

Chapter 12

Education Reform Initiatives in the Caribbean Basin

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Abstract: This chapter provides a board overview of educational developments and reform initiatives, from the colonial period to present-day, in the 28 countries and territories that constitute the contemporary Caribbean Basin. We chronicle the systemic factors that account for patterns of regional outcomes in education by identifying the different historical stages and external factors that have driven educational investments across the region. Attention is also given to the appropriation of external delivery transfer mechanisms (such as policy borrowing and lending) that serves different needs and interests at various junctures along the development continuum. We examine both the achievements in educational reforms and the challenges that these countries have faced, paying particular attention to the areas of contentious reforms that have focused on integrating strategies and techniques from public administration, new public management, or corporate managerialism to engender national educational reforms. First, we begin by identifying the role and purpose of colonial education across the region. Second, we suggest that post-independence educational developments have gone through three distinctive generations of reforms: (1) beginning in the 1970s and 1980s with reorganizations that focused on access, equity, and inclusion; (2) continuing during the policy periods between 1989 to 2000, and using neoliberalism to emphasize quality, accountability, and efficiency as well as fiscal austerity; and (3) the current and third wave of transformations from 2000 to present-day, which strive to create citizens for the knowledge-based economy. The chapter concludes by suggesting that the development of education in the Caribbean has been impelled and shaped by both domestic and peripheral forces and trajectories; it offers suggestions for reforms in the post-2015 sustainable development agenda.

Introduction

This chapter chronicles a very broad précis of the numerous educational developments and reform initiatives, from the colonial period to present-day, in the 28 countries* and territories that constitute the contemporary Caribbean†

* For the purpose of this chapter we have added Suriname, given that it is a member of the Caribbean Community (CARICOM). Suriname is home to the CARICOM Institute of Translation and Interpretation, has participated in the Caribbean Festival of Arts (CARIFESTA), and was the host country of CARIFESTA XI.

† Generally speaking, we note that the contemporary Caribbean Basin can be seen as comprising the islands with Spanish-, French-, English-, Dutch-, and Papiamentu-speaking people, and extending through the Caribbean Sea from the Commonwealth of the Bahamas in the North, to Trinidad and Tobago in the South. In this definition, we also include the English- and Dutch-speaking mainland countries of Belize in Central America and Guyana and Suriname in South America since the latter three are members of the Caribbean Community (CARICOM). We include these countries because they correspondingly share a mutual historical experience and their populations mirror a cultural assortment of hybrid societies (UNESCO 1996). Our definition of this geographical area is further compounded by the fact that even UNESCO (1996) seems perplexed by what constitutes the Caribbean and notes that Cuba and the Dominican Republic are usually classified as part of Latin America, while Puerto Rico is a territory of the United States and Martinique and Guadeloupe are overseas Departments of France. To avoid these ambiguous definitional issues pointed out above, multilateral agendas and “international knowledge banks” (Jones 2004), such as the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund, often speak of the “Caribbean and Latin America” as one geographical space. For the purposes of this chapter, the contemporary Caribbean Basin is demarcated by 28 countries that are part of the Caribbean (see Table 12.1). With the exception of Anguilla, Bermuda, the British Virgin Islands, Montserrat, the Cayman Islands, the Netherlands Antilles (Aruba, Bonaire, Saba, Curacao, and Saint Eustatius), the Turks and Caicos Islands, and the United States Virgin Islands, the territories of the Caribbean Basin achieved self-determination over the 25-year period beginning in 1960. Of additional concern, is that in many instances, limited data exist on the overseas departments,

Basin.* In recognizing the geographical and population size constraints, small economies, and risks associated with climate change that affect the Caribbean Basin, this chapter uses a “regional political economy” (Agnew 2000) perspective to examine the political forces (including the state, institutions, and individual actors) that have shaped and continue to define educational reforms within the Caribbean. As such, we view the region, or Caribbean Basin, as a space that is comprised of sovereign states, shares a communal identity, and has a distinctive historical past (Mansfield and Milner 1997). Our primary focus is examining which systemic factors account for patterns of regional outcomes. We advance the argument that at different historical stages, external actors have driven the investment in educational attainment across the region, and that the appropriation of external delivery transfer mechanisms (such as policy borrowing and lending) serves different needs and interests at different junctures along the development continuum. As [Table 12.1](#) illustrates, the Caribbean Basin[†] features a broad mosaic of international and regional actors that drive, define, and influence educational reform. Also [Table 12.1](#) provides a full picture of the national, subregional, regional, hemispherical institutions, “trans-regional regimes” (Jules 2008), and international actors that have a role, impact, voice, and influence upon education across the region. Moreover, [Table 12.2](#) shows that national governments from across the region have undertaken several instrumental reform initiatives, beginning in the various post-independence periods that focused on moving away from plantation economies toward economies of scale to achieve industrialization. The arguments advanced in this chapter are based on our analysis of these documents. However, many of these reforms, based on structural transformation (ranging from production integration to new managerialism to neoliberalism), have resulted in unintended outcomes due to the influence by both endogenous and exogenous factors, with focus on the development of human capital. Because there has not been one consistent strategy for the role and purpose of education, other than investing in human capital to facilitate

territories, and protectorates of the United States of America, the United Kingdom, France, and the Netherlands, which still have controlling interest in political, social, and economic aspects of island life. However, what makes the Caribbean Basin unique for educational comparisons is its colonial history and that all of the countries in the region are considered to be micro (or small) states and/or Small Island Development States (SIDS) by the World Bank and Commonwealth Secretariat given their population size, ecology, landmass, vulnerability to external shocks, and fragility.

* While the Modern Caribbean Basin is often associated with the “Caribbean Basin Economic Recovery Act” (1993) and includes countries such as Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, and Venezuela, we exclude these countries from our definition and discussion in this chapter since the focus is on the Caribbean as defined above.

[†] We use the term “Caribbean Basin” as an all-encompassing concept to define the changing relation of the islands in the West Indian Archipelago. In using this term, we make a distinction from the “Caribbean Basin Economic Recovery Act” (CBERA) of 1983 that focused on the provision of traffic and trade and the Caribbean Basin Trade Partnership Act (CBTPA) that placed emphasis on the strengthening economic and political relations within the region. Therefore, we use Caribbean Basin to represent the evolving Archipelagic and hemispherical relation across the Caribbean based on the proliferation of regional trading blocs, such as, the Caribbean Community and the Organization of Eastern Caribbean States, or customs unions and atypical modules economic integration, open regionalism (production integration as described in the Revised Treaty of Chaguaramas) and mature regionalism. These integrative mechanisms taken together with the expansion of regional “existential threats” (Girvan 2010)—the Union of South American Nation (UNASUR)—which combined two existing customs unions, the Southern Common Market (MERCOSUR) and the Andean Community of Nation (CAN), Community of Latin American and Caribbean States (CELAC)—focused on deeper integration, Bolivarian Alliance for the Peoples of Our America (ALBA)—challenges the economic vulnerability, food security, and ecological fragility in the Caribbean.

Table 12.1 Institutional Affiliations and Donors in the Caribbean

| <i>Countries in the Caribbean</i> | <i>Colonial Territory/ Protectorate of</i> | <i>Population</i> | <i>Status in CARICOM</i> | <i>Year of Accession to CARICOM</i> | <i>Other Regional Affiliations</i> | <i>International Frameworks</i> | <i>Top 2010–2011 Aid Donors for Education</i> | <i>Aid Received for Education (2010–2011)^c</i> |
|-----------------------------------|--|----------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------------------|--|---------------------------------|---|---|
| <i>Anguilla</i> | United Kingdom | 15,754 ^a | Associate member | July 4, 1999 | Associate member of West Indies Federation; CDB 1970; Commonwealth; CSME; CXC 1972; ECLAC 2006; Leeward Island Federation; OECS (Associate Member); UWI | EFA; MDGs; PRSP | EU Institutions; United Kingdom; CarDB; Germany | 30% |
| Antigua and Barbuda | | 90,156 ^a | Full member | July 4, 1974 | ACP; ALBA 2004; CANTA; CARIFORUM; CARIFTA 1965; CDB 1970; Commonwealth; CRNM 1997; CSME; CXC 1972; ECLAC 2006; Leeward Island Federation; NAB; OAS; OECS 1981; West Indies Federation; UWI | EFA; MDGs; PRSP | EU Institutions; Japan; Australia; CarDB; US; Spain; Greece; Germany; Finland; United Arab Emirates | 14% |
| The Bahamas | | 319,031 ^a | Full member | July 4, 1983 | ACP; ACS; CANTA; CARIFORUM; CDB 1970; Commonwealth; CRNM 1997; ECLAC 2006; NAB; OAS; UWI | EFA; MDGs; PRSP | N/A | N/A |

(Continued)

Table 12.1 (Continued) Institutional Affiliations and Donors in the Caribbean

| <i>Countries in the Caribbean</i> | <i>Colonial Territory/ Protectorate of</i> | <i>Population</i> | <i>Status in CARICOM</i> | <i>Year of Accession to CARICOM</i> | <i>Other Regional Affiliations</i> | <i>International Frameworks</i> | <i>Top 2010–2011 Aid Donors for Education</i> | <i>Aid Received for Education (2010–2011)^c</i> |
|-----------------------------------|--|----------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------------------|--|---------------------------------|--|---|
| <i>The British Virgin Islands</i> | United Kingdom | 31,912 ^a | Associate member | July 2, 1991 | CARIFORUM; CDB 1970; Commonwealth; CXC 1972; ECLAC 2006; Leeward Island Federation; OECS 1984 (Associate Member); UWI | EFA; MDGs; PRSP | N/A | N/A |
| <i>Bermuda</i> | | 69,467 ^a | Associate member | July 2, 2003 | Leeward Island Federation; UWI | EFA; MDGs; PRSP | N/A | N/A |
| Barbados | | 288,725 ^a | Full member | August 1, 1973 ^d | ACP; ACS; CANTA; CARIFESTA; CARIFORUM; CARIFTA 1965; CDB 1970; Commonwealth; CRNM 1997; CSME; CXC 1972; ECLAC 2006; OAS; TVET; UWI; West Indies Federation; Windward Island Federation | EFA; MDGs; PRSP | N/A | N/A |
| Belize | | 334,297 ^a | Full member | May 1, 1974 | ACP; ACS; CANTA; CARIFORUM; CARIFTA 1971; CDB 1970; Commonwealth; CRNM 1997; CXC 1972; ECLAC 2006; OAS; UWI | EFA; MDGs; PRSP | EU Institutions; CarDB; Japan; GEF; US; OFID; UNICEF; Australia; KFAED; IDB Sp. Fund | 12% |

(Continued)

Table 12.1 (Continued) Institutional Affiliations and Donors in the Caribbean

| <i>Countries in the Caribbean</i> | <i>Colonial Territory/ Protectorate of</i> | <i>Population</i> | <i>Status in CARICOM</i> | <i>Year of Accession to CARICOM</i> | <i>Other Regional Affiliations</i> | <i>International Frameworks</i> | <i>Top 2010–2011 Aid Donors for Education</i> | <i>Aid Received for Education (2010–2011)^c</i> |
|-----------------------------------|--|-------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------------------|--|---------------------------------|---|---|
| <i>Cayman Islands</i> | United Kingdom | 53,737 ^a | Associate member | May 15, 2002 | CARIFORUM; CDB 1970; Commonwealth; CXC 1972; UWI | EFA; MDGs; PRSP | N/A | N/A |
| Cuba | | 11,061,886 | CARIFORUM | | ACS; ALBA 2004; CARIFESTA; CRNM 1997; ECLAC 2006 | EFA; MDGs; PRSP | Spain; EU Institutions; US; Global Fund; Canada; Japan; OFID; Switzerland; Belgium; Germany | 15% |
| The Dominican Republic | | 10,219,630 ^a | Observer/ CARIFORUM | | ACP; ACS; CARIFORUM; CRNM 1997; ECLAC 2006; OAS | EFA; MDGs; PRSP | EU Institutions; France; Spain; US; Global Fund; Japan; Germany; IDB Sp. Fund; Korea; Italy | 5% |

(Continued)

