The Impact of Internationalization on the Regionalization of Higher Education in the English Speaking Caribbean: A Case Study of the University of the West Indies

by

Paula Patricia Green

A thesis submitted in conformity with the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy
Department of Leadership, Higher and Adult Education
University of Toronto

© Copyright by Paula Patricia Green 2016
The Impact of Internationalization on the Regionalization of Higher Education in the English Speaking Caribbean: A Case Study of the University of the West Indies

Paula Patricia Green
Doctor of Philosophy
Department of Leadership, Higher and Adult Education
University of Toronto
2016

Abstract

The University of the West Indies (UWI) is one of two regional universities in the world. In the history of the ‘West Indies,’ successive European colonizers attempted to form a federation of the Windward and Leeward Islands. Both the colonial administration and the independence movements which created a rising elite in these former British colonies, had political and economic motivations for establishing a regional university, and advancing functional cooperation through an integration mechanism - the Caribbean Community (CARICOM). Following the 1958 to 1962 Federation experiment, the UWI became enshrined as a symbol of Caribbean integration. But the challenges of surviving and competing in the global economy have persisted. In their post independence struggles for economic survival, the Anglophone Caribbean seems to have substituted political for economic dependence, with continued reliance on extra-regional funding authorities. As such, in the new neoliberal reality, the UWI must produce human capital - knowledge workers - to fulfill labour market needs; develop commercial research, and support continued regional economic development, with reduced government funding, under increasing levels of accountability. With globalization and internationalization, the UWI is in the process of broadening its mandate, to include the other linguistic and ethnocultural groups, constituting the larger Caribbean area, including Central and
Latin America. As part of its internationalization strategy, it has increased inter-institutional partnerships and other collaborative practices, within the region and extra-regionally.

Globalization, neoliberalism, regionalization and internationalization have also given rise to many challenges. They have facilitated intercultural experiences, academic mobility and non-traditional delivery mechanisms in higher education. However, the struggles to finance national economies and higher education, have led to tensions in national sovereignty and regional aspirations within CARICOM. The central question for this research was whether internationalization is advancing or hindering regionalization mandate of the University of the West Indies in the Anglophone Caribbean.
Acknowledgments

I would like to acknowledge and thank the following:

- My thesis committee: Dr. Glen Jones, Chair; Dr. Ruth Hayhoe; and Dr. Alissa Trotz. You have all been wonderfully supportive to me throughout this journey. Thank you for your consistency, reliability and academic guidance.

- Dr. Kumari Beck, at Simon Fraser University, who unhesitatingly agreed to serve as my external, thank you for your invaluable feedback.

- Dr. Creso Sa and Linda Muzzin whose classes and various contributions were important, as I crossed the milestones towards the completion of the thesis.

- The library staff at the University of the West Indies, particularly at the Mona Campus. Your guidance, support, welcoming spirit and willingness to accommodate me, during my first planned and second unplanned visit to Mona was greatly appreciated. Thank you for your time, the recommended sources and use of the facilities. Ms. Cherry-Ann Smart and staff and Mrs. Leona Bobb-Semple deserve particular mention.

- Ms. Nicola Patterson-Lipps, in the Research Planning Office. Your personal books and the other resources materials that you generously relinquished to aid me in the research, was very much appreciated. They proved to be invaluable.

- Dr. Bell Hutchinson, Campus Registrar (Mona); Ms Allison Fung at the Vice Chancellery, Mrs. Camille Ramcharan (St. Augustine) and Dr. Eduardo Ali and other staff at the main campuses and the Open Campus who assisted in facilitating the permissions and ethics review processes required for the field work, my sincerest thanks.

- Dr. Ian Austin, who in the early stages of my journey and at the end, offered time, resources, constructive feedback and guidance - your support was appreciated.

- All of my interview participants without whose cooperation and generosity of time and resources this study would not have been made possible. I thank you. You have helped me tremendously during this process of self-discovery.
Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to my Mother Angella and Brother Simon, for all of your unwavering support during this journey. You are my rock.

To Neil, for the many reminders about the importance of faith and perseverance – we’ll find a way.

To Sister Gertrude Tang Kai, for my first introduction to a profession in education, and reminder of the importance of being able to disagree without being disagreeable; you are a true inspiration and friend.
Table of Contents

Acknowledgments ........................................................................................................ iv

Dedication ..................................................................................................................... v

Table of Contents ........................................................................................................ vi

List of Tables ................................................................................................................ xi

List of Figures ............................................................................................................... xii

List of Appendices ...................................................................................................... xiii

1 CHAPTER ONE - INTRODUCTION .............................................................................. 1

   1.1 Regionalization and Internationalization and the UWI ........................................ 8

   1.2 Background of the Researcher ............................................................................. 9

   1.3 Significance of the Study .................................................................................... 10

   1.4 The Research Problem ....................................................................................... 14

   1.5 Delimitations and Limitations of the Study ........................................................ 16

   1.6 Organization of the Thesis ................................................................................. 16

2 CHAPTER TWO – LITERATURE REVIEW .................................................................. 20

   2.1 Introduction ....................................................................................................... 20

   2.2 The Caribbean .................................................................................................. 21

   2.3 Regional Integration and the Rise of Nationalism .............................................. 26

       2.3.1 Regional Integration ................................................................................ 29

       2.3.2 Nationalism, National Consciousness and National Identity .................. 32

   2.4 The History of Educational Development in the Caribbean ............................ 39

       2.4.1 Higher Education Development ................................................................ 42

       2.4.2 The University of the West Indies ............................................................ 49

       2.4.3 Higher Education Expansion–Postsecondary and Tertiary Education .... 53

   2.5 The Caribbean Examinations Council ............................................................... 56

   2.6 The History of Internationalization in Latin America and the Anglophone Caribbean ............................... 59
2.7 Globalization, Regionalization and Higher Education Regionalization ....................... 63
2.8 The Future .................................................................................................................. 70
2.9 Conclusion ................................................................................................................ 70

3 CHAPTER THREE - METHODOLOGY ........................................................................... 73
  3.1 Regions, Regionalism, Regional Integration and Higher Education Regionalization .... 74
  3.2 Internationalization .................................................................................................. 78
  3.3 The Methodology ...................................................................................................... 80
  3.4 Conceptual Framework ............................................................................................ 87
    3.4.1 Political Economy ............................................................................................... 88
    3.4.2 Decolonization .................................................................................................... 89
    3.4.3 Creolization ......................................................................................................... 91
  3.5 Data Analysis ........................................................................................................... 94
  3.6 Conclusion ................................................................................................................ 97

4 CHAPTER FOUR – DATA ANALYSIS ............................................................................. 98
Defining the Regional University ..................................................................................... 98
  4.1 Introduction ............................................................................................................... 98
  4.2 Federation and the UWI ........................................................................................... 98
  4.3 Regionalism, Regionality and Regionalization at the UWI ........................................ 102
  4.4 Benefits, Challenges and Milestones ....................................................................... 113

5 CHAPTER FIVE – DATA ANALYSIS ............................................................................. 120
Epitomizing Regionality -The Open Campus ................................................................. 120
  5.1 The Evolution of Distance Education at the UWI ...................................................... 121
  5.2 Board for Non-Campus Countries and Distance Education (BNCCDE) .................. 130
    5.2.1 The Tertiary Level Institutions Unit (TLIU) ....................................................... 132
    5.2.2 The School of Continuing Studies ..................................................................... 134
    5.2.3 University of the West Indies Distance Education Centres (UWIDEC) .......... 135
  5.3 The Open Campus .................................................................................................... 136
5.3.1 The Structure of the Open Campus .............................................................. 139
5.4 Accreditation and Quality Assurance ........................................................... 143
  5.4.1 National Accreditation Councils, Regional Accreditation Policies .......... 146
5.5 Quality Assurance and Distance Education .................................................. 152
  5.5.1 Caribbean Universities Project for Integrated Distance Education ....... 152
  5.5.2 Caribbean Knowledge and Learning Network (CKLN) ....................... 154
5.6 Cultural Studies ............................................................................................. 156
5.7 Regionality and the Open Campus ................................................................. 156
5.8 Teacher Education and Regionality ............................................................... 160
5.9 Milestones, Benefits, Challenges and Regionalization ............................... 162
5.10 Conclusion ..................................................................................................... 164

6 CHAPTER SIX – DATA ANALYSIS .................................................................. 169

International Academic Mobility and Cross Border Education ...................... 169
  6.1 Introduction ................................................................................................. 169
  6.2 Historic International Linkages in Early Caribbean Higher Education .... 170
  6.3 Defining Internationalization at The UWI .................................................. 172
  6.4 Organizational Structure Executing Internationalization ......................... 179
    6.4.1 The International Office ......................................................................... 179
    6.4.2 Latin America and Caribbean Centre (LACC) ..................................... 181
    6.4.3 Central Office for Regional and International Affairs (CORIA) ......... 183
  6.5 Internationalization Abroad ....................................................................... 185
    6.5.1 Academic Mobility of Students, Faculty and Staff .............................. 185
  6.6 International Students .................................................................................. 198
  6.7 International Faculty .................................................................................... 201
  6.8 Internationalization At Home ...................................................................... 201
    6.8.1 Regionalization and Internationalization: Intraregional Students ....... 203
and Programs ...................................................................................................... 203
6.9 The Benefits and Challenges of Internationalization for Students .................................................. 206
6.10 Conclusion ..................................................................................................................................... 207

7 CHAPTER SEVEN – DATA ANALYSIS .............................................................................................. 211

International Programs and Partnerships ............................................................................................ 211

7.1 Introduction ...................................................................................................................................... 211
7.2 Collaborative Programs and Partnerships ....................................................................................... 212
7.3 Collaborative Programs and Partnerships ....................................................................................... 213
   7.3.1 Joint Research – Inter-Institutional Collaboration ..................................................................... 213
   7.3.2 Research Commercialization .................................................................................................. 214
7.4 Joint Programs and Degrees and Curricula Development ............................................................... 216
7.5 Internationalization, Foreign Providers and the University of the West Indies ....................... 219
7.6 UWI Partnerships with Governments and Institutes ......................................................................... 220
7.7 The Impact of International Development Agencies on Caribbean Higher Education ........................................... 223
7.8 Research Priorities .......................................................................................................................... 224
7.9 Conclusion ....................................................................................................................................... 230

8 CHAPTER EIGHT - DISCUSSION ....................................................................................................... 235

8.1 Introduction ...................................................................................................................................... 235
8.2 Key Research Findings .................................................................................................................... 238
   8.2.1 Regionalism and Regionalization .............................................................................................. 242
   8.2.2 Internationalization .................................................................................................................. 247
   8.2.3 Technology ............................................................................................................................... 250
8.3 Internationalization Complementary or Antithetical .................................................................... 251
8.4 The Regional Nature of the UWI ................................................................................................... 252
8.5 Shifting Planes: ................................................................................................................................. 256
   8.5.1 National, Regional and International ......................................................................................... 256
   8.5.2 The Global ............................................................................................................................... 263
8.6 Resistance and Resilience ............................................................................................................... 272
8.6.1 Financing and the Regional University ................................................................. 272
8.6.2 Culture, Leadership and Development ............................................................... 278
8.6.3 Promoting Regionalization in South to South Collaborations ....................... 283

8.7 Future Scholarship .................................................................................................. 290
8.8 Conclusions ........................................................................................................... 290

REFERENCES ............................................................................................................ 295

APPENDICES ............................................................................................................. 313

8.8.1 UNIVERSITY OF THE WEST INDIES MISSION STATEMENT .................. 327
8.8.2 UNIVERSITY OF THE WEST INDIES VISION STATEMENT ................. 327
List of Tables

Table 1  Interview Participants by Location ................................................................. 82

Table 2  UWI Student Enrolment in 2006-2007 by Gender, by Campus ....................... 316

Table 3  UWI Student Enrolment in 2007-2008 by Gender, by Campus ....................... 316

Table 4  UWI Student Enrolment in 2008-2009 by Gender, by Campus ....................... 316

Table 5  UWI Student Enrolment in 2009-2010 by Gender, by Campus ....................... 317

Table 6  UWI Student Enrolment in 2010-2011 by Gender, by Campus ....................... 317

Table 7  UWI Student Enrolment in 2011-2012 by Gender, by Campus ....................... 317

Table 8  UWI Student Enrolment by Year, by Country, 2006 to 2012 .......................... 319

Table 9  Participation of Students from the Non-Campus Countries (2006 – 2012) ...... 319

Table 10 Open Campus Student Enrolment – Main Campuses and underserved ........ 320

Table 11 International Student Enrolment at the UWI Mona Campus 2013-2014 .......... 321

Table 12 International Student Enrolment at the UWI Mona Campus, 2012-2013 ........ 322

Table 13 International Student Enrolment at the UWI Cave Hill Campus by Country .... 323

Table 14 International Student Enrolment at the UWI Cave Hill Campus by Country .... 324

Table 15 International Student Enrolment at the UWI St. Augustine Campus ............ 325
List of Figures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Figure 1</td>
<td>Methodological Framework</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 2</td>
<td>Board for Non-Campus Countries and Distance Education, Structure</td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 3</td>
<td>Open Campus Organizational Structure, March 2008, UWI</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 4</td>
<td>Open Campus Enrolment, 2007-2012</td>
<td>318</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 5</td>
<td>Student Enrolment by Campus, 2006-2012</td>
<td>318</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 6</td>
<td>Student Enrolment, Main Campus and Contributing Countries</td>
<td>319</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
List of Appendices

APPENDIX 1  UWI Organizational Chart ................................................................. 314
APPENDIX 2  Interview Guide/ Schedule ................................................................. 315
APPENDIX 3  Statistical Tables .................................................................................. 316
APPENDIX 4  UWI Mission and Vision Statements .................................................... 327
1 CHAPTER ONE- INTRODUCTION

As capital, people, goods, services, ideas, culture, technology and communications move freely across borders, the world has become more interconnected and interdependent (Norberg, 2008; J. Knight, 2008) and higher education has had to respond. Globalization has therefore impacted the function, delivery and purpose of higher education. Deregulation, market forces, competition and the attempts to make public institutions such as universities, more accountable for the funding allocated to them (Thorsen, 2010), have also forced stronger connections between economics and education within the nation-state. Within this neoliberal(ism) framework, the purpose of education has become closely tied to training and innovation for workforce participation. Thus many scholars have suggested that internationalization is higher education’s response to globalization (J. Knight, 2008; Stromquist, 2007; Mohamedbhai, 2003; Porter and Vidovich, 2000). The prevalence of cross-border education providers; the growth in student and faculty mobility schemes; research collaboration and commercialization; international partnerships; quality assurance and accreditation practices, are some of the many examples of the international dimension of higher education that have emerged as responses to globalization (J. Knight, 2008; Hanley, 2005 and Slaughter, Leslie and Rhoades, June 2004). This impact by globalization on education has also been observed in places such as the Anglophone Caribbean.

In the English-speaking Caribbean, \(^1\) colonization and the transatlantic trade which brought ‘Blacks’ from Africa to enslave them in the Caribbean facilitated mercantilism. This system exploited human labour and pilfered natural resources in the colonies for capital gain and the industrial development of Europe. It created a global system of transportation and communication that brought ‘Black people from Africa for enslavement and sale; exported sugar/molasses from the Anglophone Caribbean to Britain; and manufactured goods from the latter to the former – the Triangular Trade. It also increased commercial activities, such as lending institutions, production and the movement of capital (Williams, April 1964). Thus the

---

\(^1\) Anglophone/ English Speaking Caribbean: Anguilla; Antigua and Barbuda; Bahamas; Barbados; Belize; Bermuda; British Virgin Islands; Cayman Islands; Dominica; Grenada; Guyana; Jamaica; Montserrat; St Kitts and Nevis; St Lucia; St Vincent and the Grenadines; Trinidad and Tobago; Turks and Caicos; US Virgin Islands (Adapted from Knight, F.W, 2012, p. 268). Some of the above however are not contributing countries to the University of the West Indies, which is distinguished and discussed later in the thesis.
transatlantic slave trade launched Africa and the Caribbean into the global economy, and created the prototype for the modern day transnational corporation (Thomas, 2005). Additionally, the French Revolution and its ideas of “liberty, equality and fraternity” (Dookhan, 1983, p. 80) had far-reaching effects on the region, particularly the island of Haiti, which became the first in the western hemisphere to obtain its independence. However, in this mercantilist arrangement, the hinterland was restricted to terminal activity – primary production or crude processing, while further industrialization of products, such as sugar refining, was left to the metropolis (Best, 2005, p. 44; Thomas, 2005). Thus while Europe industrialized the colonies remained underdeveloped, given their heavy reliance on raw materials, predominantly agricultural products for export. While in the post-colonial era bauxite, minerals and oil and natural gas products have brought in additional revenues for the larger territories of Jamaica, Suriname, Guyana and Trinidad, agriculture and service industries have been the primary sources of income for the economies of the remaining smaller English-speaking Caribbean islands. Tourism, and to some extent off-shore banking in places like the Bahamas, the Cayman Islands and the British Virgin Islands have also been other sources of revenue (Best, 2005; Suss, Williams and Mendis, 2005, p. 592; Williams, 1964; Pantin, 2005, p. 551). Thus the participation of these islands and territories into the global economy has been further entrenched, but has also made them more vulnerable to external shocks by these arrangements (Suss, Williams and Mendis, 2005, p. 591).

Many researchers have suggested that the end of World War II and the developments in technology and transportation, gave rise to freedom of movement in travel, trade and investments across the globe (Horowitz, 2004 March; Porter & Vidovich, 2000; Rodrik, 1997 Summer; Amin and Luckin, 1996 Summer; Duffield, 1999). As a result, consumers were able to make choices between cheaper domestic or international alternatives, for products and services, and this contributed to the material progress of many societies. These advances also caused reduction in time and space, which were facilitated by improvements in communication technologies. This combined with liberalization, accelerated the growth of globalization (Norberg, 2008; J. Knight, 2008; Guri-Rosenblit, 2005 June; Stromquist, 2007; Morey, 2004). However, the resulting economic growth and industrialization was uneven, as it mostly affected the metropolis, while the hinterland/ periphery, remained largely underdeveloped.

For the Anglophone Caribbean, the hinterland-metropolis relationship began at the time of conquest by the various colonial regimes from Europe. The motive for initial contact with these islands and territories was plunder, exchange and production. In their conquests, Europeans attempted to annihilate the Amerindian populations (Kalinagos), who inhabited these
islands and territories. The uninvited occupation of these islands and territories was also seen by the colonizers as an attempt to rescue this region from insularity by bringing civility to its inhabitants (Beckles 2008; Honychurch, 2004-2005, 2014). However, in the “spirit of defiant patriotism” (Beckles, December 2008, p. 78) this incursion by the Europeans was met with fierce resistance from the Kalinagos (Caribs, hence the term Caribbean). Thus the prevailing discourses of ‘savages’ and ‘man-eating peoples,’ whose only crime was resisting the colonizing insurgence, have not yet been sufficiently challenged in Caribbean education.

Under mercantilism, the unit of production was the plantation and the production of a single crop, first tobacco, and then sugarcane. Thus the economies of the English-speaking Caribbean were produced exclusively for trade with the metropolis (Britain), facilitated by land owners, merchants and other entrepreneurs (Best, 2005, p. 45-47). “This plantation economy comprised of a single sector, fractured into plantations, each as self-contained, self-sufficient, total institution, encompassing even its own civil government” (Best, 2005, p. 47). Here, protectionist policies and navigation acts moved traded goods - slaves, cotton, sugar, tobacco – from Africa and the colonies to specific European countries, and in some cases sea ports of entry. In turn, these colonies imported manufactured / processed goods from Europe for local consumption. This relationship brought about the emergence of economic dependency, which has continued in the contemporary era as part of the metropolis- hinterland relationships, between Caribbean nation states, and the US and Europe (Williams, 1964; Best, 2005, Thomas, 2005). Under mercantilism, the Crown therefore framed regulations regarding trade, production and property (Best, 2005, p. 47). Consequently, those profiting from this system often opposed education policy and the efforts by governments and the church to equip the population with skills, to enhance the productivity of the domestic sector (Best, 2005, p. 54).

As the price of sugar fell on global markets, and slavery was abolished, the decreasing profitability of the colonies led to an exodus of British economic interests from the Anglophone Caribbean. This together with the growing movements toward self-determination and political independence propelled the Anglophone Caribbean into another phase of globalization. Given the above events, indentured servants were brought in to replace the former slaves. They came primarily from India, China and the Middle East, and together with the former European colonizers and freed slaves, made the region one of the most diverse spaces on the globe. The congregation of indentured labourers along with the Africans, Europeans and Amerindians created a creolization that is Caribbean and provides the context for understanding Caribbean cultural identity. The advent of these workers also brought in the wage economy. Yet the small size of these territories and their limited natural resources, made it difficult to achieve economic
success, in the now more competitive global economy. Federation therefore seemed to be a viable option for functional cooperation and resource management, in their struggles towards statehood and eventually political independence. As political independence was achieved among these nation states they also understood that they were vulnerable, as predominantly agrarian economies, with limited manufacturing and natural resources. Therefore even as sovereign nations (politically independent), they needed to work together as a regional bloc in order to survive and compete in the global economy. Thus, as they pursued political independence they simultaneously sought ways for achieving regional integration.

In the Anglophone Caribbean, the process of decolonization began with the struggles against European colonization, and these anticolonial resistances led to political independence for most of these nation states. Under decolonization, the structures of colonialism and continued American hegemony are interrogated. Consequently, the process of education plays a significant role in the decolonization project. This however is an ongoing mission. As the regional university, the UWI has a significant role to play in decolonization. Yet as many of these nation states achieved independence, due to their vulnerability, they also understood the importance of regionalization as a means of survival. Thus, they adopted political economy approaches to pursue national and regional development. This approach stressed ‘dependent development.’ That is, the importance of banding together regionally by relying on regional and international capitalists to spur development regionally and nationally (Demas, 1989; Wong, 1984). In this political economy approach, politics and economics are inherently/intrinsically linked. Therefore, political economy, decolonization and creolization are important for understanding the interplay between regionalization and internationalization in the Anglophone Caribbean.

