to the advancement and preservation of individual territories within a Caribbean society.<sup>53</sup> Within a Caribbean concept, the latter poses special difficulties since there still exists a great amount of insularity despite past and on-going efforts to unify the territories.<sup>54</sup>

There seems to be consensus regarding the directions in which Caribbean education should go. The four following objectives seem to be dominant 1) local control; There is a strong feeling that unless the control of education is in the hands of West Indians themselves, the system will never change in such a way to suit real national needs; 2) the fostering of patriotism; there is the feeling that education must arouse in students a sense of national service and the feeling of patriotism; 3) provision of West Indian system; exponents of this believe that national education should be based on the cultural and intellectual traditions

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<sup>53</sup>Ministers of Education Conference June, 1970,  
Ministry of Education, Barbados, File B11/6.

<sup>54</sup>One of the difficulties which any effort at the regional level faces is that of the insularity characteristic of unit territories. This problem led to the break-up of the old West Indies Federation. Efforts like CARICOM and Education Ministers' efforts at co-operation are suggestive of greater regional effort in the future.

of the country instead of being a replica of the British and American systems; 4) relevant education; educators should promote chiefly the study of such branches of the arts and sciences as are best calculated to develop the material resources of the area and satisfy its pressing needs.<sup>55</sup>

The real problem lies in the changing national goals; it is therefore unreasonable to expect the old system to perform these new functions without undergoing some changes. Planners however have to face opposition from the old traditional attitudes which still pervade the decision-making body in the Caribbean.

#### THE INSTITUTIONAL CONTEXT

The view taken of educational planning largely determines the standing educational planning will enjoy and also the institutional framework within which it will take place. Educational planning may be considered either as a separate sector or as part of overall development planning. In the latter view, planning for the educational sector is linked first to general development planning. The view is that

there is no point in creating new productive capacities if there are not enough engineers and qualified workers to operate them . . . The two

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<sup>55</sup>The objectives outlined here form a summary of the objectives mentioned at (1) the Conference of Ministers of Education, op. cit. and (2) The Fifth Conference of the Caribbean Association of Headmasters and Headmistresses at the Ursuline Convent, Barbados, 1967.

processes must be co-related so as to avoid waste of resources both material and human, and maximize the rate of growth.<sup>56</sup>

In the former view,

educational needs are viewed in terms of certain general cultural and political objectives . . . with no precise assessments of the social or economic contributions of the schools attempted.<sup>57</sup>

This section probes the institutional context of educational planning.

### Africa

Under British rule, the control and planning of education was left in the hands of Boards of Education established under various local ordinances.<sup>58</sup> After independence, however, each country tended to develop its own institutions, independent of its neighbours. Tanzania, for example, has adopted a very strong man-power planning approach. Educational planning therefore came under the responsibility of the Ministry of Development Planning which performs co-ordinative functions. Senior officials of the Ministry of Education are included on the standing Manpower Advisory Committee which was set up in 1963. The role of education officials centers around the production of target

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<sup>56</sup>Raymond Lyons (ed.) Problems and Strategies of Educational Planning. Paris: Unesco, 1965, p. 98.

<sup>57</sup>Adams, op. cit., p. 145.

<sup>58</sup>Much of the development in terms of planning bodies and the inclusion of local opinion stemmed from the 1921 Report of the Phelps-Stokes Commission, Education in Africa.

plans which are then co-ordinated with national development plans.<sup>59</sup>

In Uganda, the approach is somewhat different. Education committees are set up to prepare development plans in consultation with the education officer assigned to the area. This plan then has to be submitted to the minister for approval. Under this system, education officials have the major responsibility for what planning is done in education; the minister of education therefore plays a major role but is assisted by education officers and education committees at the regional level and by an education committee at the central level.<sup>60</sup>

Ghana, Nigeria and Kenya all have similar institutional frameworks to that of Uganda. Educational planning is viewed as sectoral rather than as part of overall development planning.<sup>61</sup> As such, the onus for planning is on the minister. The ministers in Kenya and Ghana have Boards of Education to advise them but generally depend on the Permanent Secretary and his deputy and the Director of Education and his deputy in matters of planning. Where the provinces are concerned, there is an education officer assigned to each province. He works with the Board of

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<sup>59</sup> See George Skorov: Integration of Educational and Economic Planning in Tanzania. Paris: Unesco, 1967.

<sup>60</sup> See Sheldon Weeks, op. cit., & Carter, J. op. cit.

<sup>61</sup> A. Babs Fafunwa, op. cit., p. 187, & Raju, B.M., op. cit., pp. 90-92.

Governors in the provinces. Any plan has to be ratified by the Minister.<sup>62</sup> In Nigeria, inspectors are given charge of zone planning sections and act as co-ordinating links since they report to the professional division of the Ministry of Education.<sup>63</sup>

Table 3.4 below gives a representation of the actors in the planning process in the African countries. One clear observation is that educational planning is government dominated. There is some Church representation on education committees and Boards of Governors, but no noticeable representation from the public at large. Tanzania, it should be noted, is the single exception as representatives from the public are brought in from time to time when questions relevant to their interests or activities are discussed.<sup>64</sup> All countries need parliamentary or presidential approval where funds are needed.

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<sup>62</sup>Raju, B.M., op. cit.

<sup>63</sup>A. Babs Fafunwa, op. cit.

<sup>64</sup>George Skorov, op. cit.

Table 3.4. Actors in the Planning Process

Actors <sup>65</sup>	Ghana	Kenya	Nigeria	Tanzania	Uganda
Parliament/President	x	x	x	x	x
Minister	x	x	x	x	x
Education Committee			x		x
Board of Governors	x	x			
Permanent Sec'ty	x	x	x	x	
Deputy Perm. Sec'ty	x	x			
Dir. of Education	x	x	x		x
Education Officers	x	x	x	x	x
Inspectors	x		x		
Ministry of Dev. Planning				x	
Standing Manpower Advisory Committee				x	
Public at large				x	

### South Asia

India, Pakistan and Sri Lanka like Tanzania in Africa approach educational planning as part of national development; each has a central planning authority responsible for overall planning. Pakistan, however, because of its geographical division created a Planning and Development Department each for East and West Pakistan. The Planning and Development Department has three sections, viz. 1) Planning Authority

<sup>65</sup>There are some differences in terminology; while Ghana uses the term Board of Education, Kenya uses the term Board of Governors though each functions in a similar manner.

composed of the Chief Secretary, the Development Officer and the Finance Secretary empowered to make final decisions on development matters; 2) a Development Working Party composed of one representative each of the Planning and Development Department and the department sponsoring the project; and 3) a Planning Board with three members having powers to plan and implement.<sup>66</sup> Plans for the education sector are made at both local and regional level. At the local level there is a School Education Advisory Board composed of a chairman and fourteen members;<sup>67</sup> at the regional level plans are made by the Director of Education assisted by an educational staff. Plans are however subject to the approval of the Administrator of the Union Territory.<sup>68</sup> Adam Curle<sup>69</sup> has noted that within this structure, decisions on education were usually made by economists since there was no Chief of Education section but only three or four professionals in the Education section. The implication is that important educational matters might not be sufficiently emphasized within such an institutional framework.

### The Caribbean Area

Prior to independence, educational planning in the

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<sup>66</sup>Waterston, op. cit., pp. 544-547.

<sup>67</sup>Delhi School Education Act, 1973.

<sup>68</sup>Ibid.

<sup>69</sup>Adam Curle, Planning for Education in Pakistan. Tavistock Publications, 1966, p. 42.

Caribbean countries was carried out by the Executive councils in the islands. This meant in most cases an arbitrary allocation of funds for educational projects as part of their development plans. A changed approach has now led to the creation of educational planning bodies within the Ministry of Education. These bodies are controlled by the Minister and usually are made up of the senior members of the professional and administrative staff of the Ministry and from time to time special advisers borrowed from the University of the West Indies or in the case of Guyana, borrowed from the University of Guyana.

This body has responsibility for the general planning of the system. However, there are governing bodies which operate at the local level, having responsibility for a certain school or schools. Plans made at this level are subject to the approval of the minister who has the further responsibility of being the liaison between the educational planning body and the national planning council or the cabinet depending on the issue under discussion.<sup>70</sup> This kind of structure combines the old and the new. Governing Bodies with responsibility for planning for their schools is an old English tradition existing side by side with an

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<sup>70</sup> Generally, where funds or major changes in the system are being requested, the Cabinet will be called upon. In matters affecting other ministries, proposals will usually be put to the national planning council.

overall planning body created to meet some of the changes deemed necessary.<sup>71</sup>

This description of the institutional context of educational planning in developing countries of Africa, South Asia and the Caribbean has revealed that planning in these countries is government dominated and has little or no participation by citizens at large; it also reveals that educational planning is approached as a part of the overall planning structure where countries have adopted a man-power planning approach but that in the absence of such an approach, greater emphasis is given to the adoption of special educational planning units within the Ministry of Education.

#### THE LEGAL CONTEXT

To cover the whole range of educational policy changes in terms of the law in these countries would be impossible. The intention here is to pinpoint broad tendencies which have had a direct bearing on the law as it relates to educational planning. The description centers around the historical patterns, the government commitment to educational planning and the powers to control which came with the growing political consciousness of the significance of educational

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<sup>71</sup>This is the opinion of one Minister of Education, but it is a view subscribed to by the Council of Education Ministers which meet from time to time to discuss matters of importance to the area. The significant thing is that each country now has someone who is responsible for planning.

planning.

### Historical Patterns

Developing countries formerly subject to British rule seemed to have passed through three stages of educational history which had some implications for the legal framework of educational planning. These stages may be roughly defined as (i) the period of private activity, (ii) the period when Government supported private activity and (iii) the period when Government has accepted the responsibility and planning for education.<sup>72</sup>

During the first period, (dealing with the period up to the first World War) Government did not support education but left it entirely to the Christian missions and various religious bodies whose major interest lay in extending their sphere of influence. An Anglican spokesman referring to the Gold coast observed:

With regard to education, in the opinion of the heads of the missions, the next ten years are of vital importance. If the various missions can rise to the opportunity, nine-tenths of the education in this colony will be under religious auspices. Should they, on the other hand, fail to do so, the government will be forced to undertake the whole education of the colony, thereby depriving the missions of what is undoubtedly their most powerful instrument in evangelisation.<sup>73</sup>

Education then served a more or less religious function.

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<sup>72</sup>For a detailed account of the role of Missions in the British colonies, see Makulu, op. cit.

<sup>73</sup>Quoted in C.K. Graham, op. cit., p. 142.

Government had little to do with education. The figures for the Gold Coast for the period 1881-1901 reveal the amount of participation by the various bodies.

Table 3.5. Growth of Government & Mission Schools 1881-1901

Controlling Body	1881	1891	1901
Government	3	4	7
Basel Mission	47	27	61
Wesleyan	84	17	49
Bremen Mission	4	2	3
Catholic	1	3	12
Total	139	53	132

Source: C. K. Graham: The History of Education in Ghana. p. 117.

Lord Hailey listed the number of state schools in Africa in 1900 at 70 with an enrolment of 2,500 pupils.<sup>74</sup> During this period, the Government took little cognizance of education in the law.

It was during the second period (the period between the first and second world wars) that Government began to support the voluntary agencies which were operating in the field of education. At this time the Government found it necessary to pass legislation giving clear indication of the conditions under which it would support the work of such agencies. It became standard procedure for governments to

<sup>74</sup> Lord Hailey, An African Survey. Oxford University Press, 1956. p. 239.

vote certain sums of money to support private agencies in their educational ventures. The primary motivation for framing early ordinances did not stem from any desire to regulate education but rather from a need to develop criteria upon which limited government aid could be given. In fact, the colonial offices provided grants to the colonies for the support of education which still remained religious and in no way attempted to serve social ends.<sup>75</sup>

The significant thing is that religious bodies were at this time still the dominant agency for education, as the law placed no obligations on Government to provide education for the people. The peculiar kind of legal arrangement that existed simply made reference to the Government's functions of control, but imposed on it no duty to provide education.<sup>76</sup>

The third period saw the emergence of Government responsibility and planning for education. There is, however, marked variation in terms of the legal responsibilities of Government. In some countries the law places on the Government the inescapable and primary obligations to provide education for the people. For example, the Education Act which went into force in Kenya in 1953 clearly places the obligation on the Minister of Education. Section 3(1) reads as follows:

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<sup>75</sup>Makulu, op. cit.

<sup>76</sup>See for example 3 of the Kenya Education Ordinance of 1931 or the 1878 Education Act, Barbados.

It shall be the duty of the Minister to promote education in Kenya and the progressive development of schools, consistent with the powers of direction and control vested in the Minister by this Act.<sup>77</sup>

Other countries, the Caribbean for example, have for a long time operated as though this were the law, though in actual fact, there were no such legal obligations to discharge.<sup>78</sup>

It is important to note that in this period education is being linked with economic life and with social ends. Most countries were then recovering from war experiences and were prescribing a role for education which it had not been expected to perform before. Educational activity therefore proceeded from governmental initiative whether guided by such explicit legislation as exists in Kenya or stimulated by the policy of governments operating without explicit legislation as was the case in the Caribbean. Whatever the motivation, however, the commitment on the part of Government necessitated some arrangement for the use of powers, controls and remedies exercised in the planning of education.

#### Powers, Controls and Remedies

It has been noted above that during the first and second phases of educational development, education was completely in the hands of missionary or religious bodies and that it was narrow both in terms of the content and

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<sup>77</sup>Quoted in J. Roger Carter, op. cit., p. 162.

<sup>78</sup>Jamaica and Trinidad & Tobago have recently passed laws to this effect.

numbers being taught. It has also been noted that developing countries have committed themselves to educational planning as part of their conscious organization of national development. This commitment necessitated a concentration of powers and controls in the hands of Government to allow it to regulate the system and effect its educational goals.

Governments approached it in different ways.

Adopting the principle that any primary school maintained by public authority should be managed by the public authority financially responsible for it, African countries have tended to put primary schools under the control of local authorities. In Uganda for example, under the Education Rules, 1964 (S.R. No. 228, 1964) only three out of seven members of the Management Committee of a primary school are provided by the foundation body, i.e. the church, leaving control in the hands of the education officers employed by the local authorities. Secondary schools on the other hand are controlled by boards of governors, who, subject to central government review, have the power of hiring and firing, of curriculum control and of the internal regulation of their schools. It is significant to note that this form of management is similar to that of Great Britain and that the legal base remained the same after independence.

Caribbean countries have approached the question of powers and control in a slightly different manner. They have placed secondary schools in the hands of governing bodies with

complete internal control but have retained control of primary schools through the education officers employed by Ministries of Departments of Education so that in the absence of an explicit duty on the minister to provide education, they can use financial allocations to control schools still affiliated to foundation bodies. The secondary schools are controlled by the use of "Schemes of Government",<sup>79</sup> which set legal limits to the powers of governing bodies.

These powers of control are further supplemented by remedial and restraining powers. In the South Asian and African countries where the minister has an explicit duty to provide education for the people, when local authorities overstep their authority, the central government may effect certain remedies by a quasi-judicial procedure which has been acknowledged by the law. A section from the Kenya Education Act reads thus:

86(1). Where the Minister is satisfied, upon complaint made by any person or otherwise that a county council or a municipal council or the Board of Governors or manager of any school, has acted or is proposing to act unreasonably in the exercise of any functions entrusted to it by or under the Act, he may give such directions as to the exercise of such functions as appear to him expedient.

(2). If the Minister is satisfied that a county council . . . has failed to discharge any duty imposed upon it by, or for the purpose of, the Act, he may give such directions as may be necessary for securing compliance with the Act, after consultation with the Minister for the time being responsible for local government.

In India where education is state controlled, most

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<sup>79</sup>Schemes of Government are in effect the regulations governing secondary schools.

states have given the Administrator similar remedial and restraining powers over managing committees. The New Delhi School Education Act, 1973 #20 (1) reads thus:

Whenever the Administrator is satisfied that the managing committee or manager of any school, whether recognized or not, has neglected to perform any of the duties imposed on it by or under this Act or any rule made thereunder and that it is expedient in the interests of school education to take over the management of such school, he may, after giving the managing committee or the manager of such school, a reasonable opportunity of showing cause against the proposed action, take over the management of such school for a limited period not exceeding three years.

Such arrangements all tend to give the government absolute restraining and remedial powers but leave little or no room for private appeal and provide no means for citizen complaint. The New Delhi Act is specific about this:

No suit, prosecution or other legal proceeding shall lie against the Administrator, Director or any other person authorised by the Administrator or Director for anything which is in good faith done or intended to be done in pursuance of this Act or any rule made thereunder.<sup>80</sup>

Individuals have therefore tended to make use of appeals to the Minister or to top ranking civil servants; appeals are dealt with on an ad hoc basis.

### Planning Powers

This description so far points to the powers and controls which operate on the system as it exists, revealing little or no appeal to the courts for a redress of wrongs

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<sup>80</sup>The Delhi School Education Act, 1973 No. 18 of 1973 26.

committed and indicating more or less the use of 'custom' in appealing to someone in authority. Planning however requires powers not only for dealing with the system as it exists but also for dealing with anticipated changes in the system. Some governments have included these powers among the powers of the Minister or of the appropriate authority in education. The Education Act (1966) of Trinidad & Tobago requires the Minister to ensure

the establishment of a system of education designed to provide adequately for the planning and development of an educational service related to the changing needs of the community.

Similar powers are found in other countries. In Tanzania and Kenya education committees have the responsibility of submitting to their Minister plans for the promotion and development of education, while the Uganda Education Ordinance, amended in 1963 now enjoins it upon every education committee outside the Kingdom of Buganda to prepare a development plan in consultation with the education officer for the area for approval by the Minister with or without modification.<sup>81</sup>

The adoption of the Karachi plan by the Asian countries and the more specific establishment of Sri Lanka's Manpower directorate are further indications of the assumption of such planning powers.

