



The Handbook on Caribbean Education

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Kenneth A. Williams, Editors
Foreword by Kofi Lomotey



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DEDICATION

This book is dedicated to educators and researchers throughout the Caribbean. Your efforts in the face of incredible challenges and limited resources are important. The work presented in the following chapters document the contributions of Caribbean scholars to 21st century discourse on education and schooling.

—EB

I would also be remiss if I did not recognize the Western Carolina University-Jamaica Program that introduced me to Jamaica in 1993. Since that time, hundreds of Jamaican students have passed through my classes and I have never failed to be humbled by their commitment and resilience coupled with an unlimited enthusiasm for education and schooling. I only hope that I have given them as much as they have given me.

—EB

This book is dedicated to my wife and daughter—you have supported me every step of the way in my journey.

I also dedicate this book to my mentors at Erdiston Teachers' Training College in Barbados, and the University of the West Indies (Mona, Jamaica) who laid the foundation for my journey. You inspired me to strive for excellence and be an advocate for social justice for all.

To the many persons I have encountered as an educator across the globe—thanks for sharing your experiences—including your challenges and triumphs- your selfless dedication has enriched so many lives, including mine.

—KW

CONTENTS

| | |
|-----------------|---|
| Dedication..... | v |
|-----------------|---|

| | |
|---------------------------|----|
| Foreword | |
| <i>Kofi Lomotey</i> | xi |

| | |
|---|------|
| Introduction: Caribbean Education as a Portal to the Future | |
| <i>Eleanor J. Blair</i> | xvii |

SECTION I: TEACHING AND LEADING IN THE CARIBBEAN

| | |
|---|----|
| 1. Emigration of Education: The Dominican Republic's Fleeting Education System | |
| <i>Jalnna Acosta</i> | 3 |
| 2. Comparing Teacher Professional Development Initiatives in Three Caribbean Countries: Implications for Leaders | |
| <i>Charmaine Bissessar</i> | 23 |
| 3. The Work and Professional Identity of Caribbean Teacher Educators | |
| <i>Carol Hordatt Gentles</i> | 43 |
| 4. Enacting Collaborative Teacher Action Research as Professional Development in the Bahamas | |
| <i>Gertrude Tinker Sachs</i> | 63 |
| 5. Accountability in Schools in Jamaica as a Mode of Colonization: Threats to Teachers' Autonomy and Students' Creativity | |
| <i>Shalene Chung Thomas, Carmel Roofe, Lovette Bailey,</i> <i>and Tian Bennett-O'Meally</i> | 89 |

**SECTION II: LEARNERS AND LEARNING IN
CARIBBEAN EDUCATION**

| | |
|--|-----|
| 6. Community of Learners: Using a Needs-Based Alternative Education Model to Support the Socioemotional and Academic Needs of Adolescents on the Caribbean Coast of Costa Rica <i>Minkie O. English and Rozanne Dioso-Lopez</i> | 111 |
| 7. Counterintuitive Gender Differences in Academic Achievement Across Socioecological Contexts Among Adolescents From Trinidad and Tobago <i>Nadia Jessop</i> | 131 |
| 8. Examining Early Childhood Development in the Caribbean: Working Toward Regional Improvement <i>Zoyah Kinkead-Clark</i> | 159 |
| 9. Bridging Cultures Between Jamaican Immigrants' Home and U.S. Schools: A Study on Jamaican Immigrants' Childrearing Values <i>Stephaney S. Morrison and Janee Steele</i> | 177 |
| 10. The Interface of Educational Systems and the Media: Framings of Male Underachievement in Jamaica Between 2002 and 2012 <i>Oral Robinson and Sheria Myrie</i> | 195 |

SECTION III: CULTURE AND CARIBBEAN EDUCATION

| | |
|--|-----|
| 11. Parent Involvement in Schools: Barriers Parents Face Within the Bahamian Community <i>Anica Bowe and Chenson L. Johnson</i> | 217 |
| 12. Shifting Paradigms: Exploring Cultural Practices as Local Knowledge Systems in Trinidad and Tobago <i>Isabel Dennis</i> | 241 |
| 13. School Counseling in Barbados: An Ethnographic Study of the Roles, Practices, Challenges, and Demands <i>Dominiqua M. Griffin and Julia Bryan</i> | 257 |
| 14. "Until You Too Have Journeyed": Empowering Teachers Through a Cross-Cultural Online Collaborative Learning Space <i>Aisha Spencer and Jacqueline Darwin</i> | 279 |

15. Weak State, Strong Diaspora: A Case Study on Education in Jamaica
Giselle Thompson 297

SECTION IV: STEM AND CARIBBEAN EDUCATION

16. Small Island Sustainability Education: Engaging Youth in Research and Education Practices for Building Sustainable Futures
Jennifer D. Adams, Sophia Perdikaris, and Rebecca Boger.....315
17. Culturally Relevant Pedagogy: An Exploration of “Bridge-Building” in the Science Classroom
Susan Herbert333
18. Addressing the Stem Gender Gap in Trinidad and Tobago
Stella Jackman-Ryan353
19. *All Means All*: An Inclusive Educational Model for Panama to Address the Need for STEM and Literacy
Beverly A. King Miller.....371
20. Advancing STEM Education Reform in Jamaica: Recursive Approaches to Culturally- and Contextually-Relevant Curricula Design
Theila S. Smith, Christina Siry, Jennifer D. Adams, Saran Stewart, and Pauline Watson-Campbell..... 389

SECTION V: TWENTY-FIRST CENTURY ISSUES IN CARIBBEAN EDUCATION

21. The Education Leader in the 21st Century Caribbean-Based Online Learning Environment
Aleshia V. A. Allert.....413
22. Tertiary-Level Education in the Cayman Islands: Challenges and Opportunities
Byron Coon, Stacy R. McAfee, and William P. Schonberg431
23. Dismantling Neoliberalism: Strategies Deployed by Educational Leaders in Haiti for Individual Success and Public Gain
Lucas Endicott455

x CONTENTS

| | |
|--|-----|
| 24. Constructing Regional Citizenship in an Era of Mature Regionalism: A Vision of 21st-Century Caribbean Education <i>Tavis D. Jules and Richard Arnold</i> | 475 |
| 25. Toward a Caribbean Perspective of Global Citizenship Education: A Comparative Analysis of Education—Students’ Reflexive Perspectives of Global Citizenship <i>Gary W.J. Pluim and Saran Stewart</i> | 493 |
| 26. Core Language Implications in Caribbean Countries and the Global Dynamic <i>Keisha McIntyre-McCullough, Reishma A. Seupersad, and Nicole Warmington-Granston</i> | 515 |
| Conclusion—Caribbean Education: A Future of Possibilities <i>Kenneth Williams</i> | 533 |
| Contributors | 541 |
| Index | 557 |

FOREWORD

Kofi Lomotey
Western Carolina University

INTRODUCTION

It is quite fitting and indeed significant that Ellie Blair and Ken Williams have amassed a distinguished group of authors for a collaboration that is pregnant with relevance, substance, and contemplation in a format heretofore unseen. The editors have brought together leading researchers, educators, and practitioners to provide a comprehensive, well organized, and substantive description and status check on teaching and learning, including STEM education; culture; and prospects for the future of education in the Caribbean. Simultaneously, the authors collectively call for an end to racist and neocolonialist practices that continue to hold back the people of the Caribbean and elsewhere. This volume is important because, in the Caribbean, as in other parts of the world—particularly in so-called developing countries—individual and collective successful advancement through the education system is a prerequisite for upward mobility.

One of the fascinating aspects of this volume is the variation in Caribbean cultures explored and the unique impact of the numerous cultures and histories on the schooling provided within each country: Bahamas, Barbados, Barbuda, Cayman Islands, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Grenada, Guyana, Haiti, Jamaica, Panama, St. Eustatius, and Trinidad and Tobago. The assorted histories and educational accounts that are shared within will fascinate and captivate readers.

SECTION SUMMARIES

In the first two sections, the contributors focus on the teaching and learning process: the relationship between teacher and student. This is, of course, “where the rubber meets the road.” Thomas, Roofe, Bailey, and Bennett (Chapter 5) bemoan the unnecessarily massive focus on high stakes testing in Jamaican schools. Bissessar, in Chapter 2, compares professional development for teachers in Grenada, Guyana, and St. Eustatius. One recommendation from Bissessar’s work is that teachers should play a larger role in determining topics for professional development sessions. This recommendation is consistent with my own experience teaching in Colombia and in Jamaica, where my students, many who are schoolteachers, complain about not having a significant role in determining the content of the professional development in which they are required to participate.

In the only chapter in the volume focused on early childhood education (Chapter 8)—an extremely important area—Kinhead-Clark offers a status report on early childhood education in the Caribbean, stressing the need for such programs to be more culturally responsive—a topic to which I shall return. In a very different type of discussion, Morrison and Steele, in Chapter 9, explore childrearing practices of Jamaican immigrants in the United States.

In Section III, the focus shifts to the all-important relationship between the culture of each nation state and the education that evolves therefrom. Bowe and Johnson (Chapter 11) describe a collaboration with the Bahamian Ministry of Education aimed at better understanding parental involvement, including parental interest in the education of their children. In a powerful chapter (Chapter 12), Dennis urges the reader to reflect on the significance of taking advantage of local knowledge practices to utilize and internalize current information in Trinidad and Tobago. She calls on the reader to acknowledge what the Akan people of Ghana term, *Sankofa*, that speaks to the significance of going back to learn from the past to more effectively move into the future. (The direct translation is *go back and get it*.)

In Section IV, the authors focus on the challenges and potential for STEM education in the various countries highlighted therein. Jackman-

Ryan, in Chapter 18, notes that while girls do better in STEM areas in high schools in Trinidad and Tobago, due in part to their low self-esteem, they continue to be underrepresented in Trinidadian and Tobagoan tertiary institutions. The author cites several causes for this truism, including youth being socialized into gendered roles from early childhood.

The foci of the first four sections each speak to current circumstances in one or more countries in this region of the world. In the fifth and final section, the focus shifts, appropriately so, to reflections on what implications the past and the present suggest for the future of education in this part of the world. The contributors look at several key issues including the implications of global citizenship in the Caribbean. Allert (Chapter 21) cautions Caribbean leaders to be aware of the disconnect between the educational leadership in these countries and the increasing emphasis—even prior to COVID-19—on online learning. Endicott, in Chapter 23, addresses the need to dismantle neoliberalism in Haiti. Jules and Arnold (Chapter 24) explore how education influences notions of Caribbean citizenship. In Chapter 25, Pluim and Stewart urge us to rethink current European-centered notions of global citizenship, taking into consideration geographical context, culture and life experiences. In Chapter 26, McIntyre-McCullough, Seupersad, and Warmington-Granston stress the importance of one's native language in instruction.

This conception of global citizenship, as it is presently constructed, the authors would suggest, encapsulates White supremacy and White privilege, exacerbating obstacles to development in the Caribbean.