Yet the continuing connections to their former European colonizers provided ongoing access to markets, for the export of goods from the former colonies. Protectionist policies provided exclusive access to metropolis and hinterland markets. The nation states of the Anglophone Caribbean therefore continued to rely, first on Britain, then on North American markets, and engaged in borrowing arrangements with the latter, that imposed economic policies of fiscal restraint that further stagnated development. Additionally, these more advanced economies monopolized the prices of imported raw materials from the former colonies, and traded higher priced manufactured products back into the Anglophone Caribbean. This has led some to suggest that the Anglophone Caribbean traded in political independence for economic dependency (Best, 2005; Thomas, 2000).
The post World War II era also gave rise to the growth and improvements in access to higher education, and the British West Indies/English-speaking Caribbean was no exception. In the British West Indies, as they were known then, there were supporters of and opponents to the creation of a university, to support the local governmental structures that emerged as replacements for the colonial administration. Labour shortages, particularly in the public service, were among the strongest impetus for the creation of higher education institutions in the Anglophone Caribbean. During this period, Britain also continued to encourage the federation of the British West Indies, in order to maintain its political interests in the Anglophone Caribbean. At the same time, the political elite and other agitators for change were moving closer towards political independence and so, also exerted pressure to create a university for the sub-region.

The University of the West Indies is one of only two regional university systems in existence today; the other is the University of the South Pacific. Under the colonial system, higher education institutions materialized as isomorphic academic structures. This was because conceptual categories of the university were exportable and transferrable, and so the University of the West Indies emerged as a manifestation of the British university (Gacel Avila, 2007; Best, 1997; J. Knight and de Wit, 1995). Accordingly, initially curricula, teaching faculty and the degree granting authority all came from Britain. As Lloyd Best, who quoted CLR James noted, “Britain was the source of all light and leading, and our business was to admire, wonder, imitate, learn; our criterion of success was to have succeeded in approaching that distant ideal – to obtain it was of course impossible” (Best, 1997, p. 16).

In later decades, the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) made education one of twelve trade related sectors. This created a surge in the types and numbers of higher education institutions that have since developed, including the growth of private universities. Under GATS, which functions as a set of voluntary commitments, World Trade Organization (WTO) members must be treated equally. This has led to a proliferation of European and American universities operating in areas such as the English-speaking Caribbean (Olaniran and Agnello, 2008; J. Knight, 2008; Stromquist, 2007; Brandon, 2003 July; Mohamedbhai, 2003 and Cobley, 2000). Institutions such as the WTO and agreements like the GATS promote European and American discourses about higher education quality and standards, as well as laissez faire economics and reduced government spending on public expenditures, such as education.
Neoliberalism, which includes, commercialization in education, privatization of institutions, competitiveness, education for personal benefit, and high levels of accountability, to name a few, have impacted education practices around the world. Furthermore, as educational institutions aspire to be more like each other, causing homogenization and hybridization, governments are also attempting to rationalize institutions through processes of differentiation, in their attempts to maximize their benefits for economic purposes. At the same time, local knowledges about particular societies and home-grown solutions for development – endogenous development - through education, are dispensed with in favour of solutions from external lending sources offering economic support to fledging economies. Furthermore, due to the GATS, education and training have become the fifth largest service sectors being traded in the world (Stromquist, 2007, p. 83).

From the onset of its establishment in 1948, the University of the West Indies was set up to meet the political and economic needs of the Anglophone Caribbean. While it has survived as a regional institution, it continues to be impacted by globalization. The latter often takes the form of internationalization, affecting academic programs, students and faculty, while also creating new administrative and governance structures within the institution. As part of globalization, the university became a dominant site for educational innovation, creating knowledge-based economies and digitally literate workers, as part of economic and technological advancements. As such, education and knowledge development have become necessary for people and nation states to compete in the global economy (Olaniran and Agnello, 2008, p. 69-70).

Yet the neo-conservative approaches of Margaret Thatcher (Thatcherism) and Ronald Reagan (Reaganomics) during the 1980’s had a profound effect on the Caribbean, including higher education. These policies took effect, following the oil and recession crisis of 1973–1974 and the oil shock of 1977. Their impact caused the terms of trade and interest rates to decline. Consequently, CARICOM enacted protectionist measures, as states scrambled to preserve their...

---

2 Neoliberalism was first coined in Post-World War I Germany by a small group of economist and legal scholars affiliated with the Frieberg School, to refer to a revival of classical liberalism. Later, it was taken up by Latin American scholars in the 1970’s who adopted neoliberalismo to refer to pro-market models of industrial development. By the 1990’s it was taken up by left learning critics of the market who associated it with the Washington Consensus – to globalize American capitalism and culture. Today political figures of Margaret Thatcher (1979-1990), Ronald Reagan (1981-1989) and later Tony Blair and Bill Clinton are said to have advanced neoliberal economic policies in their respective economies and globally. Their policies have influenced the deregulation of national economies, liberalized international trade and contributed to the creation of a single global and self-regulating free-market (Steger and Roy, 2010, p. Preface).
balance of payments (Jules, 2010, p. 405-406; Lewis, 2006). When Margaret Thatcher and Ronald Reagan were elected in Britain and the US in 1979 and 1980, respectively, they initiated Structural Adjustment Programs (SAPs), through the World Bank and International Monetary Fund (IMF) which were aimed at eradicating socialism under the guise of neoliberalism. In Guyana, Grenada and Jamaica, their respective governments had adopted more socialist policies aimed at sustainable development and poverty reduction. This was in contradiction to the rest of the Anglophone Caribbean that maintained ‘Western’ liberal democratic practices (Jules, March 2015, p. 408).

In the early 1980’s, CARICOM was contaminated by debt fatigue, ideological pluralism, internal renewal, experimentation, structural reform, and policy cessation. However, the policy alterations in the global landscape stemming from the collapse of the Berlin Wall, the end of the Cold War, and the influence of Thatcherism and Reaganomics indirectly affected the region. For CARICOM member states this period coincided with debt created by extensive borrowing in the 1970s and 1980s because of two oil crises and SAPs creating varied debt service ratios, ranging from 3.4% in Barbados to 50.7% in the Bahamas according to 2004 economic data (Jules, March 2015, p. 408).

Thus in the Anglophone Caribbean these neoliberal policies came in the form of structural adjustment practices that led to wage compression and the retrenchment of workers, particularly from the public service, the largest employer for most of these nation-states, and wreaked havoc on their respective economies. During this era, privatization of assets and state reform was being encouraged and lending institutions such as the Inter-American Development Bank, provided loans and technical support aimed at public sector reform and government efficiency. The hope for high levels of foreign direct investment through privatization promised under the neoliberal regime never materialized. Instead, poverty levels increased in the populations and inequalities prevailed, as these policies served primarily the elite and limited spending on projects that could stimulate the economies and / or restore elements of the ‘welfare state’ to support struggling families (Pantin, 2005; Jules, March 2015; Lewis, 2006). The impact on education was also that these SAP programs encouraged investments primarily in primary and secondary level education, to the detriment of higher education. Despite these set-backs, as will be discussed in chapter two, the 1980’s also saw the emergence of community colleges in many of the national jurisdictions in the Anglophone Caribbean, investments in online education through the University of the West Indies Distance Education Centres (UWIDEC), as well as

---

3 Cuba had its revolution in 1959 and since then have had in place a socialist/revolutionary government (Knight, F.W., 2012). However, due to the thesis’ focus on the Anglophone Caribbean, Cuba, which is also located in the Caribbean and its political influence on the region, will not be discussed here in detail.
increasing calls for more support from the UWI by the contributing territories. Thus these contestations between the national, regional and international on the regional university are the focus of this study.

As will be discussed, the University of the West Indies continues to be challenged in the fulfilment of its regional mandate. It faces enormous pressures from the governments and peoples of the independent nation-states which it serves, and has an ongoing struggle for finance. Like many of its counterparts across the globe, in response, it has taken on a more aggressive approach towards student recruitment and research commercialization partnerships with industry, and the procurement of funding from international development agencies and governments. In turn, they have become stakeholders to which the university has become beholden. These relationships have had a significant impact on the University. Therefore this case study explores the impact of internationalization on the regionalization efforts of the University of the West Indies. Consequently, as the regional university of higher education in the English-speaking Caribbean, how is the UWI navigating its mission in this new neoliberal and global reality in the face of the internationalization of higher education. As well, how does the UWI understand its regional mandate in the face of these pressures? What are the implications for the regionalization process and the nation-states of the Anglophone Caribbean, whose development the UWI has been tasked with supporting? Is internationalization being pursued at the expense of regional integration? These are some of the many questions that have fuelled my interest in the topic of regionalization and internationalization at the University of the West Indies. It is also important at this juncture to provide a brief introduction of these concepts.

1.1 Regionalization and Internationalization and the UWI

The term internationalization, emerged in the political science literature in the 1980's, and that prior to that “international education and international cooperation were [the] favoured terms…in some countries” (J. Knight, 2008, p. 2). Thus some of the international aid and inter-institutional projects supported by funding from UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization) and CIDA (Canadian International Development Agency) discussed later in this study are some of the early examples of internationalization in the Anglophone Caribbean. Throughout the thesis, internationalization is understood as the process of infusing an international and intercultural dimension into the purpose, function and delivery of higher education (J. Knight, 2008, p. 21). Examples of internationalization practices include academic mobility schemes, international student recruitment, joint programs and research collaboration, and the introduction of quality assurance mechanisms into higher education (J. Knight 2008).
On the other hand, regionalization or regional integration refers to a program or strategy that lead to formal institutional building, including patterns of cooperation, complementarity and conversion in a particular geographic space (Hettne & Soderbaum, 2000, p. 457-458). As previously mentioned, the modern Caribbean’s experience is marked by shared histories of colonial domination by the Spanish, Dutch, French and British – that have created sociolinguistic groups and creolization. The Anglophone/English-speaking Caribbean is the focus of this thesis. Throughout colonization there were also various attempts at federation aimed at achieving administrative efficiencies. (These are discussed in more detail in chapter two). However, in the post independence era, attempts at federation and the quest for political sovereignty led to a regional integration project known as CARICOM- the Caribbean Community. As a “community of sovereign states” (Lewis, 2008, January 24, p. 3), the Anglophone Caribbean understood that in their pursuit of political independence, their very survival also rest in regional integration, in order to successfully navigate and compete in the global economy. Therefore, with the creation of CARICOM, they contrived to form a union of “economic integration without political integration” (Lewis, 2008, January 24, p. 3). However, this has been fraught with contestations and contradictions, as centripetal and centrifugal forces led by globalization and neoliberalism, vie for supremacy in the national, regional and global (international) spaces, enveloping the Anglophone Caribbean. Tasked with the regional mandate to promote higher education, to remain viable, the University of the West Indies like the governments which support it within the region must also simultaneously pursue internationalization for capacity building, and the advancement of its global competitiveness, as articulated in its most recent strategic plan. It is these contestations between the national, regional and international on the University of the West Indies that are being explored as part of this case study research, through interviews with UWI administrators. Therefore, what does regionalization and internationalization mean in this current moment to the UWI administrators and the institution? How do they understand it? Are regionalization and the regional university threatened by internationalization? Is regionalization as a decolonization project/ mechanism being undermined by the international? These are some of the questions being investigated in the research.

1.2 Background of the Researcher

I was born on the island of the Grenada. I spent my formative education years in the elementary and secondary school systems there before migrating to Canada for tertiary education. At the time of migration, credential assessment processes for recognizing Caribbean
school leaving certification were not widespread. Therefore, after spending about a year in the Ontario high school system, I was accepted to the University of Windsor for undergraduate studies.

After leaving high school in Grenada, I spent a few months as a supply teacher in my former high school. It was my first introduction to work within the field of education. When I completed my first postgraduate degree from the University of Windsor, I began working in the non-profit sector, facilitating and then later on managing adult education and training programs. Following a number of years in the community service sector, I transitioned into education. During my career, I have been fortunate to work in every level of the education system in Ontario from the elementary to the secondary, and more recently, in the community college environment. These experiences have helped shape my outlook on education practices.

Having seen the interpretation of internationalization in the Ontario college sector, which has placed a substantial emphasis on international student recruitment, I wondered about a much broader application for developing and maintaining more mutually beneficial partnerships among institutions across borders. Having also had time to reflect on the reasons for migration to Canada, I came to the following realization about this decision. That is, although the regional institution existed, being in a non-campus or underserved country of the UWI, at the time, access to higher education in the region seemed impossible. Therefore, upon graduation, I had not considered it an option, as the costs were prohibitive due to my family circumstances.

Almost a decade had passed since my mother had completed her university education, when I graduated from high school and began to contemplate my options for higher education. Through a government sponsored scholarship, she was able to obtain a post-graduate nursing diploma from the West Indies School of Public Health, now renamed the School of Public Health and Health Technology at the University of Technology in Jamaica. Many of her lecturers were also affiliated with the University of the West Indies, Mona Campus. However, considering the individual financial costs for a university education in the Caribbean, without government assistance, migration seemed to be the better option for her children. Together, these experiences have nurtured my interest in the University of the West Indies, and in the issues of regionalization and internationalization.

1.3 Significance of the Study

There have been many scholarly publications about the internationalization of higher education. Research about internationalization in Australia, Latin America, Britain, Canada and the US dominate the literature. Scholars such as J. Knight (2008, 2011) Trilokekar (2010),
Gacel-Avila (2007, 2009), Gacel-Avila, Jaramillo, J. Knight and de Wit (2005), de Wit (1995), Stromquist (2007), Beck (2012 November), are some of the many who have written extensively about internationalization in higher education, and are continuing to do work in this area. However, when conducting research on the global South, there has been a tendency to conflate the higher education development experiences and evolution of the internationalization of higher education in Latin America and the Caribbean as one and the same. These include works by J. Knight (2008 and November 2013) and J. Knight and Jaramillo (2005). However, there are some important distinctions, and with very little specific research on internationalization in the Anglophone Caribbean, it is another reason why this study is of importance.

Latin American Universities with the exception of Brazil are ‘royal and pontifical’ institutions (Gacel-Avila, 2007, p. 401). They “were first created in the 16th century by the Spanish Crown and were meant to address a need to evangelize and provide higher education to the creoles’ offspring, with a view to create a cultural link to the empire and to prepare civil servants for a colonial, civil, and ecclesiastic bureaucracy” (Gacel-Avila, 2007, p. 401). Historically, they were modelled after institutions from France and Spain. Salamanca and Alcalá de Henares were the models of higher education that gave rise to two university archetypes in Latin/ South America. These are the state run universities and the privately run, predominantly catholic universities (Gacel-Avila, 2007). On the other hand, churches played an important role in the primary (elementary) and secondary education development in the Anglophone Caribbean. While there were also some church-run colleges that initially trained priests and later on teachers in Barbados (Cordington College) and Jamaica for example (Cobley, 2000; Howe, 2000), the University of the West Indies did not have an ecclesiastical inception.

Another important distinction is the involvement and influence of students in higher education restructuring. By 1918, the Cordoba Reform student movements which began in Argentina, had spread across the South American region and brought about many reforms to higher education. These students rebelled and rallied against the teaching authorities of the time, to bring about reform in this jurisdiction. These changes to higher education included but were not limited to democratization of access (massification) - extending education to persons other than to the elite; making technologies developed by universities available to industry, and for the development of national economies; student participation in university governance/ decision making; and the granting of public funding for higher education. Accordingly, most of these universities remained publically funded up until the 1980’s when economic crises led to the rapid privatization of higher education in many South American countries (de Wit, Jaramillo,
On the other hand, the motivations for the creation of the UWI and its resulting expansion were not ecclesiastical, nor reformed or expanded by student movements or privatized due to economic pressures. Instead, politics and economics were the driving forces behind its creation and expansion as a public regional university. The University of the West Indies is the regional institution serving 17 countries in the Anglophone Caribbean, who are also members of the CARICOM Community. However, the islands and territories of Guyana, Suriname, and Haiti, who are also members of CARICOM, are not contributing members to the regional university.

The presence of the regional university in the Caribbean is of extreme significance, it’s one of two such institutions in the world. The other is the University of the South Pacific. On the other hand, there is no regional university system in Latin America. Therefore, there is a much earlier emergence of higher education regionalization in the Anglophone Caribbean, than what has been reported/ documented by scholars such as Jane Knight in a November 2013 publication. As well, in response to Structural Adjustment Programs (SAPs) imposed by Reaganomics, Thatcherism, the World Bank and IMF during the 1980’s and 1990s and continuing, while higher education institutions in Latin American and their governments responded by privatizing, enrolment in the UWI and other regional institutions skyrocketed, due to investments in higher education, driven by the introduction of learning technologies – the University of the West Indies Distance Education Centres (UWIDEC), which was established in 1996. Added to that, regional governments in the Anglophone Caribbean expanded higher education opportunities by creating postsecondary institutions in the form of community colleges during that era. Furthermore, some began to accept foreign providers of education into the national higher education landscape. The St. George’s University School of Medicine in Grenada which began operating in the 1970’s and Ross University School of Veterinary Medicine in St. Kitts, which opened in 1982 are two notable examples (Bobb-Smith, 2007; Howe, 2005 June; About Ross University School of Veterinary Medicine, retrieved from http://www.rossu.edu/veterinary-school/About-Ross-University-School-of-Veterinary-Medicine.cfm). Consequently, many CARICOM islands have other national universities as part of their landscape, which also directly compete with the University of the West Indies.

The focus of this study is the UWI and its contributing countries. As will be discussed later in the thesis, the national higher education institutions in many of the CARICOM nations also work collaboratively with the UWI to promote regional development. The contributing

countries to the University of the West Indies are: Antigua & Barbuda, Anguilla, the Bahamas, Barbados, Belize, Bermuda, British Virgin Islands, the Cayman Islands, Dominica, Grenada, Jamaica, Montserrat, St Kitts & Nevis, St. Lucia, St. Vincent & the Grenadines, Trinidad & Tobago and Turks & Caicos. Together they financially contribute to the operations of the University. As will be discussed further in chapter two, these islands are geographically located between the continents of North and South America, in an area known as the Caribbean Sea. However, the mainland countries of Guyana and Suriname and Belize and for some, the coastal region of Colombia, because of their shared histories and ethno-cultural similarities, constitute the Anglophone-Caribbean or West Indies (Girvan, 2001, 2013). The focus of this study will be on the University of the West Indies which is comprised of four campuses, Mona (Jamaica), St. Augustine (Trinidad), Cave Hill (Barbados) and the Open Campus, which has multiple centres in the seventeen contributing territories (The University of the West Indies, 2012-2015 - Home - Territories, retrieved from, http://www.uwi.edu/anguilla.asp; Caribbean Community Secretariat, CARICOM Member States, 2011, retrieved from http://www.caricom.org/jsp/community/member_states.jsp). This study is therefore intended to add to the literature and illustrate these subtle yet important differences in higher education development between the Latin/ South America and the Anglophone Caribbean.

There have been a number of publications about the University of the West Indies, particularly about its regionality. These include, but are not limited to Sherlock and Nettleford (1990) and Girvan (2013 October 14). As national governments in the jurisdictions which it serves placed demands on the University to help support their economic development, concerns were raised about the Institution’s ability to survive as a regional entity, making it fertile ground for research. There have also been many publications on the impact of globalization on UWI. However, this research study is one of the first to explore the impact of internationalization on this university system.

Previous studies like Boxill (1997) have called for an ‘ideology of regionalism” (p. 29) to advance regional integration, while others such as Girvan (2014) have pointed to culture as a vehicle through which grassroots awareness could be cultivated in the surge toward Caribbean regionalization. (Throughout this thesis, the terms integration, regional integration and regionalization will be used interchangeably).While I am supportive of both of the above proposals, the question raised in this study is whether regionalization is being impacted by internationalization at the University of the West Indies. To date, not much attention has been given in the literature to education regionalization in Caribbean, and the latter’s ability to promote the broader regionalization objectives, which also makes this study significant.
Additionally, higher education systems by their very nature are repositories for the preservation of cultural knowledges and history. Therefore, the role of the University of the West Indies in fostering regional integration is of primary importance. As we will discuss in the chapters ahead, the University of the West Indies was created for the express purpose of Caribbean development. Finally, another point of departure from previous works is that this study queries whether globalization and its manifestation in higher education, in the form of internationalization can be used advantageously, to achieve the regionalization goals that have eluded the English-speaking Caribbean.

These are some of the important distinctions and differences that are often overlooked by internationalization scholars looking at the internationalization in Latin America and the Caribbean. These therefore set the stage for why I wanted to pursue research on internationalization and regionalization in the Anglophone Caribbean. Furthermore, there is very little research on internationalization, specific to the Caribbean and the Anglophone Caribbean, as the scholars that dominate the field, often overlook this region. Therefore this work is important for adding the voices of the global South to the literature, particularly, those of the administrators at the University of the West Indies.

1.4 The Research Problem

The University of the West Indies was set up for political and economic purposes to help meet the development needs of the Anglophone Caribbean. Accordingly, it continues to have an effect on the regionalization of the Anglophone Caribbean, particularly among the CARICOM member states, in their quest for integration. As the English-speaking Caribbean’s leading University, the institution also plays a pivotal role in the regionalization of higher education. Both of these aspects of regionalization are explored in this thesis.

The central question for the research is whether the regional mandate of the UWI is being impacted by the internationalization of higher education? Thus the questions asked of participants during the interviews are as follows. On the questions about regionalization participants were asked to discuss or describe: 1) their understanding of Caribbean higher education regionalization; 2) how regionalism and regionness were being promoted in higher education; 3) the undertakings by the UWI to promote the regionalization of higher education in the English-speaking Caribbean, and the milestones achieved to-date; 4) how curricula was reflective of a regional agenda for higher education; 5) how teacher education was being used to promote the regionalization agenda; 6) how the regional strategy was being assured by UWI, and provide evidence to support the response; and 7) the benefits and challenges of trying to
achieve the regionalization of higher education in the English-speaking Caribbean. On the other hand, with regards to internationalization, respondents were asked to: 1) define internationalization; 2) explain the impact of internationalization on higher education in the Caribbean, but more specifically the UWI; 3) identify some of the international policies that have been adopted by the UWI; 4) discuss the international student participation rate at the UWI; 5) describe whether regionalization was being hindered or advanced by internationalization. That is, were these two forces complementary or antithetical?