It would seem then that developing countries in Africa, South Asia and the Caribbean have all passed through certain

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<sup>81</sup> 32 Uganda Education (Amendment) Act (No. 83 of 1963) cited in Educational Development in Africa: III p. 176.

common stages of educational history and have displayed an incremental approach to the law regarding educational planning. During the early stages the missionaries and religious bodies were the dominant agency for education with Governments taking over during the last stage. This approach beginning with simple funding and moral support by Government, has now reached the point where Government activity has superseded the effort of private foundations, necessitating a properly constructed framework of controls for schools to be responsive to the detailed planning and direction of governments, which have set themselves certain educational goals as part of the development programmes of their respective societies.

One major question which these governments must resolve involves the dual system of control which in effect still exists, that is, control by the foundation agencies as well as by government. Another question to be answered is 'who will pay for what?' The co-ordination of the whole system of educational planning depends on the answers to these questions for not only is there need for a clear system of control but also for a clarification of roles of the actors in the planning process. The result up to this point has been that statutory law has not been specific in terms of power or controls of planning and that governments have traditionally operated on the basis of custom through administrative directives both in the planning and operation of their schools as well as in the methods adopted for redress. This leaves two important tasks for those who are responsible for

educational planning; the first is to examine in terms of their national goals and aspirations the legal framework which they inherit, and the second is to ensure that the law provides a co-ordinated system of powers of control.

#### SUMMARY

The developing countries of Africa, South Asia and the Caribbean with British traditions exhibit a number of similarities, contrasts and differences of importance to educational planners. The social, institutional and legal contexts of educational planning were examined as knowledge about these was considered important for planners as they strive to meet the new objectives set for educational systems. Though countries do not necessarily see problems in the same way, they see them as major variables which influence educational planning.

Within the social context, the factors identified were: cultural variations, language diversity, rural-urban problems, diffusion of education, and achievement of national goals. The cultural history of the various groups and the structure of their societies have been major influences in the acceptance of change and in the planning of education. There exists in these countries a multiplicity of languages. This raises the problem of communication at the national level. The growth of urban society has for the most part been at the expense of the rural areas and has been somewhat disruptive of traditional ways of life. Unlike

traditional patterns, the pattern of life in the cities tends to stress 'achieved' rather than 'ascribed' status. Education therefore is regarded as the means to achieve such status. Demand for education has subsequently increased, and has placed great strain on the educational systems and on planning structures. The change in objectives brought about mainly by independence has led to a rejection of the colonial past and subsequently to the schools being regarded as a means of disseminating ideas and symbols of nationhood as well as social justice.

The description of the institutional context showed that educational planning in these countries is government dominated and has little or no participation by citizens at large. Where countries have adopted a man-power planning approach, educational planning is approached as a part of the over-all planning structure; where there is no man-power planning, greater emphasis is given to the adoption of special educational planning units with the Ministry of Education.

It was noted in the discussion of the legal context that in the early stages of educational history, governments at first did not recognize education in the law, then supported the voluntary agencies in education with financial aid and have now taken an active role in the planning of education. This necessitated the establishment of certain forms of control, powers of planning and means of redress.

Most governments now have an imposed duty to plan for and provide education for their people; others operate as though this were their legal obligation. Historical patterns coupled with the fact of a legal framework inherited from British rule and designed for pre-independence goals and aspirations have revealed the problem of dual control of Church and Government and the need for a law which provides a co-ordinated framework from which educational planning may proceed.

## CHAPTER 4

### THE CASE OF BARBADOS: THE HISTORICAL CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

While it is useful to note the common experiences of countries with similarities of background in approaching educational planning and educational change, one must remember that every educational system lives within its own peculiar setting.<sup>1</sup> It is for this reason that the focus of the study switches from developing countries in general to a detailed description of the educational planning process and the legal framework of educational planning in Barbados. This chapter, suggestive and introductory as it is, describes the historical context of educational planning in Barbados, and is intended to give some background information which will be helpful in understanding and interpreting the state of educational planning and the attitude of educational planners in Barbados. Furthermore, the dominant characteristics of the system today are the product of a long history and planners who hope to alter those characteristics should be cognizant of their origins and functions in order to act effectively. An attempt is made in the narrative to interweave educational development with the dominant socio-political patterns of the day.

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<sup>1</sup>Coombs, P. op. cit. Introduction.

Colonization 1627-1645

Though claimed in the name of King James I of England in the early seventeenth century, Barbados was not settled until 1627 when Captain Henry Powell arrived with eighty settlers and ten slaves captured from an enemy vessel.<sup>2</sup> Leaving the settlers, he sailed to British Guiana for food and brought back supplies of yams, cassava, Indian corn and plantains to be grown for food, and tobacco and cotton for trading purposes. In a short time the colonists were able to export quantities of cotton and tobacco, and by 1629 the population had grown to about eighteen hundred people.<sup>3</sup> In fact, the colony was so successful that by 1645 there were 18,000 white men on the island as lower-middle-class artisans, and farmers flocked to the island after the possibility of a piece of cotton land.

The historian Schomburgk has recorded that four class divisions of people existed on the island at this time: the freeholders, the freemen, the servants and the slaves.

The freeholders or proprietors were those who formerly held their lands from the Earl of Carlisle, under an acknowledgement of forty pounds of cotton. To these must be added the merchants and tradesmen. The freemen were such persons as had arrived in the island as engages or under indentures, and who, having served out their stipulated time, were now freed from their masters and served in the country for wages. The servants, or, as they were called for distinction, the Christian servants, consisted

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<sup>2</sup>Harlow, Vincent T. A History of Barbados 1625-1685.  
The Oxford Clarendon Press: 1926, p. 3.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid. p. 6.

of persons from England, Scotland and Ireland, who, for the sake of a certain bounty and free passage to the colony, sold their servitude for four years or more.<sup>4</sup>

Negro slaves were not at this time numerous enough to be an important class. Though by this time the island was effectively colonized, and ties with Britain were very close, there is no record of schools. It may be presumed that whatever teaching was done was on a private level and that perhaps children were sent to England for their education as was the custom later.

#### Sugar, Slavery and their Significance, 1646-1834

No colony however is worthwhile unless it affords some benefits to the metropolitan power. Barbados at this time was able to produce large quantities of cotton and tobacco which were exported to England, but the arrival of sugar cane in the island about the middle of the seventeenth century changed the whole structure and patterns of relationships in the island.

Richard Ligon,<sup>5</sup> the historian, has stated that when Sir James Drax and others had netted three times as much from an acre planted in sugar as from one planted in tobacco, there was a rapid swing to the new crop, and within a few years the island was the wealthiest English colony in the

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<sup>4</sup>Schomburgk, Sir Robert. The History of Barbados. London: Longman, Green, Brown & Longmans, 1848, p. 84.

<sup>5</sup>Ligon, Richard. A True and Exact History of the Island of Barbados. London, 1957.

New World. This prosperity greatly changed the composition of the island's population. Up to 1645, the black population was not an important class and numbered only 5,680 compared to over 30,000 whites. Sugar however required cheap labour, and with slavery being made legal in 1636, the market for African slaves began to thrive. Barbadian landowners began to buy African slaves in great numbers since

the more they buie, the more they are able to buye, for in a yeare and a halfe they will earne with God's blessing as much as they cost.<sup>6</sup>

By the late sixties, the numbers had reached about eighty thousand.

But while the number of Blacks steadily increased, the white population gradually declined, as the same factor which required more slave labour was at the same time causing a shift in land ownership. To be grown profitably, sugar required more acreage than did cotton or tobacco. Small farmers unable to compete with their large neighbours were being squeezed out of production, making the island one of large sugar plantations owned by absentee English families and worked by cheap African labour.<sup>7</sup>

During this period, the island's social structure was characterized by a three-class system of upper, middle and lower. Old English families formed the upper class which controlled the political, economic, social and religious institutions of the island. These were linked by marriage

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<sup>6</sup>Harlow, op. cit., p. 44.

<sup>7</sup>Ibid.

to the aristocracy of the mother country. The middle class presented a more diversified picture. This group consisted of the political prisoners of Cromwell and of the 'fringe' white population of descendants of the emigrants who had arrived before the change to sugar but had been 'squeezed out' of their possessions.<sup>8</sup>

In addition to these, there was the coloured group or 'mulattoes' as they were called, the result of the exogamous relationship of planters with female slaves. This group had no legal claims to their fathers' possessions but for the most part was given an education and small pieces of property, and was taught a trade. The mulatto group looked to the white planters as their reference group. Eric Williams, West Indian historian, educator and politician had this to say:

Sprung from the black masses, they despised the blacks and were content to remain on the fringe of white society . . . The mulatto middle class deprecated the vernacular songs but went into ecstasies over the Lancashire dialect, shunned Negro spirituals . . .<sup>9</sup>

This attitude helped the small group of whites who controlled the reins of power to maintain its position, leaving them free to send their legitimate sons to England and Europe to be educated--a fact which impeded educational development in the island, as indigenous educational institutions were not encouraged.

Slaves formed the lower class, the largest numerical

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<sup>8</sup> Ibid.

<sup>9</sup> Williams, Eric. Education in the British West Indies. Walter Goldwater: New York, 1968, pp. 8-9.

component of the population. This was a group without any legal rights whose usefulness was restricted to the production of more slaves, to the growing and processing of sugar and to satisfying the sexual whims and excesses of the planters.<sup>10</sup> There were three categories of slaves, namely, the domestics, the artisans and the field hands. The domestics were the best treated and often adopted the culture of the planters. At this point, the slaves were not allowed any family life with the concomitant rights and obligations expected of partners. All authority lay with the planters in their role of masters.<sup>11</sup>

The manner in which the society was evolving was of great significance for educational development. As was noted above, the political power and authority patterns were completely in the hands of the planter class even though numerically they were on the decline. This class felt that to educate the slaves would prove a threat to white supremacy and would cause the slaves to think of revolution. Education during the early years of the settlement of Barbados was therefore restricted to the upper class, and the schools founded were due mainly to the philanthropic efforts of wealthy individual planters who in their wills left money for the foundation of schools for poor white children. The earliest recorded is that of a school started

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<sup>10</sup>Harlow, op. cit.

<sup>11</sup>Ibid.

in 1686 from the sum of £1,000 given by two planters from the parish of St. George.<sup>12</sup>

The schools founded during this period by such philanthropic efforts have held a significant place in the education system as it subsequently evolved. For example, Queen's College,<sup>13</sup> the only girls' school with first class status under the law, can be traced to a charity school founded by Colonel Harry Drax circa 1686; Boys' Foundation School dates from an endowment of 1709; Harrison College was founded by the planter Thomas Harrison in 1733; The Lodge School was established under the Codrington foundation in 1745; the Alleyne School was established from an annuity of Sir John Gay Alleyne, dating from 1785. These schools, founded for the education of the poor whites, subsequently became first or second grade grammar schools when the education system was formally recognized by an Act of the Legislature. Education for slaves was not introduced until 1818, when a school for coloured boys was erected in Bridgetown. The cost was met by public subscription and a master was provided at a cost of £100 per annum by the Church Missionary Society, a body which played an important role in education in Barbados.<sup>14</sup> A school for coloured

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<sup>12</sup>Ministry of Education Report, 1971 to 1972: Preface p. 1. Bridgetown, Barbados, 1972.

<sup>13</sup>The names used here correspond to the names of the present schools as they exist today.

<sup>14</sup>Ministry of Education Report, op. cit.

girls was provided in 1827 by the same society.<sup>15</sup>

In sum, this period of pre-emancipation was marked by the establishment of a plantation economy based on sugar and nourished by slave labour, by a rigid class distinction in Barbadian society, the concentration of power and authority in the hands of the white minority, the establishment and proliferation of schools along the same lines and the advent of Christian Missions who were to play a significant part in the initiation of institutional changes in the island, leading to the abolition of slavery and to the direction of attention to the need for formal education.

#### Emancipation 1834-1870

The type of society described above prevailed from the settlement of Barbados early in the seventeenth century through the eighteenth and into the nineteenth until a number of factors led to emancipation: Barbados had remained loyal to Britain throughout the wars of the 17th and 18th centuries and was now hit hard by Britain's mercantilist policy which prevented her from trading with America after the American colonies had begun to make their presence felt; the price of food, most of which was imported, had increased; the price of sugar had dropped, and the planters were still being forced to pay 4 1/2% duty on all commodities grown in Barbados, a duty imposed in 1662 to restore the proprietorship of the

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<sup>15</sup>Ibid.

island to the king.<sup>16</sup> One direct consequence of these depressing circumstances was the extension of privileges granted to the slaves and the allotment of small parcels of land to them for the purpose of growing provisions.

About this time, there was considerable agitation in England about the whole question of slavery, and in 1807 came the abolition of the slave trade. This of course was a blow to the Barbadian planters who were thereby deprived of new supplies of slave labour. This led to an improvement of the existing conditions for the slaves, to the growth of a coloured middle class, to increasing financial difficulties for the planters, and to a series of slave uprisings.

On August 1, 1834, slavery ended in Barbados with the emancipation of 82,807 individuals. In the other West Indian islands, the loss of cheap labour forced many of the upper class into bankruptcy. This was not the case in Barbados, as the following report suggests.

. . . the first of August passed off very quietly. The people laboured on that day as usual, and had a stranger gone over the island, he would not have suspected any change had taken place.<sup>17</sup>

The authors report of the same planter,

He did not expect his people would go to work that day. He told them what the conditions of the new system were, and that after the first of August, they would be required to turn out to work at six

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<sup>16</sup>Greenfield, Sidney, M. English Rustics in Black Skin. New Haven: College & University Press, 1966.

<sup>17</sup>Thome, Jas. A. & Kimball, J. Horace. Emancipation in the West Indies. New York: The American Anti-Slavery Society, 1838. p. 222.

o'clock instead of five o'clock as before. At the appointed hour every man was at his post in the field. Not one individual was missing.<sup>18</sup>

During this time opportunities for social mobility available to the Negro in Barbados were quite limited and did not improve with emancipation. Newly emancipated slaves had no land and no means to acquire any in such a clearly stratified society. To gain any success, they had to accept the culture of the white landowners. According to Greenfield,

The Negro, to gain acceptance and patronage, had to learn behaviour that members of the upper class expected from subordinates . . . The reciprocal behaviour the Negroes were required to learn, therefore, was that of the English lower class.<sup>19</sup>

Emancipation also brought a change in the organization of plantation life, for while previously the slaves were totally dependent on their masters, they were now expected to manage their own affairs in a market economy.

These institutional changes which were initiated after the slaves were emancipated were supported by the missionaries who were active in trying to teach the slaves. The missionaries therefore directed attention to the need for formal education in order to resolve the conflict arising from varying standards of conduct and belief, since at this period neither the planters nor the former slaves knew how to regard each other in this new relationship. The Barbados planters

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<sup>18</sup> Ibid.

<sup>19</sup> Greenfield, Sidney M. op. cit., p. 54.

who had made their wealth through the cheap slave labour had opposed the efforts to end slavery, but as a colony of Britain had been forced to accept this arrangement.<sup>20</sup> It was these very circumstances which led to the immediate expansion of education. As part of the compensation offered the West Indian colonies, an annual grant was made for the education of the former slaves.

Meanwhile, under the influence of the Church which had taken a great interest in education, schools were started all over the island, and it is recorded that by 1844 there were 48 Anglican schools, 4 Moravian, 4 Wesleyan and 149 private schools with a total enrolment of 7,452 pupils. It was during this period that the first attempt to train elementary school teachers was made by a certain Rev. Richard Rawle, principal of Codrington Theological College.<sup>21</sup>

These private efforts were acknowledged and formally supported by a government grant of £750 for education in 1846. Four years later Barbados got its first Education Act which provided for the establishment of an Education Committee and a part-time Inspector as its Executive Officer. The grant was later increased to £3,000 per annum. In 1858 a new Education Act was passed. Its major thrust was the administration of the schools, and it provided for a full-time Inspector of Schools.

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<sup>20</sup>Thome & Kimball, op. cit.

<sup>21</sup>Ministry of Education Report, op. cit.

It is noteworthy that prior to emancipation, the thrust for education was to be found in private philanthropy aimed at providing schooling for the white population. The government took little cognizance of it in the law; after emancipation, even though the government did legislate, the law placed no duty or obligation on the government to provide education for its people, as there was then no linkage of education and economic life.

The Post-emancipation and Pre-independence Period, 1871-1966

The period immediately following emancipation was a period of consolidation when individuals began to adapt to their respective roles and to learn their function in the society. It was noted that before emancipation, slaves depended wholly on their masters. After emancipation, however, they had to learn to operate independently. Society therefore underwent a period of uncertainty and ambivalence of attitudes as new role-relationships and responsibilities in the form of family ties were now being undertaken.<sup>22</sup>

It was also a period of consolidation of government, for all the Caribbean countries with the exception of Barbados, the Bahamas and Bermuda became Crown colonies. Barbados retained its local autonomy despite the economic problems which it had to face. In the 1870's Great Britain attempted to federate Barbados with the Windward Islands. This plan was later abandoned when riots commenced in Barbados. It

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<sup>22</sup>See Figueroa, J.J. *Op. cit.*, Chapter 2.

was during this constitutional crisis when Barbados' political future was in the balance, that coloured leaders, part of the blossoming middle class, came to the forefront. Conrad Reeves, a lawyer, was by 1884 influential enough to get a Bill through which substantially widened the franchise, extending it to owners of land valued at £5, those earning £50 or more per annum, members of the learned professions and holders of University degrees.<sup>23</sup>

Such success led to an increase in political activity. The political consciousness of the newly-established middle class spurred many changes in Barbadian society, and by 1924, a political party, the Democratic League, was formed, modelled on the British Labour Party. This party played an important part in high-lighting the need for adult suffrage, workmen's compensation and compulsory education.