Table 12.1 (Continued) Institutional Affiliations and Donors in the Caribbean

| <i>Countries in the Caribbean</i> | <i>Colonial Territory/ Protectorate of</i> | <i>Population</i> | <i>Status in CARICOM</i> | <i>Year of Accession to CARICOM</i> | <i>Other Regional Affiliations</i> | <i>International Frameworks</i> | <i>Top 2010–2011 Aid Donors for Education</i> | <i>Aid Received for Education (2010–2011)^c</i> |
|-----------------------------------|--|----------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------------------|--|---------------------------------|---|---|
| Dominica | | 73,286 ^a | Full member | May 1, 1974 | ACP; ACS; ALBA 2004; CARIFORUM; CARIFTA 1968; CDB 1970; Commonwealth; CRNM 1997; CSME; CXC 1972; ECLAC 2006; Leeward Island Federation (1940); OAS; OECS 1981; UWI; West Indies Federation; Windward Island Federation | EFA; MDGs; PRSP | EU Institutions; CarDB; France; Japan; KFAED; Australia; IDA; Italy; United Kingdom; Canada | 21% |
| French Guiana* | France | 274 652 ^b | | | | EFA; MDGs; PRSP | N/A | N/A |
| Grenada | | 109,590 ^a | Full member | May 1, 1974 | ACP; ACS; CARIFORUM; CARIFTA 1968; CDB 1970; Commonwealth; CRNM 1997; CSME; CXC 1972; ECLAC 2006; OAS; OECS 1981; UWI; West Indies Federation; Windward Island Federation | EFA; MDGs; PRSP | EU Institutions; Japan; Car DB; IDA; IMF; Australia; KFAED; UNDP; Canada; France | 3% |
| Guadeloupe* | France | 503,274 ^a | | | | EFA; MDGs; PRSP | N/A | N/A |

(Continued)

Table 12.1 (Continued) Institutional Affiliations and Donors in the Caribbean

| <i>Countries in the Caribbean</i> | <i>Colonial Territory/ Protectorate of</i> | <i>Population</i> | <i>Status in CARICOM</i> | <i>Year of Accession to CARICOM</i> | <i>Other Regional Affiliations</i> | <i>International Frameworks</i> | <i>Top 2010–2011 Aid Donors for Education</i> | <i>Aid Received for Education (2010–2011)^c</i> |
|-----------------------------------|--|------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------------------|---|--|--|---|
| Guyana | | 739,903 ^b | Full member | August 1, 1973 ^d | ACP; ACS; CANTA; CARIFESTA; CARIFORUM; CARIFTA 1965; CDB 1970; Commonwealth; CRNM 1997; CSME; CXC 1972; NAB; OAS; USAN; UWI | EFA; EFA Fast Track Initiative; HIPC; MDGs; PRSP | IDB Sp. Fund; Norway; EU Institutions; US; CarDB; Global Fund; Canada; Japan; Germany; IDA | 0.25% |
| | | 9,893,934 ^a | Full member | July 2002 | ACP; ACS; CARIFORUM; CDB 1970; CRNM 1997; ECLAC 2006; IAEC; OAS | EFA; HIPC; MDGs; PRSP; CARIFORUM | USA; IDB Sp. Fund; Canada; EU Institutions; IMF; France; Spain; IDA; Japan; Norway | 4% |
| Jamaica | | 2,909,714 ^a | Full member | August 1, 1973 ^d | ACP; ACS; CANTA; CARIFESTA; CARIFORUM; CARIFTA 1968; CDB 1970; CKLN; Commonwealth; CRNM 1997; CSME; CXC 1972; OAS; RAM; TVET; UWI; West Indies Federation | EFA; MDGs; PRSP | EU Institutions; US; CarDB; Japan; Global Fund; OFID; United Kingdom; Canada; Belgium; GEF | 17% |
| Martinique* | France | 498,151 ^b | | | | EFA; MDGs; PRSP | N/A | N/A |

(Continued)

Table 12.1 (Continued) Institutional Affiliations and Donors in the Caribbean

| <i>Countries in the Caribbean</i> | <i>Colonial Territory/ Protectorate of</i> | <i>Population</i> | <i>Status in CARICOM</i> | <i>Year of Accession to CARICOM</i> | <i>Other Regional Affiliations</i> | <i>International Frameworks</i> | <i>Top 2010–2011 Aid Donors for Education</i> | <i>Aid Received for Education (2010–2011)^c</i> |
|-----------------------------------|--|------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------------------|--|---------------------------------|---|---|
| Montserrat | United Kingdom | 5,189 ^a | Full member | May 1, 1974 | CANTA; CARIFORUM; CARIFTA 1968; CDB 1970; Commonwealth; CSME; CXC 1972; ECLAC 2006; Leeward Island Federation; OECS 1981; UWI; West Indies Federation | EFA; MDGs; PRSP | United Kingdom; EU Institutions; CarDB; UNDP; US | N/A |
| Netherlands Antilles | The Netherlands | 203,748 ^b | Observer | | ACS; ECLAC 2006 | EFA; MDGs; PRSP | N/A | N/A |
| Puerto Rico | United States | 3,674,209 ^a | Observer | | ECLAC 2006; Windward Island Federation | EFA; MDGs; PRSP | N/A | N/A |
| St. Lucia | | 162,781 ^a | Full member | May 1, 1974 | ACP; ACS; CANTA; CARIFORUM; CARIFTA 1968; CDB 1970; Commonwealth; CRNM 1997; CSME; CXC 1972; ECLAC 2006; OAS; OECS 1981; TVET; UWI; West Indies Federation; Windward Island Federation | EFA; MDGs; PRSP | EU Institutions; IDA; CarDB; IMF; KFAED; Japan; Australia; France; UK; Canada | 9% |

(Continued)

Table 12.1 (Continued) Institutional Affiliations and Donors in the Caribbean

| <i>Countries in the Caribbean</i> | <i>Colonial Territory/ Protectorate of</i> | <i>Population</i> | <i>Status in CARICOM</i> | <i>Year of Accession to CARICOM</i> | <i>Other Regional Affiliations</i> | <i>International Frameworks</i> | <i>Top 2010–2011 Aid Donors for Education</i> | <i>Aid Received for Education (2010–2011)^c</i> |
|---------------------------------------|--|----------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------------------|---|---------------------------------|---|---|
| St. Christopher (St. Kitts and Nevis) | | 51,134 ^a | Full member | July 26, 1974 | ACP; ACS; CARIFESTA; CARIFORUM; CARIFTA 1968; CDB 1970; Commonwealth; CRNM 1997; CSME; CXC 1972; ECLAC 2006; Leeward Island Federation; NAB; OAS; OECS 1981; UWI; West Indies Federation (Associate Member) | EFA; MDGs; PRSP | EU Institutions; CarDB; Japan; Australia; Canada; Germany; Spain; Austria | 4% |
| St. Vincent and the Grenadines | | 103,220 ^a | Full member | May 1, 1974 | ACP; ACS; ALBA 2004; CARIFORUM; CARIFTA 1968; CDB 1970; Commonwealth; CRNM 1997; CSME; CXC 1972; ECLAC 2006; OAS; OECS 1981; UWI; West Indies Federation; Windward Island Federation | EFA; MDGs; PRSP | EU Institutions; CarDB; IMF; IDA; Japan; Australia; Canada; US; Finland; UNDP | 14% |

(Continued)

Table 12.1 (Continued) Institutional Affiliations and Donors in the Caribbean

| <i>Countries in the Caribbean</i> | <i>Colonial Territory/ Protectorate of</i> | <i>Population</i> | <i>Status in CARICOM</i> | <i>Year of Accession to CARICOM</i> | <i>Other Regional Affiliations</i> | <i>International Frameworks</i> | <i>Top 2010–2011 Aid Donors for Education</i> | <i>Aid Received for Education (2010–2011)^c</i> |
|-----------------------------------|--|------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------------------|---|---------------------------------|--|---|
| Suriname | | 566,846 ^a | Full member | July 4, 1995 | CARIFESTA; CARIFORUM; CRNM 1997; CSME; ECLAC 2006; OAS; USAN | EFA | Netherlands; EU Institutions; IDB Sp. Fund; France; GEF; Global Fund; Belgium; US; Canada; Australia | 11% |
| Trinidad and Tobago | | 1,225,225 ^a | Full member | August 1, 1973 ^d | ACP; ACS; CANTA; CARIFESTA; CARIFORUM; CARIFTA 1965; CDB 1970; CKLN; Commonwealth; CRNM 1997; CSME; CXC 1972; ECLAC 2006; OAS; RAM; SERVOL Program; TVET; UWI; West Indies Federation; Windward Island Federation | EFA; MDGs; PRSP | N/A | N/A |

(Continued)

Table 12.1 (Continued) Institutional Affiliations and Donors in the Caribbean

| <i>Countries in the Caribbean</i> | <i>Colonial Territory/ Protectorate of</i> | <i>Population</i> | <i>Status in CARICOM</i> | <i>Year of Accession to CARICOM</i> | <i>Other Regional Affiliations</i> | <i>International Frameworks</i> | <i>Top 2010–2011 Aid Donors for Education</i> | <i>Aid Received for Education (2010–2011)^c</i> |
|-----------------------------------|--|---------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------------------|--|---------------------------------|---|---|
| <i>Turks and Caicos Islands*</i> | United Kingdom | 47,754 ^a | Associate member | July 2, 1991 | ACS; CDB 1970; Commonwealth; CXC 1972; ECLAC 2006; UWI | EFA; MDGs; PRSP | UK; EC; CDB; Canada; UNTA | N/A |

Notes: 1. Countries with an *(asterisk) are Colonial Territories or Protectorates.

2. Caribbean countries and their affiliations: Countries in bold are full member states of CARICOM. Countries in italics are associate member of CARICOM. Countries neither bold or italics are observer members.

ACP, African, Caribbean, and Pacific States; ACS, Association of Caribbean States; ALBA, Bolivarian Alliance for the Americas; CANTA, Caribbean Association of National Training Agencies; CARIFTA, Caribbean Free Trade Association; CARIFESTA, Caribbean Festival of Arts; CDB or CarDB Caribbean Development Bank CARIFORUM Caribbean Forum of ACP States; CRNM, Caribbean Regional Negotiating Machinery; EU, European Union; GEF, Global Environment Facility; IAEC, Inter-American Economic Council; KFAED, Kuwait Fund for Arab Economic Development; NAB, National Association of the Bahamas; OAS, Organization of American States; OFID, OPEC Fund for International Development; SERVOL, Service Volunteered for All; USAN, Union of South American Nations.

^a July 2013 population estimate from CIA World Factbook.

^b July 2011 population estimate.

^c Data available at <http://www.oecd.org/dac/stats/>.

^d Founding member of CARICOM.

Table 12.2 Policy Census of National Educational Reforms in the Caribbean

| | | |
|-------------------------------------|---|-----------|
| Anguilla | Caribbean Symposium on Inclusive Education Country Report 2007 | 2007 |
| | Environment Research Action Programme (EARP) | 2011 |
| Antigua and Barbuda | Quality Public Education, Antigua and Barbuda, 2004 and Beyond | 2004–2009 |
| Belize | Education Act | 2000 |
| | Education Ordinance of 1962 | 1962 |
| | The Development Plan 1964–1970 | 1964–1970 |
| | Education Plans 1972–1976 | 1972–1976 |
| | Rural Education and Agriculture Program (REAP) | 1976 |
| | Curriculum Development Unit: SHEP, PEP, WIZE, TESOL Project, PPTT | 1975 |
| | Schools Broadcast Program | 1965 |
| | Development Plan 1980–1983 | 1980–1993 |
| | Development Plan 1985–1989 | 1985–1989 |
| | Belize Primary Education Development Project (BPED) | 1992 |
| | Free Education | 1993 |
| | Development Plan 1992–1997 | 1992–1997 |
| | 2+1 Certificate Program | 1954–1992 |
| | Certificate Program with School Experience | 1992 |
| | Part-Time Program | 1994 |
| | National Curriculum | 1998–1999 |
| | A World Fit for Children (UN initiative) | 2002 |
| | Enhancing Holistic Child Development Program (UNICEF) | 2002 |
| | Enabling Environment for Adolescent Development Program (UNICEF) | 2002 |
| | Action Plan | 2005–2010 |
| Education Sector Strategy 2011–2016 | 2011–2016 | |
| Bahamas | Bahamas: 2009 10 year Education Plan | 2009–2019 |
| | Manifesto 92 | 1992–1997 |
| | Manifesto II Agenda to and for the 21st Century | 1997–2002 |

(Continued)

Table 12.2 (Continued) Policy Census of National Educational Reforms in the Caribbean

| | | |
|----------------------------|--|-----------|
| Bahamas (Continued) | National Strategic Plan 2025 | 2005–2025 |
| | Our Plan: A Strategy for Bahamas and a Brighter Future | 2002–2007 |
| | School Meals Programme 1963 | 1963 |
| | Strategic Plan 2004: Bahamian Education in the 21st Century | 2002–2007 |
| Bermuda | Blueprint for Reform in Education: Bermuda Public School System Strategic Plan 2010–2015 | 2010–2015 |
| | Education Act of 1996 | 1996 |
| | Bermuda Educators Council Act of 2002 | 2002 |
| | Education (School Support) Rules 2004 | 2004 |
| Barbados | Caribbean Symposium on Inclusive Education Country Report 2007 | 2007 |
| | Education Act 1981-25 and Regulations 1982 (Enacted in 1983) | 1981–1983 |
| | National Development Plan | 1988–1993 |
| | National Development Plan | 1993–2002 |
| | Strategic Plan 2002–2012 | 2002–2007 |
| | TVET Council | 1993 |
| British Virgin Islands | Draft Policy Document | 2005 |
| Caribbean Regional Reforms | Association of Caribbean Tertiary Institutions (ACTI) 22nd Annual Meeting and Conference: Strategic Imperatives for the Enhancement of Institutional and Academic Performance. November 2012 | 2008 |
| | Biennial Cross-Campus Conference On Education April 3–6 1990 | 2012 |
| | Caribbean Advanced Proficiency Examination (CAPE) | 1999 |
| | Caribbean Association of National Training Agencies (CANTA) 2003 | 2003 |
| | Caribbean Examinations Council (CXC) Recognized at a CARICOM Institution in 1973 | 1972 |
| | Caribbean Secondary Education Certificate (CSEC) | 1972 |
| | Caribbean Vocational Qualification (CVQ) | 2007 |
| | CARICOM Education for Employment | 2010–2016 |