Offshore institutions, competitive and collaborative inter-institutional relationships, international students, study abroad programs and exchanges, are some of the many internationalization activities occurring at the UWI that are examined as part of this research. Accreditation, quality assurance and the practice of adopting external international policies are also explored. Their effects on the institution and its constituents are also discussed. The challenges of defining internationalization across the institution and employing it as a strategy, in the face of competition in the global economy, are also points of focus. Hence the title for this study, the impact of internationalization on the regionalization of higher education in the English-speaking Caribbean: A case study of the University of the West Indies.

Given my exposure to internationalization in the Ontario higher education system, my initial assumption as the researcher was that the former was counter-productive to the regionalization goals of the Anglophone Caribbean, and the objectives of the University of the West Indies. That is, internationalization was antithetical to the development of Caribbean identity processes and higher education development, being advanced in regionalization/Caribbean integration, in the sub-region. Consequently, higher education would be negatively affected, as large numbers of international students are brought in as a means of revenue generation for local institutions, while higher education remained inaccessible to the local population. As well, the tendency for unregulated off-shore institutions operating in the Anglophone Caribbean to provide cheaper alternatives for local students, which were not relevant to local labour market needs, would further compound the problem. Therefore, as these international higher education institutions find a foothold in the Caribbean space, physically and virtually, their discourses will dominate Caribbean intellectual thought leading to what Lloyd Best describes as a “crisis of self-knowledge” (Best, March – June 1997, p. 21). As a result, this would Europeanize and Americanize the education curricula, proliferating in the Caribbean. While these were indeed concerns, as will be described in this thesis, what was uncovered was a much more complex arrangement. Instead, efforts were being made to create more innovative
approaches to harness the benefits of internationalization to advance regionalization, which are reflective of Caribbean ingenuity, and of resistance and survival.

1.5 Delimitations and Limitations of the Study

The regionalization of higher education in the Anglophone Caribbean involves levels of cooperation and collaboration among postsecondary and tertiary level institutions in the sub-region, with respect to quality assurance and transfer credits systems, for example. However, one of the limitations of this study was that the University of the West Indies was the only institution under scrutiny here. As well, teacher education was another focal point, as teachers are educated and trained to fulfill the labour market requirements for all levels of the education system in the Anglophone Caribbean. While information about teacher education training programs was obtained from other sources, staff from the faculty of education was not directly targeted for this research. Time constraints and the focus on regionalization and internationalization remained the primary focus. Another limitation was that an in-depth overview of the University of the West Indies organizational structure was not undertaken as part of this research project. This would have been particularly useful for more comparative analyses with other systems of education, globally. Time constraints, and the goal of carrying out a case study of a single institution within the region, were the reasons why this aspect of the research was not pursued. Finally, this research was not intended as an institutional evaluation of the University of the West Indies. Rather, it was aimed at bringing attention to the regionalization and internationalization efforts of the institution into the academic forum for scholarly debate.

1.6 Organization of the Thesis

The thesis is organized into eight chapters, including this introduction. Chapter two, called The Caribbean and the History of Higher Education in the Anglophone Sub-region is the literature review. It provides a brief history of education development in the Anglophone Caribbean, and the commissions and committees that served to also bring about formal institutions of learning into that space. Important to this context is an understanding of what constitutes the Caribbean. Therefore, I present an overview of the cultural, political and historical underpinnings of this geographic space, located in the Caribbean Sea. The Anglophone Caribbean’s socio-political history is also critical for understanding education development there. As such, emphasis is placed on education development on the islands of Barbados, Grenada, Jamaica and Trinidad, the study sites. There is also a particular focus on Grenada, because of my own background and familiarity with the island’s education system. As
well, the literature revealed similar trends, timelines and occurrences in the advancement of education across these islands. This is because much of the colonial administrative policies enacted, were applied unilaterally to the islands in the Anglophone Caribbean. This occurred as colonial administration was jointly shared between the Secretary of State and the governors of each territory, both of whom worked in partnership with the Colonial Office (Whitehead, August 2007, p. 165). There are differences, however, as the thrust towards higher education appeared to be particularly vocal and vibrant, on the islands of Barbados and Jamaica earlier, than it did in Grenada, for example. However, due to time constraints and a need to place some limitations on the content and length of the thesis, Grenada was selected as a focal point for much of the examples and ensuing discussions in this chapter. Also presented in the chapter are an introduction to the concepts of globalization, internationalization and regionalization as they relate to higher education.

Chapter three describes my methodology. Here I review the research question and interview questions. Regionalization and internationalization are explained, as well as how the research was conducted. Issues of validity and reliability of the case study and how this was handled during the course of the research are also discussed. There is also a brief overview of how participants were identified and how materials for the case study were selected and used. Finally, I address the approaches used for the data analysis in this chapter.

Chapter four - *Defining the Regional University* - is the first of the four data analysis chapters. This chapter begins with a historical overview of some pivotal periods in the UWI’s history. As well, the changes to the UWI financing that took place over those time periods, and the attempts by various Vice Chancellors to curb the centrifugal forces that were taking root in the institution, in an attempt to restore its regionality, are also looked at. Also reviewed are the emergence of CARICOM, and the continued challenges between regional and national objectives for the University. Finally, the growth of the Open Campus and a look beyond the mere presence of the UWI in multiple jurisdictions, and into the characteristics that made the UWI a regional institution are also unearthed and illustrate the ongoing contestations faced by the UWI between the national and the regional.

The fifth chapter, *Epitomizing Regionality - The Open Campus*, takes a look at the evolution of the UWI’s fourth campus. Its predecessors and some of its components, the Board of Non-Campus Countries and Distance Education (BNCCDE), the Tertiary Level Institutions Unit (TLIU), the External Relations and Intra/Inter-Institutional Collaboration (ERIIC) unit and their contributions to regionality are explored. The work of CARICOM in the creation of the Caribbean Knowledge and Learning Network (CKLN); accreditation and quality assurance,
cultural studies, research and the course development work being done through the department of Academic Programming and Delivery (APAD), the efforts of the Consortium for Social Development and Research (CSDR), as well as teacher education at the UWI, are also reviewed in this chapter. The findings of some of the taskforces that led to restructuring at the UWI are also examined.

The first set of findings related to internationalization at the University of the West Indies is presented in Chapter six. In this chapter, *International Academic Mobility and Cross Border Education at the University of the West Indies*, the institution’s historical linkages to British universities are reviewed. As well, how internationalization is defined by staff at the University; and the organizational structures within it, with the responsibilities for executing the internationalization agenda are also considered. Internationalization abroad: academic mobility; student exchanges and study abroad; teaching assistantship programs; summer institutes, study tours; and the medical elective program, are looked at. As well, international students and faculty on campus are addressed as part of internationalization abroad. On the other hand, in considering internationalization at home, I looked broadly at on-campus activities that are being done to promote internationalization; the incentives to promote and encourage participation by a greater cross-section of regional students from the Non-Anglophone Caribbean on the main campuses, are also explored. The chapter culminates with a discussion of the benefits and challenges of internationalization.

Chapter seven examines the UWI’s funding relationship with international development agencies. This second internationalization chapter, called *International Programs and Partnerships*, looks at joint research and programs; and inter-institutional partnerships with both regional and international institutions and governments. The chapter also explores the impact of international policy consumption influence on the University’s structure and governance. The role of CARICOM in negotiating those partnerships is also addressed. Finally, the implications of external funding obtained from international development agencies sources on the UWI’s priorities, mission and vision are also discussed here.

In Chapter eight, and in response to the study, I revisit the notions of the regionality of the University of the West Indies; the regionalization of education and the institution’s contribution to regionalization (integration) in the English-speaking Caribbean. What progress had been made to date with education regionalization including curricula, program development and institutional collaborations; and the UWI’s contributions to the regionalization of the West Indies, in support of its economic development, are also explained here. Regionalizing education through teacher education training, via articulations, accreditation and the formation
of a regional higher education strategy are highlighted. On the other hand, I also look at the impact of internationalization on the vision and mission of the UWI, and the emergence of Euro-American discourses and political economy debates, that have shaped the institution. What was learned from the observations of internationalization and regionalization at work in the UWI is also shared in this chapter. That is, the ongoing contestations between the national, regional and international, as the UWI interacted with neoliberalism and globalization, which were also, complicated by the Region’s Creole identities, political economy approaches to development; and decolonization efforts. Finally, I also provide some recommendations for the UWI and some suggestions for future research.
2 CHAPTER TWO – LITERATURE REVIEW
The Caribbean and the History of Higher Education in the Anglophone Sub-Region

2.1 Introduction

Despite the expansion of opportunities for education, up until the 1950’s and continuing through to the 1970’s, growth in the Caribbean tertiary education sector was slow. Higher education in the Caribbean is “defined as the teaching and learning process that occurs following the completion of secondary education, [which] provides academic credits and competencies that lead to certificates, diplomas and degrees from universities, university colleges, polytechnics, community colleges and similar institutions” (Tewaire, 2010, p. 1). However, the term tertiary education is often distinguished from postsecondary education in Caribbean literature. The former refers to the universities and the latter to the community colleges and polytechnics (Howe, June 2005 p. 56; Peters, 2000, p. 86-87). This distinction will be retained in this thesis, given the discussion of higher education regionalization. However, the term higher education which is also used will refer to both types of institutions.

There were several attempts by some of the pre-independence English speaking nation-states to form federal unions, in order to create a regionalization of the sub-region. A brief history of these attempts is incorporated into this chapter, to help bring clarity to the concepts of regional integration (regionalization) and higher education regionalization, which are interdependent, but distinct concepts. Arising from the Anglophone Caribbean’s attempts to remove the colonial administration and assert their self-determination, was the surge towards national consciousness that culminated in political independence, and Caribbean identity creation, which were expressed in unique forms of culture. These historical regionalization efforts eventually led to the creation of a higher education institution within the English-speaking sub-region, which is one of two known truly regional universities. Today, the University of the West Indies and the University of the South Pacific, have a number of locations spread throughout different territories and island-nations within their respective geographical regions.

This chapter also traces the evolution of the formal structures of education in the English-speaking Caribbean. An overview of educational development during the colonial era is also presented, with particular emphasis on countries like Grenada, which is one of the field research sites, as well as my country of origin. This is followed by a history of the University of the West Indies which is the institution of focus for this case study. The chapter also looks at
higher education expansion; the role of structures, such as the CARICOM; the Caribbean Examinations Council (CXC); and the Association of Caribbean Tertiary Institutions (ACTI), in regional higher education development. It ends with a brief discussion of the future goal of a tertiary education strategy for the Anglophone Caribbean. As well, the concepts of regionalization, globalization and internationalization, and their impact on higher education are also discussed. However, to begin with, an overview of the Caribbean region must be presented to provide the context for this research.

2.2 The Caribbean

The name Caribbean - *El Caribe* or *Las Antillas* - comes from the Spanish-speaking literature and refers to the entire chain of islands located in the Caribbean Sea, between North and South America. The literal translation of the word itself stemmed from an Amerindian grouping, locally called the ‘Caribs’ who inhabited the region. “We call them Carib, Arawak, and Ciboney / Siboney. They called themselves Kalinago” (Hughes, March 2003, retrieved, December 2012 from [http://www.grenada-history.org/kalinago.htm](http://www.grenada-history.org/kalinago.htm)). *Los Caribes* were allegedly the man-eaters, named after the Spanish carne - (meaning meat) and were stereotyped by Europeans as deserving of no mercy (Girvan, 2001, p. 1). This was because in the conquest of the Caribbean, Europeans encountered a people who were determined to defend their territory with violent tactics. Thus the Eurocentric historical presentation in the literature of this group of warriors – the ‘Caribs’/Kalinagos, which has been taught to generations of Caribbean youth, was that the latter were ‘warlike’ and ‘cannibalistic’ and so needed to be exterminated at all cost.

According to Honychurch (2014), the presence of skeletal remains in the domiciles of the Kalinagos seen by European colonizers was part of their belief, that by keeping the bones of their ancestors, they would be spiritually protected. As well, in their attacks on neighbouring groups to capture war-brides, used as a practice to expand their populations, they would sever the limbs of the bravest warriors among their opponents, to strike fear among the people and to take home as a trophy, as proof of victory (p. 22). This representation of the history of the Kalinagos was never presented until most recently. Although most of the ‘Kalinago’ population were annihilated by European conquest and colonization, reservations of Kalinagos still exist on the islands of Dominica and St. Vincent. However their histories have remained in the Caribbean psyche, not as the alternative proposed by Honychurch, or as stories of resistance in the interest of self-preservation, but in Eurocentric presentations, as backward and lacking in civility. So began the history of the Caribbean through the eyes of the colonizer.
As a socio-historical category, the Caribbean is comprised of a cultural zone characterized by a legacy of slavery and a plantation system. In addition to the archipelago of islands in the Caribbean Sea, it embraces parts of the adjoining Central and South American mainland – Belize, the Guiana’s/ Guineas – Suriname, Guyana and French Guiana and has also extended to the Caribbean Diaspora overseas into North America and Europe, in particular, because of their shared histories and cultures (Braveboy-Wagner, 2009, p. 162; Louisy, 2004, p. 288; Girvan 2001). Anglophones in the region usually speak and think of the Caribbean as meaning the English-speaking islands or members of CARICOM⁴ – the Caribbean Common Market – a free trade initiative. However, there has been a reinvention of the word Caribbean from scholars such as Trinidadians C.L.R. James and Eric Williams, and American Anthropologist Charles Wagley, as part of their expressions of political and intellectual resistance (Girvan, 2001, p. 4). Lennox Honychurch also needs to be included among this group. This political-intellectual group articulated the Caribbean as an integral part of plantation America, where the similarities in history and culture, far outweighed their differences in language or colonial power (Girvan 2001, p. 4). However, history is never static and should never be fossilized, and so the Caribbean will continue to be reinterpreted and reinvented, in response to external influences and internal currents (Girvan 2001).

Yet the vast majority of the region today is still overwhelmingly of African descent – Black, particularly in the smaller islands. It has been estimated that most of the English-speaking Caribbean have non-white populations of over 90%. While Cuba, Bermuda, the Dominican Republic and the US Virgin Islands are said to have non-white-populations of 63%; 61%; 84% and 80%, respectively (F. W. Knight, 2012, p. 268). Additionally, the territories of Trinidad and Tobago and Guyana have a high number East Indian descendents in their respective populations. Together, these islands have sometimes been referred to as the ‘West Indies,’ a vestige from Columbus’ nautical mistake/ misadventure.

The region has been divided into two sub-regions, namely the Greater Caribbean, which includes the larger non-English speaking territories, and Central American countries, which are part of the isthmus states; and the Insular Caribbean. The Insular Caribbean, a heterogeneous

---

⁴ CARICOM comprises of fifteen members and five associate member countries. They are: Antigua and Barbuda; The Bahamas; Barbados; Belize; Dominica; Grenada; Guyana; Haiti; Jamaica; Montserrat; Saint Lucia; St. Kitts and Nevis; St. Vincent and the Grenadines; Suriname and; Trinidad and Tobago. Associate Members: Anguilla; Bermuda; British Virgin Islands; Cayman Islands; Turks and Caicos Islands (CARICOM Community Secretariat- Members and Associate Members, 2011, retrieved September 21, 2015 from http://www.caricom.org/jsp/community/member_states.jsp).
sub-region of twenty-eight distinct political entities, had as of 2001, approximately thirty-seven million inhabitants. Twenty-two of these territories had populations of under one million (Girvan 2001, p. 8). Between 2009 and 2012, the population of the Caribbean was estimated to be 40 to 41 million (Hillman, 2009, p. 8; F.W. Knight, 2012, p. 229). The Caribbean is therefore multilingual and transnational (Girvan, 2001, p. 6).

Girvan (2001) further divided the region into four sub-groupings, p. 1) the larger islands, four states in the Greater Antilles containing three quarters of the region’s inhabitants, with an average population of nearly seven million. These are namely:

1) Cuba, Haiti, the Dominican Republic, Jamaica, and more recently Trinidad and Tobago;

2) The smaller island states in the eastern and southern Caribbean, with populations in each of the islands averaging 260,000. These are the Bahamas, Barbados, the islands of the OECS (Organization of Eastern Caribbean States);

3) The mainland states of Suriname, Belize and Guyana; and


Within the region, there are at least six official languages and several Creole languages. While the majority of the Caribbean territories/island-nations are English speaking, the majority of the region’s population is Spanish-speaking, with French being a close second (Girvan, 2001, p. 10). Furthermore, the Spanish speaking islands in the region tend to have closer relations with their Latin American counterparts, than with the 'Insular Caribbean' (Girvan, 2001, p. 8).

As of the completion of this study, there were still a few dependencies left in the region. Among the nation-states of the Caribbean, the Dutch and French islands were some of the last to relinquish their political ties to Europe as colonies, with the Dutch being the more recent, 2012. There are also British and US dependencies/colonies within the region, such as

---

5 Hall in his 2001 publication included Trinidad and Tobago in the second grouping. However, since that publication, the Republic of Trinidad and Tobago has had a population growth exceeding one million inhabitants. Its estimated population in July 2012 was 1,226,380 (CIA Fact book, retrieved from https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/td.html).

6 The Organization of Eastern Caribbean States (OECS). The member states are: Anguilla; Antigua and Barbuda; British Virgin Islands, Dominica; Grenada, Montserrat; St. Kitts and Nevis; St. Lucia and St. Vincent.

7 Spanish, French, English, Dutch, Haitian Creole and the Creole of the Netherland Antilles (Girvan 2001, p. 8).
Montserrat, Anguilla, Turks and Caicos, the British and US Virgin Islands\(^8\) (F.W. Knight, 2012, p. 267). Thus Girvan (2001) noted, “the process of forming a common psycho cultural identity that transcends barriers of language and ethnicity [in the wider Caribbean] is at best slow and uneven” (p. 8). The Caribbean is therefore an amalgamation of different cultures, many of whom were brought into the region by choice and by force, primarily through European colonization (Spanish, French, English and Dutch). It is comprised of African peoples, Europeans, Asians, Amerindians and persons from the Middle East. This has resulted in a creolization of cultures within the region.

Histories come and go, peoples come and go, and situations change, but somewhere down there throbs the culture to which we belong. It provides a kind of ground for our identities, something to which we can return, something solid, something fixed, around which we organize our identities and our sense of belongingness (Hall 2001, p. 25).

As alluded to in chapter one, enslavement occurred not just among the Black-African population in the Caribbean, but prior to their arrival; the Spanish enslaved the indigenous groups, under the system of *encomienda*. “The *encomienda* system of forced labour [was imposed] on the Amerindians, whose spiritual salvation was entrusted to Christianizing Europeans” (Baronov and Yelvington, 2009, p. 228). Therefore, the Caribbean story has been that of resistance and resilience.

The creolization of the Caribbean, increased from 1838 to 1917, when over 400,000 East Indians were taken to Guyana, Trinidad and Jamaica; over 100,000 were sent to Martinique, Guadeloupe and French Guiana; 35,000 East Indians and 22,000 Javanese labourers were sent to Suriname; while Amerindians from the Yucatan and labourers from Madeira, were sent to Trinidad and Guyana, all as indentured servants. Added to that, to facilitate inter-island trade and commerce, later on, Chinese immigrants were brought to Trinidad, Martinique, Guyana and Jamaica; while Middle Eastern immigrants – (Syrians and Lebanese) were brought to Trinidad and Tobago, Haiti and the Dominican Republic, and Jews into Curacao and Jamaica. These together with the newly ‘freed’ African Slaves and their former colonizers, created one of the most ethnically and culturally diverse regional gatherings called the Caribbean. Accordingly, this has led some scholars to contend that few regions in the world

---

\(^8\) The British Virgin Islands consist of the main islands of Tortola, Virgin Gorda, Anegada, and Jost Van Dyke, along with over fifty other smaller islands and cays (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/British_Virgin_Islands). The US Virgin Islands include St. Thomas; St. Croix; and St. John.
today can match the Caribbean’s cultural diversity (Baronov and Yelvington, 2009, p. 235-237).

This has resulted in creolization. Accordingly, Lloyd Best noted that the Caribbean is in a state of betweenity…Afro-Saxon, mainly but not only African…transported to the challenge of inter-culturation by the realities of relentless colonization – whether settlement, conquest or exploitation…divided much less biologically than ethnically…not so much racially as culturally [thus] we are mullato and mestizo…Afro-Creole, Indo-Creole, Luso-Creole, and Tochtho-Creole (Best, March-June 1997, p. 16).

The English-speaking sub-region population have predominantly, though not exclusively, been comprised of persons of African-origin, and so have been the largest of the ethnic and racial groups who make-up the Caribbean. The exceptions have been in Trinidad and Guyana, where East Indians have constituted the ethnic majorities. In Jamaica during the 1970’s, hyphenated categories were introduced to capture the ethnicities of those who were descendants from Jews, Lebanese, Syrian, East Indian, Chinese, White, Amerindian, Portuguese and Black, within that country’s population, as part of the census (F.W. Knight, 2012, p. 216, 229). “Indeed, most Caribbean census that have been returned, fail to designate race, although race, colour and class are powerful status indicators throughout the region” (F. W. Knight, 2012, p. 229). Accordingly, race in the Caribbean has often been defined in terms of ethnic origin and geographic terms (F. W. Knight, 2012, p. 232). These understandings of Caribbean identity have led notable West Indian Sir Shridath Ramphal to claim, “I am Guyanese before I am an Indian; [and] I am a West Indian before I am Guyanese” (Kean, 2000, p. 46). Nevertheless, colour consciousness has permeated Caribbean society. Accordingly, ascriptions of social status are often reinforced through class and gradations of skin colour, but often they do not form barriers for social climbing. On the other hand, in places like Trinidad and Tobago and Guyana, racial tensions between the Black and East Indian populations, in particular, create political divide. However, some have argued that the types of systematic racism that dehumanize and degrade, which have existed in North American and European

---

9 Creole is taken from the Spanish word Crillo, meaning ‘of local origin’ (Baronov and Yelvington, 2009, p. 225)
10 Sir Shridath Ramphal was born in Guyana in 1928, He was the former Assistant Attorney General in the Federal Government of the West Indies in 1958-1961; had a direct hand in the crafting of CARIFTA—the Caribbean Free Trade Association, in 1965; and of CARICOM—the Caribbean Community and Common Market, in 1973; he was instrumental in leading the creation of the African-Pacific-Caribbean (ACP) group of former European colonies in 1975, that negotiates with the EU. He was also a former Chancellor of the UWI (Girvan, July 2009–June 2010, retrieved from https://sta.uwi.edu/pelican/archives/issue7/article3pg2.asp).
societies towards racialized minorities, do not form mutually reinforcing cleavages in Caribbean societies. At the same time, despite their common histories, official languages, and institutions, each island has had its distinct set of characteristics and political institutions (F. W. Knight, 2012, p. 223-224).