UNDERLYING THEMES

Racism, Colonialism, and Neocolonialism

There are several underlying themes that run through this volume. The first, and perhaps the most important, deals with acknowledgement of institutionalized White supremacy and the continuing impact of colonialism on the life chances of people in the Caribbean. Returning to the issue of the overreliance on high stakes testing in Jamaica (Chapter 5), Thomas, Roofe, Bailey, and Bennett say, "As a postcolonial society, the remnant of our colonial past continues to shape how our society seeks to educate its youngest and brightest." At another point, they go on to say, "Educators and policymakers must be challenged to conduct empirical research that seeks to unearth specific case studies of examples of coloniality present in the day-to-day accountability of schooling and whether strategies implemented seek to further colonize or liberate." This proposed exploration could lead to instruction and training in critical race theory. In so doing,

there could be an assessment of the experiences of Caribbean populations of color, with (1) acknowledgement of White supremacy as a structural norm, and (2) a critique of (neo)liberalism.

In Chapter 12, Dennis queries the reader as follows, regarding experiences in Trinidad and Tobago.

Imagine what life might be like if people in the Caribbean shook off the racist ideologies embedded in their institutions and acknowledged the valuable knowledge that exists in the range of cultural practices in the region. How might this shift in paradigm, in the role of knowledge and knowledge systems from being tools of domination to tools of learning to live, affect our daily lives? What other innovations and new ways of living, being and doing things would we be able to collectively create?

In Chapter 10, Robinson and Myrie, in discussing media and gender effects in education, point out the negative impact of colonialism (and neocolonialism) on Jamaican education. In Chapter 20, the authors—Smith, Siry, Adams, Stewart and Watson-Campbell—in discussing STEM education, point out how colonizing practices have been made visible and how destructive deficit-oriented perspectives persist in the teaching and learning process in Jamaica.

Herbert, in Chapter 17, envisions the juxtaposition of traditional practices and beliefs with conventional science and argues that linking the two would bring about better understanding and higher order thinking. Pluim and Stewart, in Chapter 25, call for a Caribbean perspective on global citizenship, arguing that the current European-centered definition is foisted upon us all—though it fails to consider the significance of place and culture.

Several of the authors speak to the continuing significance of colonialism and neocolonialism on the educational experiences—and the ultimate life chances of children within the Caribbean. This is an explicit theme in the chapters of Thomas, Roofe, Bailey, and Bennett (Chapter 5), Robinson and Myrie (Chapter 10), Dennis (Chapter 12), Thompson (Chapter 15), and Smith, Siry, Adams, Stewart, and Watson-Campbell (Chapter 20).

Gender

A second theme is related to the gender of schoolchildren and its significance in the educational arena. Jackman-Ryan, in Chapter 18, discusses the gap in achievement based upon gender in STEM areas in Trinidad and Tobago. Continuing with the focus on Trinidad and Tobago, Jessop (Chapter 7) uncovers and addresses the differences in academic success based upon gender. In the same section, in Chapter 10, the lack

of success of boys in Jamaican schools is addressed by Robinson and Myrie.¹ This discussion was of particular interest to me. Having taught for a few weeks in Jamaica every year for the past 7 years, I am aware of the challenges that Jamaican teachers face with the development of Black male students in the primary level and into secondary school. My students there are teachers and administrators in these schools who are preparing for careers in school leadership. The course that I teach there is *School Improvement*. More often than not, the topic that students choose to address in their individual projects is related to the limited academic success of Black boys. This, of course, is not an ability issue, but is more so reflective of the impact of the society, communities, and families on these boys.²

Culturally Relevant Pedagogy

A third and final core theme in the book has to do with culture (including language) and its significance in the educational process—culturally relevant pedagogy (CRP). Ladson-Billings (1994 [No reference]) defines CRP as “a pedagogy that empowers students intellectually, socially, emotionally, and politically by using cultural referents to impart knowledge, skills, and attitudes” (p. 18). In Chapter 20, Smith, Siry, Adams, Stewart, and Watson-Campbell, in an exploration of reform of STEM programs in Jamaica, speak of the need for these programs to be culturally relevant to the learners. Herbert, in Chapter 17, speaks of the significance of CRP, that is, instruction that enables the learner to “see themselves in the curriculum” (Lomotey, 1989).

Of course, an important aspect of culture (and of CRP) is language, which plays a significant role in the teaching and learning process. In Chapter 26, McIntyre-McCullough, Seupersad, and Warmington-Granston discuss the importance of one’s home language in instruction. The authors also note how native languages/dialects of students are denigrated in Haiti, Jamaica, and Trinidad and Tobago and how this negatively impacts the teaching and learning process. In Chapter 14, Spencer and Darwin also highlight the significance of a child’s mother tongue in the teaching and learning process.

It has been well documented that to obtain the most beneficial educational outcome—internalizing and operationalizing the educational experience—students need CRP (Gay, 2014; Ladson-Billings, 1994). It facilitates the means for group participants to successfully operate amongst their kinfolk, neighborhood, and ethnic group and to maintain the veracity of their own culture in social situations where disproportionate power interactions occur between groups. Too often, students of color, in places such as much of the Caribbean, are unable to experience a culturally relevant educational

experience. In many countries in the Caribbean, schoolchildren are unable to see themselves in the curriculum—even when those in power look like them. The curriculum is often reflective of a colonial past wherein those in power did *not* look like them. Often the educational experience of these children is a neocolonial experience.

CONCLUSION

Blair and Williams have put together an outstanding volume in which the authors present state-of-the-art research on the Caribbean with a focus on eliminating the lingering effects of racism, including neocolonialism, and the bringing forth of much needed equity and social justice for the people in this region. Those in the academy and those who identify as activists, especially those committed to Caribbean development, will readily acknowledge the tremendous value of this timely and essential work.

Enjoy.

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- Ladson-Billings, G. (1994). *The dreamkeepers: Successful teachers of African American children*. John Wiley and Sons.
- Lomotey, K. (1989). Cultural diversity in the urban school: Implications for principals. *NASSP Bulletin*, 73(521), 81–85.

NOTES

1. The focus on Trinidad and Tobago (twice) and Jamaica with regard to gender differences in achievement might lead the reader to think that this gender issue is only significant in these areas. Indeed, that is not the case. Gender gaps exist in educational institutions throughout the Caribbean and around the world and are precipitated for a variety of reasons, typically stemming from the way that societies are structured.
2. Western Carolina University, where I teach, has had a relationship with the Jamaican government for nearly 50 years wherein we offer degree programs on the island in special education and educational supervision. There are more than 5,000 WCU graduates currently in Jamaica. Within our master's in educational supervision program, students take 10 courses over 2 years. Each course is 30 hours face-to-face over a 2-week period and the remainder of the course content is handled online.

INTRODUCTION

Caribbean Education as a Portal to the Future

Eleanor J. Blair
Western Carolina University

Emancipate yourselves from mental slavery
None but ourselves can free our minds.

Redemption Song, Bob Marley (1980)

Jamaica was my introduction to the Caribbean. I began teaching teachers in Jamaica in 1993 through the Western Carolina University-Jamaican program that provided opportunities for Jamaican teachers to earn a bachelor's degree through Western Carolina University. At that time, most teachers in Jamaica were teaching with diplomas earned through teacher colleges that issued certificates in education. The bachelor's degree offered opportunities for Jamaican teachers to earn more money and acquire advanced skills and status as educators. I traveled to Jamaica for the first time as a new faculty member with little knowledge about the Caribbean and even less about Jamaica; it would be a learning experience. I arrived

on this small Caribbean island of 2.9 million people eager to embark on an adventure like none other. Imagine my surprise when I entered the school where I would teach for 2 weeks and realized immediately that it did not look like any other school or classroom I had previously visited. The open-air classroom was hot and noisy with the whirling of ceiling fans, the walls were bare, desks were old and scuffed-up, the small classroom was filled to capacity with 40+ students, mostly women dressed in their Sunday best clothing: heels, hose, nice dresses, and suits. And did I mention that there was a goat munching on dinner outside the windows? It was a shock; I felt both confused and stupid, and totally unprepared to teach these wonderful students sitting in my class. Naively, I had thought that I was just going to Jamaica to teach an introductory education course that I regularly taught in the United States. As I began to attempt to teach, I realized that unlike my classes in the United States, there were no projectors or electronics, only a chalkboard and I had not packed chalk. I also soon learned, electricity was not always a constant; bad storms in this small Caribbean country often contributed to flooded roads that created travel problems, and yes, loss of power. Apparently, my astonishment and feelings of incompetence were visible on my face. Former students from that class would later tell me that they were surprised that I came back the second night for class; they were sure I would get on the next plane and leave. Nothing I had previously done in my teaching career seemed relevant to my new students. In fact, as I looked at my class notes detailing the problems and issues associated with the separation of church and state, I recalled the crucifix that was posted high above my chalk board; and yes, many of the Jamaican schools where I taught were independent schools affiliated with the Catholic church. Through the years, I figured out how to teach in Jamaica, but it usually involved having a Plan A, Plan B, and maybe even, a Plan C to accommodate spur-of-the-moment changes in the circumstances or resources I had available to support my teaching. Despite the challenges, I persisted and tried to create learning experiences that were relevant to my students' unique needs; I often went to their schools and did workshops on teaching boys and teachers as leaders. The enthusiasm and desire to learn more and be more were intoxicating. Teaching in Jamaica coalesced everything I had ever learned about teaching diverse students in under-resourced, overcrowded classrooms. Despite the guiding principle that "Every child can learn, every child must learn," schools for poor children have never been a top priority for those with power and status in Jamaica. Unfortunately, this reality is mirrored in many schools throughout the Caribbean.

My efforts to teach Jamaican students were twofold; first, introduce students to critical thinkers like Henry Giroux, bell hooks, Gloria Ladson-Billings, and more recently, Christopher Emdin and Bettina Love. And second, use these ideas to define and understand education problems

from a critical perspective and address those issues using research on best practices and questioning “taken for granted assumptions” about education and schooling. My Jamaican students “got it” in a way that my American students never could; structural racism and oppression and even a “plantation mentality” were a painful part of their histories. Jamaicans understand that although they achieved independence as a nation in 1962, their educational institutions are still a reflection of a British system that viewed the inhabitants of the Caribbean as an inferior group of people. Formal British English is the norm in all schools and a rigorous system of testing and tracking students mirror the traditions of Jamaican schools under the rule of the British monarchy. Jamaicans recognize that efforts to establish their native language, Patois, as a legitimate form of communication will always be doomed because while it is often acknowledged and discussed in the media, it is simultaneously viewed as a “gutter language” of the poor and uneducated. It does not seem to matter that a majority of Jamaican citizens are bilingual; they learn Patois at birth and continue to use it for communication with familiar cohorts while using the “Queen’s English” for formal and professional transactions. As is frequently noted by Caribbean scholars, the problems afflicting Jamaica as well as other Caribbean nations are complicated by myriad factors rooted in imperialism and the resulting social and economic divides that still exist in the 21st century. In Jamaica, and throughout the Caribbean, there will never be a “one size fits all” solution to educational problems; however, despite their travails, the people who inhabit the Caribbean project an intransigent optimism and hope that universal schooling can change the lives of its children and the future of its inhabitants. As such, this book holds promise as a resource that acknowledges the importance of the Caribbean as an entity to be studied and better understood.