This work was carried on by Grantley Adams, who came into open conflict with the Democratic League. His policy incorporated a wider range of reforms than did that of the Democratic League. He attacked the power of the plantocracy which still controlled the island, and was elected to the House of Assembly in 1935. Two years later, a general state of unrest which was sweeping the Caribbean culminated in the 1937 Riots in Barbados and elsewhere in the area. Adams was instrumental in getting a Royal Commission set up to investigate the conditions and in 1943, with the help of Hugh Springer

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<sup>23</sup>Tree, Ronald. A History of Barbados. Rupert Hart-Davis: London, 1972. p. 94.

was able to get the franchise lowered. The vote was extended to artisans as well as to agricultural workers and for the first time, women were allowed to vote and to stand for election.

In 1946 Adams' Progressive Party won the General Election held under the new voting roll. He became the first Premier of Barbados when the Ministerial system was introduced. By this time the old plantation system tying labourers to the plantation was broken through the abolition of the Masters and Servants Act passed in 1840 to allow the planters free rein in terms of cheap labour for their plantations. The Barbados Labour Party, as Adams' party was now called, held power until 1961 when they became the official opposition to the Democratic Labour Party led by Errol Barrow. Adams' departure in 1958 to become the first and only Prime Minister of the West Indies' Federation (which lasted until 1962) was a major factor in the defeat of his party. Self-government came in 1961, and Independence in 1966 when the Democratic Labour Party under Barrow was again returned to power.

Educational development during this period was spasmodic. Even though there had been two Education Acts in the 1850's, legislation did not seem to be effective, as there was little public interest and support. A. G. Williams summed up the activity in the period as follows:

Legislation could only be effective where there was public interest and co-operation. This was illustrated at this particular period of Barbadian history; for any shortcomings of the early legislation relating to public education were due not

only to the meagre sums allocated for the purpose, but to a decided lack of interest among those who were able to contribute to its success.<sup>24</sup>

There was therefore a period of stagnation which was broken by the appointment in 1876 of the Mitchinson Commission to report on education at a time following local rioting and unrest.

The report emphasized the need for female education and for spending money on education for the labouring class and for providing secondary education for the more able of the students. The Barbados House of Assembly which had appointed the Commission directed two-thirds of the funds to secondary education for 600 students, while one-third went to the education of 23,000 primary school children. This report was incorporated into the Education Act of 1878 which made provision for an extension of the education grant and for classifying the grammar schools as first or second grade schools.<sup>25</sup>

Up to this point, if the Education Acts which had been passed by the House of Assembly seemed to have been aimed at maintaining a form of élitism through the grants to secondary and primary schools, the new Education Act of 1890 provided a schematic framework for education in

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<sup>24</sup>Williams, Albert G. "The Development of Education in Barbados with Special Reference to Social & Economic Conditions 1834-1958." Unpublished Master's Thesis: London, University, 1965, p. 62.

<sup>25</sup>Laws of Barbados. Vol. 1. 1667-1-1894-5. Advocate Company Limited, 1944.

Barbados, and clearly outlined what kind of educational system Barbados would have, what kind of role the government would play and what support it would grant private agencies operating in the field of education. It contemplated three stages; namely, elementary, secondary grammar and university. It did not however establish a co-ordinated system, as can be seen by the rigid distinctions between the types of education and even within one stage, where for example, first and second grade grammar schools were established.<sup>26</sup> The law however is a reflection of the 'spirit of the age' and Barbados' society as seen above was rigidly stratified. This Act was a landmark as it set the pattern for what was to occur in education.

Just at the beginning of the twentieth century when new political movements were coming into being in Barbados, a Commission was established to consider the question of education. Its terms of reference were wide, and among the subjects considered was the question of compulsory education. The Commission eventually passed the following resolution

That in the opinion of the Commission it was desirable but impracticable that Education should be made compulsory.<sup>27</sup>

Most of the arguments leading to the resolution centered on the fact that compulsory education would deprive the island

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<sup>26</sup>Ibid.

<sup>27</sup>Minute Book of Meetings of Education Commission, November 23, 1907.

of a source of labour.

Professor D'Albuquerque did not think that there was any abuse of child-labour in Barbados but that child-labour educated the agricultural labourer for his life's work which if prohibited would of necessity cause a class to grow up that would be inclined to turn its back on labour.<sup>28</sup>

The Commission's recommendation for abolition of fees at the elementary stage was eventually carried into law in 1908.

The Rawle training center for elementary teachers was established in 1912, but nothing of further significance occurred until the Mayhew-Marriott report of 1933, which made a comprehensive investigation of the educational service of the Leewards and the Windwards and of Trinidad and Tobago. It recommended for Barbados the appointment of a Director of Education, the improvement of the teacher-training facilities, the re-organization of curricula to meet the needs of the community and the introduction of Secondary Modern Schools. Though the report seemed 'modern' in its approach, none of the recommendations was acted upon until 1943, when the Education Board lost its executive powers with the appointment of a Director of Education, responsible generally for all matters of Education in the island.<sup>29</sup>

This seemed to have been a turning point in educational development, for several changes have come about since 1943: in 1944, elementary teachers became civil servants; a new Teachers' Training College was opened at Erdiston in 1948;

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<sup>28</sup> Ibid., p. 11.

<sup>29</sup> Education (Amendment) Act, 1943 3 in Laws of Barbados, op. cit.

and by 1953, Secondary Modern Schools had been introduced, a Technical Institute established and the Teachers' College enlarged. This represented a substantive change in education, as not only were more people being educated, but more and varied education was being offered, as the government became strongly committed to education.

In 1954 when the ministerial form of government was introduced, a Minister of Education was appointed for the first time. In the following ten years a Common Entrance Examination to determine the entrants to Government Secondary Schools was introduced; a new Act consolidating existing Barbados Scholarships and Exhibitions was passed; fees were abolished in Government Secondary Grammar Schools and Comprehensive Schools were introduced to replace the Secondary Modern schools; a School Meals Programme was launched and the College of Arts and Science was opened; the establishment of a Hotel school and the appointment of School Attendance Officers to work in the parishes where the school meals programme was in operation were made and government aid to approved Independent Schools had been undertaken.

These achievements revealed not only the government's commitment to the field of Education but also the direction in which it wanted the educational system to go. The widening of the system was certainly necessitated by the preparations for independence, and the variety of programmes gave opportunities for education of some kind to the masses in general.

There were two significant factors of importance to note during this period: the absence of any fundamental Act to change the unco-ordinated framework within which education was taking place and the influence of English type educational institutions and models on Barbadian society. The 1890 Education Act had established a three-tiered system of primary, secondary and university education. Ostensibly it was possible for any student to progress from the primary level to the university level, but the whole process of selection was modelled after the British system which catered to an elite and militated against certain classes in the society.<sup>30</sup> In Barbados the British system was followed to the letter. A student had not only to pass an examination before being admitted to secondary education, he had also to get to one of the three secondary first grade schools<sup>31</sup> in order to gain entrance to University, since second grade schools did not have sixth forms which served the two-fold purpose of preparing students for further education or for various white-collared jobs in the community. Schools patterned after the English Grammar school therefore became the model for Barbadian secondary education to the extent that the School Certificate issued by Oxford & Cambridge became not only the standard by which schools and individuals were judged but

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<sup>30</sup>For an excellent discussion on social mobility and the selection process in education see Halsey et al, Education, Economy and Society. Part II.

<sup>31</sup>Queen's College for Girls and Harrison College & Lodge School for Boys.

also the principal mode of social mobility,<sup>32</sup> a development which was to have negative consequences later on.<sup>33</sup>

### Independence 1966-1973

Despite limited natural resources, Barbados with the longest tradition of Parliamentary Government in the Caribbean, has succeeded in moving into independence, and has progressed despite its limitations. One of the chief contributing factors is the Prime Minister's political policy of attempting to co-operate with his Caribbean neighbours in matters of common interest. This represents the feeling of the people that Caribbean peoples should stop looking to Britain and should start co-operating among themselves as well as forging new relationships. This feeling has borne fruit in the form of membership of the Organization of American States (OAS) as well as of the Caribbean Community (CARICOM), and has led to a weakening of traditional ties with Britain.

During this time, there has been a change in social attitudes, reflected in the demand for more education and for accessibility to jobs hitherto reserved for white or 'coloureds'. Political maturity has come about in the exercise of voting

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<sup>32</sup>See Turner, R.H. "Modes of Social Ascent Through Education: Sponsored and Contest Mobility" in Halsey et al. op. cit. where he distinguishes modes of social mobility. What exists in Barbados closely parallels the Sponsored Mobility of Britain where selection is 'overt, systematic and prompt' in the school career of an age group of children from which an able minority is chosen for an education as an elite.

<sup>33</sup>See Chapters 5 and 7 below.

rights, and the use of television, radio and newspaper has provided every man with information on which to base his decisions. The importance of unionism is now an established fact as is the place of the educated in society, for though the island still remains highly stratified, education has been used as a ladder for social mobility.

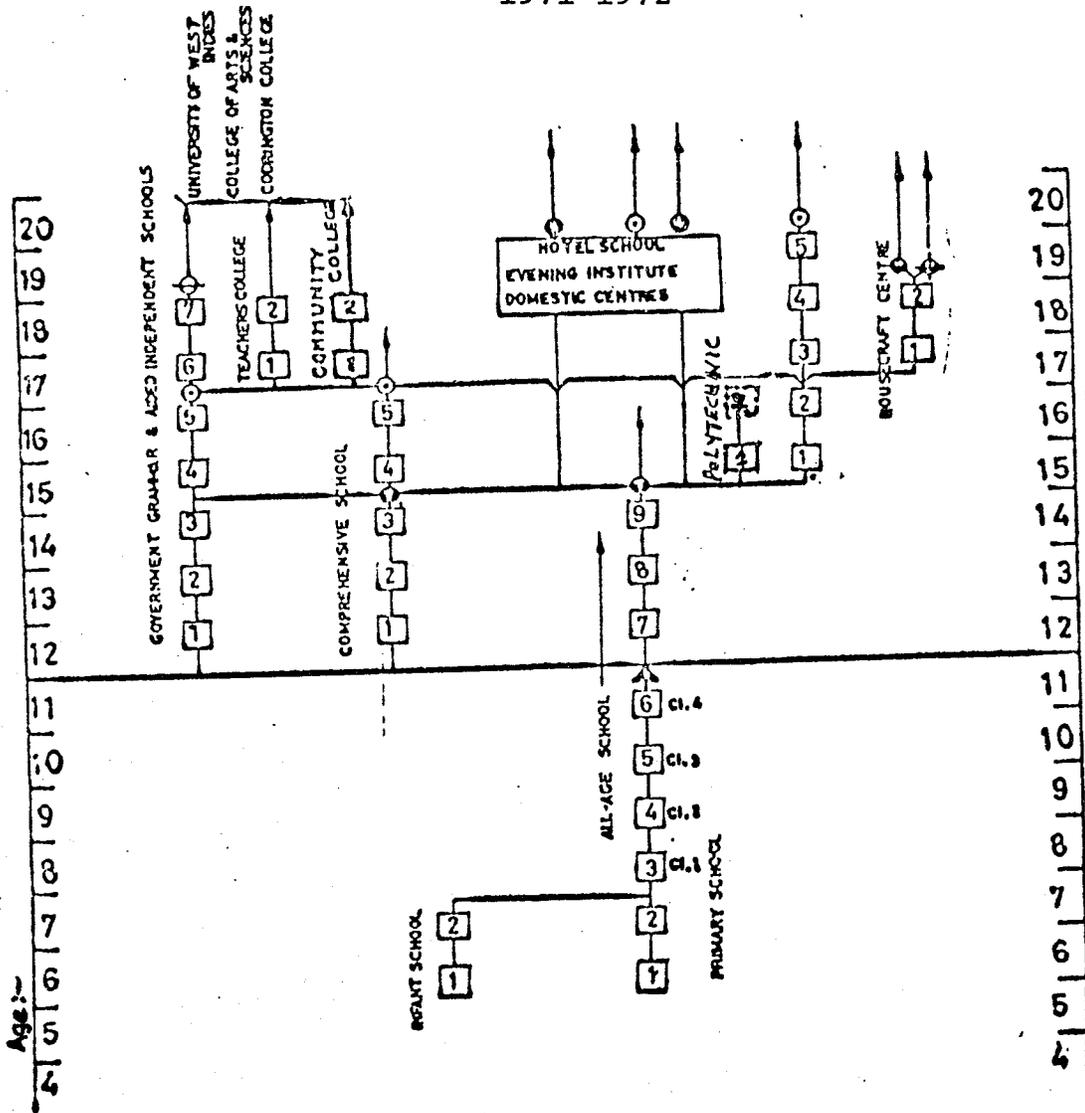
In terms of educational development, independence has brought an increase in both the number and types of schools. Figure 4.1 gives a flow chart of the educational system as it has developed after independence. The number of secondary schools has greatly increased and the government has committed itself to the idea of the comprehensive school. A Community College has been built and the Samuel Jackman Prescod Institute has been opened to provide technical education. What is more, a commitment has been made to educational planning and a new Education Act has been contemplated to provide a co-ordinated framework for education.

#### SUMMARY

Barbados, colonized during the early 17th century, quickly established a successful plantation economy based on sugar and nourished by slave labour. It developed a rigid class system where power and authority were concentrated in the hands of the white minority and schooling was restricted to the upper classes until just before emancipation when Christian Missions had begun to turn their attention to the need for formal education. In the pre-emancipation period

# FLOW CHART OF EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM IN BARBADOS

1971-1972



- ▲ Selection test for secondary schools
- ⊙ GCE, general certificate of education 'O' level
- ⊕ GCE, " " " " " 'A' level
- Local diploma or certificate
- ◆ City & Guilds examinations

Source: Ministry of Education Report, Barbados, 1971-1972.

education depended on private philanthropy and government took little cognizance of it in the law. After emancipation when government did legislate, it merely acknowledged schooling by the allocation of a grant of money but did not place upon itself any duty or obligation to provide education. Later, goaded by social unrest and political expediency, it provided a schematic framework for education, clearly outlining what kind of educational system the island was to have. The rigid distinctions of the society were translated into the area of education, resulting in an uncoordinated system which stressed differences between types of schools and even within stages. With independence there came a commitment to Education which promoted a widening of the educational opportunities for the masses and an institutional framework for educational planning.

## CHAPTER 5

### THE CASE OF BARBADOS: EDUCATIONAL POLICY ISSUES, PLANNING STRUCTURES AND THE PLANNING PROCESS

Rapid expansion of enrolments, the growing awareness of the actual and potential role of education in society, the increasing investment in education coupled with the awareness that the level and quality of education is not uniform throughout the society, have led developing countries both to the formulation of policy designed to respond to these needs, and to the planning of their educational systems. In Barbados educational planning is very much a government-based activity. As such, planning has been institutionalised and the institutional framework in which educational planning and policy take place is for the most part centralised and government controlled. This chapter purports to give a description of the issues confronting educational planning, the institutional structure and the educational planning process in Barbados.

#### EDUCATIONAL POLICY ISSUES IN BARBADOS

Policy-formulation in education is in effect concerned with the making of decisions both of a political nature, involving fundamental discussions about aims and objectives of education and the structural and curriculum

means of achieving them, and also of an administrative or technical nature, seeking to translate general policy into specific education action. The following section examines policy-making in terms of the aims and objectives as well as in terms of how these are translated into specific education action.

Aims and objectives. There are many problems which lie behind the policy decisions which Barbados now faces. Within this area the Minister of Education in an address to the Caribbean Association of Headmasters and Headmistresses has said

Here in Barbados we have always taken deep pride in our educational achievements, both at the primary and secondary level. We are determined, however, to be responsive to the refreshing breezes of modernization and to refashion our educational system so that it can achieve the four goals which are objectives of any progressive, democratic society.<sup>1</sup>

He outlined the four goals as

- a) achieving wider and more effective participation in education
- b) promotion of nationalism in a democratic community
- c) training citizens to be efficient
- d) co-operation and consolidation of the family group.<sup>2</sup>

In 1972, the Barbados Delegation to a Conference on

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<sup>1</sup>The Hon. L.E. Sandiford, Minister of Education, Barbados: Address to the fifth Conference of the Caribbean Association of Headmasters and Headmistresses at the Ursuline Convent, Barbados, August 20, 1967, reported in Speeches of the Minister, Vol. 1., p. 3.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

Intra-Regional Co-operation and Assistance in Education among Caribbean Territories stated:

It has been assumed in the foregoing that in a very fundamental way all Caribbean territories share certain common goals. Among these are:

- i) attempts to maximize educational opportunity to provide the most appropriate education for all their citizens
- ii) attempts to bring the education systems in line with national development, thus providing rapidly for the development of such skills and specialised knowledge as are necessary in a technological age
- iii) ensuring such changes in curricula and in the approach to education as would ensure the development of citizens, who . . . have positive attitudes towards work and national development and who are strongly committed to the advancement and preservation of their individual territories within a West Indian society.<sup>3</sup>

It would seem then that the general educational objectives which Barbados is pursuing may be summed up as follows:

- 1) promotion of nationalism in a democratic community,
- 2) co-operation and consolidation of the family group,
- 3) wider and more effective participation, 4) flexibility of the system, 5) relevant education, 6) training citizens to be efficient, and 7) efficiency of the system. These objectives as the basis of educational policy are explained in greater detail below.

Promotion of nationalism in a democratic country.

In Barbados it was felt that the creation of a national identity was a prerequisite to achieving national unity.

In its Manifesto for the 1966 elections--the year of

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<sup>3</sup>Paper presented by the Barbados Delegation, File B11/6, Minister of Education Conference, Ministry of Education, Barbados.

independence--the ruling Democratic Labour Party espoused this idea:

only the people of Barbados can decide what is in their best interest, and only the people of Barbados should be able to control the persons who are responsible for putting into effect the expression of the popular will. This is the significance of Independence;<sup>4</sup>

and elsewhere

The dignity and prestige of the new nation in the eyes of the world will rest not only upon our productive efficiency and will to work, but also upon the manner in which, and the degree to which, we maintain unabridged the tenets of a democratic society . . . The Democratic Labour Party is irrevocably pledged to promote, sustain and defend the unity of the nation.<sup>5</sup>

This objective implies not only the rejection of much of the colonial and non-colonial past, but also the weakening of the traditional affiliation Barbados had always felt with Britain, the only power to rule it before it became independent in 1966.