(Continued)

Table 12.2 (Continued) Policy Census of National Educational Reforms in the Caribbean

| | | |
|---|--|-----------|
| Caribbean Regional Reforms (Continued) | CARICOM HFLE (Health & Family Life Education) Programme | 1994 |
| | Child Friendly Schools (CFS) | 2009 |
| | CIDA's (Canadian International Developmental Agency) Caribbean Program | 2009 |
| | Competency-Based Education Training Assessment (CBETA) | 2011 |
| | Constitution of the Caribbean Association for Distance and Open Learning (CARADOL) | 2013 |
| | Creative and Productive Citizens for the Twenty-First Century | 1997 |
| | Early Childhood Care and Educational Regional Report: Latin America and the Caribbean (UNESCO) World Conference on Early Childhood Care and Education (WCECCE) September 2012 | 2012 |
| | Education Management Information System (EMIS) Anguilla, Aruba, Antigua and Barbuda (2000), Barbados, British Virgin Islands (2000), Cayman Islands, Dominica, Grenada, Jamaica (1993, 1996), Montserrat, St. Lucia (1999–2000), Turks and Caicos Islands, Trinidad and Tobago | 1993–2000 |
| | EFA in the Caribbean: Assessment 2000; and several national education policy documents | 2000 |
| | Foundation for the Future: OECS Education Reform Strategy | 1991 |
| | Free Movement of Skilled Persons Act 1997 | 1997 |
| | Higher Education in the XXI Century. View of Latin America and the Caribbean | 1998 |
| | OECS Education Reform Unit: Eastern Caribbean Education Reform Project: Curriculum Harmonisation: Curriculum for Grade 5/Grade 6 2008 | 1992 |
| | OECS The Pillars for Partnership | 2000 |
| | Open Campus [formed through the amalgamation of the UWI Distance Education Unit and UWIDITE] | 1996 |
| | Partnership for Educational Revitalization in the Caribbean (PREAL) | 1995 |
| | Policies to improve Basic Education in the Caribbean in Education for All: Caribbean Perspectives and Imperatives | 1992 |
| Regional Strategy for Technical and Vocational Education and Training | 1990 | |

(Continued)

Table 12.2 (Continued) Policy Census of National Educational Reforms in the Caribbean

| | | |
|---|--|-----------|
| Caribbean Regional Reforms (Continued) | Report on United Nations Education, Science and Culture Organization (UNESCO/CARICOM) Consultation on Higher Education in the Caribbean | 1998 |
| | Roving Caregivers Programme (RCP)—Jamaica (1993), St. Lucia (2002), St. Vincent and the Grenadines (2002), Dominica (2002), Grenada (2002) | 2010 |
| | Roving Caregivers Programme (RCP) Strategy Brief August 2010 | 2009 |
| | Sagikor Visionaries Challenge (Anguilla, Antigua and Barbuda, Barbados, Belize, Dominica, Grenada, Guyana, Jamaica, St. Kitts and Nevis, St. Lucia, St. Vincent and the Grenadines, and Trinidad and Tobago) | 2013 |
| | Second Caribbean Conference on Adult Education April | 1970 |
| | Second Latin American and Caribbean Conference on Global Health, January 9–11, 2013 | 2013 |
| | Structural Adjustment Programs (SAP) | 1982 |
| | Technology within the context of the single market and economy | 1997 |
| | The Future of Education in the Caribbean: CARICOM Regional Education Policy | 1993 |
| | The Grand Anse Declaration | 1989 |
| | The Impact of a Home Visiting Early Childhood Intervention in the Caribbean on Cognitive and Socioemotional Child Development Preliminary Draft August 2009 | 2012 |
| | The St. Lucia Declaration about Higher Education in the Caribbean in Higher Education in the Caribbean | 1998 |
| | Third International Congress on Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) | 2012 |
| | University of the West Indies Distance Education Centre (UWIDEC) | 1983–1996 |
| | University of the West Indies Distance Teaching Experiment (UWIDITE) | 1983–1984 |
| World Conference on Early Childhood Care and Education: Response Opportunities and Challenges for the Caribbean Action Agenda: An Early Childhood Policy Brief 2012 | 2012 | |
| Belize | Action Plan | 2005–2010 |
| | Education Sector Strategy 2011–2016 | 2011–2016 |

(Continued)

Table 12.2 (Continued) Policy Census of National Educational Reforms in the Caribbean

| | | |
|--------------------|---|-----------|
| Cuba | Literacy Campaign of 1961 | 1961 |
| | <i>Perfeccionamiento</i> | 1975–1976 |
| | <i>Perfeccionamiento continuo</i> | 1987–1989 |
| Dominica | Education Sector Plan for Education Development in the Commonwealth of Dominica | 1989–1994 |
| | Education Development Plan 1999–2005 and Beyond | 1999–2005 |
| Dominican Republic | Ten Year Plan for Higher Education 2008–2018 | 2008–2018 |
| French Guiana | Guyane Educational Authority for Primary, Secondary, and Higher Education | |
| Grenada | Education Act of 1976 | 1976 |
| | Education Policy Document Grenada | 1992–2002 |
| | SPEED 1: Strategic Plan for Educational Enhancement and Development 2002–2010 (ended in 2004) | 2002–2004 |
| | SPEED 2: Strategic Plan for Educational Enhancement and Development 2006–2015 | 2002–2004 |
| | White Paper of 1957 | 1959 |
| Guyana | An Education Policy and Five Year Development Plan for Guyana | 1995–2003 |
| | Basic Education Access and Management Support (BEAMS) Project–Technical Assistance in Innovative Technologies | 2002–2009 |
| | Education Act of 1876 | 1876 |
| | Industrial Training Act 1910 | 1910 |
| | Reforms of Education Act 1975/1976 | 1975–1976 |
| | State Paper on Education Policy | 1990–1995 |
| | Strategic Plan 2003–2007 | 2003–2007 |
| Guadeloupe | Regional Innovation Strategy | 2009 |
| Haiti | 2011 Strategic Education Plan | 2011 |
| | EMIS in Support of Sector-Wide Planning 2010/2011 (CapEFA Program) | 2010–2011 |
| Jamaica | Jamaica Five Year Development Plan | 1990–1995 |
| | Career Advancement Program (CAP) | 2010 |
| | Compulsory Education Program (CEP) | |

(Continued)

Table 12.2 (Continued) Policy Census of National Educational Reforms in the Caribbean

| | | |
|------------------------|---|-----------|
| Jamaica (Continued) | Cooperate Plan 2002–2005 | 2002–2005 |
| | Green Paper 2000 presented by Ministry of Education, Youth and Culture (MOEC) | 2000 |
| | HEART Trust/NTA | 1982 |
| | Human Employment and Resource Training Act of 1982 | 1982 |
| | Jamaican Movement for the Advancement of Literacy (JAMAL) | 1974 |
| | Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) between Jamaica and International City and Guilds of London Institute December 2011 | 2011 |
| | Reform for Secondary Education (ROSE) 1993 | 1993 |
| | Reform for Secondary Education (ROSE) II 2001 | 2001 |
| | The Education Act of 1965 | 1965 |
| | The Education Act of 1980 | 1980 |
| | The Technical and Vocational Education and Training Rationalization in Secondary Schools Project | 1997 |
| | The Technical and Vocational Work Experience Program | 2000 |
| | VISION 2030 National Development Plan & Education Sector Plan | 2009 |
| | White Paper 2001 The Way Upward—A Path for Jamaica's Education at the Start of the New Millennium | 2001 |
| | White Paper: The Way Forward | 2000 |
| Martinique | MEEF (IUFM) | 2013 |
| | 2013–2014 Higher Education Grants and Social Housing | 2013–2014 |
| Montserrat | Education Policy | 1996 |
| | Cooperate Plan 2004–2008 | 2004–2008 |
| | Draft Education Development Plan 2012–2020 | 2012–2020 |
| | Education Development Plan 2002–2007 | 2002–2007 |
| | Sustainable Development Plan 2008–2020 | 2008–2020 |
| | Work Plan for 1999–2000 | 1999–2000 |
| | Work Plan for 2000–2001 | 2000–2001 |
| Netherlands Antilles | Seminar on Curriculum Development for “Learning to Live Together” | 2001 |
| | Foundation Based Education | 1999 |

(Continued)

Table 12.2 (Continued) Policy Census of National Educational Reforms in the Caribbean

| | | |
|---|---|-----------|
| Puerto Rico | Character Counts! | 2010 |
| | Schools Modernization Program | 2010 |
| | Amendment No.149 | 2012 |
| | Puerto Rico's Schools for the 21st Century (Schools for the 21st Century) | 2010 |
| St. Lucia | Education Sector Development: 2000–2005 and Beyond | 2000–2005 |
| | 2008–2013 Education Sector Development Plan | 2008–2013 |
| | Adult Education and Literacy Programme 1984 | 1984 |
| | Education For All Global Monitoring Report: Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE) 2007 (UNESCO) | 2007 |
| | RCP Impact Evaluation St. Lucia 2008 (AIID) | 2008 |
| | The Development and State of the Art of Adult Learning and Education (ALE): National Report of St. Lucia 2008 | 2008 |
| St. Kitts and Nevis | Five Year Plan | 1993–1998 |
| | State Paper on Education | 1997 |
| | Learning and Growing: The Long Term Plan 1998–2011 | 1998–2011 |
| | 2004 National Assessment of BPOA + 10 | 1994–2003 |
| | Educational Act No. 18 of 1975 | 1975 |
| | Education (Amendment) Act No. 17 of 2007 | 2007 |
| | The Special Education Unit 1982 | 1982 |
| | EDUSAT 2007 | 2007 |
| | White Paper on Education Development and Policy 2009–2019 | 2009–2019 |
| | Early Childhood Development Policy 2009 | 2009 |
| An Early Childhood Policy Brief (UNESCO) 2012 | 2012 | |
| St. Vincent and the Grenadines | Education Policy | 1995 |
| | Education Sector Development Plan 2002–2007 (Volume 1&2) | 2002–2007 |
| | National Report on Development and State of the Art of Adult Learning and Education 2008 | 2008 |
| | OECS Development Project 2004–2011 | 2004–2011 |

(Continued)

Table 12.2 (Continued) Policy Census of National Educational Reforms in the Caribbean

| | | |
|--------------------------|--|-----------|
| Suriname | MINOV 2000–2005 | 2000–2005 |
| | Compulsory Education Act for Primary Education | 1876 |
| | Educational Development in the Republic of Suriname: A Report prepared for 47th Session of the International Conference on Education | 2004 |
| Trinidad and Tobago | Education Policy Paper 1993–2003 | 1993–2003 |
| | Strategic Plan 2002–2006 | 2002–2006 |
| | Medium Term Policy Framework 2011–2014 and 2005 VISION 2020 Plan | 2011–2014 |
| | Vision 2020 Operational Plan 2007–2010: 2008–2009 Progress Report | 2007–2010 |
| | Education Act of 1966 | 1966 |
| | Education Sector Strategic Plan 2011–2015 | 2011–2015 |
| | Government Scholarships for Postgraduate Students 2013 | 2013 |
| | eConnect and Learn Programme (eCAL) 2010 | 2010 |
| | Policy on Tertiary Education, Technical Vocational Education and Training, and Lifelong Learning in Trinidad and Tobago (2010) | 2010 |
| | UNDP Workshop on Trinidad and Tobago Country Strategy Action 2012–2015 | 2012–2015 |
| | The Concordat of 1960 | 1960 |
| | National Training Agency (NTA) | |
| | Secondary Education Modernization Programme 2008 | 2008 |
| Turks and Caicos Islands | Department of Youth Affairs Strategic Plan 2008–2011 | 2008–2011 |
| | Education Department Five Year Development Plan | 1988–1993 |
| | Five Year Education Development Plan | 1999–2004 |
| | Education Action Plan | 1999 |
| | Improving Quality and Management on Secondary Schools in the Turks and Caicos Islands | 1998 |
| | Primary Schools Principals Workshop | 1995 |
| | Preventative Education Project | 1997 |
| | PINSTEP Program | 1990s |
| | Universal Access to and Completion of Primary Education by the Year 2000 | 1988–1993 |

national development, the numerous educational reforms that have taken place in the last two to three decades do not seem to have significantly resolved the chronic problems that affect the region as a whole, namely, crime and human security (particularly human trafficking and narcotics trafficking); HIV/AIDS (the prevalence rate across the region is second only to sub-Saharan Africa); brain drain and migration flows (data suggest that the region has lost 10%–40% of its general labor force and around 50% of its tertiary-educated segment to OECD countries [see Mishra 2006]); economic vulnerability; and international dependency, all of which have the potential to erode national educational gains that have been attained. These factors, particularly brain drain, affect the region's educational systems negatively since estimates show that per capita spending at the tertiary level outweighs primary and secondary spending in Barbados, Trinidad and Tobago, and Jamaica.