Jamaican education, schools and teachers were my introduction to the region, but I quickly recognized that an in-depth understanding of the Caribbean depended upon an understanding of how Jamaica’s issues and problems intersected with those of the larger Caribbean community. Reforming schools and articulating a vision for Caribbean education relies upon acknowledging past injustices and considering novel answers to basic pedagogical questions in Caribbean schools:

- What are the purposes and objectives of education in the 21st century?
- What is the content of the curriculum in 21st century schools?
- How will the training, roles and responsibilities of teachers change to embrace leadership and empowered voices contributing to new visions of teaching and learning?

- How will students learn in 21st century schools? Virtually, face-to-face, synchronous, asynchronous, or combinations of both?
- What will be the role of students? Students have long been passive recipients of a “banking” model of education (Freire, 2000) that assumes students are only capable of receiving, filing, and storing pre-packaged knowledge. How will the Caribbean education system respond to our millennial and generation X students’ call for a more hands-on and practical approach to education that gives them an opportunity to engage and critically dissect the relevance and relationship of knowledge to personal circumstances.
- What will be the role of assessment in 21st century schools? Is it possible to abandon the high stakes tests of the 20th century and look for more meaningful ways to measure the learning of children in the Caribbean?
- And finally, what are the defining characteristics of Caribbean education and how is teaching and learning impacted by the unique facets of Caribbean culture?

Today, the challenges throughout the Caribbean revolve around issues of educational quality, overcrowded classrooms and limited resources. Building an educational foundation that reflects Caribbean values and beliefs relies upon an upgrading of the training for educational leaders (both teachers and administrators) who are willing to think “out of the box” about education and schooling. Shedding the shackles of colonization and dependence and critically examining every aspect of schooling and education will hopefully lead to efforts to build an educational system that reflects the distinctive characteristics of each nation. While Jamaica, like the rest of the Caribbean, has seen its population and economy grow at a rapid pace in the 21st century, much of this growth is in the hospitality industry and has not relied upon schools incorporating advances in STEM and increased technological proficiency. We still see classrooms and schools that are relatively unchanged from their 20th century predecessors. I often refer to these schools as being dominated by the 2 x 4 classroom; a classroom guided by the 2 covers of a textbook and the 4 walls of the classroom; learning contexts that have little relationship to the real-life experiences of a majority of students and seldom encourage critical thinking. Shift schools as a response to overcrowding in rural schools still exist in the Caribbean, and while recognized as problematic, the building of new schools is often hampered by a lack of resources. Frustration and hopelessness are pervasive in schools that are regularly expected to accommodate students with severe academic and behavioral problems; and yet, little professional support, training, and resources are available. And finally, while

more affluent countries take for granted their access to technology and the internet, Caribbean schools still struggle to provide access to basic technological resources and the internet. Twenty-first century classrooms are staid; and teachers' roles and responsibilities remain unchanged despite an increasingly better educated teaching force. How we define the problems in Caribbean education will ultimately determine the solutions; hence the need for a handbook that facilitates the critical examination of problems and issues that are unique to this region.

Today, as I write this introduction to the *Handbook on Caribbean Education*, I am asking readers to consider that the issues I encountered in Jamaica are similar to the kinds of experiences described in this book for multiple Caribbean nations. Throughout the Caribbean, schooling continues to represent both a means to achieve social mobility and a mechanism for providing the human resources needed to support the economies of Caribbean nations. There are many perspectives regarding the tumultuous pasts of these countries, but the common thread is the difficulty that has accompanied most efforts to adapt to a rapidly changing global landscape that has never given status and serious concern to the plights of Caribbean nations. Caribbean nations have frequently been exploited for the personal gain of other nations, and then left to flounder when catastrophic events have devastated their countries. Even today, the Caribbean struggles to find a collective voice that acknowledges them as worthy of a "place at the table" in global decision making. The people who inhabit the Caribbean want to be partners in a larger educational network that supports pedagogical innovation that prepares ALL students to enter a world that extends beyond geographic borders. While this book presents current research on education in the Caribbean using geography as the defining feature, the commonalities transcend borders and are reflective of a mutual history of both triumphs and failures, oppression, and emancipation.

In this Handbook, the Caribbean is described as the region roughly south of the United States, east of Mexico and north of Central and South America, consisting of the Caribbean Sea and its islands. The island territories and archipelagos are designated with a variety of names; most commonly referred to as: The Greater Antilles, the Lesser Antilles, the Leeward Islands, the Windward Islands, the Leeward Antilles, and also as the West Indies. More specifically, the Greater Antilles includes the five larger islands (and six countries) of the northern Caribbean, including the Cayman Islands, Cuba, Hispaniola (Haiti and the Dominican Republic), Puerto Rico, and Jamaica. The Lesser Antilles includes the Windward and Leeward Islands which are inclusive of Barbados, St. Vincent, Trinidad, and Tobago along with several other islands. Several of the contributors to the book refer to the CARICOM community that represents a group of 20 developing countries in the Caribbean that have come together to form an

economic and political community that works together to shape policies for the region and encourages economic growth and trade. Included in this group of 20 countries are Antigua and Barbuda, The Bahamas, Barbados, Belize, Dominica, Grenada, Guyana, Haiti, Jamaica, Montserrat, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Suriname, and Trinidad and Tobago. Throughout the book, global references to the Caribbean are frequently used; however, these references do not ignore the distinctive stories that characterize, and often define, the histories and futures of individual countries.

The task of articulating a vision that reflects a common Caribbean agenda and recognizes the differences between the countries that make-up the Caribbean is a daunting task. For the purposes of this book, we bring together leading scholars in Caribbean education to focus on 21st century issues and concerns, specifically as they relate to educational research, theory, policy, and practice. To consolidate the major themes discussed by these authors, this book is divided into five sections: Teaching and Learning in the Caribbean, Learners and Learning in Caribbean Education, Culture and Caribbean Education, STEM and Caribbean Education and finally, Twenty-First Century Issues and Caribbean Education. The research presented is varied, but nevertheless, describes the resilience and persistence of Caribbean nations attempting to firmly plant themselves into the 21st century landscape in ways that advance their educational systems and provide meaningful ways for Caribbean citizens to participate in the reform and transformation of their schools. Each of the essays in this book contributes research that elaborates on the following themes:

- The intersection of Caribbean education with contemporary global issues and concerns.
- Broad-based foundational research (history and sociology) on Caribbean education.
- Research on key issues (theory, policy, and practice) impacting Caribbean schools.
- A vision of 21st century Caribbean education.

While many of the essays present research that addresses global issues that are relevant to the larger Caribbean community, other essays look specifically at teaching and learning issues in Antigua, the Bahamas, Barbados, Barbuda, Belize, Caymans, Costa Rico, Dominican Republic, Grenada, Guyana, Haiti, Jamaica, Panama, St. Eustatius, St. Vincent & the Grenadines, Trinidad, and Tobago. The authors included in this book present perspectives on the history and sociology of the Caribbean that recognize the unique “story” of each nation. The Handbook captures the current breadth and depth of research about Caribbean education

while providing a comprehensive description of the current educational landscape and providing direction and guidance for future work.

In conclusion, while the 21st century has presented a multitude of challenges to the larger global community; none has been greater than the one created by the Pandemic that has swept the globe with devastating consequences. And, once again, Caribbean nations are dealt another blow to their struggling economies when COVID-19 causes borders to close and already meager resources for economic growth and development are diminished. The following quote by Arundhati Roy (2020) speaks to both the challenges and the opportunities presented by the Pandemic:

Historically, pandemics have forced humans to break with the past and imagine their world anew. This one is no different. It is a portal, a gateway between one world and the next.... We can choose to walk through it, dragging the carcasses of our prejudice and hatred, our avarice, our data banks and dead ideas, our dead rivers and smoky skies behind us. Or we can walk through lightly, with little luggage, ready to imagine another world. And ready to fight for it. [italics added]

The word, *portal*, has multiple definitions, but as I consider the term within the context of Caribbean education, I like the following definition from Dictionary.com (n.d.), “a door, gate, or entrance, especially one of imposing appearance, as to a palace.” And yes, at this momentous time in history, we have been granted a portal to the future; a door or a gate or an entrance to another world where views of schooling and education can be reconsidered and thoughtfully designed to reflect the needs of 21st century students, families, and communities. Viewing the Caribbean as a portal to the future is a facet of the work presented in this book. It is important to critically examine the roots of our present situation in order to better consider where we go from here. As such, I see the work in this book as laying the groundwork or the portal to a post-pandemic Caribbean world that reflects sustainable educational reform that have the potential to transform and address the unique needs of Caribbean education.

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SECTION I

TEACHING AND LEADING IN THE CARIBBEAN

CHAPTER 1

EMIGRATION OF EDUCATION

The Dominican Republic's Fleeting Educational System

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ABSTRACT

The Dominican Republic, a nation located in the Caribbean that shares the island of Hispaniola with Haiti, is commonly known for its beaches and popular tourist attractions. Beyond the paradisiacal aesthetics that are portrayed, the Dominican Republic encompasses educational, economic, and political systems that target the overall betterment of the country's citizens. Through the implementation of these systems the Dominican Republic has made significant progress; however, a notable portion of the population remains uneducated. This chapter explores the influences of emigration on the country's educational advancement. Emigration from the Dominican Republic to other parts of the world has an impact on the remaining citizens. Although higher education is present and readily available, citizens of the

Dominican Republic are leaving the country at higher rates than they are enrolling in college. The findings of this study support the hypothesis that higher rates of emigration from the Dominican Republic exacerbates the country's decreased tertiary completion rates. The purpose of this chapter is to present the literature on the ways in which the Dominican Republic's patterns of emigration ultimately influence the country's educational system.