It has been shown above how the development of society in Barbados had closely paralleled British society and that the school system had been patterned after the British schools. One consequence of this was the fostering of what Figueroa calls "an outward-looking attitude",<sup>6</sup> which militated against the creation or consolidation of local customs. Not only had

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<sup>4</sup>The Manifesto of the Democratic Labour Party - Barbados General Election, 1966.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid.

<sup>6</sup>Figueroa, J.J. op. cit., pp. 13-14.

Barbados adopted the British school system but it was dependent on Britain for the disposal of its main crops such as sugar and rum. In difficult times it had therefore looked to Britain to provide solutions, rather than develop its own problem-solving machinery. To this end, education is increasingly seen as one of the means of dissemination of the ideas and symbols of nationhood and the schools' ability to implant the new attitudes is being closely examined. Symbols such as the Barbados national anthem and flag have replaced the Union Jack and the British national anthem but the syllabus and textbooks and examination systems still reflect the British orientation that existed before independence was granted and new objectives were set.

Co-operation and consolidation of the family group.

Barbadian society after Emancipation underwent a period of uncertainty and ambivalence of attitudes, uncertainty on the part of the slave class which was thrust into a new set of role-relationships involving family ties and responsibilities, and ambivalence on the part of the master class which did not know how to treat the new class of free men.<sup>7</sup> One result of this was the widespread system of common-law marriage among the lower class, compounded by the exogamous relationships and permissive behaviour of the upper and middle classes. In Barbados, like the rest of the Caribbean, there still exists a great variety of man-woman relationships. According

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<sup>7</sup>See "Post-emancipation and pre-independence" Chapter 4 above.

to Figueroa,

There is the almost casual arrangement whereby a woman will have five or six children by three or four different mates; there is the arrangement also without help of church or civil ceremony whereby a woman and man will live together faithfully and raise a family of six or seven children, and only at that stage think of getting married in the ecclesiastical and legal senses of that term.<sup>8</sup>

To Figueroa, the central matter to be noted is the element of uncertainty, confusion and ambivalence (of standards and attitudes). Perhaps then it is at such uncertainty, confusion and ambivalence that this objective is directed.

In 1968, the Ministry of Education in Barbados undertook the institution of a course on "Education in Personal Relationships and Family Life"<sup>9</sup> to be given in three stages in schools catering for the 11+ child. The achievement of this objective might be a pious hope and certainly will depend upon other institutions in the society. It is nevertheless a real policy objective conceived by the political leaders of Barbados which educational planners must operationalize.

Wider and more effective participation. In its Manifesto of 1966, the ruling Democratic Labour Party committed itself to wider participation in education. It proclaimed that deeper foundations had to be laid throughout the whole system, and proposed

so to unify the system that the national purposes can be expressed in the training given to the whole body of citizens at all stages of their development . . . The Party will, through an enlightened educational

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<sup>8</sup>Figueroa, op. cit., p. 41.

<sup>9</sup>Ministry of Education Circular No. 38/1968 Ref.C.J.T.

system, keep pace with new problems as they arise in a world of ceaseless change, and fully commits itself to the provision of more schools of all types as well as to a more rapid expansion of the quantity and quality of the Teaching Service.<sup>10</sup>

While Barbados has for a number of years enjoyed almost one hundred per cent enrolment in elementary education, secondary education and education beyond the secondary level was traditionally élitist and selective. In pursuing a policy of wider participation the government was therefore attempting to make decisions concerning not only increases in enrolment and in numerical participation but also concerning the inequalities that persist in educational participation.

As pointed out in Chapter 4, Barbados has had a history of social stratification which is reflected in the law governing education,<sup>11</sup> to the extent that grade one schools were better than the second grade schools and were patronised mainly by the upper and middle classes. The second grade schools provided the lower middle class with an education, and served as a means of mobility for the lower class. A further inequality could be found in the provision made for education of the two sexes, as well as in the region from which a student came. For example, the student who lived in the city or suburbs tended to be more likely to attend a first or second grade school than did the student

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<sup>10</sup>Democratic Labour Party Manifesto, op. cit.

<sup>11</sup>Chapter 6 below discusses how the law has permitted inequalities of input in terms of programmes, equipment, personnel etc.

who lived in the rural areas. Of the ten secondary schools,<sup>12</sup> only 'The Lodge School' for boys and 'The Alleyne School', a co-educational institution were located in strictly rural areas. Though Barbados is quite small, the transportation links made it almost impossible for a child who lived in a rural area to travel to a school outside his parish.<sup>13</sup> Even where this was possible, socio-economic differences between the rural areas and the city and suburb dwellers militated against the rural child.

Barbados' economy until recently, depended mainly on sugar and its by-products. The rural areas were therefore sub-divided into large sugar estates with their rich owners and managers and small land owners and labourers who made up the bulk of the rural population. Most rural dwellers within this plantation economy would find it difficult to pay both the fees required for their children's education and the cost of daily transportation. The result then was that though the secondary schools in the city were theoretically open to people in the rural areas, in practice only certain classes could avail themselves of the facilities.

The problem of placement of girls also forms part of the policy problem of participation. Government secondary

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<sup>12</sup>Here the reference is to the older government schools which provided a grammar type education and not to the comprehensive schools which were built after 1966.

<sup>13</sup>Barbados is divided into 11 political areas called 'parishes'.

schools are not very numerous and the policy has been to separate boys and girls. Only a very limited number of girls' secondary schools exist, with the result that the shortage of places for girls is even more acute than that of the boys as revealed by the statistics from the Common Entrance Examination.<sup>14</sup> The figures for the years 1969, 1971 and 1972 show that though sixty per cent of those entered for Part II were girls, only forty per cent of the total number of places was allocated to girls.

Wider participation in Barbados is however inseparably linked to the manner in which places are allocated, namely the 11+ examination. This method of selection was first used in England where the necessity for different categories of education was generally acknowledged and accepted.<sup>15</sup> The problem was to find relevant grounds for recruiting people to positions of authority and prestige in the society. When this system was adopted in Barbados, at first glance it seemed a fair way to distribute places as each child between the ages of 10 and 12 was entered and therefore had what appeared to be an equal opportunity to obtain one of the few places available at the secondary schools. Through this system those who do best are awarded places at the secondary school of their choice; the remaining places are awarded to those who obtain

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<sup>14</sup>See Appendix E "Common Entrance Examination, 1968, 1971, 1972."

<sup>15</sup>See for example R.H. Pedley: The Comprehensive School, Penguin Books Limited, Middlesex, 1964, Vernon, P.E.(ed.): Secondary School Selection - a British Psychological Society Inquiry. Methuen, 1964 and Campbell, F.C.: Eleven Plus and All That - the Grammar school in a changing society. Watts, 1956.

high enough marks. Those who did not do so well either pay their way at an Approved Independent school, or proceed to a government comprehensive or all age school on the basis of geographical location. This policy is now being attacked as negating the government's avowed policy of the 'just society' and as being an unsatisfactory manner for effecting educational diffusion.

Some argue that it places too great a strain on the 11 year old child and his parents; others argue that it does nothing more than maintain the dominance by older grammar schools and the old patterns of social stratification in that

it is culturally loaded and the child from a culturally advantaged home has a far better opportunity of getting a place in a prestige school than one who is not from such a home and has not had a chance to go to a private preparatory school, where his advantages<sup>16</sup> are magnified and considerably increased.<sup>17</sup>

Many have argued further that in a differentiated school system, the child is called upon at too early an age to make what amounts to a lifelong choice. The implications are that educational planners must find some alternatives to the present means of selection if they are to achieve the objective of wider participation.

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<sup>16</sup>It has long been known that private elementary schools in Barbados are superior to the public schools. Private schools tend to be expert in coaching and keep a nucleus of staff to do the job. They are also clear about their purposes and do not have to contend with the large numbers associated with public education where regular staff changes and a lack of proper equipment exist. Private schools usually draw their pupils from groups which have had a long association with education.

<sup>17</sup>Dr. Leonard Shorey: Personal Interview, December 3, 1974.

Flexibility of the system. The desire to ensure greater flexibility in the Barbados educational system is another objective of policy. It is closely allied to the issue of wider participation and is seen mostly in terms of expansion of the system and less in terms of responsiveness to change. As a move to effect this objective, the government decided that secondary education should be concentrated in comprehensive schools which would cater for children of all types of ability and would incorporate both academic and vocational streams. The feeling was that the old grammar schools were too limited in their curriculum offerings and were designed to handle only those destined for 'white-collared' jobs. The comprehensive schools would go beyond this.

The plans for the comprehensive schools called for greater flexibility of curriculum and structure, allowing a child to be transferred from one stream to another or to take academic along with technical subjects. An excerpt from the 1968 report of the Ministry reads as follows:

All pupils of the Grammar Schools are expected to work towards examinations of various overseas bodies, e.g. the University of London, and of Oxford and Cambridge at Ordinary Level, but Sixth Form pupils of Combermere, Harrison College, The Lodge School and Queen's College proceed to Advanced Level. Awards and Scholarships are usually made on the results of the Advanced Level Examinations.

In the Comprehensive Schools, only those pupils who show definite academic promise are entered for overseas examinations. In common with pupils of the All-age schools, they all wrote the 1968 Barbados School Leaving Examination which was organized and supervised by the Ministry of Education.

In all schools, provision was made to cater to

the varying abilities and aptitudes of students by allowing specialization in Arts, Craft, Science or Technical subjects after a certain stage of general education had been achieved.<sup>18</sup>

The comprehensive schools however proceeded to imitate the old grammar schools and failed badly in as much as they had neither the equipment and personnel nor the students with which to pursue such objectives. Most teachers had gained passes in the Overseas exams. and therefore saw this as the objective of the schools, an objective which was not intended in the plan. What is more, the public showed very little confidence in these schools which came to be considered second-rate since they did not produce the kind of results obtainable at the older grammar schools. Parents who could afford it, preferred to pay for their children's education at one of the available private schools. The problem was that the demand was for secondary grammar schools since the public saw these as the most effective means of social mobility and the comprehensive schools as closing such avenues. The problem was that the plan was not implemented as it had been designed.

Relevant education. In Barbados educational curricula have been strongly attacked, and criticisms have been levelled at the textbooks, examinations and degrees as being foreign to the Barbadian setting. As long ago as 1933, the relevance of what was being taught to the various objectives of education

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<sup>18</sup>The Ministry of Education Report - September 1967 - August 1968, p. 20.

was being questioned when the Mayhew-Marriott report suggested ways of adapting elementary education to local needs and freeing secondary education from the yoke of external examinations as set and corrected by various Universities and examining bodies in Great Britain.<sup>19</sup> This problem has now been somewhat aggravated and intensified by the socio-economic and political changes and by the changing composition of the school population both in terms of a more variegated clientele and the length of time students are staying at school.

People have begun to raise questions about what pupils are being taught at school and why. Overseas examinations set by the Oxford & Cambridge syndicate and by London University in England have always dictated what the curriculum in Barbadian schools would be. This has been questioned and the Ministry of Education in conjunction with other Ministries throughout the Caribbean has funded a project under the supervision of the University of the West Indies to prepare examination schemes for the Caribbean area. Locally, a National Curriculum Development Committee was launched in 1973 with the express purpose of examining this area of policy. So far it has been able to stimulate some interest in the area and has succeeded in producing guidelines in several subject fields while studying the wider question of curriculum development.

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<sup>19</sup> Report on Problems of Secondary and Primary Education in Trinidad, Barbados, Leeward and Windward Islands, 1931-2. Col. No. 79, H.M.S.O. 1933.

Training citizens to be efficient. This objective of training citizens to be efficient, vague as it is, implies a certain quality of education and raises questions about standards and also about the types of institutions in which education takes place. Barbados has traditionally pursued a policy of elitism in education where pride of place went to those educated at the first grade schools at the secondary level and the private schools at the elementary level. This practice no doubt led to a lot of wastage as several people capable of benefiting from education beyond the elementary stage did not get the opportunity or were limited in their opportunity by being placed in a school acknowledged as second class.

The fact of independence, the emergence of small industries, the demand for more education, and the growth of the tourist trade in the past ten years have led to a proliferation of educational institutions designed to produce citizens skilled enough to be useful in economic life in Barbados. This economic orientation may be seen in the type of institution established. For example, a Hotel School has been established; the Samuel Jackman Prescod Polytechnic was built to cater for those who were interested in a technical career; the extension of Erdiston Teachers' Training College, the Tercentenary Nursing School and the Housecraft centre are all examples of the economic orientation of the efficiency criterion in education in Barbados.

Efficiency of the system. It has been shown that in Barbados efficiency has been interpreted in economic terms.

The fact of scarce resources always raises questions about the working of any system which must compete with others for funds from a common treasury. In education, these questions seem to centre around who are to be educated, in what numbers, by what methods, in what type of schools, and most recently, due to shortage of places and changing attitudes in society, what type of selection should be applied.

In an attempt to effect this objective, the Ministry of Education has increased its staff, added a planning arm and has appointed a committee to study the question of selection; increasing critical attention is being paid to the function of education within the society.<sup>20</sup> One however must remember that efficiency is determined by the relationship of the means to the goal and the priority of goals.<sup>21</sup> This raises further questions about the type of schools, teacher training programmes, and most importantly, co-ordination in the face of the proliferation of schools in the last decade or so.

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<sup>20</sup>Hon. L. E. Sandiford, Minister of Education, Personal Interview, December 6, 1974.

<sup>21</sup>See for example Anderson & Bowman's "Theoretical Considerations in Educational Planning" in Blang, M. (ed.): Economics of Education where they point out that efficiency as a rationality concept - to get the most out of the least, whatever the nature of the rewards or ends may be, implies that decisions are taken not only concerning how many resources should go into education or the selection of individuals for further schooling but also concerning the priority of groups or localities and the source or agencies responsible for providing resources.

There are, for example, the secondary grammar schools with sixth forms, the Samuel Jackman Prescod Polytechnic, the Barbados Community College and the Technical Institute which provide education beyond ordinary level. At present, sixth form work leading to university entrance is carried out in the sixth form schools and at the Barbados Community College. This does not appear to be the most efficient means of providing this form of education. The numbers involved are relatively small. The total (1971/72 figures quoted) enrolment for all those in the sixth form schools was 289 scattered over six schools pursuing courses in some thirteen subjects. It would seem to be more economical to have the final years of secondary education centered at the Community College and to release those secondary places for 11+ pupils. A similar situation exists with the Technical Institute and the Samuel Jackman Prescod Polytechnic.

One other question which needs to be considered here is the factor of costs, both in terms of capital and recurrent expenditures. Education costs take up about 30 per cent of the annual budget. With the constant demand for more school places, Barbados will need more schools. The problem is how to avoid duplication of efforts as well as how to build many schools at not too great a cost when education has to compete with other sectors for scarce dollars. The current trend seems to be to

build new schools which more resemble monuments to a particular era than buildings which a country

like Barbados can afford.<sup>22</sup>

Some buildings have cost 2.2 million dollars at a time when there is a demand for many more new schools and a pressing need for repairs in existing school buildings. Educational planners have therefore to find some means for 'getting the most out of the least'.

The objectives outlined above might be considered the major stated objectives of educational policy in Barbados, but policy concerns are by no means limited to them. They represent the general concerns of educational policy. While each area represents a legitimate and justifiable concern of policy, it is the combined effect of them all which forms the central concern of educational policy in Barbados, namely, building the "Just Society" which according to the Minister of Education is

one in which all the young people have an opportunity to increase levels of knowledge, skills and so on and to develop creative and purposeful attitudes to life; one which makes sure that the interests of the individual and of the larger body are reconciled and that circumstances of birth, background, colour or any other adventitious circumstances are not a barrier to a person's development of balance for self and for national good.<sup>23</sup>

#### THE INSTITUTIONAL STRUCTURE OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING IN BARBADOS

There exists in Barbados a certain identifiable institutional structure in which educational planning takes

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<sup>22</sup>This is a view expressed by an official of the ministry.

<sup>23</sup>Hon. L.E. Sandiford, Personal Interview, December 6, 1974.

place. Various actors<sup>24</sup> are involved at various phases of the planning process ranging in form from the Cabinet to interest groups in the society and in function from the role of making of policy to that of reacting to plans or policy. The role of these actors is described below as they operate within the planning process. It should be noted that the role of some actors pervade the whole planning process, while that of others is visible only at specific stages.

The Cabinet. After the introduction of ministerial government, the Cabinet, consisting of the Prime Minister and not fewer than 5 Ministers of the Government became the chief policy-making body in Barbados. It is headed by the Prime Minister. The initiative for any policy measures may come from the Minister of Education or from other members of the Cabinet from time to time. The Cabinet has been known in one or two instances to take a different view from that of technical officers and from the Minister of Education himself. All major decisions of policy are therefore ratified by Cabinet before introduction to the Legislature for debate or before being carried into policy.

The Legislature. Though many minor changes in educational objectives and policy can be adopted and put into effect by the Ministry without being brought before the legislative assembly and the senate and without being passed into law, major change generally requires legislation. It is at this time that members of the opposition as well as members

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<sup>24</sup>See Chapter 2 above.

of the ruling party get an opportunity to air their views on educational policy. This input from the legislature represents the formal embodiment of some aspects of educational policy as members react to and sometimes cause modifications to proposals of policy. The legislature also has some budgetary control in that it can criticize government policy when money is being requested for educational expenditures.