Setting the Scene

Our starting point is the recognition that early education reforms across the region were developed in a fragmented space through colonial rule by diverse and different imperial powers, and that countries have undergone dramatic changes in demography and economic growth rates as a result of these varied colonial histories. In writing this chapter, we recognize the various geographical, political, and cultural differences and similarities that constitute the Caribbean and we paint a broad depiction of the various endogenous and exogenous educational reforms and institutions (see [Table 12.2](#)) that influence the region and therefore we recognize that to write of “Caribbean Education” is not without its *problematiques*. Whereas there are many commonalities that the countries within the Caribbean Basin share, there are some marked distinctions as well; we therefore recognize that “Caribbean Education and/or Literacies” is not a monolithic term. Even within the former British West Indies, there was much differentiation in educational governance and outcomes:

[Within] all the British West Indies, there are considerable differences between the different islands and territories. Each has its own government and administers its own internal affairs, and differences in the economy, in the extent of religious control, in terrain, in ease of contact with the outside world, have given rise to differences in education which make general statements almost impossible. (Walters 1970, p. 111)

This chapter examines both the gains in educational reforms and the challenges that these countries have faced, paying particular attention to the areas of contentious reforms that have focused on integrating strategies and techniques from public administration, new public management or corporate managerialism to engender national educational reforms. There are roughly three periods during which the historical development of education within the Caribbean can be looked at: (1) colonial education; (2) post-emancipation education; and (3) post-independence education reforms to present-day. While we present a brief overview of the first two periods, we show that in the post-independence periods, an increasing emphasis on performance, outputs, decentralization, and competition created educational systems premised on new managerialism. We therefore investigate the various tiers and aspects of education: children under 6 years old have various schooling options; pre-primary (kindergarten)/ages 4–6; primary (Grades 1–6)/ages 6–12; lower-secondary (Grades 7–9)/ages 12–15; upper-secondary (Grades 10–11)/ages 15–17; form 6

(Grades 12–13 or advanced placement classes)/ages 17–19; tertiary, vocational education; and teacher training (ages vary).^{*} Thus, it is within a changing environment of national, subregional, and regional policy making that we argue in the second part of this chapter that educational reform in the Caribbean has occurred across three distinct generations of reforms: (1) commencing in 1970s and 1980s, under 6 years old, various options exist (2) then continuing within the changing post-cold war global environment of 1989; and (3) now in its present phase, based on Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and the post-2015, Education For All (EFA) goals, the post-2015 sustainable development agenda. To better analyze contemporary/post-independence public administration of education in the Caribbean, we begin by sketching out a brief overview of the historical development of colonial education across the region.

Colonial Education

The Spanish encounter with the various indigenous peoples within the Caribbean in 1492 set forth a train of events that immensely transformed the region. Prior to this encounter, there is not much historical record of the nonformal education that existed among the indigenous peoples (or “nations” as they are called today). Historical evidence suggests that nonformal education most likely would have been of a skills-based nature, as survival would have depended keenly upon the successful acquisition and deployment of said skills. The Spanish aimed to “Christianize” the indigenous people of the Americas, called Indians (a term brought from India by Christopher Columbus), or Amerindians[†] (as used in Guyana and Suriname); these attempts focused on religious conversions constituted the extent of the natives’ education.[‡] The initial introduction of African slaves did not transform this by much, since “planters feared that any attempt to educate this group would be dangerous to the safety of the whites . . . [and that] the limited work skills which they needed could usually be acquired on the job and hence for them no formal training was considered necessary” (Bacchus 1990, p. 21). The best educational provisions were therefore reserved for Spanish settlers, with a few mulattoes and mestizos having access as well.

By the seventeenth century, England, France, and the Netherlands had ratcheted up their assaults on Spanish hegemony, introducing their own settlers to the Caribbean region (Ferguson 2008). Education for these early settlers was mostly nonexistent and that which was offered was not of the greatest quality (Bacchus 1990). With the rise of plantological influence on social stratification, there developed “a fairly rigid social structure in West Indian societies in which status depended on one’s legal position, i.e., whether one was a freeman, an indentured servant, or a slave, and second on one’s colour” (Bacchus 1990, p. 52); this in turn would “color” the educational provisions to various groups for years to come. Those plantation owners who had intended to return to Britain often, ensured that their children (mostly male) were educated overseas, from primary school onward.

These settlers, like the Spanish, were loath to provide any education (including religious instruction) to the black slave population, lest such an education lead to a disintegration of the social order. The governor of Martinique, in correspondence with France, is quoted as having

^{*} The educational tiers vary across the different countries, with a change of the name “Form” (a British Concept) to “Grades” (an American Concept). While there is no harmonizing of the tiers of educational levels across the region, it is generally accepted that by age six, children ought to be in primary school.

[†] The Amerindians live in the interior region of Guyana and are split into seven “tribes” or “nations”: Akawaio, Arekuna, Barima River Caribe, Macusi, Patamona, Waiwai, and Wapisiana.

[‡] The Church usually closely monitored any other education beyond this.

written “the safety of the Whites demands that they [the slaves] should be kept in the most profound ignorance” (as cited Bacchus 1990, pp. 139–140). Despite these fears, provision of education in the Caribbean was still facilitated largely by the missionaries:

While each had an important role to play, sometimes resisting and sometimes assisting with the provision of education, it was the missionaries who, during these early years, made the most significant overall contribution in this field, especially among the free blacks, the free coloureds and the slaves. They were almost the ‘sole providers of education’ for the non-white population in general; therefore, any understanding of the early educational developments in the West Indies require a closer examination of their work, their educational philosophies, their achievements and their failures. (Bacchus 1990, p. 143)

Chief among the religious education providers were the Anglicans, Roman Catholics, Moravians, Methodists, and Baptists. However, prior to emancipation of the slaves, the educational efforts of these missionaries yielded mediocre results; hindrances included persistent antagonism from the plantation/slave owners, limited free time that the slaves had for instruction, inhospitable physical conditions, and inadequate, and often culturally irrelevant materials (Bacchus 1990). The march toward emancipation from slavery in 1834 witnessed attitudinal shifts among some plantation owners regarding the education of slaves. As emancipation approached, the fervor for educational access among slaves was decidedly high. As Gordon (1998) notes:

Instruction, particularly in literacy, was undoubtedly an aspiration of many slaves, apprentices and ex-slaves, both in the decade before emancipation and in the first optimistic years of freedom . . . Only a minority received a formal education; the schools were a limited factor in the development of the ‘free society’ . . . The thirst for literacy in the last years of slavery was phenomenal in its urgency, in the initiatives taken by themselves and in the islandwide scope of demand. (pp. 1–2)

Missionaries offered Sunday and evening classes to assist with this burgeoning need. Slaves learnt from few children who were learning to read in mission day schools. There were almost not enough books for ex-slaves; so much so was the desire. Materials employed included “alphabets, primers, spelling books, bibles, prayer books, religious tracts, hymns, [and] catechisms” (Gordon 1998, p. 2). During this period, “the Sunday schools remained the most organized popular instruction for decades to come” (Gordon 1998, p. 3).

In sum, pre-emancipation education focused on providing a limited segment of the population access to certain types of educative experiences, and in some instances prepared locals for readily available bureaucratic functions and jobs within country. The country-specific education plan in the Anglophone Caribbean was part of a wider trend that came to be known as “adaptive education” (Whitehead 2005a, 2005b) since it used local curricula and was decentralized. This also created a dual educational system that on the one hand sought to educate some Africans using their local traditions and customs and on the other hand instructed a select few for placement in the local colonial office. In the French Caribbean, the French pursued policies “of assimilation or of association” (Heggoy 1984; White 1996) in that they concentrated on “civilizing” and creating French men of the locals through a highly centralized system. These policies that used French as the medium of instruction put forward the

dominant notion that “Western civilization, as represented by France, was superior to anything found locally” (Heggoy 1984, pp. 105–106). In sum, White (1996) categorized the British system as “centrifugal” and the French system as “centripetal” since the British had a “hands-off, decentralised approach” based on “the British state policy of ‘indirect rule’” while the French system “was heavily centralized . . . [and] sought an even closer relationship between the dependency and the mother country” (p. 21). The point of colonial education was to maintain the divide between the colonizer and the colonized by ensuring that access to education was only granted to a select few who could represent the colonial interest and work alongside the colonizer in the local country office.

Post-Emancipation Education Reforms

In the immediate post-emancipation period, the focus was on granting expanded access of education to all. In 1833, the British government created the *Negro Education Grant*, which subsidized religious bodies in their attempts to construct more schools and employ more teachers (Campbell 1965; Gordon 1962a, 1963a). This grant lasted for 5 years and all funding ended in 1845. Gordon (1963b) notes “the idea for a public system of universal education in the West Indies was born in 1833, and presented in the fifth resolution of the House of Commons introducing the act to emancipate British slaves” (p. 1). There were many reports commissioned on the Caribbean. Rev. John Sterling submitted one such report, in which he concluded that the Negro Education Grant, despite its flaws, engendered several outcomes: (1) Christianity was established as the religion of the Caribbean, because of its alliance with schools; (2) realization of the challenges of operating a nascent educational system; and (3) the emergence of popular education gained traction and acceptance (Gordon 1962a, p. 153). In 1834, when slavery was abolished, there was a period of apprenticeship before full emancipation would be granted, but it was immediately following emancipation that the idea for popular education gained tremendous momentum (Walters 1970).

With the Negro Education Grant ceasing to exist, financing of elementary education shifted to local legislative bodies, missionaries, and parents (Bacchus 1994). Despite this, enrollment numbers slowly, but steadily, increased. Education inspectors remained critical of the quality of education being offered. Far more challenging was the creation, and maintenance of secondary and post-secondary schools. This deficit was attributable to the early settlers’ desires to return to Europe; therefore, they did not make any substantive investments in local secondary and post-secondary educational structures. After abolition, there was more financial support for elementary education than for secondary education; administrators and legislatures believed that those who could afford secondary education should shoulder the costs. However, “an unstated objective of this reluctance to provide government aid for secondary education was to discourage any rise in the educational and occupational aspirations of the lower classes” (Bacchus 1994, p. 220). The precipitous declines in the sugar industry meant less income, which in turn facilitated increased migration of whites back to Europe. White migration, back to the home colonies, and in some instances to other colonies, left vacancies within various administrative bureaucracies and within the secondary schooling system. Secondary education became one of the best routes for social mobility, while primary-only education facilitated lower-level white-collar jobs (Bacchus 1994).

Because of varied inter-religious conflicts, around the 1850s, there were recommendations by the *Keenan Report* of 1896 for a secular system of education administration, including boards of education and teacher training schools. However, this was vigorously contested by the various religious denominations that ran many schools. Additionally, the *Keenan Report* (1869) called

for improved education for East Indian indentured laborers,* teacher education, and culturally relevant pedagogy (see *Keenan Report* 1869, as cited in Gordon 1962b). As a compromise, in Trinidad, for example, “a dual system was introduced by which the Government would provide some schools and the religious bodies would be assisted in the provision of others”† (Gordon 1962b, p. 16). Additionally, the *Keenan Report* (1869)‡ issued a clarion call for a Caribbean University.§ *The Phelps-Stokes Commission to the British Colonies* in the 1920s advocated a curriculum that promoted charter development, health and hygiene, productive skills, improved family life, and healthy recreation (Jones 1925 as cited in Metzler 2009). By 1945 when the famous *Report of West India Royal Commission* (generally referred to as *The Moyne Report*) was published and disseminated, there was room for much improvement still.