Globalization invokes international collaboration that stems from togetherness and integration. Migration, the act of moving from one place to another, provides individuals with the opportunity to inhabit different parts of the world based on their specific situation. The migration of goods and capital are recognized as the primary contributors towards a globalized world (Daly, 2006; Hirst et al., 2015). However, the migration of people also plays a role in the integration that takes place across international regions (Li, 2008). The term immigration denotes the arrival of individuals from one country to another, while emigration is defined through the lens of the origin country and specifies the aspect of leaving to live abroad. The Dominican Republic and Haiti come together to form the island of Hispaniola, which is the second largest island in the Caribbean (Wiarda & Kryzanek, 2019). Although beaches and resorts are a notable characteristic of the Dominican Republic, as of 2019 the country is home to an estimated ten million people (The World Bank, 2019). Dominican citizens are afforded access to an educational system that ranges from the pre-primary to tertiary level. However, data from the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) shows that higher education enrollment rates depict a significant decline when compared to the secondary completion rates (UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2019). For the purpose of this chapter, the term educational advancement refers to the demonstrated completion of postsecondary education. Higher education systems in Latin American countries have undergone a series of reform initiatives that align with opportunities for expansion, diversification and privatization (García Guadilla, 2003, as cited in Bernasconi & Celis, 2017). Although the Dominican Republic's economy relies heavily on the growth of tourism and little investment is made in education, educational advancement offers the country opportunities to lessen existing wealth and income disparities in an effort to attain ongoing poverty reduction (Flechtner, 2017). The purpose of this chapter is to provide an overview of the historical progression of the Dominican Republic and its educational system in relation to the country's patterns of migration using data gathered from the World Bank, the World Inequality Database on Education, the Migration Policy Institute, and the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. The overall advancements of the country and citizens' quality of life are reliant on the systems that are put in place. Grounded in postcolonial theory, this chapter aims to explore the ways in which emigration compares to the completion

of higher education and the role of these factors on the presence of poverty throughout the country. This chapter addresses the following research question:

RQ: How have patterns of emigration influenced the educational advancement of the Dominican Republic?

LITERATURE REVIEW

The Dominican Story

The Dominican Republic is located in what is known as the Caribbean. Palmié and Scarano (2013) define the Caribbean as the islands that are geographically within or in proximity of the Caribbean Sea and the coastal areas of South and Central America. The recorded history of the Dominican Republic stretches as far back as the Carib and Taino people who traveled to the island by way of Cuba and Venezuela (Roorda et al., 2014). The name Taino was said to mean “good” or “noble,” while the Carib people were described as cannibals (Foley et al., 2016). Together, the Taino and Carib people were known as the Arawak family (Foley et al., 2016). The Taino population was significantly diminished by the Spanish invasion that brought along illnesses and diseases that proved to be detrimental for the native people (Roorda et al., 2014). Bigelow (1989) details Columbus’ first voyage during which he discovered Hispaniola, meaning “little Spain.” During the period of Spanish conquest and colonization, the Taino were forced to work as laborers in the mines and were subjected to slave-like brutality (Foley et al., 2016).

In 1697, following Spanish colonization, the western third of Hispaniola was signed to France (Foley et al., 2016). During this time, a portion of Hispaniola was governed by Spanish rule and another portion was governed by French rule. Beginning in 1791, the Saint Domingue slave revolt, also known as the Haitian Revolution, ended in the colony’s independence in 1804 (Geggus, 1981). In 1821, Santo Domingo, the then Dominican Republic, declared independence from Spain (Foley et al., 2016).

However, Dominicans maintained their resistance against Haitian rule. In 1844, Juan Pablo Duarte led a revolution that ended Haitian rule and formed the Dominican Republic (Geggus, 1981). In 1861, the Dominican Republic was again under Spanish rule which lasted until 1865 following the War of Restoration (Wiarda & Kryzanek, 2019). From then, the country underwent a cycle of military rule. One of the country’s most notable military leaders was Rafael Trujillo who ran an oppressive dictatorship

from 1930–1961 (Foley et al., 2016). Following Trujillo's assassination, Balaguer served as the country's president enforcing many of the practices and policies of his predecessor (Betances, 2005). Leonel Fernandez ruled the Dominican Republic from 1996 to 2000 and from 2004 to 2012 (Wiarda & Kryzanek, 2019).

The tumultuous history of the Dominican Republic, and the island of Hispaniola as a whole, offers a perspective of rebellion and anticolonial struggle from the country's indigenous people (Ozuna, 2018). The oppressive conquest of the island of Hispaniola depicts colonialism through the lens of dehumanization and domination (Sloan-Torano, 2020). Consequently, the Dominican Republic's history is often misinterpreted as a classic example of a globalized society seeking economic development and international collaboration. Duffy et al. (2016) expertly details the polarizing economic impact of tourism development throughout the Dominican Republic as one that disproportionately affects households throughout the country. The Dominican Republic has a current population of about 10 million people and a reported 19.9 percent poverty rate in 2016 (The World Bank, 2019). As the country continues to navigate the post-colonial journey towards national prosperity, educational advancement plays a pivotal role in the Dominican people's ability to move away from a state of tourism dependency and towards one of thriving globalized autonomy.

The Dominican Educational System

Education in the Dominican Republic is broken up by levels. Students enrolled in the pre-primary level range from ages 3 to 5. Enrollment at the primary level ranges from ages 6 to 11. At the secondary level students' ages range from 12 to 17. Students who pursue tertiary level education range from ages 18 to 22. According to Luna et al. (1990), the third cycle of pre-primary education in the Dominican Republic from ages 4 to 6 is mandatory. Similarly, primary education is mandated by law and universal for youth of the Dominican Republic. Although secondary education is free in the Dominican Republic, it is not compulsory (Luna et al., 1990). Tertiary education, or higher education, is made affordable for those wishing to enroll in private institutions and free for enrollment in public institutions, but is not mandatory (Méndez & Montero, 2007). Bartlett (2012) conducted a study to determine the schooling experience of youth of Haitian descent born and living in the Dominican Republic, found that issues of unequal access to and treatment at public schools was a prevalent issue throughout the country. Méndez and Montero (2007) present that the Dominican Republic is recognized for having "one of the fastest growing economies in the world in the 1990s" (p. 91). However, even though

education in the Dominican Republic is free through the secondary level, low-income students rarely succeed in completing the secondary level of their education (Méndez & Montero, 2007). According to The World Bank (2018), children in the Dominican Republic are expected to complete a total of 11.3 years of schooling by the time they are 18 years old. The educational system of the Dominican Republic is characterized by the presence of obstacles that further impact the progress made in the country as a whole (Araneda et al., 2018).

The Dominican Republic and Higher Education

Higher education in the Dominican Republic is composed of both public and private institutions. According to Clark (2013), the government of the Dominican Republic prioritizes vocational education and training as part of its secondary and postsecondary reform initiatives. A study done to determine the stress coping mechanisms of college students in the Dominican Republic (Thomas et al., 2017) states that a majority of students are learning low-skill, clerical functions for vocational jobs. Clark (2013) explains that the Dominican government has “set a target of increasing participation in higher education to 50 percent of the college age population by 2018, involving an enrollment of 660,000 students, and representing a doubling of the 2005 enrollment total” (para. 12). However, Clark also states that although tertiary enrollment rates are increasing throughout the country, the average dropout rate is approximately 50%.

Poverty and Education

Poverty can be measured in different ways, but ultimately relates to the availability of income to maintain basic survival needs (Tilak, 2002). Poverty and education have a direct correlation with one another; people living in poverty face obstacles when it comes to obtaining a quality education and a lack of education makes it increasingly difficult for individuals to escape the burdens of poverty (Van der Berg, 2008). Due to the implications of living in poverty, poor children may not be prepared for the ongoing demands that are associated with attending school (Mihai et al., 2015). However, Mihai et al. (2015) also point out that access to a quality prolonged education has the potential to eradicate the cyclical harms caused by a life of poverty. As the influence of globalization becomes increasingly pervasive, “investment in education is believed to be one of the main ways for individuals to be included in an increasingly flexible, unstable and competitive labor market” (Tarabini, 2010, p. 205). Tilak (2002) explains the

significance of education as it relates to human capital, which in turn has an influential potential to establish widespread economic growth.

The relationship between the level of education an individual has completed, and the wages paid to an employee showcases the significant role of education and economic growth (Mihai et al., 2015). Studies conducted to determine the role of socioeconomic status on academic performance depict that students from disadvantaged families underperform their peers due to the constraints poverty puts on education (Ladd, 2012). Human capital, developed by access to education, provides individuals with the necessary resources to establish personal economic prosperity that can have a positive national influence as well (Pelinescu, 2015). In the presence of globalization, education contributes to a country's ability to reverse the damages caused by poverty.

Emigration and Educational Advancement

Immigration is viewed from the perspective of the receiving country while emigration is viewed from the perspective of the origin country. The United Nations (2018) International Migration Report states that the presence of international migration offers receiving countries an increase in population. According to Brissett (2019), the countries in the Caribbean rank second in terms of highest levels of skilled emigration. Brissett defines skilled emigration "as the outward migration of people holding a bachelor's degree or extensive/equivalent experience in a given field" (p. 686). In countries with higher rates of poverty and in need of significant economic development, increased levels of emigration can have a negative impact on the growth of the country (Radavicius, 2016). Regarding the emigration out of Latin America, Clark et al. (2004) explain the significance of what takes place in the origin country throughout the patterns of immigration and emigration. The influence of emigration on the economy of the countries of origin is also impacted by the characteristics of the people who have made the move to other countries.

Migration out of poor countries is most beneficial for said countries when individuals can return with knowledge and skills that will contribute to the overall growth and development of their political system and labor force (Collier, 2013). In a globalized world, emigration is viewed as a method of making individual progress through the use of modern technology and modes of transportation. Collier (2013) states that small developing countries experience higher rates of emigration when compared to larger more developed countries. This, in turn, contributes to the challenges associated with lowering poverty levels and experiencing economic development. Caribbean countries have experienced migration

for centuries, but economic and voluntary migration have become a more common characteristic in recent years (Brissett, 2019). Although emigration has the potential to enhance the overall labor and economic development of the country of origin, this is challenged by individuals' decision to return or stay after having gained an education and/or work experience abroad (Stahl, 1982).

Flehtner (2017) argues that the Dominican Republic's increasing success as a developing country is significantly overshadowed by the low investments made in the country's educational system. As the country's economy becomes progressively dependent on tourism, there is less demand for high-skilled labor that is a direct by-product of tertiary education completion (Flehtner, 2017). Brissett (2019) presents a strong case for the revamping of educational policies in countries throughout the Caribbean in order to effectively establish control over the rise in skilled emigration within a globalized society. Mishra (2007) states that "the Caribbean region is an excellent case to study the effects of emigration as it has the highest emigration rates in the world" (p. 1). Cooray (2014) uses the term "brain drain" to describe the impact of emigration on the country of origin's educational advancement. In the long run, the emigration of education can negatively impact the source country while serving to enhance the receiving country's skill diversity of the workforce (Cooray, 2014). Therefore, the implications of emigration for a developing country such as the Dominican Republic are much greater due to the growing need of high-skilled labor that is being employed in other countries throughout the world.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The Dominican's Republic historical evolution offers a robust conversation on the long-lasting influence of colonialism on the country's economic and educational systems, among others. In a comprehensive piece on the historical use of postcolonial theory, Powell (2017) discusses the complexities in the holistic perception of what it means to live in a postcolonial world. Crossley and Tikly (2004) argue that postcolonial theory requires an ongoing understanding of the implications of Europe's expansion from "the fifteenth century onwards, not only as a means to understand the subsequent histories of these parts of the world but as a defining moment in European history and of modernity itself" (p. 147). Madsen (2003) proposes that postcolonialism can have multiple meanings that resonate with individuals from diverse backgrounds. One noted interpretation of postcolonialism is the adoption of a postcolonial perspective that ultimately shapes the customs and practices of members of colonized cultural groups (Madsen, 2003). Edward Said, a key contributor to the development of

postcolonial theory, rooted much of his work on the concept that history “has real, foundational value in the lives of the recently emancipated” (Mishra & Hodge, 2005). As such, the Dominican Republic’s history of European imperialism and a subsequent dictatorship regime offers insight on the presence of cultural hybridity that directly impacts the current state of the country.