There are two things to note about the role of the legislature. In the first place the legislative assembly as elected representatives of the people is made up, generally speaking, of people from diverse fields. Since the franchise was extended in the early 1940's and property qualifications were removed, many professionals especially lawyers have been drawn into politics. The result is that the planter class which had previously dominated the legislative assembly and the senate has been replaced by a group similar--if not in social class origins--in educational background and experiences gleaned in the colonial atmosphere of the grammar school tradition. Foster has pointed out the kind of emotional ambivalence which characterized the educational decision-making of such a group in Ghana.<sup>25</sup> The composition of the legislature might militate against decisions which involve radical changes from the prevailing system. The second point

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<sup>25</sup>Philip Foster, *op. cit.*, p. 110 found that African intellectuals did little to 'Africanize' the schools even when they had the opportunity as they were caught between their basic emotional ambivalence vis-a-vis traditional African culture and their shrewd perception of the realities of the situation.

to note is that decisions made in the assembly often accord with promises made in election campaigns and are regularly made out of political expediency rather than on sound educational principles.<sup>26</sup>

The Ministry of Education. The Ministry of Education like the other Ministries advises the government upon matters of policy. It not only plays an important and powerful role in the making of government policy, but also has the duty of implementing the general policies established by government. In performing this function the Ministry relies on certain actors who are officially a part of or are attached to the Ministry itself. The following are identifiable; the Minister, The Educational Planning and Development Committee and specialists of varying types.

The Minister. As head of the Ministry, the minister has the responsibility for formulating plans to effect the educational policy of the government. In addition, he acts as the liaison between the Cabinet and his ministry, and pro-pounds, explains or defends the government's educational policy in the legislature. If, as was the case from 1967-1971, the minister is not an elected member of the legislature, a senior member, usually another minister, will perform this function for him. His influence is paramount when there is need to secure legislation for some aspect of policy or for

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<sup>26</sup>This view was expressed by several of the people interviewed. They felt that a lot of the 'wastage' in education was due to decisions made on such grounds.

securing the financial support necessary to the implementation of plans.

As chairman of the Planning Committee in the Ministry, he holds the pivotal position in terms of deciding the direction and degree of change as well as of describing and outlining the methods and means to meet stated objectives. The current law governing education, however, places no duty on him to provide education for the citizens of Barbados. In education and educational planning, he is most powerful, his power deriving from the delegated authority which permits him to make regulations concerning the day to day conduct of the school system on matters ranging from curriculum outlines to the conditions for enrolment of pupils.

#### Educational Planning and Development Committee.

EPADEC as it is called, is the top policy planning body in the Ministry. This unit is composed of most of the senior staff representing most of the sections in the Ministry and is a forum where new policies are discussed, planning papers are presented and administrative and professional staff have an opportunity to make their various inputs. The final decision is made by the Minister. The functions of the Committee were explained by the Minister as follows:

It should be concerned with examining major proposals or developments, improvements and policy. It should receive reports from Heads of Departments, Divisions and Institutions of the Ministry, on the execution of programmes for which they are responsible. Its procedures should be viewed in the light of cooperative leadership. Proposals should be viewed by each member in the light of their possible repercussions

on his Department . . . The committee as a whole, should be able to bring to bear on proposals a balanced judgement in view of the wide range of skills and experience of members.<sup>27</sup>

The committee deals with diverse educational problems involving the administrative and professional aspects of education, matters of accommodation planning for the future, planning details for new schools as well as matters requiring collaboration with other ministries like the Ministry of Housing, the Town Planning and the Ministry of Health. In Barbados where planning is completely government-dominated, this committee is of extreme importance. The in-bred nature of its composition could however be a drawback.<sup>28</sup>

National Curriculum Development Council. This Council made up of university personnel, persons in teacher training institutions, representatives of teachers in the system and the teachers' unions as well as representatives of business and other groups, was launched in 1973 by the Minister and given the following terms of reference:

(i) to review the existing curricula (ii) to advise the Minister on subjects to be taught and the time to be allocated to such subjects (iii) to receive from subject committees detailed syllabuses etc., and make recommendations to the Minister (iv) to pay due regard to

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<sup>27</sup> Minister's statement on "Functions of EPADEC and Procedures under the Divisional System Meeting of EPADEC" April 11, 1974.

<sup>28</sup> For example, most senior officials in the Ministry have been elementary headmasters and have risen through a promotion system of seniority. There is a strong indication as was noticed in the case of the African countries that most meetings tend to be little more than a few hours' consideration of common difficulties.

the special curriculum needs of the educationally sub-normal or otherwise handicapped pupil (v) to review the work of Curriculum Subject Committees (vi) to co-opt such other persons, with special interests in Curriculum Development, including in particular members of Curriculum Subject Committees, as may be needed to assist in the work of the Council.<sup>29</sup>

It was intended to assist the professional officers in the Ministry in determining the quality of education in the schools. Its chief purpose was to design and carry out activities aimed at improving the school curricula. Its terms of reference do not run to the extent of policy-making, but restricts it to finding ways of implementing policy and plans already determined. In its operations, it is headed by a senior professional officer of the Ministry who by virtue of his position can affect policy through his influence with the Minister or through EPADEC.

Specialists. Of the twelve members of EPADEC, only one, the Chief Accountant could be classified as a specialist, that is someone possessing budgetary, statistical or technical expertise. Barbados has had a tradition and history of bringing in "foreign experts". The present composition of EPADEC and indeed the Ministry staff reflects this attitude. During the last seven years, two UNESCO teams have provided the only comprehensive documents prepared on the education system in Barbados.<sup>30</sup> In addition to this, a British Technical

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<sup>29</sup> Ministry of Education Circular No. CJ/11/T1 18

<sup>30</sup> (a) Unesco - Serial No. 1327. "Barbados - Education and Priorities for its Development." July 1962. (b) Unesco - "Barbados - Prospects for educational development." 1974.

Assistance expert was called in 1972 to advise on all aspects of the area of technical and vocational education. The attitude of looking outwards for these skills coupled with the failure to recognize the potential of statistical information has resulted in the use of a qualified statistician in the Ministry in a manner similar to that of a clerk.

Another type of specialist visible on the educational planning scene is the specialist sent by an international funding agency. Rapid expansion coupled with decrease in national savings prevents Barbados from financing from local funds its capital expenditure for developing institutions and forces them to look for external aid. A senior Education Officer in the Ministry expressed it as follows:

International agencies do not lend you money to do what you want, but they lend you money to do what they determine is best for your educational development . . . The stages they go through before they give us the loan are very interesting. First because some of their staff are on joint appointment with UNESCO, there is a UNESCO team which visits us for a general evaluation of the educational system and the priorities that they see for development. The World Bank then might or might not accept this report, following which they send a project preparation mission. Following the preparation mission, they send a mission for a feasibility study. And following this they send a mission for project execution.<sup>31</sup>

Specialists however are important in that they do generate information which might not normally be available to ministry officials.

Governing Bodies. In Barbados, each secondary school is operated by a governing body. Members of these bodies are

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<sup>31</sup>L. G. Atherley, Personal Interview, November 18, 1974.

usually appointed by the Minister of Education from among prominent members of the community. Generally speaking, business was usually represented, as was the Church due to its historic association with education.<sup>32</sup> When governing bodies were first established, they were composed mainly of plantation owners and managers. This practice has now been reversed.

In order to understand the role of governing bodies in educational planning and policy-making, however, it is first necessary to understand the system of school administration as it operates in the island. While elementary schools are directly administered and controlled by the Ministry of Education, the secondary schools are operated by a governing body which is responsible for the hiring of teachers and for the general running of the schools. This is done generally through the "Schemes of Government" devised for the establishment and maintenance of the schools.<sup>33</sup> Governing bodies through their headmasters or headmistresses are in fact in charge of the tactical planning for their schools and must also oversee educational policies of the Ministry. In terms of curriculum, school extension whether of programme or buildings, they have almost complete autonomy as long as their schemes are not radically different from ministry viewpoint. In general they interpret and implement ministry policy as

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<sup>32</sup>See Chapter 6 below.

<sup>33</sup>See Education Act 1890 - 12 55. Laws of Barbados Vol. 1. 1667-1 - 1894-5, p. 408. Advocate Co. Ltd., 1944.

they see fit.

Interest Groups. Two types of interest groups are identified in the educational planning process in Barbados; those groups whose membership is made up of persons officially part of the education system as exemplified in the Barbados Union of Teachers and the Barbados Secondary Teachers' Union, and those groups whose membership for the most part consists of people officially outside of the education system, as exemplified by Parent-Teacher Associations, the Barbados Junior Chamber of Commerce and the Lions' Club.

Teachers' Unions. There are two major teachers' unions; the Barbados Union of Teachers, a relatively new organization representing the teachers in the elementary schools, the secondary Comprehensive schools and the all-age schools, and the Barbados Secondary Teachers' Union representing teachers in the grammar schools have been able to influence the formulation of policy in area of conditions of service for teachers. According to Professor R. V. Goodridge, their influence is increasing:

they are having an increasing amount of influence on educational policy, even though their influence is not yet being felt, in my view, in some professional matters, e.g. changes in the curriculum and methods of evaluation. I do not think that the professional associations have yet come around to concentrating on professional matters; they still concentrate more on terms and conditions of service and personnel relations.<sup>34</sup>

In general, the unions tend to react to, rather than initiate

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<sup>34</sup>Prof. R. V. Goodridge, Director of the In-service Diploma in Education Programme, U.W.I., Cave Hill, Barbados. Personal Interview, November 29, 1974.

policy as such. They appear to be constantly reacting to the kind of policy mentioned above rather than attempting to initiate a broad attack on a particular area in which they feel policy should be implemented.<sup>35</sup> In this way their policy in-put is very much like that of the parent-teachers associations.

Parent-Teacher Associations. In recent years, parent-teacher associations have tried to influence the development of national policy. The absence of a strong national association however has robbed them of the degree of legitimacy necessary for success in this area. Individual parent-teacher associations have had specific influence on their own school rather than on policy at the national level though the Minister in one of his speeches has indicated that the government is prepared to consult the Parent-Teacher Association.<sup>36</sup>

The Barbados Junior Chamber of Commerce and the Lions' Club. Because of the nature of education, one might assume that there would be a great number of groups with an interest in education. However, only two such groups seem to be having any influence on the educational planning process; they are the Barbados Junior Chamber of Commerce and the Lions' Club. These two groups have been instrumental in the official launching of Nursery Education in Barbados. In fact, the former provided

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<sup>35</sup>This is a view expressed by John Cumberbatch, President of the Barbados Union of Teachers.

<sup>36</sup>Speech delivered to the Parent-Teachers' Association of the Bay Primary School by the Minister of Education, June 6, 1971.

most of the funds for the initial government project in Nursery Education. In this way they have been influential in terms of both the scope and direction of education, and their nursery project came at a time when Barbados had embraced a policy of "comprehensivisation" with the thrust being on secondary education. The fact that these bodies are made up of prominent citizens, some of whom are found on governing bodies as well as statutory bodies in education, ensures them a high status and a degree of legitimacy not enjoyed by other groups. Generally speaking, however, their efforts centre around raising funds for special projects.

#### THE PLANNING PROCESS AND THE VISIBILITY OF ACTORS IN IT

While the above description serves as a means of identifying the framework in which policy and planning take place, it does not capture the dynamic nature of the process itself, since each category varies in visibility and input according to the specific phase in the planning process. Figure 5.1 gives a pictorial representation of actor visibility in terms of input. It reveals that there is a very heavy political input in the formulation of plans especially at the level where needs are identified and goals and objectives established. In Barbados there is the system whereby each major political party before election time issues a manifesto outlining its policy for education among other things. When the Minister takes up office therefore, he

Phases in the Planning Process

Actors in the Planning Process	PHASE I		PHASE II	PHASE III
	Identifying Needs	Establishing Goals and Objectives	Means Identification, Evaluation of Alternatives	Designing and Carrying out Field Activities
Cabinet	***	**	*	*
Legislature	**	**	**	*
Minister	***	***	***	**
EPADEC	**	***	***	***
Governing Bodies	**	**	***	**
Specialists	*	*	**	**
Parent-Teacher Associations	**	*	*	*
Barbados Union of Teachers	**	**	*	*
Barbados Secondary Teachers Union	*	*	**	*
Jaycees	**	*	*	**
Lions	*	*	*	**
International Agencies	*	**	**	***
National Curriculum Development Council	**	***	***	***

Figure 5.1. The Visibility of Actors in the Planning Process

\*\*\* Major role      \*\* Minor role      \* Ad hoc role

brings with him an already pre-determined outline of policy concerning the major questions or problems in education, and many politicians claim that they are in some ways able to articulate the needs of the country better than professional educators. Generally speaking, questions of major institutional changes like the development of the Barbados Community College, the Polytechnic and such institutions and the whole question of the quantity of education reflect the political input to the planning process. For example, the question of quantity at the secondary level is a crucial one for Barbados. The political decision was that there should be a comprehensive education and that the type of schools built should be comprehensive. This decision would have been arrived at through discussions at the Cabinet level. The Minister would have been advised by his planning committee and might possibly have consulted one or two of the groups identified in Figure 5.1. The visibility of the politician at this phase is paramount and surpasses that of all other actors in the planning process.

At the point where alternatives are identified and selected the position shifts, in that the Ministry as represented by the Minister and EPADEC, and to a lesser extent the National Curriculum Development Council is expected to make this decision work. A Ministry official expressed it this way,

on this question of the quantity, there is very little influence which Ministry Administrators will have. The point at which they might have any influence though, is of the size of the institution . . .

we will accept the political decision that it should be in comprehensive schools, but that we will insist that the school to be a manageable unit, should not have more than, and in our instance we put, 1200 pupils.<sup>37</sup>

At the level of identifying means and evaluating alternatives, the political input is seen only through the Minister working with Ministry staff. It is at this level where objectives have become more specific that professional groups tend to take over, hence the growing visibility of officials of the Ministry, Specialists and Governing Bodies which are charged with overseeing the programmes of the schools they represent.

While the political input was greatest early in the process when goals were selected, the professional input is greatest later in the process when the actual designing and carrying out of field activities occur. Perhaps the National Curriculum Development Council is the most visible actor during this phase. Specialists from time to time are as visible but these change as the project emphasis changes. International agencies are fairly visible at this stage as they provide funds, and regularly, experts as well. It is significant that interest groups both within and outside of the system seem to enjoy only a minimum of visibility. It may be that because planning is government-centred, such groups find it difficult to get their ideas through as they are not a part of the political machinery which is paramount during the early phase nor of the professional machinery which seems to take over during the later phases.

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<sup>37</sup>L.G. Atherley, Personal Interview, November 18, 1974.

Theoretically, all the actors identified in Figure 5.1 may initiate or be involved in initiating the planning process, though in fact only a very few are involved at this stage. In fact, what happens to any idea, issue or problem will depend largely on its acceptance by Cabinet which will through the Minister of Education issue instructions to the Ministry. The Ministry will then be responsible for "translating these into action, clothing them with flesh and pouring blood into their veins."<sup>38</sup> It may make use of certain specialists from the budgetary, statistical, building, sports or legal drafting division in order to facilitate the effort of analysing issues, gathering data or formulating plans. Sometimes it may go further afield and make use of foreign specialists to do some or all of these jobs. After this, members of EPADEC will produce a plan which may then be passed on to interest groups mainly of type A. Their opinions will more or less be solicited in the case of major issues. Consultation of type B interest groups is rather recent and seems to depend on whether the issue appears likely to stir up some controversy. At this point, the plan is returned to EPADEC for modification and final ministerial sanction before being sent to the legislature for legal approval, budgetary consideration or final promulgation.

The last stage of the process is the implementation of the plan. This requires the resources of the ministry,

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<sup>38</sup>R.O. Jordan, Senior Assistant Secretary, Ministry of Education, October 14, 1975.

sometimes through the rules and regulations which the Minister has to devise to facilitate the implementation of the plan or sometimes through the involvement of ministry staff with school personnel who operationalize the plan in the classroom setting.

It should be noted however that this process can be aborted at any one of the stages. This occurs for several reasons. Some plans are just meant to attract external financial aid and therefore remain shelved when this objective is accomplished. Other plans run into such opposition that the government may deem it prudent not to carry through with them. A case in 1969 exemplifies this. The government had decided as a matter of policy to restructure secondary education at the sixth form level. A ministry official summed up the case as follows:

It seemed that it would be more economical and would offer better opportunities; almost everything in terms of educational quality could be gained by having sixth forms or the final years of our secondary schools housed together in one site to have students educated there. Now this would have called for the removal of the top forms from two of the most prestigious institutions in the community. The upshot was that past pupils of these schools, together with what was obviously a ploy of the opposition group, joining the opposition to the government was sufficient to produce a change in policy, in this instance a compromise which allowed for maintaining the final forms in these prestigious institutions along with a development of 6th form teaching in a separate institution.<sup>39</sup>

Any other stage could prove abortive. If for example, the Cabinet does not legitimate an idea, if public opposition is too strong, if the legislature does not approve or withholds

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<sup>39</sup>L.G. Altherley, Personal Interview, November 18, 1974.

funds, the process will be aborted.

#### SUMMARY

This chapter has outlined educational policy in Barbados, explaining what the stated objectives of educational planning are. It has shown that there is an identifiable institutional structure for planning, has pointed out the actors in the planning process and examined the phases at which these are visible. It has also shown that planning as a government-based activity has a very heavy political input at the phase of identifying needs and establishing goals and objectives and a heavy professional input during the phases of identifying means and evaluating alternatives and of designing and carrying out activities. The Minister is visible at every phase of the process while interest groups tend only to play the role of "reactors", being just visible at the early and late phases of planning as they react to initial proposals of policy or to plans for implementation. Any group of actors may initiate the planning process, which can be aborted at any stage. The final outcome of any plan depends in large measure on its acceptance by Cabinet and ratification by the legislature.

## CHAPTER 6

### THE LEGAL FRAMEWORK OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING IN BARBADOS

There has been widespread agreement<sup>1</sup> that though the specific legal means by which educational planning is initiated and its institutional framework established varies from country to country, educational planning requires a fairly specific legal framework. Governments must give attention to reshaping the legal system to fit the new shape that education itself must take, especially in developing countries. This generally requires a concentration of power sufficient to secure orderly growth, to prevent unco-ordinated growth and to control the system. The purpose of this chapter is to describe the legal framework of educational planning in Barbados. It describes the powers to control the system, the powers to plan the system as planners would like it to be and the means by which educational planning may be reviewed in Barbados.