Further contributing to the creolization of the region has been its highly migratory culture. Emigration to Cuba for cane cutting; Suriname, Venezuela and Trinidad and Tobago during their respective oil-booms, has seen large numbers of people moving across islands and territories, first intra-regionally and then into Europe and North America. In these spaces, the Caribbean Diaspora communities have been on the rise. Much of this traversing has been in search of employment and educational opportunities (Green, 1998; Conway 2009; F.W. Knight 2012; Baronov and Yelvington, 2009, p. 235). Intraregional migration in the Caribbean has also been used as a means for escaping one’s impoverished circumstances. In the face of a declining agricultural sector (Conway 2009, p. 380), many of the nations and territories which have had primarily agrarian economies, are seeing this slowly being replaced by the tourism and service sectors.

Caribbean people are transnationally mobile, exemplifying the resilience and adaptability that enables them to live between different worlds, as comfortable and familiar with their ‘away from home’ place as their ‘home’ place. [Consequently], cosmopolitanism, transnationalism and multiple identity formation are all commonly practiced experiences, and hybrid existences in Caribbean people’s extra-intraregional lives and livelihoods (Foner, 2001) [Conway, 2009, p. 382].

Therefore, given its heterogeneity, any undertaking of a regional project – the regionalization of higher education - must further explore ‘Caribbean’ notions of national identity, nationalism and national consciousness, at the regional level. It must also explore its political history, which has been one of the catalysts for the creation of regional integration, and the attempts to regionalize education in the English-speaking sub-region.

2.3 Regional Integration and the Rise of Nationalism

It is important to trace the history of federation (regional integration movements) in the British West Indies, in order to understand the present contexts of CARICOM and regional higher education mechanisms currently at work in the Anglophone Caribbean. This emerged in the research study and became a central focus of analysis. As Jane Knight (2013) observed, internationalization has brought an increasing emphasis on regional level collaboration. This is because in the context of internationalization, higher education has become an instrument of regional integration (regionalization), in many regions of the world. The move toward
regionalization however was fore-grounded in resistance movements, expanded opportunities for education, the rise of political parties, growing nationalism, independence from Britain, class consciousness and national identity, just to name a few, that were occurring in the Anglophone Caribbean.

In the Western hemisphere, among the most infamous of the resistance movements was the Haitian Revolution. Saint Dominique as it was then called, which is located in the Greater Caribbean, was the first colony to obtain political independence from its European colonizers. The revolt was led by a former slave – Toussaint Louverture – and ended in the political liberation of the island from France in 1804. More than forty years later, Santo Domingo (The Dominican Republic), which shares the island of Hispaniola with Haiti, successfully obtained its political independence in 1865 from Spain, but in 1844 had achieved political separation from Haiti (F. W. Knight, 2012, p. 140-160). The islands of the Caribbean continued to change hands with different European colonizers – Britain, France, The Netherlands and Spain, throughout their histories. However, it took another 150 years before the notion of sovereignty could regain momentum in the rest of the Caribbean. The catalyst for this is said to be the failure of the ‘West Indian Federation’ – a political project for regional integration. As discussed in the previous chapter, colonization launched the Anglophone Caribbean into the global economy. Through resistance movements, these nation-states fought vehemently to resist the colonizers. This surge towards sovereignty resurfaced with the islands of Jamaica and the Republic of Trinidad and Tobago, with their respective political leaders at the time, Michael Manley and Sir Eric Williams. They successfully led their respective islands towards political independence in August 1962. This achievement of political independence promoted a sense of national pride among the peoples of the nation-states and territories of the Caribbean (F.W. Knight, 2012 and Cobley, 2000). However, this occurred, because of political disagreements concerning leadership and the distribution of resources in the 1958-1962 Federation experiment. At the same time, the realities of their small size and economies, made them acutely aware of their vulnerability, and the need for continued cooperation, in order to survive and actively participate

---

11 While Haiti achieved its independence in 1804, Santo Domingo (The Dominican Republic) was the second Caribbean state to receive its political independence in 1865. During the period of the slave revolts of the 18\textsuperscript{th} and 19\textsuperscript{th} centuries, Haitian revolutionaries captured/re-conquered eastern parts of the island and held it until 1844. This area was of strategic importance-militarily. In 1844, the Dominicans successfully expelled the Haitians and established a republic under Pedro Santana. He declared himself governor and petitioned Spain to make the colony a province of Spain. This arrangement lasted from 1861 and was abandoned in 1865 after the death of Governor Santana (F. Knight. W., 2012, p. 140-160).
in the global economy. Thus the tensions between the needs of the nation-state and the ambitions of regional integration are ongoing, and in need of resolution.

Revolts and other forms of resistance were quite common place before and after the abolition of slavery in 1838. During slavery, the Maroons were among the more legendary resistance groups, especially in the islands of Jamaica, Haiti, Cuba, Barbados, Antigua, Guadeloupe and Martinique, for example (F.W. Knight, 2012, 65-66). On the other hand, during the 1920’s and 1930’s, civil protests and unrest became widespread across the Caribbean region (F. W. Knight, 2012, p. 234). In 1938 Jamaican dock workers for example, refused to work without better pay and better working conditions. Accordingly, labour unions emerged across the region to channel worker discontent, as the common suffering among workers created a growing regional solidarity (F.W Knight, 2012, p. 214-215).

It is important to chronicle some of the events that led to the unification movements in the English-speaking sub-region and the eventual independence movement that heightened nationalism the late 19th Century and early 20th Centuries. Inspired by the Haitian Revolution, Caribbean peoples fought zealously to end colonization and achieve self-governance. Their small size, limited resources and political ambitions were simultaneously hindrances and motivations in this pursuit. As will be discussed in this chapter, some of these movements led by the oligarchy and growing merchant class, encouraged a more gradual approach towards self-rule and the retention of tenuous ties to the British Crown, while others were interested in a more radical approach towards independence (F.W. Knight, 2012).

The outburst of militancy in the Caribbean in response to poor social and working conditions promoted the establishment of the West India Royal Commission Report, 1938-1939. The Commission was chaired by Baron Moyne, who made recommendations for changes in the colonies to King George VI of Britain. The Moyne Commission as it became known in the Anglophone Caribbean, proposed a number of social reforms for West Indian society (Lewis 2006), which are addressed later in chapter five.

Before proceeding with a discussion of the history of regionalization in the Anglophone Caribbean, it is important to ground this discussion in an understanding of colonial politics and education, as they relate to the sub-region. Orchestrating the process of governance was the Colonial Office, which was managed by the Secretary of State to the Colonies. In theory, the Secretary of State in the Colonial Office shared the responsibility for colonial administration with the Anglophone Caribbean’s governors. The Secretary of State was an elected member of the British Parliament, while governors were appointed as representatives of the Crown. Both embodied the sovereignty of the ruling monarch. In the colonies, the governor was assisted by
the legislative council made up of colonial officials, who were sometimes nominated or elected. One of the positions within the legislative council was that of a Director of Education. Together, this machinery helped to shape educational policies in the territories. Some governors gave education top priority, while for others; it was seen as a drain on colonial revenues (Whitehead, August 2007, 165-166). Accordingly, much of the motivation for federal unions, from the perspective of the British colonial administration, had to do with economic efficiencies.

2.3.1 Regional Integration

There were numerous attempts at regional integration by successive European colonizers in the Anglophone Caribbean, to form a federation of the Windward and Leeward Islands. The motivation was primarily for administrative convenience. For example, after the 1783 Treaty of Paris, Britain united Grenada, St. Vincent, Dominica and Tobago under a single governing council. As well, in 1833, Grenada, Barbados, St. Vincent and Tobago were brought under the management of one governor, whilst retaining their own legislatures. This Federation was expanded in 1838, when St. Lucia was added to the union and in 1859; a joint court of appeal was established. However, in 1889 Tobago was returned to Trinidad (Hughes, 1958, p. 88).

In 1896 under the governorship of Sir Benjamin Pine, the legislatures of Antigua, St. Kitts, Nevis, Dominica, Montserrat and the Virgin Islands gave consent to form a union. The Imperial Parliament passed the Leeward Islands Act in 1871 to form a federal union. This system of government remained mostly intact until the creation of the Federation of the West Indies in 1958. These attempts at federation in the Anglophone Caribbean, also led to the consolidation of mostly the criminal, civil and legal systems. Other unions led to the establishment of federal regulations in immigration, police, prisons, lunatic asylums, weights, measures, currency, postal and telegraph services, as well as education and the auditing of public accounts. For many years the basis of the union was primarily a common governor and auditor general (Hughes, 1958, p. 88-89).

In March 1931, Lord Passfield announced his intention to create a commission to investigate the formation of a union between the Windward and Leeward Islands and Trinidad. The scheme was first suggested in 1929 by two unofficial members of the Antigua Executive and Legislative Council. In 1925, the Wood Report recommended the formation of a federal union between Trinidad and the Windward Islands. As well, in 1929 the West Indian Sugar Commission suggested that an administrative union be created of the Windward and Leeward Islands, as a means of improving agriculture policy. However, it was not until September 1932
that the Closer Union Commissioners were appointed and in their July 1933 report, there was a proposition for the formation of a federation (Hughes, 1958, p. 96). However, in 1934 it was concluded that a scheme for a Closer Union could not be achieved, primarily because of disagreements among the various legislatures, on revenue sharing and taxation management policies (Hughes, 1958, p. 96 - 97). On April 30, 1944 the Grenada Legislative Council passed two motions. The first was to discuss the federation of the Windward Islands and the second was for constitutional reform. Accordingly, in 1945 Grenada hosted the Windward Islands Conference to discuss the findings of the Moyne Commission. (This work of this Commission is discussed in greater detail in chapter five). However, changes were made when Sir Arthur Gimble was appointed to the governor’s office from 1942 to 1948. During his reign, the position of Administrator was created for Grenada, and a Chief Secretary was appointed for the whole group in 1944 (Hughes, 1958, p. 98). At the 1945 Conference in Grenada, Sir Arthur Gimble noted,

if these small island legislatures allow themselves to be caught divided when inter-Caribbean negotiations begin, their individual voices will count for very little in the pourparlers that will settle their respective destinies. Their speakers will figure in the final swim (and that through no fault of the bigger Colonies) as sprats [very small fish] among mackerels only to be swallowed whole. If, on the other hand, these islands are united in advance of the great occasion, their common representatives, speaking with the authority of 370,000 people behind them, will find themselves playing no lackey’s part in the shaping of a Caribbean federation (Hughes, 1958, p. 99).

Federation of the Windward Islands was agreed to at the 1945 conference by a six to one vote, with one abstention. The idea presented was that the federal legislature overseeing the union would be elected indirectly, by the elected members of the various island legislatures. Approval for this proposal however, was still required from the Secretary of State in London, England. In 1946, in an open letter dispatched to the Colonies, the Secretary of State disapproved of the intended format of the union, although the Moyne Commission recommended that such a federation be created. In his letter, the Secretary of State offered a number of counter proposals. He recommended that a central government be set up with wide powers. He proposed that a Federal Legislative Council and a system of local councils be put in place to deal with local matters. There would also be a single federal treasury, although there would be block grants for individual states, under the Colonial Development and Welfare Act. The intent of the grant (the Colonial Development and Welfare fund) was to administer funding for the social and economic development of the region. Given these suggestions, the legislative councils from the Leeward and Windward Islands were asked to send representatives to consider these counter-proposals, at a joint conference in St. Kitts in 1946. The conference
endorsed the federation of the two groups, with a strong central government by a vote of twenty to three. There were conditions however. These conditions included that the federal government have exclusive powers over customs, income tax and post office revenues, and that surplus revenues be returned to the island of origin. Another recommendation was that the federal Executive Council be comprised of elected members, one for each island nation, and that an equal number of ex-officio and nominated members be chosen by the elected members of the Federal Legislative Council. Grenada was also unanimously chosen as the headquarters for this federal union. Each of the Legislative Councils in the respective islands had to ratify these new proposals (Hughes, 1958, p. 90-104).

While most of the islands went on to approve these proposals, these new recommendations faced its strongest opposition in Grenada. However, it was finally passed by a vote of seven to three. Having secured agreement, the two governors for the Windward and Leeward Islands were called to London for further consultation. The idea for the union received assent and the Secretary of State for the Colonies sent a dispatch on July 22, 1947 expressing satisfaction that a union between the Windward and Leeward Islands would now be created – to contribute to the social, political and economic progress of these islands. Further momentum for the idea of a union was received at the 1947 Montego Bay Conference, attended by representatives from Britain and many of the political elite in the colonies. However, for the British Colonial Office, administrative efficiency and bureaucratic centralization were the prime motivations. Despite this achievement, there was much constitutional wrangling, and by 1956 most of the Windward and Leeward Islands opted out of the proposed West Indian Federation (Hughes, 1958, p. 99-104). Additionally, in 1956, the Leeward Islands Act was dissolved and the islands became separate colonies, sharing one governor (Hughes, 1958, p. 88-89; Howe, 2005, p. 43; F.W. Knight, 2012, p. 222). There was still significant motivation for a federal union in the Anglophone Caribbean. Accordingly, a weaker scheme was resuscitated and a federation was formed from 1958 to 1962.

After the failure of the Federation in 1962, a number of islands in the Anglophone Caribbean formed another grouping called CARIFTA (the Caribbean Free Trade Agreement) in 1965. The initial CARIFTA agreement was signed by Antigua and Barbuda, Barbados, Trinidad and Tobago and British Guiana (Guyana) [Payne, 1980, p. 484]. Later on, many of the other islands joined CARIFTA. However, in 1973 CARIFTA was replaced by the Caribbean Community (CARICOM) as the main instrument of regional integration in the Anglophone Caribbean. This new agreement created a complex set of institutions and sub-committees to incorporate the goals of economic integration, functional cooperation and foreign policy.
coordination. As part of the agreement, the UWI was listed in the treaty as one of its associate institutions, which paved the way for formalizing it as a regional institution of higher learning (Payne, 1980, p. 490).

2.3.2 Nationalism, National Consciousness and National Identity

Historians have noted that the rise and intensification of nationalism/nationalist sentiments in the Caribbean could be traced back to the end of the First and Second World Wars, and the growing political independence of states. This was in-part due to the influences of the returning veterans, who had served with the colonial armies. Some of these returning veterans were given land and pensions in the colonial territories (F. W. Knight, 2012, p. 212). However, their dissatisfaction with the colonial situation, made them agitators for change in the Anglophone Caribbean. As Fanon (1963) noted, “the singularity of the colonial context lies in the fact that economic reality, inequality and enormous disparities in lifestyles never manage to mask the human reality” (p. xiii). As access to education expanded nationalism and national consciousness began to take root, bringing about the emergence of the political elite.

As the system of free compulsory public education emerged in Britain, this also took effect in the English-speaking sub-region after the 1870’s. “In the British Caribbean primary and secondary education provided powerful levels for politicization” (F.W. Knight, 2012, p. 211). In actuality, this education system produced three groups of political leaders. The first were designated as the Fabians, because of their connections to and support for the British Labour Party of the 19th Century and its ideals. They included those leaders in the British Caribbean who sought reforms through conventional parliamentary channels as members of the local legislatures. They were the local champions of the federation movements in the Anglophone Caribbean, previously described in this chapter. In addition, each time there were political and labour uprisings in the Anglophone Caribbean it was the Fabians who took charge of the commissions and inquiries. The Moyne Commission which was dispatched due to political unrest was one such example. (See additional details in later in this chapter and also in chapter five). The second group was more populist and radical, and had pan-African sentimentalities. They included those who supported the Marcus Garvey Movement of the 1930’s. The third group of leaders that emerged formed the nucleus of the early pan-Caribbean movement. They were very critical of the British Government. Their war experiences made them agitators for political reform and together with the social and labour movements in the Caribbean at the time, wanted to dismantle colonialism in the British West Indies. They promoted the surge towards political independence (F.W. Knight, 2012, p. 212-214). “Nevertheless, regardless of its biases
and shortcomings, this secondary education system created a cadre of leaders throughout the region, whose strong sense of local identity and acute knowledge of English political institutions served the region well in the twentieth century” (F.W. Knight, 2012, p. 211). This growing group of political elites in the sub-region also promoted the Caribbean political agenda in international forums. Thus the opportunities for education gave rise to the Caribbean intellectual elite, many of whom also went on to become members of the political elite.

As nationalist movements gained momentum in the 1930’s, they gave rise to trade unions and the eventual formation of political parties. Between 1934 and 1939 most of the islands and territories in the British West Indies had experienced labour unrest. The labour disturbances of the 1930’s were expressions of economic distress that gave rise to commissions of inquiries in the British West Indies (Johnson, 1978, p. 256). The Moyne and the Forster Commission reports of 1938 and 1939 respectively, revealed that the origins of the strikes and riots were not merely due to the lack of institutional arrangements for collective bargaining in the colonies, but were also due to social and economic grievances (Johnson, 1978, p. 266). Consequently, the 1938-1939 Moyne Commission recommended that a full program of social work be planned and implemented by each Colonial Government. It stipulated that it was not sufficient for civil society to rely on churches and voluntary organizations, to assist with improvements to the social conditions of the poor and working class in the Anglophone Caribbean. The Commissioners were of the opinion that these entities only scratched “the surface of the fundamental problems that faced the region” (Lewis, 2006, p. 123). Therefore, the Commission suggested that improving the material and social conditions of the people was the responsibility of government. Accordingly, coming out of the struggles of working class people in the Anglophone Caribbean, was an institutionalization of industrial

12 The 1937 oil field strikes began with workers at the Forest Reserve field of Trinidad Leaseholds Ltd as peaceful protests as they demanded better wages. When authorities attempted to arrest (Grenadian-born) Uriah Butler, the strikes turned into riots and spread to the sugar belt and eventually into the capital Port of Spain. By the time it ended with support from imperial reinforcements, 14 people were dead, 59 wounded, hundreds were arrested and there was substantial damage to property. The riots received attention in the London Press. Eventually the Secretary of State for the Colonies William Ormsby-Gore conceded to the requests from British Members of Parliament for a commission of inquiry. However, the decision to set up an inquiry was at the discretion of the Governor of Trinidad - Sir Murchison Fletcher. Ormsby-Gore realized that the interests of the Imperial Government (Trinidad’s oil exports and the creation of an iso-octane plant at the refinery in Point-a-Pierre, Trinidad, for the production of jet fuel for the war effort) would be best served by actively promoting trade unionism (to placate the workers) in Trinidad and set out on a course of action to encourage its creation, by influencing the Commission (the appointment of the Commissioners). The report of the Forster Commission was published in 1938 (Johnson 1978).
conflict and the formation of labour unions. That is, both the Moyne Commission and the
growing political elite were instrumental in the formation of labour unions in the British West
Indies. Social reforms were implemented during the period and included poor relief, education
 provision and subsidized housing, to name a few. This led to the creation a prototype for a
social welfare arrangement between the governments and peoples of the Anglophone
Caribbean. This has remained a function of Anglophone Caribbean politics to the present day,
so that working class militancy was often placated with these material rewards. In turn, when
governments needed the support of the ‘masses,’ they promised and implemented aspects of
the welfare state, as part of their respective social contract (Lewis, 2006).

The post World War I era also saw economic expansion in the region and a growing
interest in self-governance, and a movement away from notions of the Crown Colony. The
economies of the Anglophone Caribbean expanded as more agricultural products were
exported, and mining and manufacturing industries began to emerge. This allowed the islands
to invest heavily in education, housing and social services. Consequently, unemployment rates
fell and governments became major employers, as opportunities increased in the public service
sector. As well, newspapers, nationalist movements and Black radicals sought to educate the
masses about the need for improvements in education, and the importance of an education
system in the sub-region that was more rooted in the Caribbean experience (Howe, 2005, p. 44-
45). Thus the pan-Africanist movement of the 1930’s gave rise to a literary shift away from
European romanticism to a focus on the social, economic and political realities of Caribbean
peoples. As well, during that era, a surge of literary works by Caribbean authors popularized the
Caribbean experience, without patronizing the masses. The Black Jacobins by C.L.R. James
grew out of this tradition (F.W. Knight, 2012, p. 214). The text championed West Indian political
activism, by popularizing the triumphs of the Haitian Revolution. Potentially it was also a tool for

teaching new generations of anti-colonialists, what was possible for ‘Black’ people to free
themselves. The book was widely read by many political leaders in Africa and the West Indies,
which it inspired (Meeks, 1994, p. 76).

In the 1940’s, various colonial governors and administrators were expelled from the
region, and a small, but predominantly planter and merchant elite took political control. This
gave rise to a political infrastructure that ‘mimicked’ that of the colonizing country, particularly –
the ‘Westminster’ style parliamentary government. The root of this process of social and political
democracy is said to have been derived from four sources: economic diversification which
opened up new economic opportunities, as regional economies attempted to expand beyond
sugar cane planting and sugar export; the expansion of the education system which produced a
new professional class; the growth of organized religion; and the rise of labour unions (F. W. Knight, 2012, p. 215). The result of this was the creation of political parties in the British West Indies, namely in the islands of Grenada, St. Kitts, British Honduras (Belize), Antigua and Guyana (F. W. Knight, 2012, p. 221), led by an emerging political and intellectual elite.

Yet despite these changes, the vast majority of the masses continued to be repressed by colonization. Fanon (1963) therefore expressed his disappointment with the emerging political and intellectual elite, citing their ineptness, lack of skills and expertise, and their willingness to act prosaically as a conveyor belt for capitalism, by camouflaging themselves, behind the mask of neocolonialism (p. 100-101). Consequently, “instead of being the coordinated crystallization of the people’s innermost aspirations, instead of being the most tangible, immediate product of popular mobilization, national consciousness [became] nothing but a crude, empty, fragile shell” (Fanon, 1963, p. 97).