Using postcolonial theory as a framework, this chapter explores the influences of emigration on the Dominican Republic’s educational advancement. More specifically, this chapter aims to explore the ways in which patterns of emigration compare to the completion of secondary and postsecondary education and the underlying implications this may have on the presence of poverty throughout the country. Mains et al. (2013) cite the presence of an explicit link between colonialism and patterns of migration in direct correlation to the rise of the “expatriate” or the mobile professional. Castles (2010) further argues that the structural factors driving labor migration are a direct reflection of existing power relations among countries. The use of postcolonial theory to explain the relationships between emigration and educational advancement has much to do with the identity development of colonized cultural groups within a globalized world. The Dominican Republic’s history of colonization by the French and Spanish powers is deeply rooted in patterns of rebellion and resistance (Ozuna, 2018). This chapter employs postcolonial theory to offer a modernized understanding of the ways in which growing instances of emigration relate to the Dominican Republic’s educational system and the rates of educational advancement.

METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents quantitative data on the Dominican Republic’s patterns in emigration and the influence this ultimately has on the country’s educational advancement.

Data

The quantitative data collected for this chapter was gathered from the World Inequality Database on Education (WIDE), the Migration Policy Institute (MPI), and the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UN DESA). The years included in this data range from 2002–2017 depending on the table or figure. The countries selected for this chapter were selected due to their relationship with the Dominican Republic on the topics of the country’s immigration and emigration rates.

More specifically, all other countries included in the data were selected because they are within or in close proximity to the Caribbean. These countries offer a quantitative comparison to the emigration and education of the Dominican Republic. The first dataset examined in this chapter was the Dominican Republic's upper secondary completion rates for 20 to 29-year-olds. The second dataset examined in this chapter was the Dominican Republic's tertiary completion rates for 25 to 29-year-olds. This data was separated by those having completed 2 years of higher education and those having completed 4 years of higher education. The data also includes the U.S. immigration rates from Caribbean countries in the years 1960–2017. Lastly, the data includes a comparison of the Dominican's Republic emigrant population as it relates to the country's total population during the years 1990–2015. This data contributed to the research question that was posed in this chapter.

Procedures

The data for this chapter was collected from the WIDE, MPI, and UN DESA sites. For the Dominican Republic's upper secondary completion rates for 20 to 29-year-olds from WIDE, the data collected was specific to the criteria of male, female, rural, urban, richest, and poorest for the selected years of 2002, 2007, 2013, and 2014. The same procedure and criteria were applied to the data on the tertiary completion rates of 25 to 29-year-olds. The U.S. immigrant population by country of birth from 1960–2017 was generated on the MPI. The Caribbean countries selected to establish the comparison were Antigua and Barbuda, Bahamas, Barbados, Cuba, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Grenada, Haiti, Jamaica, St. Lucia, St. Vincent & the Grenadines, Trinidad and Tobago, and West Indies. The immigrant and emigrant data gathered is specific to the Dominican Republic.

Methods

A descriptive analysis of the quantitative data gathered is the method of analysis used to address the research question posed in this chapter. A descriptive analysis including frequencies and percentages was used in order to provide a summary of multiple data points that relate to the research question. Holcomb (2016) defines descriptive statistics as the interpretation of data by organizing and summarizing it. This chapter emphasizes the Dominican Republic as the focal point of study. The quantitative data presents information on the upper secondary and tertiary completion rates

in the country. The data sets also include information on the Dominican immigrant and emigrant populations during the selected years.

ANALYSIS

Table 1.1

Dominican Republic Upper Secondary Completion Rate (People Aged 20–29 Years Who Have Completed Upper Secondary School)

| | Male | Female | Rural | Urban | Richest | Poorest |
|------|------|--------|-------|-------|---------|---------|
| 2002 | 31% | 42% | 25% | 42% | — | — |
| 2007 | 37% | 48% | 26% | 49% | 76% | 12% |
| 2013 | 43% | 59% | 40% | 55% | 83% | 18% |
| 2014 | 48% | 64% | 41% | 61% | 89% | 21% |

Note: The World Inequality Database on Education-Dominican Republic. Retrieved from <https://www.education-inequalities.org/countries/dominican-republic#?dimension=all&group=all&year=latest>

Table 1.1 depicts data on the Dominican Republic’s upper secondary completion rates for people aged 20–29 years. The variables included in the table are male, female, rural, urban, richest, poorest. The years represented are 2002, 2007, 2013, and 2014. As shown Table 1.1, completion rates are highest among the richest people for every year examined. The lowest completion rates are reported from the poorest people. Table 1.1 shows a 13% increase in completion rates among the richest from 2002 to 2014 as compared to a 9% increase in completion rates among the poorest during those same years. Table 1.1 also shows that more urban people completed upper secondary education in the Dominican Republic than rural people. Among the urban population, there is a total 19% increase from 2002 to 2014. On the other hand, the rise in completion rates among rural people denotes a 16% increase from 2002 to 2014.

Table 1.2 depicts data on the Dominican Republic’s tertiary completion rates for people aged 25–29 years who had completed at least 2 years of higher education. The variables included in Table 1.2 are male, female, rural, urban, richest, poorest. The years represented are 2002, 2007, 2013, and 2014. As shown by the table, completion rates are highest among the richest people for every year examined. The lowest completion rates are reported from the poorest people. Table 1.2 shows a 14% increase in completion rates among the richest from 2002 to 2014 as compared to a 1% increase in completion rates among the poorest during those same years. Table 1.2 also shows that more urban people completed at least 2 years of

Table 1.2

Dominican Republic Tertiary Completion Rate (Percentage Of People Aged 25–29 Who Have Completed at Least 2 Years Of Higher Education)

| | Male | Female | Rural | Urban | Richest | Poorest |
|------|------|--------|-------|-------|---------|---------|
| 2002 | 14% | 23% | 11% | 22% | — | — |
| 2007 | 16% | 23% | 9% | 24% | 48% | 3% |
| 2013 | 18% | 33% | 16% | 29% | 62% | 3% |
| 2014 | 20% | 35% | 13% | 32% | 62% | 4% |

Note: The World Inequality Database on Education-Dominican Republic. Retrieved from <https://www.education-inequalities.org/countries/dominican-republic/#?dimension=all&group=all&year=latest>

higher education in the Dominican Republic than rural people. Among the urban population, there is a steady rise shown for each consecutive year analyzed with a total 10% increase from 2002 to 2014. On the other hand, the rise in completion rates among rural people is inconsistent and denotes only a 2% increase from 2002 to 2014.

Table 1.3

Dominican Republic Tertiary Completion Rate (Percentage of People Aged 25–29 Who Have Completed at Least 4 Years of Higher Education)

| | Male | Female | Rural | Urban | Richest | Poorest |
|------|------|--------|-------|-------|---------|---------|
| 2002 | 8% | 14% | 6% | 13% | — | — |
| 2007 | 7% | 12% | 4% | 12% | 27% | 1% |
| 2013 | 9% | 18% | 7% | 16% | 40% | 0% |
| 2014 | 10% | 18% | 6% | 17% | 38% | 2% |

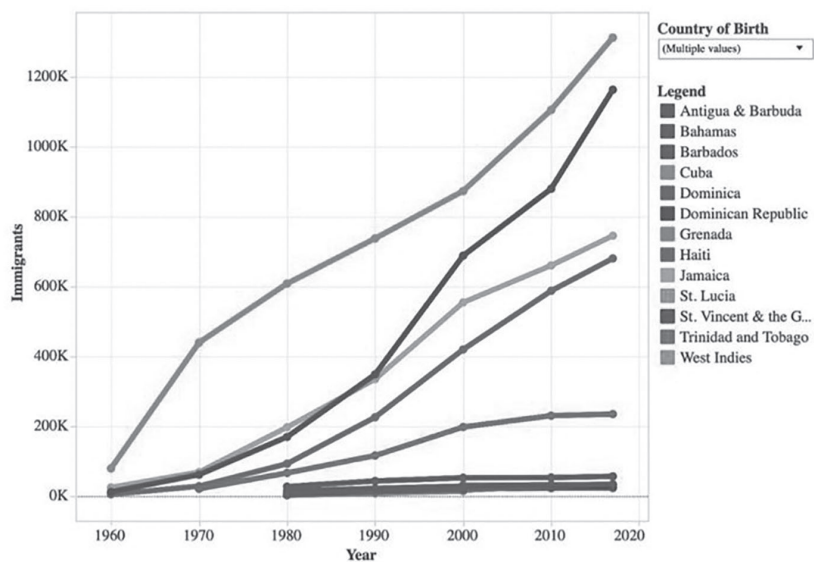
Note: The World Inequality Database on Education-Dominican Republic. Retrieved from <https://www.education-inequalities.org/countries/dominican-republic/#?dimension=all&group=all&year=latest>

Table 1.3 depicts data on the Dominican Republic's tertiary completion rates for people aged 25–29 years who had completed at least 4 years of higher education. The variables included in the table are male, female, rural, urban, richest, poorest. The years represented are 2002, 2007, 2013, and 2014. As shown by Table 1.3, completion rates are highest among the richest people for every year examined. The lowest completion rates are

reported from the poorest people. Table 1.3 shows an 11% increase in completion rates among the richest from 2002 to 2014 as compared to a 1% increase in completion rates among the poorest during those same years. Table 1.3 also shows that more urban people completed at least 4 years of higher education in the Dominican Republic than rural people. Among the urban population, there is a steady rise shown for each consecutive year analyzed with a total 4% increase from 2002 to 2014. On the other hand, the rise in completion rates among rural people is inconsistent and denotes only a 0% increase from 2002 to 2014.

Figure 1.1.