#### POWERS TO CONTROL

The schematic framework for education in Barbados is

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<sup>1</sup>See G.C.Ruscoe, The Conditions for Success in Educational Planning. Unesco: Fundamentals of Educational planning series-12, 1969, Adam Curle, Educational Strategy for Developing Societies, Tavistock, 1973, and Colin Leys (ed.) Politics and Change in Developing Countries. Cambridge Univ. Press, 1969.

encompassed in the Education Act of 1890 as amended from time to time. That Act contemplated three stages of education and established rigid distinctions between the stages and even within stages, where for example, at the secondary level there is a clear division between first grade and second grade schools. Section 31 gave the Education Board power to establish second grade schools. It reads as follows:

The Education Board shall have power, and they are hereby required, to frame schemes for the establishment, either concurrently or from time to time, of second grade schools.<sup>2</sup>

The Board also has power to determine what schools were to be first grade schools as the following section indicates,

. . . and the said Board shall determine what schools shall be schools of the first grade, and shall define the functions and powers of the governing bodies of all such schools.<sup>3</sup>

One outcome of this structure was the establishment of differences within the second stage of education. First grade schools were thus reserved for the privileged class and were differentiated from the second grade schools by the kind of staff recruited, the funds allotted, facilities provided and most of all by the rewards which were available to its graduates.<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>2</sup>Education Act, op. cit., 31.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., 39.

<sup>4</sup>It was customary to recruit senior staff from England. Headmasters and Headmistresses were always graduates of English Universities. The first local appointment to such a position did not occur until the late 1960's. It should be pointed out also that only graduates from one of the three first grade schools - one was reserved for girls - could gain university entrance requirements.

This proved an effective way to perpetuate the type of stratification system which existed.<sup>5</sup>

This type of disjointed approach is evident in the kind of controls which the Act created. It did not provide a co-ordinated system but rather a many-faceted approach depending on the stage or type of education being offered. Though it established an Education Board

authorised and empowered to make rules and regulations for all matters and things connected with the educational service of the colony,<sup>6</sup>

it set up individual committees for each school. The elementary schools, for example, were controlled by school committees headed by the local church minister and composed of two other members with power both to hire and fire "subject to approval by, and a right to appeal to the Education Board,"<sup>7</sup> and "to train school masters, pupil teachers and mistresses."<sup>8</sup> This meant in effect that the power of the Church to control these schools was paramount, that every school was, as it were, autonomous and that there was little or no co-ordination throughout the elementary system. The growth of elementary schools therefore depended on the goodwill of the Church. This in effect limited educational expansion and curriculum development, since both the Church's funds and its curriculum were

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<sup>5</sup>See Chapter 4 above.

<sup>6</sup>Education Act 1890. *op. cit.*, Cap. LXV 9.

<sup>7</sup>*Ibid.*, 21.

<sup>8</sup>*Ibid.*, 27.

limited. Cruikshank in an analysis of Church involvement in education in the colonies remarked that generally

reading, writing and arithmetic, with a very imperfect acquaintance with the principles of the Christian religion, constituted the full extent of the school education.<sup>9</sup>

A further complication to the problem of co-ordination and control can be found in the number of competing Church organizations involved in education at this time. The main ones which can be identified at this period were the Anglicans, Wesleyans, Moravians and later the Catholics.<sup>10</sup>

Such a state of affairs remained in force until the Education (Amendment) Act (1943-3). Section 7 from this Amendment reads as follows:

Where by virtue of any provision of the Principal Act or of any Act amending the same, power or authority is conferred on the Education Board established under the Principal Act to make rules or regulations or to frame schemes or to alter, amend, add to or annul such rules, regulations or schemes, such provision shall be construed as if such power or authority had been conferred upon the Director of Education.

To strengthen the Director's power of control, the status of the Education Board was reduced to that of a consultative body. At the same time all elementary teachers became civil servants, giving the Department of Education the responsibility for the hiring, paying and allocation of all personnel in elementary schools. This gave the Department greater means

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<sup>9</sup>Quoted in Philip Foster, *op. cit.*, p. 53.

<sup>10</sup>See Ministry of Education Report, 1967-1968, p. 2.

of control and permitted some degree of co-ordination at the elementary stage though it did not remove the dual system of control by Church and government.

It is clear that the Act itself provided neither for co-ordination throughout this stage nor for co-ordination with other stages specified in the Act. The secondary level had similar shortcomings. There were two types of secondary schools stipulated in the Act. The Education Board was empowered by the Act to create schemes for the establishment of first and second grade schools. However, control of the schools was turned over to Governing Bodies. Section 35 establishing second grade schools reads as follows:

The Education Board has power to call on Governing Bodies of such schools to frame statutes and rules for the good government and regulation of such schools and the said Governing Body shall from time to time alter, add to, or rescind the same, and such original, added or altered statutes and rules shall in all cases be subject to the approval of the Education Board.<sup>11</sup>

Section 39 gave the Education Board similar powers for first grade schools to

call upon the Governing Bodies by requisition in writing from time to time to frame Statutes, Orders and Rules for the discipline, government and course of instruction of such schools, as far as may be in conformity with the report and recommendations of the Education Commission.<sup>12</sup>

Seven governing bodies, each with responsibility for the hiring, paying and recruiting of teachers as well as for

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<sup>11</sup> Education (Amendment) Act 1943-3. 35.

<sup>12</sup> Ibid., 39.

the development of curriculum were thus established in seven secondary schools catering to a total of approximately 600 pupils.<sup>13</sup> Each governing body was autonomous and had little or no relationship with one another. This presented special problems of control and management of the system, and in effect allowed the first grade schools to dominate in areas of recruitment of staff and pupils, as well as in acquiring resources.

Legally no substantial or fundamental changes have occurred in the 1890 Act, but some political changes brought with them changes of power to control the system. When ministerial government was introduced in the early 1950's, the power conferred on the Director of Education quietly passed to the Minister of Education. The Legislative Assembly in 1954 in a memorandum to the then Governor, Sir Alfred Savage, explained how Ministers would function:

As a corollary to this, it is our considered judgment that the Governor in all matters of legislative policy respecting internal affairs must as a matter of constitutional convention accept the advice of his ministers.

The Ministers who would operate under party convention, would become responsible for the formulation of government policy, for propounding it in Executive Committee and in the House of Assembly, and for seeing that it was carried out by the administration.<sup>14</sup>

The Minister was therefore able to exert a greater degree of control than was possible before since he could through his

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<sup>13</sup>See Mitchinson Commission Report 1876.

<sup>14</sup>Debates - House of Assembly - Session 1953-54, Vols. 1 & 2, p. 462.

inspectors make suggestions or even direct the policy of the Governing Bodies. At the same time all elementary policy came under the aegis of the Minister, thereby allowing a measure of control which did not exist before.

In spite of this however, the law governing education left growth of elementary schools to the goodwill of the Church, created sectional growth within levels and gave control of the system to the Church and to the Governing Bodies. By making elementary teachers civil servants and leaving secondary teachers under the control of the governing bodies, the Act did not provide for effective central control for co-ordination, allocation, or training of manpower resources. What is more important, it provided no adequate controls to deal with possible breakdown or default, thus making it difficult for planners to effect meaningful change within this established legal framework.

#### POWERS TO PLAN

So far the powers to control the system have been examined. Governments however also require powers to plan the system in anticipation of changes, or as a means of creating or responding to changes in the society. The 1890 Education Act made no reference to planning, but placed certain duties upon the Education Board. For elementary schools the Board had a duty

to make rules and regulations for the good government of the public elementary schools; for the subjects to be taught, and the course and order

of study in such schools . . .<sup>15</sup>

In the case of the secondary schools, the law was more specific:

In framing such scheme as aforesaid, the Education Board shall make due provision that instruction be given not only in the English and Classical Languages and Literature and in Mathematics but also in the French Language and in the elements of one or more of the Natural Sciences, and, when practicable, in the German Language. They shall also provide that in one First Grade School at least, arrangements be made so as to secure a thorough and solid education for such boys as may require a modern in lieu of a classical education.<sup>16</sup>

This in no way prescribed a role of planning for the Education Board, but merely directed it to provide certain courses of study, again leaving first grade schools with distinct advantages in terms of course offerings.

Three events have altered such a state of affairs; the creation of a ministry of education under the control of a Minister, the launching of the National Curriculum Development Council and the forming of the Educational Planning and Development Committee. Under the Constitution of Barbados, the Minister of Education is charged with the responsibility for all matters pertaining to Education, and for the execution of the Government's educational policy.<sup>17</sup> The current law governing education places no duty on the Minister to provide education for the people nor to make plans for educational development; nor does it place any constraints on him. He

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<sup>15</sup>Education Act, op. cit.

<sup>16</sup>Ibid., 40.

<sup>17</sup>The Barbados Independence Order 1966, 72-(1).

has no statutory powers to plan, but derives his powers from the delegated authority which permits him to make regulations pertaining to the education system on matters ranging from curriculum outlines to conditions for school enrolment.

In the exercise of his responsibility as Minister, he is assisted by two committees, the National Curriculum Development Council and the Educational Planning and Development Committee. The N.C.D.C. has the specific job of reviewing existing curricula, advising the Minister on subjects to be taught and the time to be allocated to the subjects, making recommendations to the Minister, and reviewing the work of Curriculum Subject Committees, while EPADEC is used as a forum where new policies are discussed, planning papers presented and efforts made to restructure plans. It is obvious therefore that though the Minister is not required by law to make plans for education, he does count this among his functions, using the power deriving from his delegated authority qua Minister.

He is not the only one however who exercises powers to plan in education. We have noted above what powers of control are exercised by Governing Bodies. They in fact also possess some powers to plan. This is a power granted by the Education Act of 1890 which permits them to plan for their individual schools. This in effect opens the possibility of having duplication of various sorts, since historically and traditionally each school has always plotted its own course and since the law itself makes distinctions in the type of school.

Though the Governing Bodies acknowledge the Minister as the ultimate authority in education and seek his approval for any major changes, it is clear that the absence of a legal clarification of the powers to plan deprives the government of the room for initiative to promote educational development at every level and of the balance between a strong central power and local endeavour in the form of Governing Bodies.

#### THE REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

Where the law has defined and limited the powers, rights and duties of those participating in the educational planning process, penalties for stepping beyond assigned limits or for failing to perform a duty are generally built into the law in the case of voluntary bodies or private individuals. Where government is involved, review or redress is possible in the legislative assembly or in the courts.

#### Legislative Review

One potentially effective means of reviewing educational plans and policy at present is through the House of Assembly and the Senate where members of the opposition and of the ruling party get an opportunity to express their opinion on the state of education and on what is or is not being done in the field of education. The House has the opportunity to refuse financial appropriations, or to reduce the amount of money requested. Generally speaking, though, this is seldom done since the ruling party can count on its

numerical superiority to carry through its bills; but strong pressure from opposition members has sometimes forced changes. In 1952 when the Director of Education still had responsibility for educational policy, an attack launched on the policies of Age-grouping, superannuation and teacher training resulted in a change of policy. Speaking in the debate on the estimates for 1951-52 the Hon. D. D. Garner suggested that the House ought to cut the allotment for education:

When it comes to the Department of Education, we are practically throwing away money . . . The fault is not so much with the teachers; but the methods which they have to carry out in the schools are not workable. Age grouping in these schools should be stopped at once. Can we countenance that state of affairs when we are spending so much money on education? I condemn and protest against the continuance of this system of age grouping and superannuation in our schools. I ask fellow members to call a halt to this vicious system; we want the children to get education for the money which we are spending.<sup>18</sup>

On this occasion several members spoke out against the system of age grouping. Dr. H. Cummins summed up the debate as follows:

It is evident from the expression of opinion here tonight that age grouping will have to be abandoned. It is the will of the people through their representatives.<sup>19</sup>

The amount of the allotment was not reduced, but the policy was changed and efforts were made to re-organize the system.

Despite the fact that the ruling party has the force of numbers, legislative review is more than a formality as

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<sup>18</sup>Debates - House of Assembly - Session 1951/52.  
Vol. 2, pp. 659-660.

<sup>19</sup>Ibid., p. 679.

the actual allotment of funds and the conditions for use depend on annual and periodic legislation in the form of Appropriation Acts. This forces the Minister and the government to explain and defend their plans and policy in education, making them accountable.

#### Administrative Review<sup>20</sup>

This is carried out by administrative bodies or representatives of these bodies. The highest and most powerful one is the Cabinet, headed by the prime minister. The Barbados Independence Order 1966 assigned the following function to the Cabinet:

The Cabinet shall be the principal instrument of policy and shall be charged with the general direction and control of the government of Barbados and shall be collectively responsible therefor to Parliament.<sup>21</sup>

As a member of the Cabinet, the Minister of Education has a collective responsibility to submit the plans prepared by the education sector in the form of proposals for education to the general planning committee of the Cabinet. Educational plans are then reviewed when all sectors are brought together for discussion of the general plan. In this kind of review, the needs of the education sector are seen in relationship to the other sectors, so that though the objectives might be

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<sup>20</sup> Here the reference is not to the sort of informal review which may arise from the complaint of an individual but to the formal review by an established administrative body whether this is done as part of its function or as a result of a complaint which could be reviewed by the courts.

<sup>21</sup> The Barbados Independence Order, op. cit., 64-(2).

desirable, some plans may be rejected if the costs are greater than the island's capabilities. All major educational plans are therefore subject to review by the Cabinet.

It was noted above that Governing Bodies have responsibility for most of the planning for their schools. It is the Ministry however through the newly-formed EPADEC that will review plans. As the top policy planning body in the Ministry, EPADEC reviews proposals, developments, improvements and policies coming from the Governing Bodies as well as from within the Ministry. This generally occurs when funding is involved. Where the emphasis is placed on curricular matters, review will be done by the National Curriculum Council, while the Education Board will review plans for administration as well as for extension of the system.

#### Judicial Review

In Barbados where the law places no express duty on the Minister to provide education or to plan educational development, there is no record of any legal challenge to the government's policy or plans in education. In fact, the right of appeal to the courts for redress has seldom been used in the Caribbean and not at all in Barbados, where appeals have been confined to personal appeals to the Minister or to top ranking civil servants. Individuals might appeal to the Minister if they felt that lower officials or a Governing Body has administered or is administering some aspect of educational policy poorly. The Minister, after investigation,

provided that he is satisfied that the officials or the Governing Body has failed to discharge a duty or has acted unreasonably, will give directions as he sees fit. This type of redress or review however touches more upon the administration than the planning of education.

The fact that the courts have not been called upon to play a role in reviewing educational planning is not surprising. In the first place educational planning is a rather recent phenomenon in the island; secondly, courts are generally called upon to render decisions when a dispute arises over the application or meaning of the law, or to determine whether provisions of the statutes have been carried out; they do not however review on merit;<sup>22</sup> thirdly in Barbados under the existing Act it would be extremely difficult for an individual to establish a cause of action since he could not show that some wrong had been done or that some fundamental right had been denied because of any particular aspect of the government's educational policy or plan; and finally, Barbadian society is not very litigious, a characteristic they seem to share with colonies formerly governed by Great Britain.<sup>23</sup>

One may conclude therefore that review of educational plans depends on the nature of the plan. If large funds are

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<sup>22</sup>The court will not pass judgment on whether an act or plan is good or bad or whether the planning body acted rightly or wrongly, but only whether it was empowered by the law to perform or initiate some activity (in the way in which it did).

<sup>23</sup>This is exemplified by the lack of court challenges in both the African and South Asian countries.

being requested, the plan or proposal will be subject both to legislative and administrative review, administrative review by EPADEC and the Cabinet in order to determine how feasible the plan is in view of available funds, and legislative review before funds are finally allocated. Strictly curricular matters will be left to internal committees of the Ministry and administrative plans will sometimes be passed on to the Education Board for review.

#### SUMMARY

The Barbados Education Act 1890 established the schematic framework for Education in Barbados. Though amended from time to time, it did not undergo any fundamental changes. It created three levels of education and provided for various means of control at various levels. At the elementary level, it confirmed the power of the Church to control the schools, leaving the government a minor role. At the secondary level, it established first and second grade schools and passed control over to Governing Bodies which were usually receptive to the Church's views. In terms of control, the law left growth of elementary schools to the goodwill of the Church and the Governing Bodies and did not provide for central control for co-ordination, allocation or training of manpower resources; nor did it provide adequate controls to deal with possible breakdown or default.

The law governing education in Barbados has not prescribed a role of planning for the minister of education, but

does prescribe a regulatory function for Governing Bodies. The Minister, through the Constitution, counts the power to plan among his exercisable powers, and has created some administrative bodies namely, the National Curriculum Development Committee and the Educational Planning and Development Committee to facilitate his planning function. Governing Bodies generally make plans for their schools but will seek approval for any major changes which they propose.

Since in Barbados the law places no express duty on the Minister to provide education for the people or to plan educational development, there is little scope for judicial review of planning or policy. Review is therefore left to the legislature and certain administrative bodies. Administrative review is designed to determine how feasible the plan is in relation to the funds available and to other system constraints, while legislative review performs an information function in that the public gets to know of plans when the Minister is forced to defend them before the House of Assembly in order to secure the funds necessary for their implementation. Review of strictly curricular and administrative plans are left to internal committees of the Ministry.

There are three major points which emerge from the legal framework outlined above. The first is that the 1890 Act has established an unco-ordinated system with no adequate controls to deal with possible breakdown or default, given the dual system of control; the second lies in the fact that the Minister is given no duty to plan for educational

development. His powers are vast and undefined in that they are 'permissive' rather than 'imperative',<sup>24</sup> a fact which nullifies the possibility of judicial review; the third is the need for a new Act which would clarify the powers to plan, and allow the government room and ease to promote educational development at every level. This would create a sense of balance between a strong central power and the Governing Bodies, and would allow planners to effect meaningful change within the framework of the law.