While political movements in the Caribbean can be said to have encouraged nationalism, F.W Knight (2012) was also remiss in failing to discuss the repressiveness of the colonial systems on the psyche of the Caribbean ‘masses.’ It is here that Fanon’s ‘Wretched of the Earth’ can again be employed to investigate the effects of colonialism, in its ability to inflict psycho-social wounding on the region’s colonized ‘masses.’ Distanced from their past, indoctrinated with European colonizing value sets, a people can become far removed from their own political and social identities, creating an alienation from and of the self. Aiding in this process were doctrinaire positions about race, class and social status, imported from Europe. The Spanish for example, were credited with bringing in the racial ideology called ‘Limpieza de Sangre’ (purity of blood), which occurred at the time of the ‘Reconquista’ (the reconquering of Spain from the Moors) and the expulsion of the Jews from Spain. This resulted in a system of racial privileging of ‘Whiteness.’ It created a racial hierarchy that put African and Amerindian features at the lowest end of the continuum in relation to ‘Whiteness’ (Baronov and Yelvington, 2009 p. 231).

Over time, these ideologies became internalized, where ‘Whiteness” becomes the goal to aspire toward. It created what Fanon described as ‘lactification.’ This is where ‘Black’ bodies in colonizing relations aspire to ‘Whiten/ de-race themselves, in their attempt at self-determination and resistance within local communities. These ideologies also promoted self-hate, a kind of psychological wounding – or what Fanon describes as the ‘great Black mirage of wanting to be “White” (Dei, Lecture Notes, 2008 Fall, p. 16). The end result of this type of indoctrination was a belief in one’s ‘positionality, as imposed upon them by the colonizers, a trend which still continues and is reflected in international relations between developed and
developing nations. It also created what Fanon described as the ‘Manichean Divide, which is a way of thinking in irrational, oppressive dualisms/ binaries, which positions ‘Black in relation to ‘White.’ As such, the Black intellectual who was already enslaved by the ‘White’ colonizer also enslaves himself within this superstructure. For within this system, everything is described in relation to a collective unconsciousness, where ‘Black’ is equated with ugliness, darkness, immorality, inferiority, backwardness, while ‘White’ is equated with beauty, light, morality, superiority, and civility. In turn, this created an internalized racism- which is destructive to self and one’s construction of their identity (Adapted from Dei, Lecture Notes, 2008 Fall, p. 17).

The above, together with creolization, created a racial and ethnic complexity within the Caribbean. This racial mixing occurred, because at all times since the start of slavery, the African population, which has always been largest in number, became most exposed to greater opportunities for interracial copulation, some of which was the result of rape, other forms of coercion and in some cases, consent. This together with the ‘ideologies around ‘shadism’ and aspirations towards ‘physical, intellectual, psychological and sociological Whiteness,’ became imbued into the ‘Caribbean’ psyche. Added to that, there was a deliberate mixing of the various African groups who were brought into the region by European enslavers. This was done in an attempt to minimize slave revolts, fearing that common languages would encourage greater communication among the slaves, believing that their limited ability to communicate with each other, given their varying languages and cultures, would be a hindrance to revolt. Furthermore, for centuries, beginning with the Amerindians who originated from the Amazon, interregional and intraregional migration has always been present in the Caribbean, which is a trend that still continues today. This adds further to the creolization of the Caribbean region.

In a region where incessant biological mixture has occurred over centuries, any ethnic ideal clashes with the observed reality of everyday life. Nevertheless, ideals exist, often based on European models, which vary from the expressed rhetoric of the political majority that tries to emphasize the African cultural heritage” (F.W. Knight, 2012, p. 224).

Therein lies the danger of the reformulating of the Caribbean story, given its racial mixture, one must be careful not to attempt to replace one type of hegemony (European), with another (African). As Ali (2010) noted, the concept of the colonial plantation economy shaped the consciousness of Caribbean society, by influencing its values, norms and understanding of its social identity (p. 75). Consequently, given the difficulty of tracing one’s ancestral roots to a specific place in Africa, because of the deliberate dispersion of the African slaves throughout the region, some scholars have argued that the peoples of the Caribbean, who were brought in by choice or force, should trace their roots to their ancestors’ arrival in the Caribbean (F.W. Knight,
It may be argued that this in itself is a form of what Fanon referred to as ‘amputation’. However, the awareness of one’s cultural and historical roots, African, Asian etc, is also very much entrenched into the psyche of the Caribbean-person’s identity, as this is not about the denial of, or forgetting or erasing of one’s ancestral origins. Yet there must be a resistance to amputation, through the creation of decolonized spaces that would “allow for a rethinking of notions of ‘identity,’ ‘belongingness’ ‘history,’ ‘culture’ and politics” (Dei, Lecture Notes, 2008 Fall, p. 26).

As F. W. Knight, (2012) noted, the political agitation that periodically enveloped the English-speaking Caribbean had its roots in their dismal economic situation. The low wages, high unemployment, high inflation, and an inflexible, insensitive colonial administration helped to fuel passions of discontent that frequently erupted into strikes and riots (p. 212). Therefore, this resistance by Caribbean peoples “to conform to relegated stereotypes forced them to adopt political strategies that were designed to change both the condition of their daily lives and the nature of the colonial state that inhibited their independence” (F.W. Knight, 2012, p. 205). Consequently, nationalism denotes a sense of pride, self-determination, belongingness and an allegiance to the nation-state, territory and/ or region. Yet the earlier aspirations of the peoples of the Caribbean, seemed centred in ‘colonial mimicry.’ Accordingly, “West Indian elites succumbed to the alien notions of European social Darwinism, dissipating their energies in commercial pursuits and social climbing. To excel to the mother country’s culture became the ultimate achievement. [Consequently], the British Caribbean elite became adept at imitation, at what the writer V.S. Naipaul called, *Mimic Men*” (F. W. Knight, 2012, p. 205). For emerging out of ‘independence’ was the mimicking of the political, economic and educational structures of the colonizers. These gave birth generally to political systems in the Caribbean that did not provide viable avenues for careful cultivation, and creative fertilization of national consciousness and collective self-respect (F. W. Knight, 2012, p. 204). As Dei (2008 Fall) noted, “British colonialism sought to imbue ‘Natives’ with British values hence the mimicry” (Lecture Notes, p. 41). Yet mimicry in the Caribbean cultural context has also served as a form of resistance to the dominating oppressive forces of colonialism.

Thus there are dissonances. Caribbean culture can be said to have been born out of resistance. In response to colonial domination and repression, there was an emergence of cultural expression that served to identify Caribbean culture, which mimicked the dominant

---

13 Amputation is a call for severance of ties, or connection, in this case to one’s past, history and culture (Dei Lecture Notes, 2008 Fall, p. 26).
‘White European’ culture.’ The idea of Carnival, which today is celebrated widely across the region and into the diasporic Caribbean communities, as expressions of culture, emerged out of the mockery of the pre-Lenten French Catholic festival and sanctions imposed on African culture, such as drumming, in the region (Liverpool, Autumn 1994; Campbell, Winter 1988; Walcott, February 1974). Today, this is a multi-million dollar revenue generating industry. However, this appropriation of Afro-Caribbean culture can also be contested along the same vein, especially in light of the corporatization and commercialization of this Caribbean art form. However, the neoliberal uptake and Caribbean cultural appropriation, though of importance, and has some relation to this topic, are not specifically under scrutiny here.

As we have seen however, resistance formed the very essence of the Caribbean. In addition to the political resistances described above, it was also be found in the myriad of cultural expressions including its music, literary expressions and its ongoing histories of revolt and revolution. The plurality of the ‘space’ and the cultures of the peoples who have come to inhabit it, need to be examined, if we are to arrive at an understanding and/or explanation of Caribbean culture and identity.

National culture is forged in day to day struggles. Through revolutionary struggles we shape a national consciousness. National consciousness/national culture as emerging from anti-colonial struggle, speaks to the tension of coming to citizenry through cultural homogeneity/heterogeneity that is the challenges of a singular nationalism through the local body of difference. It is about a contestation around difference and power located in shared culture, values and interests. A true national culture therefore, requires an understanding of past, history and identity. A true national culture cannot exist under colonial domination. Such culture must be born and bred from within people’s struggles and material conditions (Dei, Lecture Notes, 2008 Fall, p. 21-22).

As has been discussed, there is heterogeneity within Caribbean populations that posed challenges for regional and national integration. The biological mixture that has occurred over the centuries created various levels of fragmentation. As has been previously mentioned, there is a psychological aspiration toward ‘Whiteness’ that is manifested in the mimicking of ‘White-European’ culture values, including within educational practices and systems of government. This created a political and social fragility and this together with the region’s economic realities, which relies on tourism and agriculture, as their largest sources of revenue, exacerbate these tensions. Yet Caribbean culture has survived and is evolving. As Fanon (1963) noted “each generation must discover its mission, fulfill it or betray it in relative opacity (p. 145). This is testament to the survivalist mentality of the region’s peoples, who despite colonial domination,
continue to struggle forward and upward towards a new humanity/ new vision for the
Anglophone Caribbean.

Like the people themselves, all art forms in the Caribbean demonstrate an eclectic
variety harmoniously combining elements of European, African, Asian and Indigenous
American (Amerindian) traditions. For the first time, the main cultural forms reflect the
complex reality of the people and their history, not half-digested imitations of distant
cultures (F. W. Knight, 2012, p. 224).

Yet by themselves, language and culture are not enough to make a people feel a sense of
belongingness; something more is required a common life, memories, experiences and goals
(Fanon, 1965, p. 175). Consequently, there are many possibilities for reformulating Caribbean
national identity and culture, through regional educational reform and by an excavation of
‘Caribbean - Indigenousness’/ self-knowledge This is critical, as much of what has been
constructed about and around Caribbean identity, has been done through the prism of
colonizing forces.

Much of the work written on nationalism has always been discussed in terms of political
feats and triumphs, and has become synonymous with militancy, and relegated to descriptions
and explorations of political histories. However politics and culture do not offer easy solutions for
the regionalization project. As discussed above, Caribbean nationalism existed as fragmented
political voices and not always as a unifying political movement. However, through regionalism
(shared ideology) and regionalization (the process of intentionally building connections with the
intent to form a region); and by its willingness to forge supranational entities, such as
CARICOM, to achieve economic, political and educational, regional and sub-regional objectives
(F.W. Knight, 2012; J. Knight 2013; W.A. Knight and Ghany, 2014) the sub-region continues to
persevere.

2.4 The History of Educational Development in the Caribbean

Since the Caribbean played such an important role not only in the physical expansion of
the Europeans in the New World, but in the realignment of political power in Europe over
several centuries, it follows that the histories of the Americas and of Europe cannot be
written without prominent attention to the region. A region that pioneered democracy,
recognized equality before the law, and made slaves the masters of free men [Haiti and

---

\(^{14}\) This is in reference to Haiti which had a revolution and obtained its independence from France in 1789
(Knight, 2012, p. 144). The island of Hispaniola was formerly divided in 1697 by the Treaty of Ryswick
into the Spanish colony of Santo Domingo (now the Dominican Republic) and the French colony of Saint
Dominique -Haiti (Knight, 2012, p. XI).
The peoples of the Caribbean have been globalized since the first intervention of European intruders, who having made contact with its original inhabitants, sought to connect this New World with Europe, and set-off a chain of activities that would forever change the region. But long before that, the Kalinagos had moved up the islands and territories located between North and South America, which stretched from the Florida Peninsula into the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea, from the Amazon (Honychurch, 2004, 2005, 2014; F.W. Knight, 2012).

As we have seen, the narrative of the Caribbean began with the Amerindians - the Kalinagos - whose story was passed on throughout history by the European colonizers. The initial contact in recorded history was with the Spaniard, Christopher Columbus. Yet there is a problem of speaking for, and about 'others.' Where one speaks, the relations of power and who speaks or has an opportunity to speak, and who listens, gives meaning, and depending on who’s articulating, there may be a lack of epistemic salience. There is a truth value attached to who is speaking and what is spoken (Alcoff, 1991-1992, p. 12; Dei, 2008 Fall, Lecture Notes). Therefore, as Europeans attempted to annihilate the Kalinago population through conquest, their stories were appropriated and replanted, as the 'human-eating peoples,' a distorted discourse. Placed in texts, it was implanted into the psyche of generations of Caribbean youth in the education system. Thus the development of education in the Caribbean cannot be told without a presentation of its colonial history.

Not to dismiss the indigenous forms of education which predated European colonization of the Caribbean among the Kalinagos, 'Westernization,' often used synonymously with the Europeanization of higher education, began in the English-speaking Caribbean with the establishment of Cordington College in Barbados. This institution was established in 1743 to train Anglican priests. It remained the only college offering higher education in the English-speaking Caribbean until 1921, with the establishment of the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture (ICTA), in Trinidad. The intention behind the creation of the ICTA was that it would train personnel from all over the British Empire, after World War I, with the aim of improving the profitability of the sector (Cobley, 2000, p. 2, 6).

During the colonial period, there were repeated attempts to establish education facilities in the English-speaking Caribbean (Cobley, 2000, p. 3). Accordingly, by the 1820's, in Grenada

---

15 In 1921 the institution was founded as the West Indian Agricultural College and renamed in 1924 as the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture (Pemberton, Ragbir and Pemberton, 2000, p. 146).
for example, Sir George Murray, Governor of Grenada, became the chief patron for the Society for Education of the Poor, an organization of the Church of England. The Society started one of the first schools in Grenada for children of free Blacks and Coloureds,\(^{16}\) called the Central School, St. George’s (Brizan, 1998, p. 109). By 1823 there were about eleven schools in Grenada for Whites and Free Coloureds. However, in 1826, John McInnis, a planter in Grenada, was able to get one of his slaves’ admission to the Central School. In turn, this slave taught other slaves on his plantation. Later that year, other planters, who were so inclined, allowed some of their slaves the opportunity to attend school. The first set of education done in schools was religious instruction and prayers, and later on, reading, writing, spelling, ciphering and arithmetic tables were introduced. After emancipation, the ruling class saw moral and religious instruction as a means of integrating the ex-slaves into the society (Brizan, 1998, p. 154-155).

The bedrock of imperial education in the English-speaking Caribbean was modeled after the British and Irish education systems, both of which had placed religious instruction as the centrefold (Brizan, 1998, p. 158; Howe, June 2005). In 1835 the British government established the Negro Education Grant. An annual subsidy £30,000 was agreed to, for the disbursement. However, in its first allocation in December 1835, seventeen colonies shared the sum of £18,200. Grenada’s allocation was £800 (Brizan, 1998, p. 159 and Howe, June 2005, p. 42). The Grant was intended to assist missionary societies with educating the newly freed slaves and set the scene for a flurry of new proposals. For example, in 1843 Calabar College was established by the Baptist Missionary Society in Jamaica, to train religious ministers. Accordingly, the Grant was given to the colonies primarily to establish educational facilities. Consequently, many of the earliest schools that were created had religious affiliations, because they were created under the auspices of the Church. This was because many governments in the Colonies sought to finance schools operated by churches, while restraining their expenditures. For as discussed earlier on, investment in education was driven by the prerogative of the governor in the colonial administration. These institutions instilled in students the virtues of obedience and respect for authority, as well as restricted notions of social class and gender roles. Therefore, through education, they would be equipped for divinely sanctioned roles in the society. As such, the master/servant syndrome dominated the colonial education system for centuries. Funding from the Grant was terminated in 1845 (Brizan, 1998, p. 159-162; Cobley, 2000, p. 3; Howe, June 2005, p. 41-44 and Smith, 2008, p. 431).

\(^{16}\) Coloureds – a term used for mixed-raced persons.
When the funding for education through the Grant ended, the expectation was that local legislatures would continue to support education development in the colonies. However, there were limited resources, and of those governments so inclined, preference was given to educating the ‘Whites’ and ‘Free Coloureds.’ Accordingly, during the 1860’s the upper-class/ Grenadian elite for example, opposed education for the now free black population, on the grounds that it was unnecessary and potentially dangerous (Brizan, 1998, p. 154-162; Howe, June 2005, p. 41-44). Yet, by the 1850’s a Normal School was introduced to train teachers on the island of Grenada. By the 1860’s there was one secondary school on the island and by 1876 a secondary school for girls, the St. Joseph’s Convent, St. George’s, operated by Catholic nuns, the Sisters of St. Joseph of Cluny, was opened (Brizan, 1998 p. 168). Both of these were fee paying institutions.

2.4.1 Higher Education Development

In order to train civil servants for the colonial bureaucracy, higher education needed to be expanded in the British West Indies. In 1876, Bishop Mitchinson made a series of proposals in Barbados that were published in a report. In it, he recommended that one or two scholarships be granted each year by the Government of Barbados to the best students on the island, to attend Oxford or Cambridge University in Britain. The recommendation was quickly put in place and adopted by Jamaica and Trinidad in 1879. Later the practice was adopted by many of the other islands in the Anglophone Caribbean. For example, Grenadians who won island scholarships attended British universities, and were considered well placed to pass the London Matriculation of High School Certification exams. This was the precursor to higher education in Grenada. At the same time, other unsuccessful attempts to establish colleges in Jamaica were made between 1889 and 1898 (Cobl ey, 2000, p. 4-5; Bobb-Smith, 2007 p. 257).

The first group of scholarship recipients were male and ‘White.’ Bishop Mitchinson also proposed to expand the programming offered by Cordington College in Barbados. The College later created an affiliation with Durham University in Britain to offer a number of courses that led to degrees. Consequently, until 1948 Cordington College was the only institution in the English-speaking Caribbean offering degrees. These arrangements and the establishment of the scholarships created opportunities, while simultaneously they belittled the attempts by local institutions to offer high quality education. It also placed the acquisition of a scholarship and an

---

17 In 1916, Grenada established a scholarship program that was tenable at British universities. It was awarded on the basis of the Cambridge Senior Examination Results (Smith, 2008, p. 51).
overseas education at the apex of achievement for West Indian students. It reinforced the stratification of local versus international institutions, and contributed to the underdevelopment of higher education in the region, as the best and brightest were pilfered from the Anglophone Caribbean (Cobley, 2000, p. 5-6).

The first recorded request for a university in the Caribbean was made by Bishop Berkley, who proposed to convert Bermuda “into a university island for the British and American colonies” (Cobley, 2000, p. 3). Throughout the 18th and 19th Centuries, costs and the concerns over the provision of higher education to the ‘Black’ population, who were now in the majority, was received with hostility (Cobley, 2000, p. 3; Howe, June 2005, p. 41-44). However, the call for the creation of the University of the West Indies was made in 1869 by Patrick Joseph Keenan, Chief of the Inspection Board of National Education in Ireland. Keenan had made a visit to Trinidad, where he reported on the lack of opportunities for higher education in the English-speaking Caribbean, which forced many parents to send their children to Europe. He cited the latter as ‘inefficient,’ ‘cumbersome’ and ‘costly.’ He proposed a University of the West Indies that would have no teachers, and would offer no classes. Students would instead be awarded degrees from the pursuit of studies at local colleges and seminaries. These candidates would then sit examinations in the region, which were created in Europe. However, the idea of a non-teaching university may have been too radical for its time. Yet the territories identified as part of Keenan’s scheme, came together in 1948 to form the University College of the West Indies (Cobley, 2000, p. 4). The breakthrough for the establishment of the University College of the West Indies (UCWI) came in 1943 where a report persuaded officials in Britain that colonial university colleges could be sponsored using the syllabuses and awarding degrees of the University of London. Thereafter, the colonial secretary, Colonel Oliver Stanley moved rapidly to call for the appointment of a commission…to consider the principles which should guide the promotion of higher education, learning, and research development of universities in the Colonies; and to explore the means whereby universities and other appropriate bodies in the United Kingdom, may be able to cooperate with institutions of higher education in the Colonies, in order to give effect to these principles (Cobley, 2000, p. 10).

However, by 1923, the British Advisory Committee on Higher Education was formed by the Secretary of State for the Colonies. The Committee was established in response to a Commission Report produced by an American philanthropic organization based in New York, the Phelps-Stokes Foundation, which in 1922 had examined the education policy towards Africans in South, West and Equatorial Africa, mostly colonies ruled by the British. The primary focus of the Report was on elementary and secondary education. Many of the policy guidelines issued by the British Colonial Office in 1923 echoed many of the recommendations from the
Phelps-Stokes Report. In 1926, the Standing Conference on Education in the West Indian Colonies deliberated on the establishment of a university, under the urging of the Colonial Office. As a result, by the 1930’s the British Advisory Committee on Education had to give consideration to proposals for higher education facilities in the Colonies (Cobley, 2000, p. 6-7; Yamada, 2008, p. 21).

Two reports in the 1920’s and 1930’s promoted the creation of a university. In 1924, the British Advisory Committee on Education in the Colonies report emerged. This report focused on educational development in Africa. The Committee was chaired by Sir James Currie who noted that provisions were needed to manage the aspirations of the rising African elite. However, with the great depression, the recommendations of the report were not implemented. On the other hand, the Mayhew-Mariot Report, produced in 1932, recommended that focus be placed on elementary, secondary and vocational education, and the need for a university that would rely on the contributions of benefactors for its continued existence (Cobley, 2000, p. 9). The Report proposed that “the future of West Indian secondary education depends largely on local provision being made for university training in all the main subjects of the secondary curriculum” (Cobley, 2000, p. 9).

The next major development to impact education was the 1938-1939 Moyne Commission. The Commission recommended that a Colonial Development and Welfare Fund be created to finance improvements in education and other sectors, across the colonies. However the emergence of World War II in 1939 delayed its implementation (Cobley, 2000, p. 9-10, Howe, June 2005, p. 43). In 1943, Sir Oliver Stanley proposed that a Commission on Higher Education in the Colonies be created. It resulted in the Asquith Report. The Commission delegated the responsibilities for Africa to Sir Walter Elliot and the West Indies to Sir James Irvine, hence the Irvine Committee. The Committee believed that the geographic distances and other factors that differentiated these two geographic locations warranted separate inquiries. However, the findings of both Committees were absorbed into the Asquith Report (Cobley, 2000, p. 9-10).