U.S. Immigrant Population by Country of Birth, 1960–2017



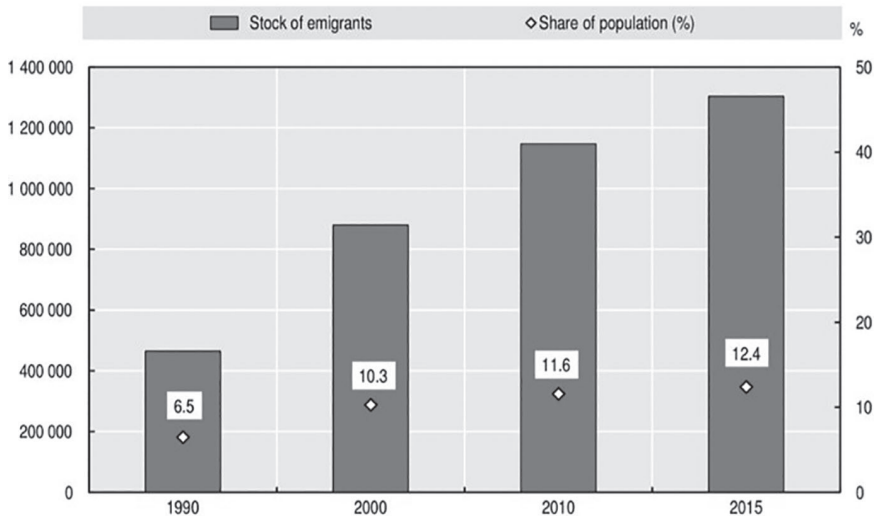
Source: Migration Policy Institute (MPI), Data Hub. Retrieved from <https://www.migrationpolicy.org/programs/data-hub/charts/immigrants-countries-birth-over-time?width=1000&height=850&iframe=true>

Figure 1.1 depicts a line graph representation of the U.S. immigrant population by country of birth from the years 1960 to 2017. The 13 Caribbean countries represented in this figure are Antigua and Barbuda, Bahamas, Barbados, Cuba, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Grenada, Haiti, Jamaica, St. Lucia, St. Vincent & the Grenadines, Trinidad and Tobago, and West Indies. The years represented are 1960, 1970, 1980, 1990, 2000, 2010, and 2020. As shown by Figure 1.1, the U.S. immigration population from the Dominican Republic was of equal value as the other

countries represented with less than 200,000. However, by 2020 the U.S. immigrant population from the Dominican Republic is the second highest of the countries examined at just under 1,200,000. In 2020 the Dominican Republic comes second to Cuba who has a U.S. immigrant population of about 1,500,000. Additionally, in 2020 the third highest U.S. immigrant population depicted by Figure 1.1 comes from Jamaica with just under 800,000. Therefore, there is a wider margin of the U.S. immigrant population between the Dominican Republic and Jamaica than there is between the Dominican Republic and Cuba. Figure 1.1 depicts the rapidly growing Dominican emigrant population from 1960 to 2020.

Figure 1.2.

Stock of Emigrants and Emigrants as share of Population-Dominican Republic 1990–2015



Source: UN DESA (2015), International Migration Stock: The 2015 Revision, (database), www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/migration/data/estimates2/estimates15.shtml

Figure 1.2 depicts a bar graph that shows the number of emigrants contrasted to the total population of the Dominican Republic for the selected years. The total emigrant population is represented by the hundred thousand while the share of the population is represented by percentage. The years depicted by Figure 1.2 are 1990, 2000, 2010, and 2015. Figure 1.2 shows a steady rise of emigrants within the Dominican population. From 1990 to 2015, the stock of emigrants from the Dominican Republic nearly doubled. Figure 1.2 depicts that as the Dominican population continues

to rise, the stock of emigrants is rising as well. Therefore, from the years 1990 to 2015, the Dominican Republic's population is both growing and migrating at a steady pace.

DISCUSSION

RQ: How have patterns of emigration influenced the educational advancement of the Dominican Republic?

The data presented in this research chapter support the claim that higher rates of emigration from the Dominican Republic contributes towards lower levels of tertiary completion rates. The data on the upper secondary completion rate for 20 to 29-year-olds in the Dominican Republic is significantly higher than the data for the tertiary completion rates of 25 to 29-year-olds throughout the country for the years selected. For each year analyzed by the data, the percentage of the Dominican population that completed at least 2 years of higher education shows a decline when compared to the upper secondary completion rates. The data shows an even steeper decline in the percentage of the Dominican population that completed at least 4 years of higher education. The same remains true within each of the variables selected. This data demonstrates that although a growing number of Dominican citizens are completing their upper secondary education, many are not furthering their education by pursuing to complete at least 2 or 4 years of higher education.

The data also presents the number of the U.S. immigrant population born in Caribbean countries from 1960 to 2017. As depicted by Figure 1.1, the Dominican Republic has the second highest U.S. immigrant Caribbean-born population. The Dominican Republic remains the second highest at each year that is analyzed by the line graph. The graph also shows that the gap between the Dominican Republic and Cuba, who has the highest U.S. immigrant Caribbean-born population, starts off wide and steadily narrows as time progresses. Figure 1.2 presents data on the rising emigrant population and the ways in which the percentage of the Dominican population living abroad continues to increase over time. The data represents a steady rise in the Dominican Republic's overall population and the percentage of the population that has emigrated elsewhere.

As depicted by the literature, the relationship between education and economic growth portray the need for individuals to further their learning in order to break the cyclical patterns of poverty (Mihai et al., 2015). Students from disadvantaged families perform lower academically than their peers from higher socioeconomic status (Ladd, 2012). Although the Dominican Republic has experienced some years of economic growth due

to a rise in tourism, a significant portion continues to live in conditions of poverty (The World Bank, 2019). The data depicted in this chapter presents the case that a disproportionate number of Dominicans are choosing to migrate when compared to the number of people who are attaining a postsecondary education. As more college-aged students are choosing to leave the country, the Dominican citizens who remain on the island experience limited access to the human capital needed to eradicate the harmful impact caused by poverty. Using postcolonial theory as a framework, the data in this chapter showcases increased instances of educated hybrids that contribute to the development of other nations at the expense of a migrant's country of origin (Mains et al., 2013). An in-depth analysis of the data presented in this chapter, from the lens of postcolonial theory, begets a renewed interpretation of globalization and the unequal distribution of benefits for countries throughout the world. As stated in the literature, postcolonialism offers a depiction of existing power struggles that are rooted in migrant cultural identity (Powell, 2017). Therefore, as the Dominican Republic continues to portray increased instances of emigration and decreased levels of educational advancement, the nation is ultimately left in a vulnerable positional of negatively impacting the country's overall economic development.

LIMITATIONS

The purpose of this chapter was to determine if the Dominican emigrant population had any influence on educational advancement and economic development of the country. The data presented in this chapter depicts the upper secondary completion rates of 20 to 29-year-olds, the percentage of 25 to 29-year-olds who completed at least 2 years of higher education, and the percentage of 25 to 29-year-olds who completed at least 4 years of higher education in the Dominican Republic for the years 2002, 2007, 2013, and 2014. The specific variable observed for each of those datasets were male, female, rural, urban, the richest, and the poorest of the Dominican population. A limitation of this chapter is not having qualitative data to help further support the hypothesis made for the research question posed in this chapter. Although the quantitative data shows that there is a decrease in the rates of higher education completion and an increase in the number of the Dominican-born U.S. immigrant population and the number of Dominican emigrants living abroad, qualitative data could help uncover some of the context behind this data. Another limitation of this chapter is that data is not provided on the percentage of Dominican-born immigrant population that completed 2 or 4 years of higher education while living abroad. This data could help determine if Dominican emigrants are

pursuing and completing this level of education although they have left the country. Another limitation of this chapter was the limited literature available on the educational system of the Dominican Republic. Much of the literature available on the characteristics of education in the country was significantly outdated leaving a gap that needs to be further explored in future research. Lastly, a significant limitation of this chapter was the lack of studies conducted to determine the role of emigration on education in the Dominican Republic. Future studies need to be conducted to determine if individuals are prioritizing voluntary migration over furthering their education and the overall influence this has on the economic development of the country.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

If given access to unlimited funds and appropriate resources, this study could be improved by adding qualitative data including interviews and surveys to determine if students enrolled in upper secondary education in the Dominican Republic aspire to pursue higher education in the country or to move abroad. This qualitative data could also help provide a better understanding for the reasons which college-aged students are choosing to further their education or live abroad. More data and future research are also necessary to determine the number of Dominican emigrants who return to their country of origin to work professionally. This chapter aimed to present an overview of the ways in which emigration hinders the educational advancement and economic development of the Dominican Republic. Further research can be targeted towards uncovering the correlations between emigration, education, and poverty in the country. Research of this nature holds important implications for the overall betterment of a country and its people.

CONCLUSION

The Dominican Republic has experienced a history of growth and progress made in the midst of economic and/or political turmoil. Recent data on the poverty rates of the Dominican Republic portray progress being made over time. However, as the emigration rates continue to rise throughout the country, enrollment in higher education continues to decline. This chapter explored the influence of increased emigration and decreased education on the country's overall economic development. As college-aged students are moving abroad at heightened rates, the Dominican Republic's poverty rates highlight substantial implications for the country's remaining citi-

zens. The literature on this topic supports the understanding that access to and the completion of higher education has the potential to eradicate the stigmas established by a country in poverty. Although emigration is an essential component of a globalized society, receiving countries are benefitted the most when people do not return to their country of origin. Zong and Batalova (2018) explain the economic and political evolution of migration from the Dominican Republic as one that will continue to grow over time. With more people leaving the country than those completing higher education, the Dominican Republic is experiencing a loss of skilled labor and career professionals that can contribute towards the country's ability to compete in a globalized world.

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CHAPTER 2

COMPARING TEACHER PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT INITIATIVES IN THREE CARIBBEAN COUNTRIES

Implications for Leaders

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ABSTRACT

Teacher professional development and teacher leadership are critical components of building teaching capacity, increasing school improvement, and promoting teachers as social change agents. This qualitative phenomenological study couched in the interpretivist paradigm compared and contrasted the views of 11 Guyanese teachers, 6 teachers in St. Eustatius, and 7 Grenadian teachers in order to determine how teacher professional development workshops are planned and implemented, how teachers measure whether

teacher professional development initiatives have been successful and how these endeavours promote teacher leadership. Findings indicate that in Guyana and Grenada, for the most part, teacher professional development is planned and implemented based on positionality. Additionally, conclusions suggest that teachers in Guyana use students' performance as a means of determining the efficacy of teacher professional development. Moreover, teachers from St Eustatius indicated that they used their staff appraisals to determine the effects of teacher professional development workshops. All participants stated that changes in their instructional delivery and teaching methodology were external indications of the effect of teacher professional development. The researcher recommends that teachers be given more autonomy in determining the content of the professional development workshops. Moreover, school leaders should encourage formal, informal, and independent professional development as well as teacher leadership that inspires quality professional development training. Peer-coaching should be encouraged as a means of promoting sustainability in the workplace.

INTRODUCTION

There is a global thrust to drive up standards and improve the quality of education. Leadership is thought of as integral to educational achievement and to the accomplishment of these goals. However, research has not always borne out this intuitive logic. The consensus is that educational leaders' effect is manifested through the influence they have on the teacher professional development, teachers' instructional practices, students' achievement, teacher leadership and that these become conduits through which effective and innovative leadership is engendered (Hallinger & Heck 1996, 2010; Robinson et al., 2008).

Therefore, the focus has shifted to educational leaders' role in facilitating teacher professional development opportunities as well as promoting teacher leadership. Many researchers contend that teacher leadership and teacher professional development have much in common. Educational leaders support teachers' professional development when they work to build a school environment that is conducive to collaborative learning, development of inventive practices, and the enhancement of ongoing learning as well as application and adaptation of new knowledge and skills in the classroom.