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<sup>24</sup>The term "permissive" implies that any power the minister uses is discretionary where he can do or refrain from doing a certain thing; "imperative" on the other hand is explicit in that it is a duty which the minister is obligated by law to perform.

## CHAPTER 7

### SUMMARY, ISSUES AND CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Increase in the demand for education in developing countries with British traditions has necessitated a widening of the educational system and a change in its objectives. Educational planning is being seen as the means of fitting changes into an educational policy designed to bring about educational progress and national development. This study was based on the premise that an understanding of the social, institutional and legal frameworks of education is significant for educational planning. Seven questions guided the study; two were directed at the general context of the study, that is, developing countries with British traditions, and were concerned with their social, institutional and legal frameworks; five questions were directed at the specific context of the study, namely, Barbados. The questions were concerned with the social, historical, institutional and legal frameworks, and with policy issues and the planning process. This chapter gives a summary of the findings, outlines issues and conclusions and makes a number of recommendations for practice and for further study.

## SUMMARY

Descriptive Framework

As a means of guiding the collection of data and subsequent discussion, a framework was devised outlining what occurs in educational planning. Though there is no general agreement on a definition of educational planning, it is generally agreed that educational planning is an iterative process involving three distinct phases. These were represented as (1) identifying needs and establishing goals, (2) reviewing and selecting alternatives and (3) implementing plans and (where necessary) promulgation into law. Its main purposes were considered as efficiency, rational action and change, and its characteristics were identified as policy-orientation, exercise of choice, comprehensiveness, achievement of ends and orientation to the future.

The social, institutional and legal frameworks were considered as three major variables of educational planning. It was pointed out that effective planning will be localized to its social milieu and that the social context of education is of extreme importance to educational planning. Within this context, the functions of education in developing countries were grouped into four categories: (1) as a major instrument of social change, (2) as an important social service, (3) as a major instrument of rational income distribution policy, and (4) as a manpower industry.

The institutional framework as the second major variable

was described as the relationships among the various agencies, institutions or physical persons involved in the planning process. The significance of the institutional framework lies in the fact that the relationship of actors in the planning process to each other affects policy, the manner of planning and the implementation of the plan.

The third variable outlined was the law. This was viewed as a combination of legislation and judicial decisions. The substantive nature of the law was shown to be significant for educational planning in that it gives guidelines, assigns limits or duties and serves a review function for educational planning.

#### The Experience of Developing Countries with British Traditions

The Social Context. The cultural history of these countries and the structure of their societies have been major influences in the acceptance of change and in the planning of education. The multiplicity of languages raises the problem of communication at the intra-regional and national levels. Rapid growth of urban society has been disruptive of the more traditional patterns of life which now tends to stress 'achieved' rather than 'ascribed' status. Demand for education has increased and efforts to achieve high status through education have put the educational systems and planning structures under heavy strain. Independence brought a rejection of the colonial past and a thrust for 'social justice' which is interpreted by the political leaders as instant educational diffusion and

equality of opportunity.

The institutional context. Educational planning in these countries is government dominated and there is little or no participation by citizens. Most countries have their educational planning units located in the Ministries of Education and allow regional boards some measure of planning. Generally speaking, however, two patterns were visible; in countries like Tanzania and Pakistan where a man-power planning approach has been adopted, educational planning is approached as a part of the over-all planning process, but in other countries like those of the Caribbean, for example, where there is no man-power planning, the Ministry of Education is responsible for educational planning. Whatever the approach, however, the structure of educational planning in these countries is government dominated.

The legal context. Governments did not at first recognize education in the law, but have now taken an active role in the planning of education. Some countries now have an imposed duty to plan for and provide education for their people; others through a delegated authority operate as though this were their legal duty. All, however, with a legal framework inherited from British colonial rule and designed for pre-independence goals, have faced the problem of dual control of educational planning and administration by Church and government. Though the forms of control, the powers of planning and the means of redress vary from country to country, all countries have tended to base their legislation on British

ordinances. Vastly changed social, political and economic circumstances have shown the shortcomings of past legislation which established a system of control by Church and Government. Review is generally the responsibility of the minister and redress follows the custom of appeal to a government official or to the minister.

### The Case of Barbados

Historical context. The historical antecedents to educational planning in Barbados were examined in terms of the socio-political forces which influenced educational development. Barbados after colonization established a successful plantation economy based on sugar and slave labour. This nurtured a rigid class system and restricted schooling to the upper classes until just before emancipation. During this time government provided some financial aid but did not place upon itself any duty or obligation to provide education. In 1890 a schematic framework for education, clearly outlining what kind of educational system the island was to have, was introduced. This framework translated the rigid distinctions in the society into the educational system, resulting in an unco-ordinated system stressing differences between types of education as well as differences within stages. Independence brought greater commitment to education and government promoted a widening of educational opportunities and an institutional framework for educational planning. In spite of this, educational planning still has to contend with the rigidity of a

highly stratified class system reinforced by deeply-rooted attitudes which have acted as brakes to educational change.

Policy issues. Educational policy issues in Barbados seem to be associated with the objectives of educational planning. Viewed in this light, issues centered on the promotion of nationalism, co-operation and consolidation of the family group, wider and more effective participation in education, flexibility of the system, relevant education, training citizens to be efficient and efficiency of the system. Promotion of nationalism was manifested in efforts to create a national identity and unity by weakening the traditional affiliation Barbados had always felt with Britain. Co-operation and consolidation of the family group was approached through the use of the schools as a means of negating uncertainty and ambivalence of attitudes to family ties and relationships. To bring about wider and more effective participation, measures were taken to increase numerical enrolment and to remove the inequalities which persist in educational participation. These inequalities were evident in the provision of a type of secondary education which reinforced patterns of élite education and social stratification. They were also manifested in the extent of provision of secondary education for girls and for rural children as well as in the manner of allocation of school places for secondary schools.

Flexibility of the system is closely allied to the issue of wider participation and is seen mostly in terms of expansion of the system. Government made the decision to

concentrate expansion of secondary education in comprehensive schools which would cater for children of all types of ability and would incorporate both academic and vocational streams. There has however been a problem of acceptance. The public demand seemed to have been for grammar rather than comprehensive schools as grammar schools were seen as the most effective means of social mobility, and the comprehensive schools as generally closing such avenues.

The issue of relevant education touched on matters of curriculum, textbooks and examinations. It was somewhat aggravated by socio-economic and political changes and by the changing composition of the school population which has not only become more varied but also is spending more time at school. Questions are therefore being raised about what was being taught and why. A National Curriculum Development Committee has been created to examine this area of policy in order to release the schools' curricula from domination by overseas examinations and the concomitant appendages.

Training citizens to be efficient was another issue. The growth of the tourist industry and the emergence of small industries after independence created a need for certain technical skills which were not then catered for in the system. The government therefore introduced technical education in a number of facilities in the hope of producing citizens skilled enough to be useful in economic life.

The final identifiable policy issue stemmed from efforts to make the system efficient. The fact that education

receives more financial support than any other item has forced many people to question the efficiency of the system. The debate focussed on the duplication of facilities, the costs of buildings and the manner in which projects are implemented. All the policy issues outlined above combined to form the central concern of a policy of building the 'Just Society' through educational planning.

### The Structure and Planning Process

Educational planning was shown to be a government-based activity with an identifiable structure. Most activity is centered in the Ministry of Education, headed by the Minister of education. He is assisted by EPADEC, the Education Planning and Development Committee. The members of EPADEC are all drawn from the ranks of senior officials of the Ministry. The National Curriculum Development Committee also located in the Ministry has responsibility for matters of curriculum. Outside the Ministry, there are Governing Bodies appointed by the government to oversee matters in the schools. Two types of specialists were identified in the planning process; those who are part of the ministry staff and those from international agencies who are brought in from time to time to help with certain problems. Not many of the former are employed and their status is low. Interest groups identified were the Teachers' Unions, the Parent-teacher associations and the Barbados Junior Chamber of Commerce and Lions' Club.

In terms of the process, there is a very heavy political

input at the phase of identifying needs and establishing goals and objectives, and a heavy professional input during the phase of evaluating alternatives and of designing and carrying out field activities. The Minister is the most visible actor in the planning process. Interest groups tend to play the role of 'reactors', being visible only as they react to initial proposals of policy or to plans for implementation. Just as any group of actors or combination of actors might be responsible for initiating the planning process, the process can be aborted at any stage. What happens to any idea, issue or problem will depend largely on its acceptance by the Cabinet and on the legitimacy accorded the initiating actor.

#### The Legal Framework

The education system in Barbados was established by the 1890 Education Act which created three levels of education and provided for various means of control at various levels. At the elementary level it confirmed the power of the Church to control the schools; at the secondary level it established first and second grade schools and passed control over to Governing Bodies. There was no provision made for adequate controls of possible breakdown or default at either level. No role of planning was prescribed for the Minister who enjoys vast undefined powers. He, however, through the Constitution counts the power to plan among his exercisable powers and has created some administrative bodies to help him in his planning function. Review of planning is carried out only at the administrative or legislative levels; no judicial review has occurred

up to this point, mainly because redress has been handled through the custom of appeals to the Minister or to senior education officials.

## ISSUES AND CONCLUSIONS

The issues and conclusions associated with educational planning in developing countries with British traditions are discussed in the general context of developing countries as well as the more specific context of Barbados and are related to the social, institutional and legal frameworks as outlined in the descriptive framework in Chapter 2.

### Developing Countries

Social context. Developing countries have to cope with the problem of cultural variation. Some groups are tradition-oriented, while others emphasize values associated with modern societies. One consequence is the break-up of original primary groups and the emergence of new social relations. Appeal to kin and caste no longer functions as a powerful instrument for reinforcing traditional patterns, and traditional status and economic functions are no longer well-defined. The resulting changes have implications for educational planning. Under the traditional system, the policy was to provide an élitist type of education patterned after the English grammar school system. Changes in attitudes to education and in the basic value structures are forcing educational planners to re-examine such policy. The question

is, how do we redefine the role of traditional leaders in education and build institutional structures that reflect what the planning is intended to be for the nation as a whole?

Another issue which emerges is that of language. There exists in these countries a plethora of languages and dialects. In Africa, there are over 800 languages spoken; in India, there are 14 major languages and in Pakistan there are more than 30 languages spoken. The problem lies in the fact that several of these languages serve only a fraction of the respective populations and that most social, political and educational issues depend upon the satisfactory solution to the language problem. The issue therefore hinges around both the choice of a common means of communication beyond the local level and the use of the school as an effective medium for the development of a common national language or languages.

Changing attitudes to traditional society have led to greater social demands for education and greater pressure to provide education for more people. Thrusts for 'social justice' interpreted as equality of educational opportunity have increased efforts at educational diffusion and have brought to light the imbalance of education provision between rural and urban areas and over different segments in the community. It has been shown in Chapter 3 that the various agencies which were involved in education had different objectives in mind, none of which was consonant with those of the natives themselves. Parents in the colonies were not

particularly interested in religion or even in European culture, but rather viewed the schools as "a means of maximizing their children's opportunities within the emergent occupational and prestige structure."<sup>1</sup> Parents also had a particular type of institution in mind, namely the grammar school since tangible evidence of its success was at hand in the prestige enjoyed by its graduates. The problem facing educational planners involves not merely how to extend numerical participation but also how much education and what type of education. It must be borne in mind that developing countries have neither the capacity to provide education beyond the minimum for all children nor the means to absorb all graduates in gainful employment.

Institutional context. One of the major objectives which developing countries with British traditions have set themselves is that of extending educational opportunity to greater numbers. Adoption of a scheme of educational diffusion, however, requires some modification of the old patterns of planning and administration. In the past, direction and planning of education were left in the hands of the local church organizations and local boards, each having complete control of individual schools. This policy where government gave the major responsibility for education to the Church was adequate when the goals of education were narrow and the demand for education was not great. It is impossible now for the church to carry out the expansion of educational facilities required for this task. Furthermore, it is

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<sup>1</sup>Foster, op. cit., p. 104.

doubtful whether the old policies of individual local boards can produce the kind of system which the new goals suggest, for as outlined above,<sup>2</sup> co-ordination, co-operation and communication were at a minimum in the old system. A question therefore arises as to the role of the Church within educational policy, given the objectives which developing countries have set themselves.

The question of the composition of local boards is another issue closely related to the last issue. One weakness of the local boards can be found in their structure; people who sat on the boards were generally people from the Church or were people employed by the Department of education. Little 'non-official' opinion was included on the boards, and planning sessions became a mere extension of office hours, varied by the hiring of staff or allocation of funds.<sup>3</sup> The problem which education planners face is how to structure local boards to increase their effectiveness and yet allow room for co-ordination of the entire system.

Legal context. Generally speaking, most of the countries examined in this study have adopted a form of dual control of their educational system: secondary schools have been entrusted to governing bodies while primary education falls within the jurisdiction of local authorities or, in some cases, the Ministry of Education. This type of arrangement is patterned

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<sup>2</sup>See Chapter 3 above.

<sup>3</sup>See Lewis, L.J. Educational Policy and Practice.  
p. 92.

after the British system. It is doubtful whether it is the most suitable arrangement for these developing countries which cannot boast the educational stability or the achievement of Britain. The question which emerges is, how much responsibility must the government delegate to governing bodies in return for their help in running the schools. The key is to allow local bodies to carry out their functions effectively while maintaining some form of central control and co-ordination.

Another emergent issue relates to the Church. The initial responsibility for education in developing countries was exercised by the Church. This was fully recognized by governments which sought its continued activity in the extension of education. That role of the Church is now being seen as inappropriate. Most governments however have not resolved the question, and sometimes find themselves hamstrung by the necessity for dialogue with the Church when new targets are being planned. It is a question therefore, of what role is to be assigned to the Church in the planning and administration of education.

One final point may be noted. The fact that goals which the system pursued before independence have given way to a new set of goals, and that government activity has now superseded the efforts of private foundations, suggests that any constructed framework of controls be responsive to the detailed planning and direction of governments. Most governments up to now have not been specific in terms of the powers

or controls of planning, but operate on the basis of custom through administrative directives. Two important tasks remain for educational planners; to examine in terms of their national goals and aspirations the legal framework which they inherit, and to ensure that the law provides a co-ordinated system of powers of control.

### Barbados

Social context. Barbados like other developing countries, has had to face the problem of increasing social demand for education especially at the secondary level. Secondary education was regarded as a means of social mobility. Since however there was not a place for every child, the Common Entrance Examination was instituted as a means of allocating the limited school places. This process of selection has come under increasing criticism for a number of reasons. Some argue that it places too great a strain on the 11 year old child and his parents; others argue that it does nothing more than maintain the dominance of the older grammar schools and the old patterns of social stratification in that

it is culturally loaded and the child from a culturally advantaged home has a far better opportunity of getting a place in a prestige school than one who is not from such a home and has not had a chance to go to a private preparatory school, where his advantages<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>4</sup>Private primary schools tend to be expert in coaching pupils for the entrance examinations and keep a nucleus of staff to do the job. They are clear about their purposes and do not have to contend with the large numbers associated with public education where regular staff changes and a lack of equipment exist. Also, private schools draw their pupils from the classes which have a long association with education.

are magnified and considerably increased.<sup>5</sup>

It has been shown that when this is the sole criterion for selection, children of low socio-economic status are placed at a disadvantage.<sup>6</sup> The fact remains that the present manner of allocation of secondary places has proved unsatisfactory. It is therefore incumbent upon planners to find other means of approaching the question of social demand for education.

Another problem closely associated with the increasing demand for secondary education is that of the comprehensive schools. To meet the growing demand for secondary, the government adopted a policy of comprehensive education. Many people however did not welcome this idea as the grammar schools were considered more desirable. In many cases they preferred to pay high fees for private secondary education rather than to avail themselves of the free secondary comprehensive schools. The problem however was not so much with the idea of comprehensive schools as with the implementation of the scheme. Comprehensive schools originally planned to accommodate between 1,000 and 1,200 found themselves faced with numbers of 1,400 and above on opening day. The resultant over-crowding was compounded by several other problems which the planners did

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<sup>5</sup>Dr. Leonard Shorey: Personal interview, Dec. 3, 1974.

<sup>6</sup>See Basil Bernstein's article, "Social Class and Linguistic Development: A Theory of Social Learning" in Halsey et al, op. cit. where Bernstein argues that I.Q. is affected by socio-economic status - especially the speech habits of the family to which the child belongs.

not appear to have anticipated. Headmasters were not well prepared for management and the task of personnel relations in a school staff of 50 or 75 teachers. Furthermore, as pointed out in Chapter 5, it seemed that the objectives of these schools were not clearly understood by the staffs nor shared by them. The issue is not so much whether to have comprehensive schools as how to make them a more effective solution to the problem of increasing demand for secondary education.

Institutional context. Barbados as an independent nation inherited a system of education, planning practices and an institutional framework which reinforced an élite form of education at a time when goals of equality of educational opportunity and social justice were being propounded by the rulers of the country. It has been shown however that

with changed circumstances the system and practices inherited from the past do not always accord with modern conditions and aspirations.<sup>7</sup>

One question which arises is, "do the planning structure and organization accord with the conditions and aspirations of an independent Barbados?" We have seen in Chapter 5 that educational planning in Barbados depends largely on the Minister and his staff in the area of elementary and secondary comprehensive schools, and on the Governing Bodies for the secondary grammar schools. Two issues arise. The first concerns the structure for co-ordinating planning activities and the second the

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<sup>7</sup>Emerson, L.H.S. et al. Education and Priorities for its Development. Unesco - Serial No. 1327/BMS. RD/EP. Paris, July, 1969. p. 6.

composition of the planning body.