The Irvine Committee reported that there were a number of arguments against the creation of a university in the British West Indies. The first was funding – the recurring costs to operate a university. In response, the Irvine Committee recommended that it be funded through private benefactions. Another issue was the smallness of size and isolation of the various

---

18 The findings of this Report will be addressed in the chapter on International Academic Mobility and Cross Border Education.
islands and territories. The concern was that students needed to be sent to the outside world in order to broaden their intellectual horizons. Consequently, the Committee recommended that the university would be sufficiently developed locally, but that students, who wanted to seek postgraduate studies, would do so outside of the region. As well, it was argued that if provisions were made to allow for all levels of education to occur in the Caribbean, the region would remain isolated and the opportunities for innovation (due to limited interaction with persons from outside of the region) would be stymied (Cobley, 2000, p. 12). Furthermore, since the end of the War, more undergraduate spaces were needed for returning veterans and the expanding populations in Europe. Therefore, it was observed that West Indians would be best served by obtaining their undergraduate education in the Caribbean. However, an argument put forward by dissenters was that university education should be delayed until improvements were made to elementary and secondary education standards. The Irvine Committee responded that the existence of a university would help to raise the standards (Cobley, 2000, p. 12).

Another argument put forward in support of the establishment of the university was that it would help to create Caribbean leaders, who would pass on the process of responsible government-democracy – towards self-determination, while also improving the circumstances of women (Cobley, 2000, p. 13). “The Committee also argued that a single University of the West Indies could become the intellectual centre of the region, and an agency for the promotion of research, pertinent to the needs of West Indian people” (Cobley, 2000, p. 13). These sentiments, as we will see in the subsequent chapters, have remained part of the very fabric of the institution. The overall intention was to ensure that Britain would guide the colonies towards self-rule, through the promotion of higher education without sacrificing continuing British influence and interest. The other intent was to provide training to the intellectual elite in the colonies at a relatively low cost (Cobley, 2000, p. 13) and “end the politically undesirable practice of sending students overseas for training” (Cobley, 2000, p. 13). However, the rationale given at the time was that this would present opportunities to breakdown the isolation and insularities of these islands and territories.

There were a number of other reasons that gave rise to the creation of a university in the British West Indies. Britain of course had its own agenda to groom local leaders for the future, given the growing shortage of personnel to serve in the Colonial Administration. Within the Anglophone Caribbean, there was a serious shortage of labour, of trained personnel for the fledgling bureaucracies, particularly in the public service and in teaching. As well, the demands
for self-determination by the growing elite in the colonies, including the rise of pan-Africanist\textsuperscript{19} sentiments, radicalizing and inspiring nationalists in the region towards independence, was another instigator for the creation of a university in the Anglophone Caribbean. There was growing concern about the political consciousness among the rising elite, many of whom had fought in the War for Britain and were becoming restless. Officials were also becoming fearful about the flow of students from Africa and the Caribbean into Europe, and the US, who were becoming radicalized by Garvey-ism and Pan-Africanism, who might incite nationalism upon their return home. The socio-economic and political climate in Britain, as well as protests from students who came from Africa, India and the Caribbean to study in Britain, and were being subjected to racism, led to political unrests, including protests in Britain and across the colonies (Cobley, 2000; Payne 1980).

This reached a pinnacle when West Indian Students studying in Britain, mostly lawyers and doctors, wrote to Lord Passfield, the Secretary of State for the Colonies, and stated that the discrimination that they were being subjected to in public places, such as in places of amusement, in restaurants, hotels and boarding houses, was unjust and had repercussive and far-reaching effects across the British empire. Added to that, they noted that it was the colonial legislation that compelled them to come to Britain and Ireland to qualify for their professions, in order to prepare for constructive work in their respective places of origin. They warned that they would not be deterred and should not be prevented from the full enjoyment of these rights as British Citizens. The response from the Colonial Office was passé. But the growing intolerance for Black and Brown peoples in Britain gave rise to the notion that higher education should be provided to them in their own homes, in order to discourage migration. The establishment of institutions of higher education in the colonies became paramount, especially forms of education that promoted loyalty to the British Crown (Cobley, 2000, p. 7-10; Payne, 1980).

Other motivations for the creation of the University in the Colonies included the availability of financing from the Colonial Development and Welfare Fund after the war ended, and the ability to control the syllabi, through the practice of awarding degrees from a British

\textsuperscript{19} Pan Africanism is an ideology that seeks “political, socio-economic, religious, educational, and cultural self-determination for Africans and for Blacks in the African Diaspora. It is informed by fierce pride in African history and culture. Pan-Africanists have generally considered Africans and Diasporic Blacks to have broad historical similarities and common interests in combating the global color line, which manifests itself in various forms of white supremacy, including colonialism, racial capitalism, and racial segregation. C.L.R. James’s The Black Jacobins (1938) and George Padmore’s Pan-Africanism or communism (1956) are important early histories of black radicalism framed within a Pan-African context” (Adi, Sherwood, Vinson, September 2005, p. 1)
university. This would ensure that the standards laid down by British institutions would be retained in the colonies. As such, the Inter-University Council for Higher Education (IUC) was created to recruit staff and set the standards for these Asquith Colleges, as they became known across the Colonies (Cobley, 2000, p. 13). Accordingly, for a very long time, higher education in the region relied heavily on syllabi and international faculty from Europe, whose interests were being promoted at the expense of regional development. This included local research development and skills, which were hindered from being repatriated to these fledging economies. Cobley (2000), quoting Ajayi, Goma and Johnson, noted that

colonial universities...paid greater attention to its standing in the eyes of foreigners than to the relevance of its activities to the needs of its own country. The two essential characteristics of the Colleges, therefore, were the search for equivalence with European university standards and the attendant control of both curriculum and personnel by the colonial authorities acting in partnership with metropolitan universities (p. 14).

As we have seen, the Asquith Colleges were created to manage the transition of these colonies from colonialism to neocolonialism during the 1940’s and 1950’s (Cobley, 2000, p. 14).

As a point of interest, it must be noted that in 1826 the University College, London was created in response to the failure by the established universities in Britain (Oxford and Cambridge), to admit Jews, Roman Catholics and Non-Conformists to their respective institutions. In 1836 it came together with King’s College and was granted a charter as the University of London. From 1858 the University of London acted as a degree granting institution for students at other institutions across Britain (Allen, 1986, p. 53) and later to institutions in the British Colonies. While the University of London supported educational development in the colonies and across Britain, its matriculation standards for admittance hindered opportunities for advancement for much of the population in the colonies. This was paradoxical, as it maintained existing social stratifications, by limiting access, despite being set up historically, in response to these inequitable practices by existing universities in Britain.

As previously articulated, by the 1940’s, increased participation in systems of education by the Caribbean elite gave rise to a professional class. One of the challenges for the Caribbean’s plantation societies was the inability of the colonizing ‘White’ populations to staff the bureaucracy and the professions. This created opportunities for members of the lower classes in the society to achieve a modicum of social status -‘White’ respectability - and modest wealth (F.W. Knight, 2012, p. 210). Some were able to obtain secondary education which was

---

20 Asquith Colleges were also located in Africa (Cobley, 2000, p. 13).
sufficient to obtain employment in teaching, journalism, the civil service and an apprenticeship in medicine or law. The key to upward mobility among the Blacks and Coloured or mixed raced peoples of the Caribbean was education. In the 19th century, following the establishment of the ‘Island Scholarships’ in the 1870’s, education in the English-speaking Caribbean consisted of three types 1) overseas/abroad which was funded by personal or family resources; 2) as exclusive schools for ‘Whites’ who could not afford to travel overseas; and 3) through meritocracy for non-whites who were academically able (F.W. Knight, 2012, p. 210). However, as the former Prime Minister of Trinidad and Tobago, Sir Eric Williams noted, the “purpose of education in Trinidad was to ensure the Anglicanisation of the colony….it strengthened the prevailing English influence…[with a] secondary curriculum that was indistinguishable from that of an English public school” (F.W. Knight, 2012, p. 211). These sentiments were pervasive throughout the Caribbean. This was because as previously mentioned; schools established in the colonies were expected to be mirror images of those located in the ‘mother country.’

The West Indian experience was part of a global circumstance after 1945 in which the larger part of the world grew frustrated with the nineteenth century about them, and did something about it. Whatever they did, however, ended in a reconciliatory discussion about knowledge, education, and their supportive infrastructures. Scattered far and wide by new national boundaries, and divided by rivers, mountains, seas, and ideologies, new-nation people of old civilizations have had to come face to face with modernity as a discourse about the knowledges of progress. The call for popular inclusion now drives policy initiatives in distance education…[with] the core assumption…[that] greater access to formal education constitutes the key to development trajectories (Beckles, 2000, p. xv).

To meet the growing need for education in the Anglophone Caribbean, in 1945 it was decided that an Extra Mural Studies department would be set up as centres across the English-speaking sub-region (Cobley, 2000, p. 15). Although a decision was made to create the University College of the West Indies in 1948, following the report from the Irvine Commission - Asquith Report, Non-Campus Countries within the region were still not fully satisfied.

Ironically, whatever the success the UCWI had in nurturing a West Indian historical, cultural and intellectual renaissance had the effect of promoting the very diversity of identity and aspiration it was pledged to subsume. Thus from the onset, the stage was set for a political and ideological struggle for the soul of the university in the region. This would come to the fore with the collapse of the West Indian Federation in 1962, and continues to the present day (Cobley, 2000, p. 15).

When the official site of Mona in Jamaica was chosen for the establishment of the University, there was much inter-island protest. At its inauguration, two resident tutors, one for the Leeward
Islands\textsuperscript{21} and the other for the Windward Islands\textsuperscript{22} were chosen for the Extra Mural Department to represent the non-campus territories (Cobley, 2000; Roberts, 2013).

### 2.4.2 The University of the West Indies

The Mona Campus in Jamaica was opened in 1948 with the Faculty of Medicine on a 653 acre site, six miles from the capital, Kingston. A total of thirty-three medical students: twenty-three men and ten women were admitted to the University (Cobley, 2000, p. 15; Payne, 1980, p. 477). With the collapse of the Federation, concerns were raised about the utility of a single university campus for the region. However, with the appointment of the University’s first West Indian born principal, Sir Arthur Lewis,\textsuperscript{23} changes were made that forever changed the University. It was under his leadership for example, that the UWI received its independence - a Royal Charter - to grant degrees and changed its name from the University College of the West Indies, an affiliate of the University of London, to the University of the West Indies (Cobley, 2000, p. 17-18). “From the University’s perspective, if it was to meet the challenge of the new political realities, whilst retaining its deeply valued regional character it had to move quickly to increase its presence in the southern Caribbean” (Cobley, 2000, p. 18).

The British Colonies were still primarily agrarian and so relied heavily on the export of raw materials to Britain for their growing economies. The CATO Report of 1958 recommended that a Faculty of Agriculture be added to the Mona site. However, Arthur Lewis, then Principal of Mona, who later became the Vice Chancellor in 1960, proposed the expansion of the University’s programs to Trinidad, and this created the UWI’s second campus, from the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture in St. Augustine. The merger took place in 1960 and formally added the Faculty of Agriculture to the UCWI. It inherited the Regional Research Centre which had emerged in 1955 as part of ICTA. The Regional Research Centre (RRC)\textsuperscript{24} “was formed from staff of three research schemes for bananas, cocoa and soils” (Cobley, 2000, p. 147). The

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textsuperscript{21} Leeward Islands – the Northern islands of the Caribbean. They include: Montserrat; Antigua and Barbuda; St Kitts and Nevis; Saba, St. Eustatius, St. Martin (Sint Maarten- Dutch half and Martin the French, half); Anguilla; (Knight, 2012, p. 2; Hillman, 2009, p. 11).
  \item \textsuperscript{22} Windward Islands - the more easterly islands, located closer to the winds, during the times of sailing ships.’ They include: Guadeloupe, Dominica, Martinique, St. Lucia, St. Vincent and the Grenadines; and Grenada (Knight, 2012, p. 2; Hillman, 2009, p. 11).
  \item \textsuperscript{23} Arthur Lewis was born on the island of St. Lucia. He is a well known Caribbean economist who became Principal of the UCWI from 1958 to 1960 and Vice Chancellor from 1960 to 1963 (Vice Chancellor’s Report to Council, 2006-2007 p. Cover).
  \item \textsuperscript{24} RRC became Caribbean Agricultural Research and Development Institute in May 1975, which now has an affiliation with the UWI, but is autonomous. It serves the contributing countries as well as Guyana and the British Virgin Islands (Pemberton, Ragbir and Pemberton, 2000, p. 147).
\end{itemize}
Premier of Trinidad and Tobago at the time, Sir Eric Williams, hoped that with the creation of this second campus, trading relations between that island and Jamaica would improve in a bid to save the West Indian Federation\textsuperscript{25} (Coble, 2000, p. 18, 146-147). This however did not materialize as the Federation failed.

When the second campus began in 1960, a total of sixty-seven students enrolled in the agriculture program. The St. Augustine Campus in Trinidad is located eight miles from the capital of Port of Spain.

In taking this step the original insistence of the planners that no single branch of learning be concentrated on a site geographically distant from the Mona Campus was set aside for the first time. The principle was then further qualified a year later when a Faculty of Engineering was established at the campus at St. Augustine, following the offer of the Government of Trinidad to make a substantial grant towards its foundation” (Payne, 1980, p. 481).

At this time in its history, Trinidad was experiencing an ‘oil boom’ and needed engineers for this industry. Many people in the region, including from Grenada, its nearest neighbour, migrated to Trinidad for employment during that era. Accordingly, many Trinidadians of African descent have Grenadian origins.

Under the leadership of Sir Arthur Lewis, the UWI grew from 33 students in 1948 to 555 by 1957, to over 1422, by 1960, when he became the Vice Chancellor (Payne, 1980, p. 480). Arthur Lewis wanted to further expand the University’s presence into the Southern Caribbean. As a result, a campus was proposed for Barbados to serve the ‘little eight’ - the Eastern Caribbean islands\textsuperscript{26} that had been left isolated by the collapse of the Federation. The proposals were approved in February 1963 by the University Council, chaired by Sir Eric Williams. The campus was created nine months after the collapse of the Federation in Bridgetown Harbour, Barbados, but was subsequently moved to Cave Hill, its current location. Also approved in 1963 was the addition of evening and part-time programs at St. Augustine and Mona, and the removal of the residency requirement for students, in a bid to grant greater access to the University (Coble, 2000, p. 18).

\textsuperscript{25} The Federation lasted from 1958 to 1962.

\textsuperscript{26} The Eastern Caribbean Islands have since formed the OECS (Organization of Eastern Caribbean States). It comprise of: Grenada, Dominica, St. Kitts and Nevis, Antigua and Barbuda; St. Lucia, St. Vincent and the Grenadines, Montserrat. The organization was formed in 1981 (F.W. Knight 2012, p. 225). Barbados was a part of the original ‘little eight.’ However, it is not a part of the OECS, who also share a common currency, the Eastern Caribbean dollar, which according the Governor of the Eastern Caribbean Central Bank, Sir Dwight Venner, was used by the European Union to model the EU currency.
Over the next thirty years, the reports of numerous commissions and committees on its operations would launch the university on an almost continuous process of what Rex Nettleford has called ‘the sort of piecemeal institutional engineering which was facilitated by the heritage of British muddling, though coupled with native Caribbean facility to function on several levels simultaneously. While some of these commissions and committees focused on the more prosaic, but vital, matter of administrative structures and finance, others reviewed and revised its academic programmes (Cobley, 2000, p. 18-19).

The single campus unitary structure was insufficient to meet the sub-regional needs of the English-speaking Caribbean. As such, it has struggled to keep its regional character, as it decentralized into multi-campuses and the many centres created through the Extra Mural Studies departments across the Non-Campus Countries and territories. Accordingly, between 1967 and 1972 resident tutors operating the Extra Mural Studies Centres were established in Antigua, Dominica, Montserrat, St. Kitts, St. Lucia and St. Vincent (Cobley, 2000, p. 19). “The overall thrust of these efforts was to attempt to make the University more responsive to its constituency, and to throw off the more blatant features of its colonial past…and enhance its growing international reputation as an institution of higher learning” (Cobley, 2000, p. 19).

The Non-Campus Countries wanted the presence of the university in their respective jurisdictions not only to improve access to higher education locally, but also to ensure that their financial contributions would be shared more equitably. This was because at that time, each island government – contributing territory - was funding the University through the University Grants Committee. As more of the territories and islands obtained independence post-1962, the demand for higher education across the region increased. As a result, at the CARICOM Heads of Government Conference meeting in 1974, the Intergovernmental Committee on Caribbean University Education, chaired by William Demas, proposed the creation of Community Colleges in the Non-Campus Countries (Cobley, 2000, p. 19-20).

It must be noted here that through the University Grants Commission, we again saw Britain’s continuing influence on educational policy and structure in the former colonies. The University Grants Committee (UGC) was originally established in Britain in 1919. The UGC advised governments on the financial needs of universities and also administered grants allocated to British institutions (Allen, 1986, 55-57). Consequently, University Grants Committees existed in many of the former British Colonies and still operate in many of these jurisdictions today. This represents an adoption of the British financing model as well as an extension of British influence. In Hong Kong for example, the Hong Kong University and Polytechnic Grants Committee acted as an intermediary between the government and state supported higher education institutions. It operated on a triennial basis using block grants to
finance these state-funded institutions (Griffiths 1984, p. 545-546). As well, in India, which was also a former British Colony, sixteen Central universities received development grants from the Central Governments through a University Grants Committee. Other universities and colleges also received funds from state governments and some development grants from the UGC (Ahmed and Iqbal, January–March 2013, p. 393-394). On the other hand, within the University of the West Indies, the University Grants Committee was established in 1962 to determine and coordinate resource allocation from the supporting governments to the UWI administration. More specifically the UGC was supposed to examine the extent to which the University was addressing national needs in its teachings and research; examine UWI's proposals for expenditure in the light of the national needs; recommend the resource requirements to the supporting governments; ensure that the funds were properly managed; and carry out its role without interfering in the essential freedom of the University (Ministry of Finance, 1963). The UGC comprised ministers of finance and education of the supporting governments, with a rotating chairmanship. The UGC was advised by three independent [persons] – selected by the UGC- eminent in university administration. [When] the University proposed its budget, the UGC considered (including reviewing and advising UWI) and approved it. [As well] governments' shares of the budget were determined by a formula which was used to distribute the costs…The allocated funds consisted of an annual block grant and specific amounts for projects and capital development (Nkrumah-Young, Huisman and Powell, 2013, p. 94)

In short, the University Grants Committee at the UWI decided on the level of funding for the University and how the funds should be collected from the various contributing governments. The UGC at the University of the West Indies was advised by a committee of government experts known as the Technical Advisory Committee - TAC. As will be discussed in chapters four and five, there were a number of restructuring arrangements that affected University financing. As part of the 1984 restructuring for example, Campus Grant Councils were also created in each of the main campuses. These were mechanisms through which each campus was funded (The University of the West Indies, February 2006, p. 3; The University of the West Indies, July 1994, p. 44). The UWI's budget is created biennially, and annually, the Campus and University Grants Committees, reviewed the budget “to ensure that the expenses were justified and in order” (Downes, May 2013, p. PowerPoint- Slide 21). However, many in the Non-Campus Countries were not satisfied with the level of support received from the UWI, despite their financial contributions towards its operations through the UGC.
2.4.3 Higher Education Expansion—Postsecondary and Tertiary Education

Therefore, by the 1970’s the US Virgin Islands had established campuses in St. Thomas and St. Croix under the tutelage of universities in the United States, and in Jamaica, the College of Arts Science and Technology was also established. The OECS islands were particularly frustrated, as only a small number of their nationals could afford to attend university at the main campuses of UWI, and degree programs were not readily available at the Extra Mural Centres in their various jurisdictions. However, by this time the Extra Mural Department had rebranded. It became the University of the West Indies Distance Education Centre (UWIDEC) and began offering distance education programs to students in the Non-Campus Countries, and other underserved areas of the Anglophone Caribbean\(^{27}\) (Cobley, 2000; Payne, 1980; Woodall, 2011).

Consequently, by 1976 for example, Grenada, one of the OECS islands, granted a charter by an act of parliament to American citizens to establish a medical school – the St. George’s University School of Medicine, which began operating in 1977 (Bobb-Smith, 2007, p. 259). In Grenada and across many of the islands in the Anglophone Caribbean, a number of postsecondary and tertiary institutions also began to emerge. Additionally, many secondary schools within these jurisdictions created sixth forms to offer Advanced Level qualifications, a prerequisite for entrance into university, and which also helped to prepare graduating students for entry into the workforce. As well, despite the structural adjustment policies of the 1980’s that called for fiscal restraint in public service spending, many islands went on to establish Community Colleges to provide post-secondary preparation and workforce training (Cobley, 2000, p. 20; Howe, June 2005; The University of the West Indies, August 2007, p. 7).

To manage the relationship between the Universities and the postsecondary systems, two coordinating institutions were created. They were the Tertiary Level Institutions Unit (TLIU) of the UWI, which was one of the executing arms of the Board of Non-Campus Countries and Distance Education (See chapter on Epitomizing Regionality – the Open Campus); and the

\(^{27}\) In the Non-Campus Countries the rebranded University of West Indies Centres housed the School of Continuing Studies and UWIDEC. However, in the main campus countries (Jamaica, Trinidad and Barbados) these two divisions were separated in leadership and location, except for the Montego Bay location in Jamaica, which was organized similar to the Centres in the Non-Campus Countries. Its distance from the Mona Campus in Kingston was the rationale behind this arrangement (Open Campus Administrator, University of the West Indies, 2015).
The TLIU was part of the UWI restructuring by Vice Chancellor Alister McIntyre. It aimed to encourage collaboration between the UWI and other higher education institutions in the Anglophone Caribbean. On the other hand, ACTI is a regional umbrella group, created to help achieve some measure of functional understanding across tertiary institutions in the CARICOM member states, who were structurally and ideologically different (Leo-Rhynie, 2005, p. 272; Nettleford, 2005, p. 361). Consequently, one of the visions in the restructuring process of 1994-1996 was the conception of the phenomenon known as ‘Hubs and Spokes,’ whereby the UWI was the ‘Hub’ of tertiary education in the sub-region, the other higher education institutions, the ‘Spokes.’ Both the TLIU and ACTI were central to this idea. However, given the high levels of fragmentation across the system this idea never fully materialized.