However significant educational leadership is, the statistics show that there is a need to recruit more teachers. UNESCO (2016) discussed the need to recruit 69 million teachers globally at the primary and middle schools in order to attain the Education For All 2030 goals. Teacher shortage is not the only issue facing the educational system since there are concerns of teacher dissatisfaction and teacher attrition (Wenner &

Campbell, 2017). At present, the issues facing education systems locally, regionally, and globally point to the need to understand what is happening in the classroom and how these systems and leaders can help teachers cope.

A review of the news in Guyana, Trinidad, Barbados, and Grenada shows that teachers are dissatisfied and are finding ways to voice this dissatisfaction through protest actions. Guyanese teachers are also having ongoing discussions with the government over issues in salaries *inter alia* since August 2019. In the November 2018 issue of *St. Lucia Online* the Grenadian government urged teachers not to take industrial action and stay away from classes. However, this industrial action lasted weeks until a compromise was reached. Similarly, in Chicago, October 31, 2019, teachers also protested their working conditions and salaries. This all underscores dissatisfaction among teachers and begs the question: How can leaders help teachers in such systems feel more able to cope with the changing dynamics within the classroom?

LITERATURE REVIEW

Teacher Professional Development

The answer, of course, is multifaceted; however, one component that is of utmost importance is that of the professional development. The type of professional development an organization provides can determine whether staff feels valued and appreciated (Bissessar, 2013). Researchers, over the years, have defined professional development based on activities and practices on the quality of teacher professional development with the link to students' learning outcomes (Darling-Hammond et al., 2009; Montero, 2012). This is further enhanced by Desimone's (2009) six characteristics of effective teacher professional development, which are: focus on content; effective professional development; structure of profession development (PD) program; teacher collaboration; time of engagement and personal transformation and growth. This takes into account both activities, practices and the quality of the professional development, which would enhance students' learning outcomes and extends the discussion to components of collaboration and personal transformation. Therefore, the concept of teacher professional development is as much professional as it is personal with formal, informal, and teacher independent learning (Desimone, 2009; Jones & Dexter, 2014).

With this in mind, determining a definition of professional development is somewhat complicated. Desimone (2009) cited Little's (1987) definition of professional development as "any activity that is intended partly or primarily to prepare paid staff members for improved performance in present

or future roles in the school districts” (p. 491). However, trying to create an operational and conceptual definition of professional development is a difficult one since the concept of professional development and all that it entails is as diverse as the people who are involved in the action and process of professional development.

Furthermore, the definition of professional development implied by Little (1987, as cited by Desimone, 2009) is that of a task/activity/practice whereas professional development is more than this. It encompasses collective and individual activities/practices and filters down to key stakeholders: its ambit is as wide, diverse, and mercurial as its participants are. Therefore, finding an operational and conceptual definition that encompasses its tangible and intangible influences can be difficult. Nevertheless, it is definite that professional development involves activities that cater to what happens within the classroom after the training has taken place, coaching and mentoring, its nature is continuous and embedded in all aspects of the teachers’ individual and collective relationships (Desimone, 2009).

In fact, in her narrative review of teacher professional development, Bissessar (2013) found that researchers underscored the dynamic and complex nature of teacher professional development suggesting aspects of effective teacher professional development programs, which they felt could be used as a litmus test to determine its effectiveness. Additionally, Butler (1992) and Desimone (2009) were concerned with content, follow-up, purpose, and structure while Showers et al. (1987) were concerned with the human aspect of professional development such as students’ and teachers’ characteristics. Put simply, researchers view teacher professional development as a process that is ongoing, and the product changes based on the skills of the producers and their clientele.

Just as it is difficult to define teacher professional development, the framework for evaluating its value is myriad and spans decades of suggestions by researchers. The earliest frameworks for the evaluation of professional development started with Kirkpatrick (1959), Stake (1967), Stufflebeam (2003), Gusky (2002), and Killion (2003) where the focus was on ensuring that information was disseminated and that training took place. The emphasis was on precision and follow-up, according to Jones and Dexter (2014). Later, there was a movement to understand teachers’ individual and collective needs and the influence of teacher professional development on both the professional and personal aspects (Bubb & Earley, 2010; King, 2014).

Teachers prefer to be part of the process of planning and implementing of Teacher Professional Development (TPD) rather than having it handed to them (Diaz-Maggioli, 2004). Diaz-Maggioli (2004) indicated that two of the major constraints to TPD is lack of ownership of the TPD process where teachers are not given voice to what they would like to see in TPD work-

shops. Svendsen (2020) echoed similar sentiments and stated, “teachers need to be able to plan, implement and evaluate practice based on reflections on the basis of inquiries into their practice” (p. 113). Diaz-Maggioli furthered that there is a lack of systematic evaluation of professional development and its influence on teachers after it has been administered. In the event that it is evaluated, there is lack of communication of the results to the various stakeholders. She suggested the Teachers’ Choice Framework of critical areas that professional development planners need to take into consideration.

Teacher Leadership

Researchers agree that the definition of teacher leadership is difficult to conceptualize and operationalize (Wenner & Campbell, 2017). In the United States, teacher leadership occurs in four waves. These waves emerged chronologically but are fluid in nature, do not relate to a given time period and are more based on the context in which teacher leadership operates (Sanocki, 2013). According to Silva et al. (2000), the first wave is the formal/hierarchical role that teachers have such as heads of department and deans, which furthers the “efficacy of the school administration” (York-Barr & Duke, 2004, p. 260). The second wave, according to Silva et al., is that of appointing teachers to serve as mentors, staff developers and curriculum experts, thus, utilizing the expertise of the teacher, which sees the role of the teacher as instructional leader.

The third wave speaks to the protean nature of the teacher as leader and the role the teacher plays in reshaping and transforming the school’s organizational culture. This third wave transcends the other two waves and shows, according to York-Barr and Duke (2004), “an increased understanding that promoting instructional improvement requires an organizational culture that supports collaboration and continuous learning and recognizes teachers as primary creators and re-creators of school culture” (p. 240). The third wave recognizes teachers as leaders within and outside of the classroom and is seen as a process rather than a position (Pounder, 2006). In this third wave, the teacher is given the opportunity to hone his/her leadership abilities and this leadership is seen as emergent (Crippin & Willows, 2019). The fourth wave involves the inclusion of students into the teacher leadership dyad where both key stakeholders have the concomitant responsibility of ensuring that there is a shared culture of teaching and learning (Pounder, 2006; Sanocki, 2013).

Wenner and Campbell’s (2017) literature review reflect these aspects of teacher leadership. They found that specific conditions exist in order for teacher leadership to thrive. There should be: (1) a focus on roles that are

not limited to the classroom; and (2) principals and school structure that empower rather than marginalize teacher leaders. Indeed, from Wenner and Campbell's (2017) review of the literature, there is a significant link to softer skills, which include skills related to relationship building, collaboration and congeniality. Earlier, Harris and Muijs (2002) posited four components of teacher leadership. First, brokerage, which indicates what practices teachers engage in within the classroom to promote school improvement. Next, participative which relates to collaboration and how teachers exemplify autonomy and show themselves as agents of social change. Third, mediating where the teacher uses different resources available within and outside of the school. Finally, relationships whereby teacher leaders foster mutually beneficial relationships. Similarly, York-Barr and Duke (2004) agreed with these aspects of teacher leadership espoused by Harris and Muijs (2002) but transcended the discussion to include organizational leadership and not instructional leadership alone. As organizational leaders, teacher leaders examine educational policies and are included in the management of schools.

Andrews and Crowther (2006) later expanded the idea of teacher leadership. They conducted a case study of teacher leadership as manifested in schools in Australia. They found that the following aspects of teacher leadership were manifested: (1) they lead by example; (2) they are authentic in their teaching/learning and assessments; (3) foster school-wide professional development communities; (4) engender sustainability through actions; and (5) foment a culture of success.

The underpinning of this manifest teacher leadership is reflected in Cherkowski's (2018) recommendation that teacher leadership can foster reflective praxis, which allows the teacher and others to grow and develop. Hence, the concept of teacher leadership continues to evolve as teachers' qualifications, capabilities and talents expand. From the literature, it can be seen that teacher leadership grew from its initial concept as being within the realms of the classroom and based on practices of teaching and learning to that of relationship building within the school community and outside of the school community. Thus, the concept of teacher leadership continues to evolve and be linked to more aspects than York-Barr and Duke's (2004) earlier findings where emphasis is on teacher leadership roles and tasks. Such tasks include visionary leadership and collaborating with key stakeholders as an example of the role. Moreover, York-Barr and Duke conceptualized teacher leadership as formal and informal encompassing participative, leadership as an organizational quality, distributed, and parallel leadership.

There are several constraints to teacher leadership. According to Baecher (2011), a teacher leader is not the norm and could be challenging. Instead of building capacity the same individuals get "dumped on"

(p. 317). Responsibilities as a teacher leader can be seen as opportunities, building capacity and distributing leadership, however, such responsibilities can be onerous. Congruently, Brooks et al. (2004) found that teacher leadership was “a source of frustration that pried them from the essential, instructional tasks of their profession” (p. 242). Later, Brosky (2011) found that the teachers who lacked confidence, were unwilling to go against the rigid hierarchical structures and were uncomfortable in positions of power found it difficult to be effective teacher leaders.

Teacher Leadership and Professional Development

Ghamrawi (2013) conducted a mixed-methodology study in Lebanon to determine the effects of a professional development model after 3 years of being employed within the same organization. She conducted focus groups with 113 teachers and trainers and asked them to complete surveys. Within this private K–12 organization, Ghamrawi concluded that the professional development model promoted teacher leadership where there was a significant increase in participants’ motivation, self-efficacy, assertiveness, and collegiality. This study makes a connection between teacher professional development and teacher leadership; however, the study is limited to its population and may not be applicable to diverse populations.

Although not directly linked to teacher professional development, Cherkowski (2018) makes a strong appeal for more teacher-leadership training programs in order to enhance teachers’ well-being and growth in the workplace. She also suggested that teacher leadership, if properly implemented, can lead to a sustainable positive workplace culture. Congruently, Jingwa (2019), in his study of positive teacher leadership, found that teachers and principals expressed positive teacher leadership qualities through service to others and appreciation of others.

As if answering that call, Flores (2018) conducted a 3-year mixed methodology study in Portugal with 2,702 teachers and determined that there were three prevalent themes. Teachers saw leadership as pluralistic and diverse leadership roles. Participants in this study acknowledged the legitimate authority of the principals and heads of departments where leadership is “pre-defined” (p. 27). However, the participants discussed teachers who made a difference in the school and did not have formalized roles. They recognized such individuals as true leaders who had the ability to motivate others. They performed informal functions which made leadership distributed. Flores also found that teachers were leaders of learning within the classroom contexts where they exercised teacher agency. The final phase of the study included interviews with teachers who were involved in a 1-year professional development program. The teachers cited

collaboration, reflection and developing their leadership skills as benefits of the professional development program.