The importance of the structure may be demonstrated by the manner in which curriculum planning and the allocation of human and material resources are co-ordinated. In 1973, for example, the Minister launched the National Curriculum Development Council in the hope that it would help in the problems of co-ordination of curriculum. He stated,

it is not enough merely to produce a detailed syllabus or curriculum guide in the belief that this will stand for all time . . . There must be a continual review of the educational programme in the schools. Valuable work has already been done. However, it is necessary to intensify such work and pull it all together.<sup>8</sup>

This acknowledged the problem in the area of curriculum and represented an attempt to rectify the situation. The one drawback however, is that because of the system of dual control which exists in education in Barbados, the NCDC addresses itself more to the elementary and comprehensive schools and less to the secondary grammar and private schools. In this way it provides only a partial solution and still has to consider the question of continuity between elementary and secondary programmes. It might be argued therefore that greater co-ordination will result only from a change in the system of controls and in the structure for co-ordinating planning activities.

There is the further problem of co-ordination of resources. It is common knowledge that the first grade

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<sup>8</sup>Ministry of Education Circular No. CJ/11/T1 18

schools usually get the first choice of teachers and pupils. It is also known that they are better equipped than the second grade schools and are not plagued with problems of overcrowding which exist elsewhere in the system. Governing bodies at present have the responsibility for recruitment of staff. The result is that the first grade schools can usually obtain the best qualified teachers, both in terms of academic as well as professional training. This system continues down the line so that there has been a great disparity in the disposition of teaching staff and quality. The same situation obtains with the selection of pupils for the secondary schools. This manner of allocation of resources then leads to a situation where 'the rich get richer, and the poor get poorer'. Dr. Leonard Shorey views it this way:

I think that there is a great disparity between the ostensible aims and what appear to be what actually takes place in the system. I would think for example that if you look at the way in which we at present provide facilities you will find that we clearly in my view do not give anything approaching equal opportunity to children . . . Now if you look at what goes on in our schools, I think it is true to say that those who are slower, and very often these are the ones who come from culturally impoverished backgrounds, are put into what are called the 'C streams', and in the 'C streams' the general tendency is to allocate to the 'C streams' the youngest teachers, the least experienced teachers, the least qualified teachers.<sup>9</sup>

He further pointed out the disparity between the secondary comprehensive and the secondary grammar schools, and concluded that

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<sup>9</sup>Dr. Leonard Shorey, Personal Interview, Dec. 3, 1974.

on the basis of available evidence elsewhere, this is a far cry from anything approaching a rational distribution of resources if we were at all serious about equalizing educational opportunities.<sup>10</sup>

It is clear then that a change in the planning structure is needed to create greater co-ordination and a more even distribution of human and material resources.

Another issue more closely concerns the actors in the planning process. The Educational Planning and Development Committee, composed of the senior officials of the ministry and chaired by the Minister is the top planning body in education in Barbados. One weakness lies in the very nature of its composition. Members, because they are drawn from the ministry, do not always feel that they are free to influence the course of planning.<sup>11</sup> A former Chief Education Officer of the Ministry, expressed his concern over this problem as follows:

I think that one of the problems very evident between 1969-1970, was the fact that the Ministry was not properly integrated, i.e. the attempt to bring administrative and professional officers into a closer relationship under the Minister issued in initial misunderstandings between the two sides and possibly affected planning and implementation of educational policy, since it sometimes had to be clarified what was an administrative and what was a professional function. I also feel that one of the major problems in Barbados has been the approach at the political level to the whole process of educational planning. I am not sure that even now, many of the high level officers, among them officers of

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<sup>10</sup> Ibid.

<sup>11</sup> Many ministry officials expressed this view and explained that generally their job was to prepare means of operationalizing policies and not to make or evaluate it.

high calibre, feel free to initiate ideas on planning matters.<sup>12</sup>

This is suggestive of two things: the need for a clearer division between administrative and professional responsibilities and what is more important, more formal provision for educational planning.

One final issue relating to the structure of educational planning concerns the use of specialists. It has been pointed out that the specialists who are involved with the planning process in Barbados play only an ad hoc role. The compilation of facts about past and present activity is essential for successful planning and it would be foolish to try to introduce serious planning before the necessary supporting information was available. In Barbados there seems to be no deep concern about it. The thinking seems to be

that education officers would have a feel which could not be quantified and that there is no real need for a statistician. The gathering, classification and evaluation of statistics is therefore regarded as routine work on which the most inefficient clerk could be employed.<sup>13</sup>

As a result, very little has been done in terms of educational statistics at a time when there is a need for reliable and comprehensive data on which educational decisions can be based. A change in this situation will depend on two factors-- a change in attitude towards the relative importance of

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<sup>12</sup>Prof. Rudolph Goodridge; Personal Interview, December 3, 1974.

<sup>13</sup>P. Wilkinson, Personal Interview, November 20, 1974.

statistics, and the acknowledgement of the statistician as worthy of a more prominent place in the planning structure and process.

Legal context. One of the constraints operating on educational planning in Barbados is the basic legal framework governing the system. The sort of framework established in the 1890 Act was not conducive to establishing a co-ordinated system. The result has been a rigid distinction between the stages of education and even within stages. The Act, for example, established first and second grade schools at the secondary level. If indeed the legal structure is 'an expression of the spirit of the age', there is an urgent need to change that structure since the policy of rigid social stratification has given way to an avowed government policy of 'social justice and equal educational opportunity'. However, as long as the basic legal structure remains in force, it will be very difficult for those responsible for educational planning to make any effective changes.

In order to discharge his functions properly, a Minister needs to have certain powers assigned to him.<sup>14</sup> In Barbados, however, the law places no express duty on the Minister to provide education for the people or to plan educational

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<sup>14</sup>These powers are either imperative or permissive in nature. Imperative type powers are those which neither permit nor require the exercise of subjective judgment whereas permissive powers allow the exercise of judgment before acting. While imperative powers are usually related to statutory provisions and are closely related to statutory duties, permissive powers are more closely related to regulations and lend great flexibility to a Minister in the day to day administration of the system.

development. This makes it very difficult for planners to effect meaningful change. Under these circumstances, it would seem necessary to charge the Minister with certain responsibilities aimed specifically at providing education for the people and at establishing machinery for a co-ordinated system.

Expansion of the education system in Barbados has been very rapid since 1967. This in effect meant a substantial increase in local governing bodies. The question which therefore arises, is, what happens in the case of ill-advised action on the part of the governing bodies or in the case of default or breakdown in the system? It is clear that as long as this system of dual control exists, the government or rather the Minister will need some power or systems of control to deal with such emergencies.

One other related matter is that of control; that is, where does central authority end and where does that of local bodies begin? In the recent past, the ministry has shown the tendency to increase its control. The resulting tension between the ministry and local bodies was described as follows:

one of the challenges which we will soon have to face is that of resolving tensions that I perceive to be developing between an expressed desire on the part of the people who matter to see an increasing amount of innovation from our schools, whereas, the broad tendency of our administration of education is for more centralization and control from the ministry itself.<sup>15</sup>

It seems necessary therefore to strike a balance between central

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<sup>15</sup>Prof. R.V.Goodridge, Personal Interview, Dec. 3, 1974.

control and local authority, for while the Minister needs to have enough power to control, monitor and co-ordinate the system, yet boards must be permitted to use some initiative and to be innovative.

### Descriptive Framework

The law was approached as a dynamic process of identifying needs, of selecting alternatives and of interpreting the acts of actors in the planning process; the importance of the goal or policy to be implemented, the structure of the planning body and the social setting were stressed. The framework appears to provide a viable instrument for identifying and organizing the basic relationship between educational planning and the law. One weakness, however, seems to be in the area of analysis. It may be concluded therefore that further application and refinement is required to increase its actual worth as a conceptual tool.

### RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are made on the basis of the issues and conclusions of the study. Recommendations 1 - 8 (inclusive) are recommendations within the general context of the study while Recommendations 9 - 17 refer specifically to Barbados.

### FOR PRACTICE

1. In view of the increasing social demand for education and the growing numbers of unemployed youths, it

is recommended that more countries adopt a manpower planning approach to educational planning, thereby avoiding problems associated with unemployable youths.

2. Since the Church can no longer carry the load of educational expansion, it is recommended that its functions be transferred to a national council with powers to co-ordinate educational planning activities.

3. It is further recommended that local boards be represented on any such council to permit smooth exchange and dissemination of information.

4. Because cultural, political and educational issues are affected by the satisfactory solution of the language problem, it is recommended that governments clearly state their language policy and follow it with decisive action.

5. It was felt that the manner in which local boards are presently constituted militates against their effectiveness. It is therefore recommended that more non-official opinion--that is, people outside the field of education, be included.

6. Because dual control has led to certain bottlenecks in educational planning, it is recommended that the power of local authorities be subject to certain rights of supervision and that adequate reserve powers (for the minister) be written into the legislation providing for the sharing of responsibilities.

7. Since conditions, goals and aspirations have changed and most countries still operate under old laws (with some amendments), it is recommended that these countries re-

examine the law governing their educational systems and aim at creating a more co-ordinated framework to permit some freedom of scope to their planning teams.

8. It is recommended that where powers are not clearly defined, statutory law concentrate on the powers, rights, duties and responsibilities of the actors in the planning process.

9. Because of the general unacceptability and challenge to the Common Entrance Examination and the problems of selection for secondary school, it is recommended that the point of selection be shifted from 11+ to 14+ and that the 12 - 19 secondary school system be replaced with junior secondary schools for 12 to 14 year olds (inclusive) and senior secondary thereafter.<sup>16</sup>

10. Because of the present disparity of allocation of human and material resources between first, second grade and comprehensive schools, it is recommended that the power of selection of staff be transferred from individual governing bodies to a central committee representing the various governing bodies.

11. It is recommended that provisions be made for

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<sup>16</sup>It is recognized here that to affect this, there would have to be simultaneous changes in the secondary system and the project would have to be introduced in phases. Further it is uncertain whether postponement will lessen rather than increase the tensions suffered by the children and parents and the use of a national examination at 14 does not necessarily avoid the kind of cultural biases associated with this exam. However, it is hoped that the students' longer association with the system would be an asset in this regard.

improving the statistical data to the extent it is needed to formulate and implement impending plans and that the position of statistician be made permanent on the planning committee.

12. Because of the present lack of continuity and curriculum co-ordination between elementary and secondary education, it is recommended that the terms of reference of the National Curriculum Development Committee be extended to include co-ordination of curriculum and examinations between the primary and secondary levels.

13. It is further recommended that comprehensive schools concentrate on providing a general practical and vocational form of education and that their function be made explicit to the staff and to the public.

14. In view of the shortage of places at the secondary grammar schools, it is recommended that sixth form education be concentrated in the Community College, thereby freeing more places for students from elementary schools.

15. There has been a great increase in local governing bodies since the rapid expansion of the system after independence. In order to deal with possible breakdown or default, it is therefore recommended that the Education Act be amended to include a clause allowing the minister or ministry officials a quasi-judicial authority to intervene when circumstances warrant it.

16. It is also recommended that the minister be given an express duty to provide education for the people and to plan educational development since he has no such duty imposed at

present.

17. Conclusions reached in the study indicate that the law governing education in Barbados produced an unco-ordinated system and led to certain inequities. It is therefore recommended that the old Act be repealed and a new one introduced to allow planners to build a more co-ordinated system.

#### FOR FURTHER STUDY

This study indicates that the following studies be undertaken.

1. A study of the relationship between educational plans and educational development.
2. A study of the structure of social demand of education in developing countries.
3. A study examining the attitudes of citizens towards national language policy.
4. A study of alternatives to the Common Entrance Examination.
5. A study of the level, advantages and disadvantages of citizen participation in the education planning process.
6. A study of the expansion of the educational system and its relationship to the economy.
7. A study to examine the implementation phase of educational planning.
8. A study of various planning structures and their effectiveness in the development of plans.

9. Further study of the form and structure of legislation governing education in developing countries.
10. A study of rural-urban migration and the effect on educational planning.

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APPENDIX

## APPENDIX A

### Countries Discussed in the Study

AFRICA	SOUTH ASIA	THE CARIBBEAN
Ghana	India	Barbados
Kenya	Pakistan	Guyana
Nigeria	Sri-Lanka	Jamaica
Tanzania	(formerly Ceylon)	Trinidad & Tobago
Uganda		

The countries above were chosen because of certain common characteristics; they are all developing countries of tropical areas; they are all former colonies of Great Britain, had been independent for five years or more before 1973 and had education systems patterned after the British system. In the case of the Caribbean, the observations made may in most cases refer to all the countries of the defunct West Indies Federation though the focus of the study was concentrated on the independent countries mentioned above to allow for a greater degree of parallelism with the countries of Africa and South Asia.

APPENDIX B

FREQUENCY OF NOMINATION

Nominees	Nominators							TOTAL	
	Minister of Education	The Chief Education Officer	Perm. Sect'y Ministry of Education	Director, In-Service Training	Senior Administrative Sect'y, Planning	Deputy Chief Ed. Officer, Curriculum	Senior Administrative Sect'y.		Deputy Director Economic Planning
Minister of Education	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	7
Chief Education Officer	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	7
Dir: In-Service Training, U. of the W. Indies	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	7
Extra-Mural Tutor, Univ. of the West Indies	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	7
Senior Administrative Sect'y., Planning	X	X		X		X	X	X	7
Permanent Sect'y., Ministry of Education	X	X		X	X			X	5
Deputy Chief Education Officer (Curr.)	X			X	X	X	X	X	6
President, Barbados Union of Teachers				X	X	X	X	X	5
Secretary, Secondary Teachers' Union				X	X	X	X	X	5
Chairman, Headmasters, Secondary Grammar	X			X	X	X	X	X	6
Chair: Hdmsts, Conf., Sec. Comprehensive				X	X	X	X	X	5
Training Officer		X		X		X	X	X	5
Dean, School of Education		X		X		X	X		4
Principal, Erdiston Teachers' College	X	X							2
Principal, Community College	X	X							2
Deputy Chief Ed. Officer, Secondary		X		X	X				3
Deputy Chief Ed. Officer, Primary		X		X	X				3
N. Nicholls, Caribbean Dev. Bank						X			1
Chairman, Caribbean Exam. Council						X			1

APPENDIX B (continued)

It was decided to interview all those with four or more nominations. Unfortunately, neither the Permanent Secretary nor the Dean of Education was available. Three other persons were interviewed--Mr. B. P. Wilkinson, statistician with the Ministry, the only 'specialist' attached to the ministry; Mr. Neville Nicholls, a lawyer who had been involved in preparing a draft for the proposed Education Bill and Mr. G. A. Brathwaite, a retired Senior Education Officer who had kept an account of changes in the Barbados educational system.

## APPENDIX C

### A Note on the Nominal Approach

In this approach, the researcher interviews persons who are perceived to have a general knowledge of the field being investigated. After adding the number of times each person was mentioned, the researcher often establishes a certain level of mentions as the criterion for selecting his final sample. Although the researcher arbitrarily selects the number in the final sample, the persons delineated through this approach are determined by the judgments of 'field knowledgeable'. The validity of the approach depends largely upon the 'field knowledgeable' ability to name or identify persons who affect the field being investigated. There has been some discussion on the merits of the approach but as Ehrlich concluded "neither the difficulties of past demonstration nor the past inadequacies of research designs employing the nominal method are sufficient to warrant its abrupt dismissal from the repertory of the sociologist" (Howard J. Ehrlich, "The Reputational Approach to the Study of Community Power", American Sociological Review. 26 (December 1961) p. 927. For a full discussion on the approach, see Floyd Hunter, Community Power Structure, Chapel Hill: Univ. of North Carolina Press, 1953 and Joe Bohlen et al:

APPENDIX C (continued)

A Comparative Analysis of Community Power Structures; Iowa:  
Office of Civil Defense, 1967. For pros and cons of the  
approach see Raymond E. Wolfinger, "Reputation and Reality  
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Review, 25 (October, 1960) pp. 636-644, William V. D'Antonio  
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Review 27, (June, 1962) pp. 362-376 and Lawrence, J. R. Herson,  
"In the Footsteps of Community Power", American Political Science  
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## APPENDIX D

### Interview Guide

1. What are the general aims of Education?
2. What are the priorities?
3. By what means are needs identified and goals established?
4. How is educational policy articulated and how is it related to educational planning?
5. Is planning geared towards changing the society or is it designed to maintain stability?
6. How is the progress of your plans measured and their direction assessed?
7. Are efforts made to know how and where educational plans will fit in with the economic and social development plan?
8. What is the machinery used for creating specific programs from general objectives??
9. In most developing countries, consideration of the egalitarian foundations of schooling as well as the demands made on schooling by development goals and educational policy are geared towards quantitative education; what consideration is given to qualitative education in your plans for education?
10. Is there a legal basis for making choices among competing alternatives?
11. What is the legal framework for educational planning?

APPENDIX D (continued)

12. Is it necessary to secure legislation for every educational plan?
13. Are educational plans subject to judicial review, administrative review or review by the legislature or any other public body?
14. Please identify some of the social factors that influence educational planning.
15. Please identify some of the problems of educational planning.
16. What do you see as emergent issues in educational planning in Barbados?
17. In what ways does your organization influence educational planning in Barbados?

APPENDIX E

Common Entrance Examination 1968, 1971 and 1972

Number of Pupils Entered for Part I

Girls				Boys			Grand Total
Year	10+	11+	Total	10+	11+	Total	
1968	2,941	2,317	5,258	3,027	2,495	5,522	11,780
1971	3,055	2,407	5,462	3,019	2,747	5,766	11,228
1972	3,111	2,231	5,341	3,198	2,466	5,664	11,006
Number of Pupils Entered for Part II							
Girls				Boys			Grand Total
Year	10+	11+	Total	10+	11+	Total	
1968	948	975	1,923	792	886	1,678	3,601
1971	874	1,381	2,255	629	901	1,530	3,785
1972	1,027	1,412	2,439	758	974	1,732	4,171
Number of Pupils Who Entered the Secondary Grammar Schools							
Year	Girls		Boys		Grand Total		
1968	304		422		726		
1971	319		432		751		
1972	325		465		790		

Source: Ministry of Education Annual Reports 1968, 1971 and 1972.

Note: The examination is taken in two parts. All those over 10 years and below 12 years old are eligible for Part I. Those who are judged to have passed Part I go on to Part II. Final places are then determined by the number of places available and by the pupils' performance on this examination.