The ACTI was conceived to develop as a fellowship of regional TLI (Tertiary Level Institution) professional educators to plan, monitor and foster the ongoing operation of the TLI’s, in terms of curriculum development and delivery, quality control, the goals of a tertiary level institution system for the region, as well as structure, financing and governance of West Indian Institutions (Nettleford, 2005, p. 361-362).

ACTI still operates today and has membership in all CARICOM countries, from the Bahamas to Guyana (Nettleford, 2005, p. 362; Association of Caribbean Tertiary Institutions, 2014, retrieved from http://www.acticaribbean.org/). (The contributions of various UWI Vice Chancellors and the work ACTI and TLIU will be discussed in greater detail in chapter five - Epitomizing Regionality - The Open Campus).

---

28 ACTI was created at the urging of Sir Alister McIntyre in November 1990. “It continues to play a critical role within the tertiary education sector of the region and speaks effectively on behalf of its members, as it charts a new direction for tertiary education in the region. Having been granted Observer Status on Council for Human and Social Development (COSHOD), it is now able to impact the highest decision making level within the Caribbean” (Association of Caribbean Tertiary Institutions, 2014, retrieved from http://www.acticaribbean.org/; Cobley, 2000, p. 20).

29 Alister McIntyre was a Grenadian born economist who was Vice Chancellor of the UWI from 1988 to 1998. He was appointed Secretary General of CARICOM in 1974 and remained in that role until 1987 (UWI Vice Chancellor’s Report to Council, 2006-2007, p. Cover; University of the West Indies, August 28, 2005, retrieved from http://www.mona.uwi.edu/conferences/2005/monaconf/profiles/mcintyre.htm ).

30 The Hub and Spokes Model was an idea conceived by former Vice Chancellor Sir Alister McIntyre, with the UWI as the ‘hub’ of regional tertiary education and the other regional higher education institutions as the ‘spokes’ http://www.open.uwi.edu/sites/default/files/bnccde/docs/spona.html
As the community college system developed in the Anglophone Caribbean, some sought articulations with the UWI to offer degrees. However, by 1988, only a few community colleges, which included the Sir Arthur Lewis Community College in St. Lucia and the Antigua State College, were able to obtain articulations with the UWI, resulting in institutional accreditation to offer the first year of degree programs within their respective colleges. The UWI therefore recreated with these institutions a similar, 'special relationship,' which it had with the University of London, mimicking its former colonial master (Cobley, 2000, p. 20). Further challenging the relationship between the UWI and its regional counterparts was the dissolution of the TLIU and the emergence of ERIIC. Its successor, the External Relations and Intra/Inter-Institutional Relationships (ERIIC) unit, was incorporated into the Central Office for Regional and International Affairs. (This will be discussed in more detail in chapter five, Epitomizing Regionality- the UWI’s Open Campus and in chapter six, International Academic Mobility and Cross Border Education at the University of the West Indies). In 2008 a fourth campus was created, the Open Campus, to expand the regionality of the UWI (See Chapter – Epitomizing Regionality- the Open Campus).

As of 2009-2010 there were over 41,000 students enrolled at the University of the West Indies. This amounted to almost half of the student population of 90,000 registered in postsecondary institutions across the English-speaking Caribbean during the same time period (Greene, April 19, 2010, retrieved from http://www.caricom.org/jsp/pressreleases/press_releases;Tewaire, 2010, retrieved from http://www.caricom.org/jsp/single_market/services_regime/concept_paper). By 2011-2012, the UWI Annual Report noted that there were a total of 50,439 students enrolled in each of its four campuses. Of this number, 6,337 were enrolled in the Open Campus and 1,906 were enrolled off-campus in UWI programs offered at other regional institutions. As well, of the total number of students enrolled at the UWI during that time period, most were females - 34,562 (The University of the West Indies Annual Report, 2011-2012, p. 144). (See Appendix Three). Within the Caribbean, the University of the West Indies remains the sole regional tertiary level institution. The failure of the federation movement led many scholars to advance the notion of the need for functional corporation among the region’s nation-states and territories, and the educational institutions within them.

From its inception, the creation of the University College of the West Indies was tied to the notion of nation-building and a stratified education system. That is, elementary (primary school); secondary (high school); postsecondary (community colleges and polytechnics); and tertiary (university), as a conveyor belt for the economic development of society, through human
resource and research production. The initial intent was to create a university that emphasized undergraduate education, and to develop other postsecondary institutions for workplace and vocational preparation, and also to have them for pathways into the tertiary system. However, those wishing to pursue postgraduate studies would have to seek it overseas, in Europe and in North America. This created a brain-drain which became systematically entrenched into the education in the Anglophone Caribbean (Cobley, 2000, p. 12).

The role of tertiary or higher education in the Caribbean is for the educational, cultural and social advancement of the people in the region. It was believed that the systematic development of the region’s human capital would facilitate the emergence of a more knowledgeable, skilled and productive labour force, and would improve individual earning capacity, create greater financial stability for individuals and their families, contribute toward social capital and lead to stronger communities, institutions and societies (Tewaire, 2010, p. 4). Added to that, given the present global competition, Dr. Nigel Harris, former Vice Chancellor of the University of the West Indies, suggested that as a regional institution, the UWI must demonstrate decisively and unassailably that it is the first in education and research and so consequently becomes a first choice for regional governments. This is because of the institution’s exceptional ability to prepare the region’s students with the knowledge and skills relevant to Caribbean society in the 21st Century, and its ability to produce graduates who would be agents and leaders of change (Harris, June 2005, p. 27-33). However there are challenges, as “right now, [the] University of the West Indies (UWI) is dealing frontally with the issue of Non-Campus Countries in the region, which contributes a vital part in uniting the region” (Carrington, May 2006, retrieved 2012 from www.caricom.org/jsp/speeches/caricom_eu_ckln_carrington.jsp).

Some of the movement toward the regionalization of higher education in the Caribbean is being advanced by the Caribbean Common Market - CARICOM, a regional economic integration initiative, comprised of organizational structures (sub-committees), such as the Caribbean Examinations Council (CXC), which promote functional cooperation in areas such as education.

2.5 The Caribbean Examinations Council

The Caribbean Examinations Council (CXC) was established in 1972 by an agreement of CARICOM member states. It is headquartered in Barbados. It was designed to satisfy the requirements for entry into tertiary level institutions - the universities - regionally and extraregionally. The participating member states in CXC are: Anguilla, Antigua and Barbuda, Barbados, Belize, British Virgin Islands, Cayman Islands, Dominica, Grenada, Guyana, Jamaica, Montserrat, St Kitts and Nevis, St Lucia, St Vincent and the Grenadines, Trinidad and
Tobago, Turks and Caicos Islands. However, the non-English-speaking territories of St Maarten and Saba from the Netherlands Antilles, also administer CXC exams. CXC coordinates, manages and delivers both the secondary and post-secondary syllabi and examinations process regionally [Caribbean Community (CARICOM) Secretariat-CXC, 2011, retrieved from www.caricom.org/jsp/community/cxc.jsp]. Students from the participating countries sit common entrance and summative exams, to enter high school and to exit the secondary and postsecondary systems. These exams are done regionally in all participating countries around the same time period each year.

The first exams were held in 1979. They were designed to assess students in both academic and technical/vocational subjects at the end of their five year education in the secondary school system. The exams were originally prepared and sent from Britain, and were based on the General Certificate of Education (GCE) examinations for students at the secondary level. In the 1980’s there were changes to the curricula, that brought in more Caribbean content and placed the development of these exams into the hands of Caribbean educators [Caribbean Community (CARICOM) Secretariat-CXC, 2011; Bobb-Smith, 2007, p. 263; Hickling-Hudson, 2004, p. 4; Howe, June 2005, p. 49]. (As a secondary school student in Grenada at the time, I was part of that transition group). Some of the current subjects being offered in the CXC Syllabi include: “Agricultural Science, Biology, Chemistry, English Language and English Literature, Metal Work, Physics, Mathematics, Principles of Accounts, Visual Arts, Caribbean History, Electronics, French and Spanish” (CARICOM) Secretariat-CXC, 2011, retrieved from www.caricom.org/jsp/community/cxc.jsp). The fees for these written exams are paid on a per subject basis by students leaving the secondary and the postsecondary systems. However, in some islands, these fees are often subsidized by national governments.

CXC began offering exams in 1998 in the postsecondary system, namely the community colleges and polytechnics in the region. This exam is called the Caribbean Advanced Proficiency Examination (CAPE). When students graduate from the secondary systems they receive Ordinary (O) Level qualifications called the Caribbean Secondary Education Certificate (CSEC). On the other hand, when they graduate from the postsecondary system and complete their CAPE exams, they receive Advanced (A’) Level, Caribbean Advanced Proficiency Examination (CAPE) credentials and / or associate degrees. These examinations are also based on common regional curricula/ syllabi.

CXC is governed by a council comprised of representatives from the various participating islands and territories. It is managed by a registrar and funded by contributions from participating governments, examination fees and project funding from donor agencies. It

The Caribbean Examinations Council (CXC) syllabi and examinations broadened the range of courses offered to students in the Anglophone Caribbean than was previously offered under the General Certificate of Education (GCE). The latter was managed by overseas boards in London and Cambridge that controlled the education process in the Anglophone Caribbean. With the creation of CXC, students were better equipped to function within the Caribbean, given the relevancy of the curricula, but also internationally, as it created transparency and frameworks for assessing compatibility with other systems of education overseas. As well, the preparation provided to the students helped to increase tertiary education enrolment in the Anglophone Caribbean. This was and is fundamental to the Anglophone Caribbean’s development strategy (Howe, June 2005, p. 49; Hickling-Hudson, September 2004, p. 4). However, Hickling-Hudson (2004) contends that this system is inequitable, although under CXC students are now exposed to a variety of assessments. These include, essays, multiple choice and school based assessments. The latter involves individual and group projects which are done during the school term. A percentage of these evaluations are added to the summative exams, at the end of the five year term, for high school students sitting these school leaving exams. This process is a marked departure from the previous essay only evaluations, under the GCE model. While I do agree with some of Hickling-Hudson’s (2004) position regarding the greater need for equity in the system, I don’t support her position of abandoning the CXC model. As will be discussed throughout this thesis, the current system has established a strong foundation for education regionalization in the Anglophone Caribbean. Its system of common qualifications recognised at the regional and international levels are much more useful than individualized curricula and education programs across the individual states, within the Anglophone Caribbean. As well, this collaborative process of curricula development allows the syllabi to be kept-up to date, given the involvement of curriculum experts from all levels of the education system in the Anglophone Caribbean, including the UWI; and gives greater credibility to the education system, than qualifications developed and administered individually by local institutions. Instead, I would argue that what are needed are harmonization; improvements to teacher education training programs; more diversified institutional models; improvements to
technical and vocational programs; and the increased promotion of Caribbean culture in education, at all levels of the system. For across many of the islands, most of the education programs are heavily academic. Furthermore, all economies need a variety of occupational positions for it to successfully function and compete in the global economy.

I am also supportive of Hickling-Hudson’s notion of embedding literacy into the syllabi, where they may not currently be reflected. While Hickling-Hudson (2004) was not specific about the literacies required, she proposed that it was insufficient to incorporate only labour market skill functionalities, into models of education in the Caribbean. This I support wholeheartedly not just for the Caribbean, by for systems of education all over the industrialized world. For Hickling-Hudson (2004), the hallmarks of a quality education occur when teachers are adequately trained and can prepare members of the society to

appraise their system of governance; understand the implications of international and global change; address patterns of injustice; hold politicians accountable and experiment with problem solving both nationally and in alliance with global civic movements. Adult education should enable people to run for political office from informed platforms of participatory, rather than just electoral democracy (Hickling-Hudson, September 2004, p. 298).

Through CXC and ACTI, Caribbean governments, institutions and educators have laid the foundation for collaboration in educational practices within the sub-region, which involve all levels of the system. Here state and non-state actors, instigated by political and economic process through CARICOM, created regional mechanisms and frameworks for cooperation in education (the regionalization of education), in the English-speaking Caribbean.

2.6 The History of Internationalization in Latin America and the Anglophone Caribbean

Given this presentation of higher education development in the Anglophone Caribbean it is also important to trace the historical roots of internationalization globally, and more specifically, its emergence in the Anglophone Caribbean. Internationalization in higher education from World War II to the present day have its historical roots in cultural and academic agreements between national governments, which involved faculty and student exchange, national grants, research cooperation, language studies and postgraduate training. However, these agreements were mostly related to diplomacy rather than to academic and cultural cooperation (J. Knight & De Wit, 1995, p. 8).
In the 1960’s and 1970s the situation changed, with developments such as the decolonization of the developing world, expansion of higher education, and the changing role of universities as generators of human resources in addition to their traditional role as centres of scholarly study. During this period, internationalisation is expressed predominantly in the growing one-way mobility of students from the South to the North (J. Knight and de Wit, 1995, p. 8).

As discussed in chapter one, Latin America and the Caribbean can be said to have shared colonial histories but different political realities, making the process of higher education development and the emergence of internationalization in education, somewhat distinct. However, the early history of internationalization globally has a number of similar characteristics. First as former colonies, higher education emerged as isomorphic mimetic structures – as systems exported by the colonial powers to the colonies. Therefore, British colonies in Asia, Africa, the Caribbean and North America were modelled after the British higher education system. While in Latin America, higher education was reproduced to reflect systems in the Iberian Peninsula, which includes Spain and Portugal (J. Knight and de Wit, 1995, p. 7; Gacel-Avila, 2007) as well as France. As previously mentioned, in the Anglophone Caribbean, the University of the West Indies emerged as an apprentice of the University of London in 1948. However, as discussed earlier in chapter two, in 1962 it obtained its independent charter to grant degrees.

The second historical basis for internationalization has its roots in research cooperation. Here international contact between scholars through seminars, conferences and the creation of publications, led to collaboration among the latter (Gacel-Avila, 2007). In the Anglophone Caribbean, the creation of the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture in Trinidad in 1921, a research institute conducting scientific investigations on soils and plants, and which later became the St. Augustine Campus of the UWI, was an example of this second phase of internationalization occurring in the Anglophone Caribbean.

The third phase in the emergence of internationalization came through scholar and student mobility (Gacel-Avila, 2007). In the Anglophone Caribbean this was facilitated by the Island Scholarship scheme, previously discussed in this chapter, and later through scholarships received from international aid agencies and international lending institutions such as the UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization), USAID (United States Agency for International Development), CIDA (Canadian International Development Agency) and the Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowship Plan (Shaw and Jobbins, 2009 December; Cobley, 2000, Bobb-Smith, 2007) and later through migration. (The influence of international lending institutions and aid agencies on the University of the West Indies is
discussed in chapters six and seven). The above are also examples of the historical roots of the relationships that have brought an international dimension into higher education in the sub-region.

In Latin America on the other hand, during the latter two phases of internationalization, funding and scholarships received from international donor organizations, provided higher education opportunities for students to study abroad (Gacel-Avila, 2007, p. 401). Accordingly, in Latin America during the 1970s, thanks to the sale of natural resources and huge international loans, national policies for scientific and technological development launched extensive scholarship programs for postgraduate studies abroad. By the end of the 1980s, the first offices for academic exchange dealing with international academic cooperation opened in the largest public and private universities. Their activities, however, were mainly in reaction to offers made by international organizations and institutions. The mid-1990s brought an economical opening to Latin America through international commercial agreements, along with an urgent need to develop human resources with international competencies. This caused considerable growth in international academic activities. Toward the end of the decade and following international tendencies, universities embraced internationalization as part of a strategy to improve the quality of education (Gacel-Avila, 2007, p. 402).

Yet these opportunities for scholars and students from Latin America to pursue research and further studies overseas, was also occurring at a time when socialist regimes were quite prevalent in Latin America. Therefore, opportunities to promote democracy and good governance were not lost on these seemingly innocuous academic arrangements.

The growth of foreign providers of higher education in the English-speaking sub-region also marks another element of internationalization in this area. In 1977 for example, Grenada opened the St. George’s School of Medicine, an American off-shore institution, to offer medical and veterinary training. In 1996 it became St. George’s University as it expanded its programming to include arts, social sciences and business (Brandon, July 2003, p. 30-31; Bobb-Smith, 2007, p. 259). On the other hand, by 2008, Latin America had more than 1,500 universities and most was private (Didriksson, 2008, p. 25). Conversely, in the Anglophone Caribbean, as of 2008, there were over one hundred and fifty higher education institutions, 60% of which were public and 40% private (Tewaire, 2010, p. 3). The latter figure includes both foreign and domestic providers. While there are certainly parallels, here again we see difference in the timelines and focus, for the occurrences of internationalization in higher education in Latin America and the Anglophone Caribbean.

The expectation that Latin American institutions internationalize their systems of higher education is very much connected to the history for higher education funding in the region. The
Cordoba Reform Movement, was the first to introduce almost free higher education to the 'masses,' and began the first phase of the massification in higher education in the Latin American region. In 1948, by a resolution of the UN's Economic and Social Council, the Economic Commission for Latin America (ECLA) was established to promote the equitable distribution of resources, to counter the impact of globalization in higher education. However, by the 1980’s the policies of ECLA were replaced by those from the International Monetary Fund (IMF), through the structural adjustment programs that came to dominate the Latin America (Gomez & Alcantara, 2001, p. 510) and the Caribbean.

In Latin America and the Caribbean, the 1980’s through to the end of the 20th Century have been written into history as the ‘lost decade’ (Gazzola & Didriksson, 2008, p. 23). During the 1980’s the International Monetary Fund (IMF) designed structural adjustment programs modelled after Milton Freidman’s economic proposals and policies, which they imposed on Latin America, Africa and the Caribbean. As part of the program, countries in economic crises were offered a package of privatization, free trade policies and bailout monies, to manage their balance of payments. The program was purely corporatist and stability became synonymous with democracy. Consequently, this acceptance of the structural adjustment program required governments to make massive cuts to the public service, (Klein 2007, p. 195-197) including education. However, as discussed in chapter one, Latin America and the Anglophone Caribbean responded differently with regards to the requirement for cuts to higher education. That is, while Latin American governments and institutions were privatizing higher education; the governments of the Anglophone Caribbean and the UWI chose to expand higher education, despite the SAPs.

Here again we see that the very survival of the nation states of the Anglophone Caribbean is deeply connected to their response to these impositions by global lending institutions and the situation of the global economy. Therefore, inspite of their pursuit of political sovereignty/ independence and the failure of the 1958-1962 Federation attempt, the precursor to regionalization, the Anglophone Caribbean has responded by making a conscious effort to establish an institution to manage economic and functional and non-function cooperation in many areas, including education, namely through CARICOM. Therefore, the University of the West Indies, the regional university, has been entrenched within CARICOM as instrument of regionalization.

In the Anglophone Caribbean, the establishment of the UWI was intimately tied to notion of regional economic development. J. Knight and de Wit (1995) quoting Brown (1950), observed that “the universities of the world today are aspiring to return to one of the basic concepts of
their origin - the universality of knowledge. Many are also seeking to discover and adopt procedures that will restore the desirable aspects of the itinerant character of scholars that was an accepted part of university education until growing nationalism created the barriers of language” (p. 6). In my view, the UWI is an exception to the above understanding or raison d’être of the university. This institution, unlike the early universities of the world, including those in Latin America, was created for a more pragmatic purpose, that from the onset and even at the time of this study was clearly linked to economic development for the participating countries that finance its operations. Accordingly, the UWI has become central to regionalization and to the sub-region’s sense of identity.

2.7 Globalization, Regionalization and Higher Education Regionalization

Woldegioris (2013) defined regionalization as systems of bilateral cooperation across borders towards policy harmonization. It is a process that fosters integration and provides more regional remedies for the challenges of globalization in regions (p. 12). Blake (2000) observed that there are various schools of thought regarding the relationship between globalization and regionalization. One is that regionalization and globalization are diametrically opposed, and that the creation of regional blocs is a competing concept to globalization. These internationalists are of the view that the creation of mega economic blocs (regional integration) is a challenge to globalization. They are of the opinion, that eventually, the latter will dominate the former. On the other hand, there are those who view these two forces are mutually reinforcing, simultaneously facilitating and challenging, and as a source of reaction to the other (p. 128-134). As will be discussed in the upcoming pages, the latter perspective supports the findings of this thesis. In sum, regional integration is a conscious political process of decision-making among member states within regions, to establish institutions and other mechanisms for cooperation. It is a process of policy formulation at the regional level (Woldegioris, 2013, p. 13).

F.W. Knight, Castro-Rea and Ghany (2014) observed that regions were often designed to achieve political and economic goals (p. 5). The Americas: South/ Latin, Central America and the Caribbean, is comprised of a number of sub-regions, distinguished by language and culture. In the publication Remapping the Americas, F.W. Knight, Castro-Rea and Ghany (2014)
documented more than thirteen\textsuperscript{31} regional and sub-regional integration arrangements that occurred in this hemisphere, beginning from as early as 1889 (p. 12-27). However, of these attempts at economic integration and trade liberalization, only the Organization of America States (OAS) brings together all thirty-four member countries in this hemisphere, including Canada and the US. Accordingly, most of the thirteen integration movements, like CARICOM, which involves particularly the Anglophone Caribbean, have been sub-regional arrangements. That is, South/ Latin America, Central America and the Caribbean have been engaging in regional integration separately (Kirton, 2014, p. 103).

As with many cases across the globe, the formation of regions often preceded the regionalization of higher education. As has been discussed, this was certainly the situation for CARIFTA/ CARICOM and the eventual creation of the Caribbean Examinations Council (CXC). Although separate, regional integration and higher education regionalization are interdependent forces, as efforts towards the higher education policy integration is part of the general process of integrating sovereign states in regions. Therefore, higher education regionalization refers to the process of “building closer collaboration and alignment among higher education actors and systems” (J. Knight, 2014, p. 349).