Within the Caribbean context, Julius (2017) conducted a mixed methodology study of continuing professional development in Antigua, Anguilla, and Montserrat and found that leadership and continuous professional development were interrelated. However, in this study the emphasis was not so much on teacher leadership as it was on school leadership. Nevertheless, Julius made a connection between teacher leadership and Continuous Professional Development in the Caribbean islands. A more direct link is needed between teacher professional development and teacher leadership; however, this study is one of the few that pertains to the Caribbean islands.

Bissessar (2020) examined the responses of 17 secondary teacher educators in Guyana towards improving the staff morale within their institutions. They conducted a needs assessment on the staff morale at their organizations and implemented a workshop involving three to five strategies in order to promote a culture of improved staff morale. This initiative raised the morale of not only the organization but also the in-service students/teachers. Moreover, the students/teachers were able to hone their teacher leadership skills since all students were relatively new to the profession (3 to 5 years) and had never been in charge of any such endeavor. The conclusions from this initiative corroborate York-Barr and Duke's (2004) definition of teacher leadership, which involves influencing colleagues to improve themselves. This speaks to the transformational aspect of teacher leadership as well as the promotion of positive behaviour within the organization (Cherkowski, 2018).

METHODOLOGY

The research design used was the interpretivist paradigm since this study was qualitative in nature. In the interpretivist paradigm, the researcher examines the phenomenon based on the participants' subjective experiences of it (Creswell, 2014). The researcher used the interpretive phenomenology approach in order to describe participants' lived experiences of teacher professional development. It provided detailed information of the participants' "lived experiences on its own terms rather than one prescribed by pre-existing theoretical preconceptions and it recognizes that this is an interpretative endeavour since humans are sense-making organisms" (Smith & Osborn, 2015, p. 41).

Eleven Guyanese teachers (1 primary head-teacher and 10 secondary school teachers), 6 teachers in St. Eustatius, and 7 Grenadian teachers completed the interview questions on teacher professional development. Respondents gave informed consent to participate in the study. The

researcher informed the participants that at any time they could voluntarily stop participating in the study. They were also ensured privacy, confidentiality, and anonymity. All teachers from St Eustatius and Grenada were females; however, there were seven male Guyanese teachers. The teachers' ages ranged from 24 to 50 years with years of service from two to 25. The sampling method used was convenience sampling with snowballing in order to obtain as many participants as possible (Creswell, 2014). The researcher constructed questions around the current practices in professional development and the improvements participants would like to see implemented regarding professional development.

DATA ANALYSIS

The researcher recorded and transcribed the interviews. The researcher used Braun and Clarke's (2006) six-step framework: become familiar with the data; generate initial codes; search for themes; review the themes; define themes and wrap up in order to code the data. The researcher read and re-read the transcribed data until she identified the themes. The researcher classified the recurring words and phrases into themes. First, the researcher analyzed the data at the semantic level and later at the latent level. The researcher used the inductive approach to coding based on the responses. The researcher read and re-read the interviews until themes and categories emerged. The researcher used phrases and sentences to understand the meaning of the data (Saldaña, 2013).

In order to ensure credibility, the researcher examined and re-examined the data at different times to determine consistent themes. The researcher also coded the data and re-coded the data 2 weeks later in order to ensure that the codes were consistent. There were no evident threats to external and internal consistency of the data. After coding the data and re-coding the data 2 weeks later, an intra-class correlation coefficient (ICC) reliability test revealed a reliability of .8. According to Cicchetti (1994), this is a good level of intra-rater reliability based on Shrout and Fleiss (1979) convention of the third model of ICC (3.1). In this instance, the researcher was the only rater of interest to analyze the data.

There were no known biases to the research since the researcher is not based at a secondary school and, at present, do not have exposure to teacher leadership within this context. However, reflexivity ensured that there were no biases. The researcher did this in the form of memos. Additionally, the researcher did not need to engage in bracketing since she does not have bias where this topic is concerned. However, there could have been social desirability based on the participants' responses. Additionally, the sample size is small and cannot be generalized to a larger population. However,

it can be representative of each participant's context. A mixed methodology study would have yielded more compelling results with a view towards determining how the qualitative data complements the quantitative data. An intercultural study of developed and developing countries would also show the differences in the topic of teacher professional development and teacher leadership.

FINDINGS

Teacher Leadership and Professional Development

Teacher Leadership Is Positional

Most of the participants indicated that the manner in which professional development was decided upon in their schools was top/down with very little input from them. The Guyanese participants discussed the top/down nature of the staff development initiatives whereas the teachers from St. Eustatius indicated that there are discussions before a decision is made as to the content of the staff development. The Grenadian teachers indicated that teacher professional development sessions are organized and implemented by the Ministry of Education and select teachers attend these training.

All Guyanese participants indicated that the head-teacher was the one who was responsible for deciding the staff development workshops that are conducted. For example, Guyanese Participant 2 stated, "The head-teacher decides on a topic after consulting with junior and senior teachers." Guyanese Participant 1 explained, "Staff development is set by the head-teacher as per department." She continued, "The head of department then decides on a topic and compiles a suitable session to deliver within a half an hour time frame." Guyanese Participant 9 stated, "In my school, the head-teacher will observe the teachers and based on the teachers' need, the head-teacher will conduct staff development to help the teachers."

Conversely, in St. Eustatius, according to participants, there is a discussion and based on the discussion then the content of the staff development workshop is finalized. St. Eustatius Participant 1 shared, "A topic of interest is selected by the school director and shared with the staff. The staff is divided into groups and the topic is discussed along with strategies for implementation." St. Eustatius Participant 4 explained the protocol, "In our Department of Education, there is a half day once per month where schools engage in professional development. The initiatives that the department are requiring that teachers implement are worked on during

the professional development time.” This can be contrasted with that of the Guyanese Participant 8 who stated:

Every HOD [Head of Department] and senior teachers are expected to conduct at least 3 staff development for each term. However, in my school only few teachers will do all three, most HODs do one within the department. Most do it just for record sake and the staff development sessions are very poor.

Whereas in St. Eustatius, there are set protocols which should be followed and in Guyana there are stipulated amount of staff development workshops per term, one Grenadian participant indicated that there is no fixed approach. Grenada Participant 3 shared, “There is no serious approach. The needs of the teachers and the school are assessed to determine what area needs to be developed.” However, Grenada Participant 1 stated, “Teachers are aware of the critical importance of PD towards enhancing students’ performances. Teachers, therefore, willingly attend workshops and seminars organized by the Ministry of Education.”

From these examples, it can be seen that there are slight nuances in the discussions on teacher professional development and what pertains for one island as opposed to another. However, the consensus among participants is that teacher professional development should be taken more seriously, and school leaders should ensure that a more methodical approach to teacher professional development is given especially in Guyana and Grenada.

Teacher Leadership Fosters Change

After implementation of the teacher professional development workshop, teacher leaders indicated how they were able to foster change within the organization and how that change was evidenced. The change was seen based on feedback from students, students’ improved performance, and teachers’ improved performance via improved instructional delivery and changes in attitude. The discussion below exemplifies the teachers’ responses.

Feedback From Students and Their Improved Performance

Guyanese Participant 2 stated, “The success is determined from students’ feedback and a suggestion box is set up to allow students to express whether they are satisfied or not with teachers’ empowerment.” Guyanese Participant 6 expatiated, “If the concepts make the lesson more enjoyable

for the students and help the students to understand the content easier, I deem the program to be a success.” Guyanese Participant 7 stated, “the success of the programme is measured by the success of the students or lack thereof.” Guyanese Participant 9 echoed similar sentiments, “I think the success of PD is determined through professional growth and improved results from the pupils.” However, Guyanese Participant 8 explained:

At the end of the PD session, the facilitator writes a report of the strength and weaknesses of the session. Other than subject teachers analysing their individual class performance at the end of the term, there is no other means to determine if the PD [Professional Development] session enhances students’ learning. And at the end of the term, students’ performance is not traced back to PD sessions in the school.

Teachers’ Improved Performance

Participants noted changes in attitude and teaching methods. Guyanese Participant 5 explained, “Through general observations most teachers generally display a change of attitude towards work and also display enhanced ethical behaviours.” Other Guyanese participants indicated that they measured the success of teacher professional development based on the improvement of their teaching methods. For example, Guyanese Participant 3 opined, “We determine the success of professional development by checking the methods used during teaching and if they employ what they had garnered during the staff development in the classroom.” Congruently, St. Eustatius Participant 3 stated, “Progress can be measured by the techniques used in the classroom.” With a slight variation in perspective, Guyanese Participant 6 expatiated, “I determine the success of the enhancement programme by its impact on the delivery of my lessons.” Guyanese Participant 10 added the dimension of being able to transform theoretical constructs into practices. She stated:

Sometimes HOD would observe real classrooms in action to observe if teachers are able to turn theory into practice by implementing what was learned. For a PD on questioning techniques, the HOD will know if the session is a success by observing how teachers use various questioning techniques to elicit answers from students.

A PD on teacher’s attitude in the classroom will be assessed when HOD does supervision and spot check is being done as follow-up activity.

Nevertheless, Guyanese Participant 11 explained:

To measure teachers' professional development there is an end of term assessment that all teachers of the school must undergo. It includes aspects such as methodology, dress code, relations with staff and students and then a percentage is given to the teacher. The percent will be used as points for promotion when that teacher is ready for such.

Despite these positive aspects, Guyanese Participant 8 shared, "There are no techniques to measure the success of the programs. Like I said, it is mostly done just to fill in a slot at the end of the monthly report to the department."

On the other hand, in St. Eustatius, there are established protocols, which are expected to be adhered to, for example, St. Eustatius Participant 2 stated, "Towards the end of the school year, Department Coordinators are to execute progress interviews and provide reports to the board." St. Eustatius Participant 4 explained, "Teachers are observed during informal and formal observations and provided with feedback as to the execution and follow through. Teachers are rated during these processes and the information is shared with them in a timely manner."

Grenada Participant 1 explained how teacher leaders are groomed after chosen teachers attend workshops at the Ministry of Education, "Staff sessions are then organised so that the informed teachers can share the new knowledge and skills to the others." However, Grenada Participant 2 shared, "In-house approach is taken whereby the principal utilizes the skills and knowledge of staff members to help with best practices. Therefore, teacher leaders emerge in the process of ensuring that TPD occurs. External resource persons are also brought in at times or in collaboration with staff colleagues."

Grenada Participant 3 stated:

There is no serious approach. The needs of the teachers and the school are assessed to determine what area needs to be developed. If any member of staff possesses the necessary skills required then that individual would be asked to conduct the training, if not someone who possesses the skills and knowledge of the subject is asked.

From these discussions, the cascade method of professional development is used by the Guyanese and Grenadian school leaders. The participants also indicated that teacher leaders emerge based on their training, knowledge, and skills.

DISCUSSION

From the information discussed above, it can be said that teacher professional development and teacher leadership are intricately woven. The