The *Moyne Report* highlighted that students were not being educated with the skills and knowledge that the local context required. The curricula in the secondary schools of the former colonies largely resembled those of Europe (Williams 1946), though, in some instances, they had expanded beyond mere religious instruction.¶ About educational materials, Williams (1956) wrote that “the instructional materials . . . include a vast quantity of extraneous material which has no relevance for the Caribbean area” (p. 6). This further augmented the calls for an increased focus on vocational/technical and agricultural education by varied educationalists and reports; however, this was met with fervent opposition by parents:

Those who want the schools to stress the vocational aspect in the belief that this will help industrial recruitment are probably not doing a real service to industrial development. In many parts of the Caribbean there is an objection by parents to their children learning through the hands. The usual reason given is that it is due to the memory of slavery . . . [T]he mistake made is to think that a richer life can only be achieved by deserting the soil. The aim should be to improve living in rural areas and make it more attractive. (Howe 1956, p. 16)

Despite parental opposition to vocational/technical education, there was considerable demand for the skills that such an education provided.** Institutes that facilitated technical education were created in Aruba, Barbados, British Guiana, Curacao, French Guiana, Guadeloupe, Martinique, Puerto Rico, St. Kitts, Suriname, and Trinidad (Howe 1956).

As the drumbeat toward independence intensified in the Caribbean, education would take on an even greater vitality. Some islands would remain officially linked to their former colonizers

* A great number of East Indian indentured laborers decided to stay in Trinidad and British Guiana (now Guyana) beyond the expiration of their contracts; “They were, however, unwilling to send their children to the schools attended by Negro children” (Gordon 1963b, p. 81).

† Even to this day, there is much contestation in several Caribbean countries regarding this dual education system. One critic notes: “What is generally called the ‘dual system of control’ or the ‘church-state partnership’ in education is really more one-sided than these terms suggest. Government provides most of the finance but concedes the control of most schools to the churches” (Bolland 1998, pp. 27–28). (see Williams 2012, for an exploration of the neocolonial effects of this dual education system in modern-day Trinidad.)

‡ Part II of this report focused on secondary and higher education (Gordon 1963a).

§ At the time of emancipation, Codrington College was the sole provider of higher education (Gordon 1963b).

¶ Dr. Howe, an educational consultant for UNESCO, wrote in 1956 “in the Caribbean, there is no doubt that education has, on the whole, followed metropolitan patterns” (Howe 1956, p. 13).

** Sherlock posited, “lacking technical education, Caribbean society has grown up with its hands untrained” (1949/1950, p. 14).

(see [Table 12.1](#)) and some would take the trajectory of independence; this reflected differences in the varied educational provisions as well:

The administration of education in British and Netherlands Caribbean countries differs fundamentally from that in the French and United States countries, the former representing control of educational development by two agencies—government and private—, . . . and the latter, control by a single authority, the State. (Alcala 1956, p. 45)

In sum, many countries entered the independence era with different inadequacies across all spectrums of the educational sphere.

Post-Independence Educational Reforms to Present

Since independence, we argue that education reforms and developments have gone through three distinctive generations: (1) beginning in the 1970s and 1980s with reorganizations that focused on access, equity, and inclusion; (2) continuing during the policy periods between 1989 and 2000, and using neoliberalism to emphasize quality, accountability, and efficiency as well as fiscal austerity; and (3) the current and third wave of transformations from 2000 to present-day, which strive to create citizens for a knowledge-based economy. In each of the sections below, we show that these three distinctive generations of reforms can be grouped under several institutional mechanisms that occurred simultaneously across several countries. While it is not our intention to make sweeping generalizations, we recognize that several countries during the 1980s underwent structural adjustment programs and used the same policy responses (privatization, deregulation, liberalization, and devaluation) to common policy problems (inefficient public sector and public institutions) that were defined either by exogenous or by endogenous actors, agencies, and donors to foster and propel industrialization and economic development (through investment in an educated populace). [Table 12.2](#) lists the names of some country-specific policies that arose during these generations of reforms.

First Generation of Reforms: 1970s–1980s

Even before independence, various leaders in the Caribbean were promulgating educational reform and expansion as key to economic development (Sherlock 1949/1950; Springer 1965) and nation building (Gordon 1979/1980). Independence within the Caribbean accompanied heightened expectations from the citizenry for increased access to education. As Selvaratnam (1988) notes:

With the achievement of political independence from their colonial masters in the post-war years, one of the major policy initiatives in these countries was the large scale expansion of educational provision at all levels under strong central state control. This unprecedented expansionist educational policy was spurred largely by the urgent issues of national unity, economic growth, manpower needs, and the promotion of greater equality of opportunity . . . dramatically chang[ing] the system from an elite to a mass base phenomenon and thus enhanced the access to educational opportunity for large sections of school-going population, both boys and girls and made remarkable strides at the tertiary level. (p. 129)

Rapid population increases also necessitated expanded educational provisions; however, few countries could afford to independently fund the magnitude of educational expansions for which

citizens hungered (Gray 1969). The independence era did not signal an abandonment of Western models of education (Selvaratnam 1988), with many pre-independence educational issues, such as lack of culturally relevant curricula (Bishop 1964; Schrouder 2008), still persisting. Focused on the need to foster economic development, governments pursued large-scale projects, including the construction of many new secondary schools, leading in some cases to “project overload” (London 1993), which in turn diminished the comprehensive implementational impact of educational expansion.

Since governments lacked the financial wherewithal to fuel these ambitious intentions for educational expansion, some of them procured loans:

Increased educational infrastructure was provided principally from heavy external borrowing. This was predicated on the positive economic circumstances that existed in most territories, especially during the decade of the sixties. By the late 1970s and 1980s, however, a combination of factors led to severe economic problems. The consequence was the adoption of structural adjustment policies, which from the point of view of most countries, brought more harm than good. The social sector was the major casualty. The implementation of structural adjustment policies contributed to the undermining of several new initiatives that had been implemented for the development of education. (UNESCO 1996, pp. 1–2)

Neoclassical economic reforms pursued by Helmut Kohl in Germany, Margaret Thatcher in the United Kingdom, and Ronald Reagan in the United States during the 1970s and 1980s shredded many a social nets around the world; the Caribbean was not immune to these major tectonic shifts in global capital (Lewis 2006). Austerity measures that accompanied structural adjustment programs usually meant drastic cuts at the expense of welfare provisions, such as health care and education. Between 1980 and 2000, educational expenditures accounted for less than 10% of the Caribbean governments’ gross domestic product (GDP) (Lewis 2006).

While Caribbean governments spent heavily on educational reform during the immediate post-independence period, the 1970s and 1980s, they experienced the first generation or wave of educational reforms. We advance that the wave of first generation reforms, during the 1970s and 1980s that focused on access, equity, and inclusion, had four distinctive institutional mechanisms that ran concurrently (Jules 2010). The institutional mechanisms are categorized as follows: (1) the institutional phase; (2) the oil crisis and structural adjustment phase; (3) the socialist and ideological pluralism phase; and (4) the HIV/AIDS generation phase.

First Generation of Reforms: The Institutional Phase

The first institutional reforms after independence began with the creation of a regional testing institution in the Anglophone countries. The Caribbean Examination Council (CXC) was established in 1972 within 15 of the now 16 members* (and admits external entries from St. Maarten, Saba, and the Netherlands Antilles) to conduct examinations as well as award certificates and diplomas (see [Table 12.3](#)). Its mandate is exerted through the Caribbean Secondary Education Certificate (CSEC) established in 1979 and the Caribbean Advanced Proficiency

* CXC members are Anguilla, Antigua and Barbuda, Barbados, Belize, the British Virgin Islands, the Cayman Islands, Dominica, Grenada, Guyana, Jamaica, Montserrat, St. Kitts and Nevis, St. Lucia, St. Vincent and the Grenadines, Trinidad and Tobago, and the Turks and Caicos Islands.

Table 12.3 Secondary School Exit Exam/High School Equivalency

| <i>Country</i> | <i>Secondary School Exit Exam/High School Equivalency</i> |
|--------------------------------|--|
| Antigua and Barbuda | CSEC/CAPE |
| Bahamas | Bahamas General Certificate of Secondary Education (BGCSE)/ CSEC/CAPE |
| Barbados | CSEC/CAPE |
| Belize | CSEC/CAPE |
| British Virgin Islands | CSEC/CAPE |
| Cuba | Bachillerato/Bachiller |
| Dominica | CSEC/CAPE |
| Dominican Republic | Bachiller/Bachillerato |
| Grenada | CSEC/CAPE |
| Guyana | CSEC/CAPE |
| Guadeloupe | Baccalauréat or Le Bac |
| Jamaica | CSEC/CAPE |
| Haiti | Baccalauréat II – Philosophie |
| Montserrat | CSEC/CAPE |
| Netherlands Antilles | HAVO (<i>Hoger Algemeen Voortgezet Onderwijs</i> or General Secondary Education diploma)/VWO (<i>Voorbereidend Wetenschappelijk Onderwijs</i> or preparatory middle-level vocational education)/MAVO (Junior Secondary Education)/BVO (Lower Vocational Education) |
| St. Kitts and Nevis | CSEC/CAPE |
| St. Lucia | CSEC/CAPE |
| St. Vincent and the Grenadines | CSEC/CAPE |
| Suriname | HAVO (<i>Hoger Algemeen Voortgezet Onderwijs</i>) or VWO (<i>Voorbereidend Wetenschappelijk Onderwijs</i>) |
| Trinidad and Tobago | CSEC/CAPE |

Source: Wright University, *High School Equivalency*. Retrieved from <http://www.wright.edu/ucie/student/highschool-equivalency.html>, n.d.

Examination (CAPE) that started in 1998. CSEC replaced the UK-based General Certificate Examination (O-Level) and tests students in both academic and technical/vocational subjects. CAPE replaced the Advanced Level General Certificate of Education (A-Level) and fulfills the requirements for programs and professional courses at regional and extra-regional universities and other tertiary level institutions (CARICOM 2005). Mathematics and English A exams are

mandatory, while students have a choice of 31 other CSEC subjects to choose from, including 28 subjects at the general proficiency and 5 at technical proficiency. Students can select any of the 16 CAPE examinations and may earn a diploma after completing six units and an associate degree after completing seven units including Caribbean Studies and Communication Studies. The University of the West Indies (UWI) has been a major contributor to the development and design of CXC and continues to be involved in providing policy directions as well as in the provision of technical and educational expertise (Hall and Chuck-A-Sang 2008). UWI and national universities that accept CXC expect that candidates must pass a minimum of five CSEC courses with grades 1–3 (A–C), with passes in English A and Mathematics.

In the non-Anglophone countries, testing at the end of secondary school is done within the parameters of the home country. For example, as Table 12.3 shows, students in Guadeloupe spend 3 years in the premier cycle (first cycle) in the *collège* and 4 years in the second cycle in the *lycée*, after which they sit for the academic qualification of the *baccalauréat* or *le bac*. In Haiti, a *Brevet Elementaire du Premier Cycle* is awarded under the traditional system and *revet d'Enseignement Fondamental* under the reform system after completion of lower secondary; a *Baccalaureat II* is awarded in the traditional system and *Baccalaureat or Diplome d'Enseignement Secondaire* is awarded under the reform system; and in other instances, a technical certificate is awarded after completion of technical secondary school.

First Generation of Reforms: The Oil Crises and Structural Adjustment Phase

The second sets of reforms during this period were in response to the oil crisis of 1973/1974 and the oil shock of 1977. These crises had wider structural effects because they conjoined with the then problems of the international capitalist system—“the rising oil prices and falling commodity process and the world inflation and recession” (Hall 2001, p. xiv). Combined, these crises devastated national economies and forced many countries to implement the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and World Bank backed Structural Adjustment Programs (SAPs). These reforms were geared toward fostering economic stabilization (which concentrated on stabilizing fiscal deficits, reducing balance of payments, and bringing staff inflation rates down), modifying trade regimes, reducing subsidies, changing tax policies, shrinking the public sector wage bill, and strengthening domestic markets. This caused the focus of the nation state to shift from “‘managing development’ to ‘facilitating development’ and from ‘inward-looking’ to ‘outward-looking’ development strategies” (Sutton 2006, p. 196) thus leading to the dismantling of local industries and the opening up of national borders to foreign imports and foreign direct investment.

This resulted in the devastation of local economies, massive social upheaval, and soaring debt. In education, SAPs were implemented under the guise of public sector reforms. For example, the SAP reform titled *the Economic Recovery Programme* of 1989 in Guyana, one of the first countries in the developing world to embark on structural adjustment from 1981 to 1983, focused on advancing economic growth through public sector restructuring. In education, this led to a public sector that focused on an “efficient, transparent, high-performing and dedicated organisation, which can serve as the engine and catalyst for national development of all the other sectors—private, non-profit, voluntary and nongovernmental” (Sutton 2006, p. 118). While SAPs had “a mere superficiality or tinkering with the public institutions, leaving their essential features intact” (Sutton 2006, p. 132), they completely restructured national educational systems, leading to decreases in teacher salaries, higher education spending, and greater emphases on improving efficiency and effectiveness.

First Generation of Reforms: The Socialism and Ideological Pluralism Phase

The third institutional transformation transpired in Cuba (1959–present), Grenada (1979–1983), Guyana (1971–1985), and Jamaica (1972–1978) as these countries fixated on developing egalitarian societies through various types of socialist reforms. While the Cuban Revolution of 1959 focused on communist reforms, the experimentations with different types of socialism in Grenada, Guyana, and Jamaica stemmed from the failure of the application of the development strategies of “industrialization by invitation (IBI)” (Campbell 2004; Lewis 1950; Payne 1984; Rose 2002) in the 1940s and “import-substitution industrialization (ISI)” (Baer 1972; Beckford 1972) which was developed by the United Nations Economic Commission of Latin America (ECLAC) and first introduced in the 1950s. IBI was applied to other Caribbean countries after being successfully tested in Puerto Rico.* It focused on replacing plantation economies through the lowering of tariffs, increasing incentives, and attracting foreign investment to decrease unemployment, thereby raising GDP and gross national product (GNP). ISI concentrated on achieving “national autonomy through state control and planning of the economy under a middle class comprised of intellectuals and industrialists” to ensure the “development of economic and political policies designed to restrict foreign interests” (Rose 2002, p. 35). The goal of applying both of these economic development strategies to national systems was to develop local human capital and to wean off external dependency that was part of the colonial legacy.

By the late 1970s, several factors continued to curtail development regionally: underemployment, high population growth rates, shortage of foreign currencies, weak and vulnerable production structures, brain drain, and high levels of external corporate capital and proprietorship of key resources (Beckford 1972; Rose 2002). Guyana, under Prime Minister Linden Forbes Sampson Burnham[†]; Jamaica, underneath Prime Minister Michael Norman Manley[‡]; and Grenada, under Prime Minister Maurice Rupert Bishop[§] opted for various forms of socialism (Hall 2003; Jules 2010). This political fragmentation within Anglophone countries in the region or “ideological pluralism” (a phrase coined by Caribbean Community [CARICOM] leaders in the early 1980s) indicated the varying developmental ideologies of its member states. Politically, ideological pluralism also represented the inability of the Conference of Heads of Government of the Caribbean Community (CHGCC), the highest body within the Caribbean, to meet between 1975 and 1982, thus redefining economic and social development between CARICOM countries. Below, we briefly describe the impact of various socialist projects upon education across the Caribbean Basin.

Popular Socialist Education in Cuba

With popular socialism in Cuba, education reform had three periods: (1) mass education (1959–1962); (2) education for economic development (1962–1968); and (3) crafting the new citizen (1965–1990) (see Gott 2004). The first reform commenced with the Cuban Literacy Campaign

* The Puerto Rican strategy called “Operation Bootstrap” was based on drawing US entrepreneurs to the island in order to provide private investment, social capital, and infrastructure bankrolled through the sale of US bonds. Additionally, US firms were persuaded to locate industrial sites there through elaborate incentive programs that gave tax concessions, grants, subsidized rentals and utility rates, and low wage rates.

[†] Prime minister from 1964 to 1980 and president from 1980 to 1985 of the People’s National Congress (PNC).

[‡] Prime minister between 1972 and 1980 and 1989 and 1992 and member of the People’s National Party (PNP).

[§] After the 1979 Coup d’état, self-proclaimed prime minister from 1979 to 1983 and member of the New Jewel Movement (NJM).

of 1961, or “Year of Education.” The literacy campaign focused on eradicating widespread illiteracy by concentrating on political and economic development as a way of creating a unified Communist *conciencia* (see Blum 2011; Carnoy 2007; Philip et al. 2008). The campaign created literacy brigades that built schools, trained new educators, and taught reading and writing to create a skilled labor force. In the late 1950s, numerous army barracks acted as schools, and in the mid-1960s, boarding schools were created to educate revolutionary citizens and inspire greater participation for rural women in the emerging industrial society. Polytechnical education, which emphasized the ability to learn scientific principles and handle tools and equipment, emerged as a way to foster collectivism.

By the 1960s, Cuba achieved great strides in eradicating illiteracy and expanding mass schooling. In the 1970s, it shifted from quantitative gains to qualitative improvements with the emergence of closer ties with the Soviet Union. In 1971, new reforms began after the *First National Congress on Education and Culture* and at the 1971 conference, delegates endorsed revisions and enhancements in the structure of education since dropout rates were high (particularly in rural areas), the curriculum was outdated, textbooks were inappropriate, and teacher training programs were inadequate (Carnoy 2007; Jules 2013b). At the *Second Congress for Young Communists* in 1972, delegates called for drastic interventions for youths who had antisocial behavior, especially those who had not studied or worked. The Congress also advocated for tenth graders to teach, in the countryside, at the secondary level. With the creation of the “Five-Year Plan in 1976–1981,” classroom hours were increased and the number of schooling years reduced from 13 to 12. After the Mariel boatlift in 1980, when over 125,000 Cubans fled the nation, educational reforms were given attention, particularly teacher education. The end of the Cold War saw a drastic increase in rural to urban migrations and a new set of educational reforms. These reforms decreased the educational budget leading to the restructuring of stipends (that were rebranded as student loans) and slight curricula and pedagogical modifications—including the replacement of Russian with English as the desired foreign language and the introduction of civic education in ninth grade.

Cooperative Socialist Education in Guyana

Cooperative socialism in Guyana was twofold in that it focused on involving Guyanese in their country’s economy and ridding the country of the effects of dependent capitalist development. Eighty percent of the commanding heights (the key economic sectors) were nationalized (Hall 2001; Jules 2010; Richardson 1992). Education reforms focused on producing employment opportunities, equalizing the distribution of incomes, increasing equitable geographic distribution of economic activities, and attaining self-sustained economic growth (Lee 2000; Rose 2002). Reforms were based on de-privatizing and expanding mass schooling. Education was made free from nursery to university, a new teachers training college was built, and a new secondary school of excellence—the President’s College—was introduced. Cooperative socialism lasted until Burnham’s death in 1985, and at that time, many primary and secondary teachers were not paid on time; illiteracy increased sharply as students failed their primary and secondary school exit examinations; and the university level suffered since it had more qualified staff than they could afford (Rose 2002). During the 1990s, major reforms occurred including the National Fourth-Form Achievement Test in 1988, the enactment of the Primary Education Improvement Project by the Inter-American Development Bank (IDB) in 1990, the secondary School Reform Programme, and the inauguration of user fees at the University of Guyana.

Democratic Socialist Education in Jamaica

Democratic socialism in Jamaica used the concept of “single touchstone of right and wrong” and a belief in the Christian ideals of equity for all of God’s children as its foundation (Rose 2002, p. 245). Reforms were geared toward improving the livelihoods of Jamaicans and increasing political participation. Attention was given to equity through the replacement of the British educational system while expanding mass schooling at the primary and secondary levels. The public school age requirements for primary school education increased from 15 to 17. Teacher training programs were restructured since “teachers needed to undergo a process of self-transformation ... [including] comprehen[sion of] a new set of objectives ... [and] evolv[ing] a new set of techniques that can give effect to new targets” (Rose 2002, p. 260). In 1972, the Jamaican Movement for the Advancement of Literacy (JAMAL) Foundation was created and a national adult literacy program were implemented. All educational fees were removed to allow children to pass “through similarly endowed institutions wherein they must mix regardless of parental background” (Rose 2002, p. 260). However, by 1978, democratic socialism had begun to collapse. Facing numerous internal problems in public agencies, Jamaica instigated negotiations with the IMF’s Extended Fund Facility since its foreign exchange reserves were declining, creating a negative growth rate.

Revolutionary Socialist Education in Grenada

In 1979, with the support of Cuba, Guyana, and Jamaica, the Marxist-Leninist New Jewel Movement, under former president Maurice Bishop and the People’s Revolutionary Government (PRG), enacted revolutionary socialism in Grenada. The PRG focused on rebuilding Grenada’s economy after the apparent economic destruction caused by former president Eric Gairy’s 1967–1979 government. The socialist theory of noncapitalist development and the principles and doctrines of Marxism-Leninism aimed at mobilizing the masses were enacted (Payne 1984; Rose 2002). Revolutionary socialism in Grenada represented a new political culture aimed at participatory democracy. Education reforms were based on five programs designed to provide access to everyone: (1) the “Continuous Education Program,” focused on eradicating rural illiteracy especially among adults; (2) the “National-in-Service Teacher Education Programme (NISTEP),” replaced the Grenada Teacher’s College; (3) “Education for All,” provided free secondary schooling; (4) “New Content in Curriculum,” focused on developing history, culture, and Grenadian values; and (5) “Work-Study Approach,” aimed at helping students find adequate labor-intensive and technological skills (Rose 2002, pp. 311–315). The expansion of mass schooling was seen as emancipating “the masses from ignorance and a sense of cultural inferiority” (Rose 2002, p. 310). CARICOM members trying to contain “socialism to a country” sanctioned the 1983 US-led “invasion or intervention” (Clegg and Williams 2013) of Grenada. The revolution formally ended with the death of Prime Minister Maurice Bishop. The invasion soured regional relations and led to the demise of revolutionary socialism in the Caribbean.

First Generation of Reforms: The HIV/AIDS Generation Phase

In the 1980s, education reform centered on combating HIV/AIDS.* The adult HIV infection rate, of 1%, is second globally to sub-Saharan Africa (UNAIDS and WHO 2009). Caribbean

* HIV/AIDS is the leading cause of death among 25–44-year-olds across the region.

youth and teachers are part of the “AIDS generation” (Kiragu 2001; Jules 2012a) because of two specific indicators: (1) the high prevalence rate of HIV/AIDS in the region and (2) the youth of the Caribbean coming of age in a region plagued by the epidemic; it is an everyday fact of life for them (Jules 2012a). The high prevalence rate of HIV/AIDS in the Caribbean has significantly impacted the teaching profession and influenced the performance, retention, training, and recruitment of teachers (see Risley et al. 2007). In other words, the projection on the effect of HIV and AIDS on education supply in the Caribbean using the Ed-SIDA model* (Grassly et al. 2003; World Bank and Partnership for Child Development 2006) can be viewed as having either quantity effects (loss of trained teacher, fewer teachers due to AIDS mortality, and lack of attendance) or quality effects (a decreased teacher capability and management capacity) representing an approximate loss of 12,000 teachers by 2015 (see Risley et al. 2007). Furthermore, it has removed “wage-earners from employment, deflect[ed] resources to medical and health care, and draw[n] down on savings and capital” (Kelly and Bain 2003, p. 45) while engendering losses of professional personnel, increases in truancy, medical care spending, and the cost needed to recruit and train auxiliary labor. Coupled with these facts, students and youth of childbearing ages continue to be affected. Allen (2002) found that 55% of boys and 24% of girls had sexual intercourse prior to age 10 (last year of primary school) while an additional 23% of boys and 16% of girls reported that they had engaged in sexual activity between the ages of 11 and 12 (first year of secondary school).

It was not until the 1990s that educational reforms focused on prevention, de-stigmatization, acclimatization, and the rights of people living with HIV and AIDS. Several countries have developed national HIV/AIDS policies with the help of the Pan Caribbean Health Organization. In 1994, a Health and Family Life Education (HFLE) Curriculum (see chapter 17 in this book), proposed by and developed in CARICOM countries, was created to help educate students aged 9 to 14 on health issues. Its aims included the following:

- Enhancing the potential of young persons to become productive and contributing adults/citizens
- Promoting an understanding of the principles that underlie personal and social well-being
- Fostering the development of knowledge, skills, and attitudes that make for healthy family life
- Providing opportunities to demonstrate sound health-related knowledge, attitudes, and practices
- Increasing the ability to practice responsible decision making about social and sexual behavior
- Heightening the awareness of children and youth of the fact that the choices they make in everyday life profoundly influence their health and personal development into adulthood (UNICEF 2009, p. 5)

In 2003, CARICOM countries endorsed a shift from HFLE using an “information-based model to a skills development model” (p. 3) that now has four thematic areas: sexuality and sexual health (which encompasses HIV/AIDS prevention); self and interpersonal relationships (which

* The Ed-SIDA mode was developed to measure the impact of HIV on education sector by using sophisticated and in-depth evaluations and projections for multiple countries or multiple regions within individual countries. Ed-SIDA Model of Impact of HIV on Education used Ministries of Education data on teacher numbers, teacher training and recruitment, and school-age population projections. It then generates results that discusses AIDS mortality in relation to teacher attrition rates, teacher absenteeism, loss arising from AIDS illness, and recruitment changes and impact of pupil–teacher ratios.

incorporates violence prevention); appropriate eating and fitness; and managing the environment (UNICEF et al. 2008).

In sum, the four institutional mechanisms of educational reforms, under the first generation of reforms, ensured that “by the early 1980s, several Caribbean countries had developed impressive education systems, relative to many other countries with comparable per capita income” (World Bank 1993, p. xiv). These institutional developments focused on applying different types of structural transformations in creating an educated citizenry.

Second Generation of Reforms: 1989–2000

While educational reforms of the 1980s and 1990s fostered great strides in several areas—namely, high enrollment rates at the pre-primary levels, universal primary education (almost 100%), the availability of secondary education, and the creation of several national colleges and universities—numerous challenges remained at the end of the 1990s, including the lack of classroom material, upkeep of physical plant and equipment, increases in prices of and decline in resources, and large-scale exodus of teachers (Jules 2010; UNESCO 1996). By 1990, the altering global landscape with the end of the Cold War saw the start of the second generation of educational reforms which we categorize as having three idiosyncratic institutional mechanisms: (1) neoliberalism and education; (2) tertiary education phase; and (3) international benchmarks and regional consequences, all of which occurred concurrently. This period began with the application of neoliberalism, which had drastic effects on tertiary education, and was also marked by foci on creating and meeting internal benchmarks and regional targets. In the section that follows, we will cover the impact that neoliberalism, internationalization, and regionalization had on education in the Caribbean, in addition to the topics of tertiary education and international benchmarks. [Table 12.2](#) illustrates some of the individual country-specific reforms that were undertaken.

Second Generation of Reforms: Neoliberalism and Education

The first phase of the second generation of reforms began with the application of Thatcherism and Reaganomics in the region as countries sought to meet international educational targets by focusing on privatizing, trade liberalization, and deregulation of a bloated public sector. The core thinking behind neoliberalist policy interventions is that youth must “chase credentials” (Jackson and Bisset 2005; Lakes and Carter 2011) to gain successful employment. The core principles of neoliberalism, with their antecedents in the Washington Consensus model of development, focus on “cut[ting] back the state, open[ing] trade, reduce[ing] social spending, deregulate[ing] and privatize[ing]” national systems (Bedford 2007, p. 291; see Griffith 2010 for the consequence of neoliberalism in the Caribbean). This particular model of educational reform has given rise to “educational fundamentalism” (Jones 1997) and “educational multilateralism” (Mundy 1998). The former describes the World Bank’s and IMF’s vigorous increase in educational financing based on their perspective of the “bankable” aspects of tangible resources. The latter details the institutionalization of “embedded liberalism” as a core attribute and mandate of multilateralism institutions in the postwar period.

In the Caribbean, the application of principles of neoliberalism occurred in the late 1980s as part of a boarder trickledown effect by international organizations and governmental officials as they sought to restructure national educational systems after the so-called “lost decade” of the 1980s—used to describe the efficacy of the debt crisis stemming from the global recession of the 1970s and 1980s after the 1973–1974 oil crisis and the 1977 oil shocks (see Jules 2013a, 2013b).

The principles of neoliberalism were applied to the Caribbean region as a corrective mechanism to reverse the negatively diagnosed public educational sector that was viewed as being ineffective (see Puiggrós 1999). Neoliberal policies were designed to be different from the policies implemented during the post-colonial period of the 1960s that focused on egalitarianism and emphasized a bare minimum public education system “thus making the state a peripheral rather than principal supporter of education” (Puiggrós 1999, p. 69). With the decline of the public sector during the 1980s, these free market reforms focused on institutional economics and political economies (Brinkerhoff and Crosby 2002; Jules 2012b). Sutton (2006) notes that many Caribbean countries sought to restructure their position in the global economy by focusing on structural reforms as well as structural adjustments. As countries repositioned themselves, human capital approaches—education and development viewed as political pursuits and driven by the market approach—were implemented within the public educational system to improve efficiency, quality, and accountability. During the 1970s and 1980s, three countries (Guyana, Jamaica, and Grenada) experimented with socialism as a development trajectory; however, it is with the United States’ subsequent “intervention or invasion” (Clegg and Williams 2013; Jules 2013a, 2013b) in Grenada in 1983 that we see the rise of neoliberalism being conjoined inextricably to education across the region in the form of providing governments needed access to international financing in developing democratic institutions and restricting the further spread of socialism. International financing came in the form of “adjustment facilities” or structural adjustment policies and programs that directed public educational spending away from secondary and higher education and toward basic education. Basic education was transferred to communities in the form of a quasi-decentralization and the enactment of user fees at all levels to ensure parental involvement. This meant that Caribbean countries focused on attaining international competitiveness by investing in and developing human capital. While neoliberalism metamorphosed in different ways when applied across the region, a few salient features occurred as the educational sector restructured, namely, decentralizing of management, a focus on efficient management through performance evaluation, and an increase in service delivery mechanisms. In the Caribbean, the neoliberal orthodoxy of Thatcherism was implemented, which decreased state intervention, opened access to the free market economy, embraced monetarist economic policy, privatized state-owned industries, lowered direct taxation and raised indirect taxation, opposed trade unions, and reduced the size of the welfare state. Reaganomics used supply side economics—generating growth by stimulating a greater quantity of goods and services, and thereby increasing jobs—to reduce domestic budgets and implement extensive tax cuts for individuals and international businesses. The implementation of the policies created rollbacks in the educational gains of the 1980s as governments reduced public sector expenditures to curb ballooning budgets (World Bank 1993). These reforms led to drastic cuts in primary education.

Second Generation of Reforms: Tertiary Education Phase

The second phase of the second generation began at the tertiary level, a sector of education, which sits narrowly atop the pyramid of education enrollment in the Caribbean:

When tertiary enrolment is compared with primary and secondary enrolment within the region the picture that emerges is a broad base at the primary and secondary levels but a very narrow apex at the tertiary level. The apex narrows even further if only university education is considered. Only 2 to 4 percent for students within the region are enrolled in university education. (Miller 2000b, p. 126)

Accessing tertiary education also seems to intersect with social class. The dual education system, which has remained essentially unchanged from the colonial era, features students from the elite attending the pre-independence schools, while post-independence schools generally feature students from families with lower socioeconomic backgrounds (London 1994). Seeing that the tertiary system is accessed based upon completion and performance at the secondary level, it is not “unreasonable to assume that tertiary education is similarly biased” (Miller 2000b, p. 132).

Although tertiary education enrollment is much smaller compared to other sectors of the educational sphere, there have been some reforms. Tertiary education reform in the 1980s focused on upgrading education facilities in territories such as the University of Havana (founded in 1728), *l'Université d'Etat d'Haiti* (founded in 1944), University of Technology in Jamaica (founded in 1958), University of the Virgin Islands (founded in 1962), the University of Guyana (founded in 1963), the Anton de Kom University of Suriname (founded in 1968), and the University of the Netherlands Antilles in Curacao (founded in 1973). From the late 1980s, some countries constructed new universities including the *l'Universite Quisqueya* (founded in 1988), University of St. Maarten (founded in 1989), the University of Trinidad and Tobago (founded in 2010), and the University of Technology, formally named so in 1995 by combining the College of Arts, Science and Technology—CAST and University of Belize (formerly the College of Belize).

With the expanded focus on access to higher education, the current models of tertiary education in the Caribbean are divided between the countries, which are members of the University of the West Indies (UWI) system, and those, which have national institutions. UWI was established as the University College of the West Indies (UCWI) in 1948 with one campus at Mona, Jamaica, and 15 of the now 16 contributing countries (with Bermuda joining in 2010). Its current membership is 18 countries and territories across 4 campuses in Cave Hill (in Barbados), Mona (in Jamaica), St. Augustine (in Trinidad), and the Open Campus* (launched in 2008). The Open Campus is a virtual campus that offers online degrees and has 42 physical site locations in 16 countries.

At the beginning of the 1990s, several countries with national universities that provided free higher education, such as Guyana, began charging students recovery or user fees as part of the conditionalities attached to IMF and World Bank loans. Some territories have established community colleges, such as The College of The Bahamas, the Barbados Community College, John Donaldson Polytechnic in Trinidad and Tobago, and Sir Arthur Lewis in St. Lucia. While the University of Guyana, Faculty of Law; *l'Université d'Etat d'Haiti*, Faculty of Law and Economics; and the Anton de Kom University, Department of Law, Faculty of Social Sciences have their own law faculties, only the law schools located in the Bahamas, Jamaica, and Trinidad and Tobago provide training and certification for persons wishing to practice law in the region. Impelled by the drive toward regional competition, several offshore universities have been established. The most notable is St. George's University located in Grenada that started its medical school in 1981 and has since expanded to other faculties.

By 1995 and toward the beginning of the new millennium, the consequences of the General Agreement on Trade and Services (GATS) in the Caribbean led to the “massification” (Hall and Chuck-A-Sang 2008) of higher education. GATS legally enforced the rights to trade in services particularly in cross-border delivery, consumption abroad, commercial presence, and the presence of natural persons (the right of any citizen to set up an operate a business). The opening up of service to trade has led to greater mobility of teachers and students. This began with open

* The Open Campus is an amalgamation of the previous Office of the Board for Non-Campus Countries and Distance Education (BNNCDE), the School of Continuing Studies (SCS), the UWI Distance Education Centre (UWIDEC), and the Tertiary Level Institutions Unit (TLIU).

competition between regional and national institutions for students in addition to the rise of private, for-profit, and offshore universities in the region, which has also led to deeper competition in creating greater access. The logic behind this was that there needed to be a movement from the traditional elite system to a system of mass tertiary education in a global era premised upon accessing the knowledge economy (Hall and Chuck-A-Sang 2008). For example, Barbados notes that 55% of the 19–30-year-old cohort should have access to tertiary education by 2015 and Trinidad and Tobago states that 60% of that cohort is expected to have access by 2020. However, significant disparity still exists between cross-border accesses in higher education.

Second Generation of Reforms: International Benchmarks and Regional Consequences

The third phase of the second generation of reforms was inaugurated with the commitments of national governments to combat the perceived challenges described above, in education, as part of an increasingly internationalized effort. Governments committed themselves in 1990 in Jomtien, Thailand, toward providing EFA since education was deemed a human right. Governments also devoted themselves to making primary education accessible and significantly reducing illiteracy before the end of 2000, a target that came and passed without being comprehensively met. With the focus on EFA mandates, illiteracy was seen as one of the main hindrances to productivity in the Caribbean, and while primary school access was comparatively high, secondary school coverage stood at 50% or less (UNESCO 1996).

This commitment set off a new wave of national and regional reforms that focused on aligning national goals to international commitment. During the first half of the 1990s, countries in the region had partaken in numerous conferences that called for greater commitments to access in basic education, namely, the “World Summit for Children (1990), the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (1992), the World Conference on Human Rights (1993), the World Conference on Special Needs Education: Access and Quality (1994), the International Conference on Population and Development (1994), the World Summit for Social Development (1995), the Fourth World Conference on Women (1995), the Mid-Term Meeting of the International Consultative Forum on Education for All (1996), the Fifth International Conference on Adult Education (1997), and the International Conference on Child Labour (1997)” (as cited in World Education Forum 2000). These commitments sought to ensure that national governments were aware of the changing global environment and the new skillsets, along with the new demands of educational systems needed to facilitate the smooth transition to the world of work.

In addition to focusing on access, equity, quality, efficiency, and accountability, reforms during this period paid close attention to teacher education, since UNESCO (1996) identified that several factors were undermining the teaching profession. Some factors included the role of the home environment in under-preparing children to receive instruction in school, absence of respect for teacher authority, overcrowded classrooms, shortage of teacher autonomy, and the inability of teachers to personify the principles which they espouse. Despite near universal primary school enrollments, many education systems across the Caribbean were still bedeviled by underachievement (Miller 2000a). The statement that “the colonial model of education has proved remarkably resilient, difficult to dislodge even today” (Lewis and Lewis 1985, p. 159) gains much salience in light of some of the enduring contemporary educational issues in the Caribbean. For example, vocational education has not been entirely destigmatized; lack of sufficient technical education has resulted in (wo)manpower shortages, thereby contributing to hobbled development (Lewis and Lewis 1985); lack of a

pan-Caribbean systematic way of defining and measuring literacy(ies) (Jules and Panneflekk 2000); and uneven levels of efficiency in human capital development (i.e., disequilibrium between inputs, such as per pupil expenditures and number of trained teachers, outputs such as performance on English and Mathematics, and the repetition rate) (Schrouder 2008).

To combat these perceived aforementioned challenges, the third phase of the second generation of educational reform began. Within the Anglophone countries, several regional initiatives were created, including the *Regional Strategy for Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET)* adopted in 1990 and the *Regional Education Policy: The Future in the Caribbean* adopted in 1993 by 12 out of the now 15 CARICOM countries. At the subregional level, seven of the now nine members of the OECS approved their first subregional educational policy (the *Foundations for the Future [FFF] of the Organization of Eastern Caribbean States [OECS] Education Reform Strategy* developed in 1990). With the international and regional focus on basic education, by 1997, the CARICOM Council of Human and Social Development (COHSOD) endorsed a regional development strategy called *Vision of the Ideal Caribbean Person*. The vision stressed that the person

- Is imbued with a respect for human life since it is the foundation on which all other desires must rest.
- Is emotionally secure with a high level of self-confidence and self-esteem.
- Sees ethnic, religious, and other diversity as a source of potential strength and richness.
- Is aware of the importance of living in harmony with the environment.
- Has a strong appreciation of family and kinship values, community cohesion, and moral issues including responsibility for and accountability to self and community.
- Has an informed respect for our cultural heritage.
- Demonstrates multiple literacies, independent and critical thinking, questions the beliefs and practices of past and present and brings this to bear on the innovative application of science and technology to problem solving.
- Demonstrates a positive work ethic.
- Values and displays the creative imagination in its various manifestations and nurtures its development in the economic and entrepreneurial spheres in other areas of life.
- Has developed the capacity to create and take advantage of opportunities to control, improve, maintain and promote physical, mental, social, and spiritual well-being and to contribute to the health and welfare of the community and country.
- Nourishes, in self and in others, the fullest development of each person's potential without gender stereotyping and embraces differences and similarities between females and males as a source of mutual strength (CARICOM 1997).

With the shift in the global environment towards standardized commitments, attention at the regional level, in the form of a “Vision of the Ideal Caribbean citizen” (CARICOM 1997) or “the neo-Caribbean citizen” (Jules 2014), turned toward developing citizens for the Caribbean Single Market that came into effect in 2006. The focus on the single market in Anglophone countries saw the reemergence of the concept of transactional costs—its being cheaper and more beneficial to economic regionalism—reemerged since “economic exchanges are mediated, with markets and hierarchies (states) forming the two ends of an institutional continuum” (Brinkerhoff and Crosby 2002, p. 4). This regional vision focused on ensuring that CARICOM nationals were equipped with the relevant skills to ensure that they took advantage of the Caribbean Single Market and Economy (CSME) while contributing to national development. This shift was promulgated by the World Bank's (2003) cautionary note that “the alienation of many youth is a serious social

problem, exemplified by prevalent drug abuse, crime, and teenage pregnancy” (p. xiii). To address this changing environment, Caribbean countries soon implemented national reforms, for example, by 1997 the Bahamas, Barbados, and Trinidad and Tobago had established education task forces or commissions on education (see Jules 2008) and the subregional education document *The Pillars for Partnership and Progress* was developed by 2000.

During the third phase of the second generation, a second international commitment emerged, which focused on implementing the educational targets of the MDGs. The MDGs called for universal primary education by 2015 and the elimination of gender disparity in primary and secondary education by 2005 and in all levels of education by 2015. However, given the progress of current targets, the MDGs will not be met. In responding to the “fundamental global changes which had overtaken the community in spite of the gains in national building of reform” (Strachan 1996, p. 7), CARICOM and the Organization of Eastern Caribbean States (OECS) responded differently by setting different targets for their member states. For example, CHGCC 18 (1997) agreed that a focus on prioritizing policy implementation at the regional level included the attainment of 15% enrollment (as against 7%–8% then) of the post-secondary group in tertiary-level education by the year 2005 and universal quality secondary education by the same date (Hall and Chuck-A-Sang 2008; Jules 2008; Lewis 2010). For example, to achieve this goal, several countries established state-level machineries to monitor the implementation of national programs. CARICOM’s members set up a high-level technical group at the regional level to monitor the achievement of goals and evaluate the impact of these programs.

In summary, with the focus on creating citizens for the regional and international market place, policies called for competitive citizens. As a result, reforms during this period focused on such a task.

Third Generation of Reforms: 2002–Present-Day

The third generation of educational reforms began in 2000 with the reconfirmation in Dakar, Senegal at the World Forum on Education of efforts toward EFA. This summit led to the signing of *The Dakar Framework for Action Education for All: Meeting Our Collective Commitments*; such a document recognized the shortfalls in the global pursuit of the 1990 EFA targets. The Dakar Framework called for EFA goals and targets to be met and sustained by 2015. This period has sought to respond to lessons learned from the intra-Caribbean-policy dialogue that was based on developing a competitive and mobile regional labor force, and meeting regional benchmarks. This period is shaped by the institutional mechanisms of (1) stakeholder participatory involvement; (2) regional and national accreditation; and (3) gender issues.

Third Generation of Reforms: International Aid, Knowledge Banks, and Stakeholder Participatory Involvement

At the beginning of the twenty-first century, several policy challenges were identified as affecting the Caribbean workforce, including the inability of citizens to develop new digital literacies to master new technologies; the decline of low skilled jobs; deficiency of multilingual literacies; the changing nature of employability; failure to continuously upgrade professional, technical, and managerial competence in the public and private sectors; shortage of new private public partnerships; and scarcity of an entrepreneurial and innovative culture (CARICOM 2005). During this period, educational reforms reflected the complex interactions between policy statutes,

stakeholders, and implementers. Brinkerhoff and Crosby (2002) argue that this generation of reforms has advocated for policy tools that are more useful to policy makers in helping them guide policy development and implementation. Thus, countries with support from “international knowledge banks” (Jones 2004), such as the World Bank and IMF, began supporting national policies that were based on poverty eradication and had a core element of local stakeholder participation at their center.

The successor to SAPs, the Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs) set out macroeconomic, structural, and social policies to stimulate growth and reduce poverty. PRSP reforms are country-driven, result-oriented, comprehensive, partnership-oriented and have a long-term perspective (IMF 2012). For example, since 2000, Dominica, Grenada, Guyana, and Haiti have undertaken PRSP reforms focused on reducing poverty. Knowledge banks first assessed these countries’ macroeconomic, structural, and social policies and programs and then they were given external financing. World Bank and IMF staffers, in collaboration with segments of civil society and other national development partners and donor agencies, prepared the PRSPs along with national governments. Several countries qualified for additional donor aid that allowed them to implement prescriptions from international knowledge banks. For example, both Guyana and Haiti qualify as members of the IMF and World Bank’s Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) initiative that makes them potentially eligible to receive debt relief. These countries are categorized as reaching the “completion point” because they have made significant progress in implementing their PRSP reforms and can demonstrate macroeconomic stability. Since 2001, the region has been using the theme of *Investing in Human Resources with Equity* as a framework for activities in human and social development. CARICOM has even established a group of experts (Futures Policy Group), coordinated by COHSOD, to work in close collaboration with a network of regional and international institutions.

Third Generation of Reforms: Accreditation

A second shift is accreditation that allows for the portability across the region of skilled nationals, whether they are Guyanese doctors that are being trained in Cuba or St. Lucian teachers working in the Bahamas. UNESCO (1998) notes that countries “have the right and the duty to regulate the provision of education, including the licensing of schools and universities, the accreditation of courses, and ensuring that course contents are culturally appropriate” (as cited in Hall and Chuck-A-Sang 2008, p. 312). Consequently, national accreditation bodies exist in the region but their mandates and methods of functioning differ somewhat from each other, rendering them unable to adequately transfer and interpret national qualifications. So as to address this issue, particularly in higher education, in 1991, the Association of Caribbean Tertiary Institutions (ACTI) was developed to coordinate tertiary education standards. Currently, the ACTI has seven regional universities as members. In 2004, the Regional Accreditation Mechanism (RAM), linked to National Accreditation Bodies (NAB) with the 15 members of CARICOM and its five observer members, came on stream. RAM is anchored in the Revised Treaty of Chaguaramas (see CARICOM 2001) and facilitates the implementation of the policy of free movement of skilled nationals. One important feature of a competency-based system developed by RAM was that it facilitated in the certification of prior experience (however attained) and vocational qualifications (VQs), based on agreed-upon standards at the regional level that can be assessed by employers in other countries. The Caribbean Vocational Qualifications (CVQs) aim at accrediting standards and ensuring the uniform delivery of competency-based technical and vocational education,

training and certification within the CSME so as to ensure acceptance and recognition of the qualification/certification throughout the Caribbean and the international community.

Third Generation of Reforms: Gender

The final set of ongoing reforms focus on gender issues. Amid global efforts to increase gender parity in education, several Caribbean countries have achieved balance in access to education; however, now graduation rates are higher among girls, augmenting concerns about the rise of male underachievement. UNICEF (2003) notes, “in Latin America and the Caribbean, boys generally have higher repetition rates and lower academic achievement levels than girls, and in some countries, a higher rate of absenteeism” (p. 61). The crisis of male underachievement has led national governments to address the drop in enrollment for boys. For example, the MOE of Grenada (as cited in Lewis 2010) has noted that dropout rates over time have increased from 0.7% in 1996/1997 to 2% in 2002/2003. Gender issues have gained significance with the focus in many countries on the HFLE. Some researchers posit that perhaps the greatest threat to education in the region is male under achievement (see Bailey and Bernard 2009).

Post-2015 MDGS and Education in the Caribbean

In 2000, almost 150 countries signed onto the Millennium Declaration. This was a commitment to reducing poverty around the world, and achieving universal primary education was one of the eight goals established to operationalize this commitment. The year 2015 is upon us and the world is gauging the successes and the failures. The Caribbean has seen some reduction in poverty, though inequalities persist and there are “notable differences between and within countries” as regards universal primary education (UNESCO 2013, p. 4). Latin American and Caribbean leaders have pledged to focus on increased financing of public education, gender equality, education for sustainable development, overall educational quality, teacher education, and equity issues as regards the disadvantaged and the marginalized (UNESCO 2014).

Conclusion

This chapter presented a historical overview that shows that in the immediate aftermath of self-determination, countries in the Caribbean recognized the shifting environment from human capital development to macroeconomic policy development. As countries sought to shift from plantation economies to industrialized ones, they began spending on education and health reform to address issues of equitable access and quality (Lewis 2010). The emphasis on national education policy making shifted from creating a capable elite workforce for the colonial bureaucracy to a national curriculum that concentrated on development relevant to each country’s situation and environment. For example, by providing educational grants focused on reducing the urban–rural divide and by closing the gender gap across the region. In the 1980s, educational reform to improve human capital placed emphasis on creating Caribbean nationals for the regional and international markets.

Second, we argued that in the 1990s with the shift to economic tourism and services and abolishment of preferential trading agreements, such as the Lomé IV convention, Caribbean countries saw a shift in education that focused on tackling the challenges of a liberalized global environment, preferring innovation and competitiveness. Human resource development became

linked to the ability to use and develop creative talents and skills, find employment, contribute to development, and protect against communicable and noncommunicable diseases, particularly HIV/AIDS. While individual countries have been responsible for the national development of human resources, several regional and subregional educational strategies have called for the specific development of human resources so as to aid in the development of regional and subregional integrative projects. For example, with CARICOM countries, these various initiatives saw COHSOD in 2002 approving 16 regional standards in occupational areas and the establishment of a regional coordinating mechanism TVET (CARICOM 2005).

Finally, we noted that the development of education in the Caribbean has been impelled and shaped by both domestic and peripheral forces and trajectories. This notion of the “public sector” in the Caribbean certainly took on increased prominence in the periods directly prior to and after independence. Governments of independent nations in the Caribbean in the 1960s found themselves confronted by severely constrained “public sectors” and capacities for public administration (Sutton 2006). Public sector administration was viewed as pivotal to development, “however, it soon became apparent that the administrative system, inherited from . . . and reconstructed in the imperial system to provide control over the colonial state, was inadequate” for this task (Sutton 2006, p. xi). The educative sphere was no exception to this developmental challenge; the educational systems that post-independence governments attempted to deploy as part of their public administrative efforts to drive growth and development were indeed legacies and structures that owed their genesis to many years of colonial policies and practices.

We conclude by acknowledging that the Caribbean region, despite limited resources, has made tremendous strides in educational expansion and provision (Peters 2001). However, in this age of rapid globalization, small states face considerable risks (Louisy 2001): international drug trade, climate change, high incidence of HIV/AIDS and other diseases, youth unemployment, and violence. Some Caribbeanists have rung the neocolonialist alarm in the face of exogenously initiated educational reforms, while others have posited greater Caribbean regionalism and integration as a way to navigate these and other global currents: “the failure to place education reform as central to that agenda is a major and strategic flaw in the ongoing efforts to position the Caribbean better for survival in the globalisation process” (Jules 2010, p. 89). Yet, others have noted that the continued dependence on donor aid has created a development dependency upon donors to fund projects. Moreover, recent studies (Jules 2012a, 2012b, 2013a) have shown that Caribbean countries are now in their fourth cycle of education reforms that actively began in 1992 with the development of the first and only regional educational plan for the Anglophone Caribbean. However, national educational plans, strategies, white papers, green papers, or policies often speak different policy languages (national, regional, and global) to different policy audiences (national constituencies, regional institutions, and aid donors) which give rise to what Jules (2012b, 2013b) has labeled as “policy trilingualism.” The concept of policy trilingualism—the ability of national governments to speak, in their educational policies, a national policy language for locals, a regional language that shows commitment to the regional integrative project and an international language based on the commitments to international targets—is linked to the amount of donor aid that permeate the policy landscape. And as [Table 12.1](#) shows, the Caribbean Basin remains a dynamic place of ongoing reforms where the small states of the Caribbean are able to leverage their smallness and benefit from numerous trading agreements which not only drive national reforms, but also contribute to the development of Caribbean people who are trained nationally, globally minded, and have the capacity to work regionally.

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