J. Knight, (November 2013) credits the region-wide UNESCO Conference of 2008 that led to the creation of ENLACES, which when translated from Spanish to English means the Latin American and Caribbean Area for Higher Education, as the first initiative in higher education regionalization (p. 108) involving all three sub-regions (South/ Latin and Central America and the Caribbean). However, to ignore the lengthy history of the thirteen integration movements in the Americas mentioned previously, which have had varying degrees of success, gives little validity to localized mechanisms of harmonization practices, occurring among higher education institutions across these three sub-regions. As well, as discussed throughout this chapter, the Anglophone Caribbean has been engaging in education harmonization with the creation of CXC, ACTI and the University of the West Indies, in all levels of the system, prior to 2008. As will be discussed in chapter six, Spanish language training and teacher education programs, have led to the creation of academic mobility programs between the UWI and

\textsuperscript{31} These are: 1) The International American Conference; 2) the Pan American Union; 3) the Organization of American States; 4) the Latin American Economic System; 5) the Inter-American Development Bank; 6) the Economic Commission for Latin America; 7) the Latin American Free Trade Agreement; 8) the Latin American Integration Association; 9) the Andean Pact; 10) the Central American Common Market; 11) the Caribbean Common Market; 12) the Caribbean Free Trade Area; and 13) the Caribbean Community and Common Market (Knight, A, Castro-Rea and Ghany, 2014, p. 12).
organizations, and educational institutions in Latin America, which predated the creation of ENCLACES. Therefore, J. Knight’s (November 2013) assertion that higher education regionalization was only just occurring in the Americas is misleading.

In the Americas, the plantation system of the colonial era is said to have been the prototype and precursor of the modern transnational corporation (Thomas, 2000, p. 8).

The Caribbean was the nursery in which many of the elements of global capitalism and the world market was nurtured. Indeed the plantation, which came to dominate Caribbean Societies, is in many respects a prototype of the most characteristic institution of globalisation – the modern TNC - the transnational corporation (Thomas, 2000, p. 8).

Consequently, the TNC has become one of the most important vehicles for globalization and development, by moving labour, capital and products across economies, and giving rise to the use of science and technology in manufacturing. The TNCs drive economies and encourage labour mobility between and within regions. In turn, these business organizations affect higher education output in their demand for skilled labour, and as a consequence, the economic development of individual nation-states and regions (Pantin, 2005; Thomas, 2000).

Globalization has enabled the cheap and rapid growth of communications; and cost-effective transportation; and has opened markets to facilitate the global dissemination of ideas, technology and investments. It has also integrated markets, lowered prices for goods and services, improved investment flows and living standards across the globe (Ohiorhenuan, 2000, p. 40). Neoliberal policies such as theGattTs (General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade) and GATS (General Agreement on Trade in Services), have spurred on the rapid expansion of globalization. These trade liberalization policies have dismantled the protectionism that had been granted to agricultural products, such as bananas, from the Anglophone Caribbean into the British market, for example. As one-way preferences and non-reciprocity for exports declined under these trading policies, so too did bilateral relations, which have been replaced by more multilateral and regional arrangements (Thomas, 2000, p. 11-13).

Although economic and security alliances have been of great importance in regional integration, political, cultural, social and other issues have also been of growing concern. To begin with, the Americas have varying levels of industrial development and resources. Therefore, the environment, energy sustainability and disaster management, for example, have led to greater collaboration among states and institutions within regions. These have also led to initiatives among educational institutions, particularly in the Small Island Developing States, where joint degree programs with a development focus, have been created. (These programs will be discussed in more detail in chapters six and seven). As well, given their performance in the global economy, many countries in the South have sought after more equitable hemispheric
relations. No longer were they simply interested in the creation of preferential associations with
countries that fulfilled a hegemonic function. For example, Britain during the colonial era and
more recently the US, which for a long time, dominated global politics and economy. Instead,
fairer treatment in trade liberalization practices and mutually beneficial relationships, which bring
improvements to a larger number of the members of the population that inhabit these societies,
have led to very complex dynamics in the regional and multilateral relationships that have
resulted (Kirton, 2014, p. 104; F.W. Knight, Castro-Rea and Ghany, 2014). In short,
globalization has also helped to strengthen regionalization and higher education regionalization,
by allowing for the co-existence of collaborative and competitive approaches to development
within regions; and opportunities to search for more mutually beneficial relationships, extra-
regional, especially, in areas of mutual concern.

By enhancing mobility in capital, goods and services, globalization also increased the
demand for publicly sponsored services such as education, transportation, telecommunications
and social services (Ohiorhenuan, 2000, p. 50). Therefore, within the Anglophone Caribbean, as
the request for higher education grew in the sub-region, the UWI had to find a way to respond to
the growing need. To facilitate this demand, the UWI created a fourth virtual campus – the Open
Campus - discussed in chapter five, which provides education, primarily through the use of
online technology. At the same time, the free movement of education services have also meant
an increasing proliferation of providers in the Anglophone Caribbean, who now directly compete
with the UWI – competitive internationalization. Consequently, the internationalization of higher
education has also been a response to globalization.

Another challenge for states has been the provision of adequate financing to support
publicly sponsored services such as education. As previously discussed, the UWI’s operational
funding comes from the contributing countries within the Anglophone sub-region. However state
financing, even at the regional level, has been insufficient to meet the needs of the Institution.
Consequently, new sources of revenues were needed. As such, the UWI has engaged in
neoliberal market driven approaches such as research commercialization; acquiring grants from
funding organizations and overseas governments, facilitated in some cases, through bilateral
trading relations by main campus countries; and the procurement of international students –
competitive forms of internationalization - to meet its financial commitments.

As education services crossed boundaries, academic mobility programs have also been
on the rise in the Anglophone Caribbean, as students and faculty share knowledge and develop
intercultural skills and innovations from these interactions. As will be discussed in chapters six
and seven, study abroad programs, student and faculty exchanges have also been on the
increase at the UWI. Within the Institution there were also greater levels of inter-institutional collaborations, intra-regionally and inter-regionally; as well as more collaborative forms of internationalization, such as partnerships in curriculum development and the creation of joint programs. Thus globalization has helped to also deepen and widen international flows, while strengthening regional integration, internationalization and higher education regionalization. Higher education regionalization / regional cooperation in higher education also involved movement towards policy harmonization. This included collaboration in processes for qualification frameworks, quality standards, degree cycles and credits (Woldegioris, 2013, p. 13-14).

Harmonisation could be understood as the process of creating frameworks through which the relationship of actors in international relations is governed. For the most part, the purpose of these efforts is not so much to achieve identical regulations or standards that eliminate local diversities, but to converge on common elements to enrich and promote local achievements. In the context of higher education, it implies access to reliable transparent information, greater networking between all stakeholders, and sharing of models of good practice with a view towards improving inter-regional mobility and sharing of resources and bringing together of efforts which are aimed at achieving the same purpose, synchronising (DeLong and Dorwick, 2002) [Woldegioris, 2013, p. 15].

Therefore, as was discussed earlier in this chapter, conceived as mechanisms of functional cooperation in the English-speaking Caribbean, the Caribbean Examinations Council was created to harmonize the secondary and postsecondary school curricula, and standardize the pre-university entrance requirements in the English-speaking sub-region through CAPE and CSEC. Additionally, the creation of ACTI by regional higher education providers was another attempt to establish mechanisms for cooperation in higher education. Harmonization also ensured that processes of articulations and the recognition of equivalencies were established for frameworks of cooperation (Woldegioris, 2013, p. 15). Therefore, the Tertiary Level Institutions Unit (TLIU) mentioned earlier in this chapter (which will be discussed in greater detail later on), and its successors, the External Relations and Intra/Inter-Institutional Relationships (ERIIC) unit, and the Central Office for Regional and International Affairs (CORIA), have worked assiduously to create articulations and develop relationships between the UWI and other higher education institutions in the Anglophone Caribbean. Together, these organizations and systems of cooperation pre-dated the 1999 European Bologna agreement, and have formed the basis for the emergence of a higher education regionalization process in the English-speaking Caribbean.

As well, the Advanced Level and/or Associate Degree qualifications obtained by students at the postsecondary level are recognized and accepted for entrance into university,
regionally and internationally. Therefore, for example, since 1999, the United Kingdom’s National Academic Recognition Information Centre, has accredited the Caribbean Advanced Proficiency Exam (CAPE), as a recognized qualification for entry into British higher education institutions. Additionally, at both the University of Guyana and the University of the West Indies, six passes, which include the Caribbean Studies and Communication Studies courses, are accepted for normal matriculation. However, at least two of these passes must be at the Advanced level, while Ordinary level courses are accepted for the remaining requirements (Caribbean Examinations Council - CXC Accreditation and Recognition, 2011, retrieved August 2015, from sta.uwi.edu/admissions/undergrad/matriculation.asp). For lower level matriculation, five Ordinary Level passes is required for entrance into the UWI. This must include one foreign language, a mathematics and a science credit (University of the West Indies, St. Augustine Campus – Undergrad Admissions, 2004-2015, retrieved from https://sta.uwi.edu/admissions/undergrad/matriculation.asp). The above accreditation and recognition practices are examples of harmonization policies currently operating in the Anglophone Caribbean, between CXC and regional universities. These arrangements also facilitate the process of higher education regionalization in the Anglophone Caribbean.

As was discussed above, interactions that involved higher education institutions, state and non-state actors, such as businesses, governments and global funding organizations have resulted in both competitive and collaborative approaches to internationalization, at the UWI. The pursuit of these relationships have been driven by institutional strategic goals, financial need and regional development priorities. As previously mentioned, the UWI and CXC form the main planks of functional cooperation in education within the Anglophone sub-region. Therefore, the UWI’s institutional goals are aligned to CARICOM. As well, with support from CXC and ACTI, together these organizations are helping to move the regionalization of education forward in the Anglophone Caribbean.

As of 1989 the CARICOM Common Market was transformed into a single market and economy. Renamed the CARICOM Single Market and Economy (CSME), its lofty goals includes the: free movement of goods and services; the right to establish a business in any member country without restriction; the imposition of common external tariffs; the free movement of goods obtained from extra-regional sources and the sharing of collective customs revenues; common trade policy; the free movement of labour across the region; harmonization of social policies, intellectual property rights and foreign investment policy, just to name a few. However, within the Anglophone Caribbean, these goals have not yet been fully attained (W. A. Knight, Castro-Rea and Ghany, 2014, 25). That being said, a CARICOM passport has now been
implemented in the region. (For simplicity, despite the change to CSME, throughout this thesis, this sub-regional integration project will be referred to as CARICOM).

Regionalization and internationalization processes of higher education can therefore co-exist as compatible and complementary processes. They have a symbiotic relationship (J. Knight 2014, p. 348-355). Thus internationalization is described as the process of infusing an international, intercultural and global dimension into the purpose, function and delivery of higher education (J. Knight, 2008, p. 21). On the other hand, the regionalization of higher education is the process of building closer collaboration and alignment among higher education actors and systems, usually within a defined area or framework, known as a region. However, since culture, politics, social practice and economics can also be motivations for the creation of regions, these collaborative networks can also be organized independently of physical contiguity, and so region formation is not restricted to a defined geographic area (J. Knight, August 2014, p. 349; W.A. Knight, Castro-Rea and Ghany, 2014, p. 5). As higher education institutions interact with each other across physical borders, institutional isomorphism often sets in, as these collaborations give rise to the creation of similar policies and frameworks for cooperation in areas such as credential recognition and quality assurance practices.

As has been noted, CARICOM is the regional integration project operating in the Anglophone Caribbean, and the UWI functions within it, to promote cooperation in education. Thus the strategic mandate of the UWI is aligned to CARICOM’s integration objectives. Accordingly, the UWI has regional objectives, but must also remain responsive to global forces in education. To reiterate, the University of the West Indies was created for the expressed purpose of the economic development of the Anglophone sub-region. The UWI is consistently being reminded of its obligations by the contributing countries of CARICOM that fund the University. As well, within this sub-region, the Caribbean Examination Council policies have harmonized education at the secondary and postsecondary levels. Once higher education regionalization can be fully realized at the tertiary level, one of the goals envisioned by CARICOM, the movement of labour across the Anglophone Caribbean for example, can be further facilitated. Consequently, higher education regionalization can help to strengthen regional integration.
2.8 The Future

In 2010 the CARICOM\textsuperscript{32} Secretariat announced the need for a regional tertiary education council to strengthen the relationship among institutions and to adjudicate collaborative ventures in areas such as development, and in the delivery and accreditation of courses between universities. Consequently, CARICOM member states agreed to the creation of a technical working group to establish an action plan (CARICOM, October 21, 2010, retrieved from \url{http://www.caricom.org/jsp/pressreleases/pres416_10.jsp}).

The Working Group, in developing its action plan, would consider the goals of tertiary education, noting the different types of institutions within the system. It would also propose the standards for achieving quality control, accreditation and accountability measures for the Council…The decision to pursue the establishment of the Regional Tertiary Education Council resulted from a proposal presented by the Vice Chancellor of the University of the West Indies (at the time), Prof. Nigel E Harris, who argued the case for an integrated approach to the tertiary education system in the Region…[noting that] the creation of a regional tertiary education system overseen by a Tertiary Education Council could promote access, equity, quality, accountability, competitiveness and some degree of financial stability to the tertiary system (CARICOM, October 21, 2010, retrieved from \url{http://www.caricom.org/jsp/pressreleases/pres416_10.jsp}).

A successful strategy must involve all stakeholders in the education system across the Anglophone Caribbean. Their involvement and contributions to the scheme is explored in the upcoming chapters.

2.9 Conclusion

In the forthcoming chapters, there will be an extensive discussion on the impact of internationalization on the regionalization of the University of the West Indies. Furthermore, the development of higher education in the Caribbean must ensure that the histories of the Caribbean peoples are promoted and preserved through its systems of education. As Honychurch (2005) noted

the histories and stories of the people who populated the Caribbean prior to the arrival of Europeans 500 years ago seemed hidden. Until recently the received history of the Caribbean as taught in schools repeated the inaccurate story of Carib cannibals eating their way up the island chain, terrorising the more civilised Arawak communities. The indigenous people had been represented as being exterminated, with tiny populations of survivors on a few islands. The indigenous cultures did experience a catastrophic collapse and the populations on some islands were nearly wiped out altogether. But at the same time as official Colonial documents declared the native peoples as extinct, they were finding ways to survive on the margins of society (p. 3).
Colonial connections to the historical development of the University of the West Indies, while important, have failed to sufficiently address indigenous knowledge development. The denial of the histories of the Caribbean peoples within these formal systems of education, and their continued erasure from the literature has had implications for Caribbean identity formation. For generations of Caribbean intellectual elite, produced by the UWI and its colonial and international affiliates, have allowed for example, the ‘received history’ of the Caribbean Kalinagos, to remain unchallenged. As the UWI forges ahead with regionalizing higher education, it must interrogate these prevailing discourses, especially those in education; it must carefully navigate its outreach into the non-English speaking Caribbean, so as not champion the dominant anglicized version of ‘what is Caribbean’ - the collectivity of national, racial and ethnic identities; it must also critically evaluate its internationalization efforts and the implications of those collaborative arrangements on the University, and on Caribbean society, at large.

Forms of resistance, revolts, political protests, riots and strikes, shaped much the nineteenth and twentieth century Caribbean, as its peoples were determined to change their living circumstances. They wrestled political power from the dominating colonial state apparatuses that had control over their lives and economies. As peoples from all over the globe were brought into the region, primarily for labour, many by force and some by choice, what emerged were feats of nationalism and unique pluralities of culture coined – the Caribbean. Particularly in the Anglophone Caribbean, attempts at federal unions were intended to promote regional integration, a Caribbean Community among these small economies and secure independence from the colonizers.

In the postcolonial era, plantation economies of the Anglophone Caribbean with their heavy reliance on agrarian products for export to Britain, struggled. Consequently, the deplorable conditions of women and children, in particular, prompted the Moyne Commission and the labour unions to demand better supports for housing, education and health care from the Colonial Government, to help improve the material conditions of the people in this sub-region. Although some diversification has taken place within the economies, with the growth of tourism, offshore financial services, bauxite, oil and gas, they remain vulnerable to global economic instabilities. As the central provider of services in the region, the public service remains the largest employer in many of the islands and territories of the Anglophone Caribbean. However, the structural adjustment policies of the 1980’s and 1990’s, which led to increased debt financing in these economies, have caused some to observe that the
Anglophone Caribbean has exchanged political for economic dependency (Best, 2005; Thomas, 2000).

Since the colonial era, the University of the West Indies was setup to meet the political and economic needs of the Anglophone Caribbean. In the current context, CARICOM and many of today’s economists also believe that intellectual capital produced by education and training institutions, is critical for economic development. Yet while the establishment of the UWI was encouraged by Colonial Commissions and demanded by the Anglophone Caribbean’s growing elite, the development of postgraduate studies was discouraged. Additionally, the funding arrangement, whereby contributing territories within the Anglophone Caribbean’s were expected to finance the needs of the UWI, faced enormous pressures from the national economic agendas, of these said participating countries. It is within this neoliberal context that the UWI continues to struggle for its survival as a regional institution. The thesis will demonstrate the attempts by the UWI to maintain its regionality and promote regionalization in the face of internationalization in higher education.

The attempts by the UWI to advance the regionalization agenda through the work of the Open Campus, is the focus of chapter five, while chapter four provides a general overview of the UWI’s efforts here. That Campus’ work in curricula and teacher education development in imparting knowledge about the region to students across all levels of the education system is discussed. As well, its work with other tertiary level institutions, gives hope that changes can take effect across the entire system, to rectify some of the above concerns. However before these discussions are pursued, it is important to review how this study is conducted and explore some of the underlying theoretical assumptions about regionalization and internationalization, in the methodology chapter.
3 CHAPTER THREE - METHODOLOGY

There have been a number of studies about Caribbean integration offering solutions to the beleaguered attempts by the sub-region to form some type of union, or to strengthen the levels of cooperation among these nation states. Studies like Boxill’s (1997) *Ideology and Caribbean Integration* have called for “an ideology of regionalism” (p. 29), to raise the consciousness of ordinary Caribbean people to advance the integration movement. On the other hand, notable scholars such as Girvan (1999, 2014) have purported that the solutions for integration may not lie in political economy approaches. Rather, given the checkered history of the political integration movements and the economic fragmentations that have resulted, culture may offer a more realistic medium for achieving this goal. This however does not purport that economics was unimportant to the process. This study, proposes that the regionalization of higher education by the University of the West Indies, in the English Speaking Caribbean, is being impacted by internationalization. In order to address this question, the research design of this study focused on two key themes: regionalization and internationalization.

In this chapter, the method outlining how the study was conducted and the theoretical assumptions underlying the central research question are described. Explanations of the themes; regionalization (regional integration), higher education regionalization and internationalization are provided. Next, the case study method is explained; how the evidence for the case study was obtained using interviews and documentary evidence is described, followed by a discussion of how reliability and validity were maintained throughout the study. The chapter ends with a discussion of three streams of thought: political economy; creolization; and decolonization, which provide the conceptual framework for this research.

Both higher education regionalization and regional integration (regionalization) emerged as distinct themes within the research. Throughout this thesis the expressions regional integration, integration and regionalization are used interchangeably. Higher education regionalization refers to levels of collaboration between the postsecondary and tertiary education institutions in the English-speaking Caribbean, the assumption being that their cooperation in the areas of higher education will help to advance regional integration. On the other hand, in this study, regionalization refers to the internal focus by the UWI to demonstrate its regionality, and move the regional integration project forward, in areas of curriculum, human resource outputs and research, for example, to support the development of the regional economy. These aspects were prevalent in the study and are discussed in this thesis. However, research was only conducted on the University of the West Indies and with staff who were
currently or previously employed by the institution. Research was not conducted with or about other tertiary or postsecondary institutions in the English Speaking Caribbean.

As previously indicated, within the English-speaking Caribbean there are fifteen member states and five associate member states represented by a regional integration organization known as CARICOM. This integrated grouping, which emerged in the post-1962 federation era, has three objectives. They include economic cooperation through the vehicle of the Caribbean Common Market; foreign policy coordination; and functional and non-functional cooperation in the areas of health, education, air and sea transportation and culture (Boxill, 1997, p. 47). Within CARICOM, two institutions are tasked with the responsibilities for cooperation in education/advancing regionalization in education. They are: the Caribbean Examinations Council (CXC) and the University of the West Indies (Boxill, 1997, p. 47-48). Therefore, the work of the University of the West Indies remains central to the discussion of regional integration and higher education regionalization in the Anglophone sub-region.

3.1 Regions, Regionalism, Regional Integration and Higher Education Regionalization

In many areas of the world, regions have been emerging largely in response to globalization (J. Knight, 2014). Recent literatures have sought to construct a framework for the regionalization process in higher education. It was important to present some of this discussion here in order to broaden the understanding of these concepts as used in the thesis. Accordingly, regions, regionalism, regional integration (regionalization) and higher education regionalization are further defined and distinguished in the paragraphs below. As well, their relationship to globalization and neoliberalism are also discussed.

Regions have been traditionally defined as a collection of nation-states within a particular geographic area. However, with globalization, countries and territories have become more interdependent and interconnected, and so the understanding of regions has expanded. Regions can overlap, are multi-layered and multi-faceted and can have multiple actors. Accordingly, regions can be politically, socially, functionally and culturally defined (J. Knight, November 2013, p. 112). The Anglophone Caribbean is one example of a culturally defined sub-region within a region.

Regionalization on the other hand, involves “co-operation, integration, harmonization, convergence, collaboration, community, coherence, partnership and alignment” (J. Knight, August, 2014, p. 351). Hettne and Soderbaum (2000) offer a similar definition of regionalization. They described it as “a program or strategy that may lead to formal institutional building...
[through] a process that leads to patterns of cooperation, complementarity and convergence within a particular cross-national geographical space" (p. 457-458). However, regionalism differs from regionalization. The former refers to an ideology, while the latter refers to “a body of ideas that promotes an identified geographical area or social space as a regional project” (Stubbs, 2008, p. 454, 458). The two approaches – regionalism and regionalization, - when working in tandem, are particularly effective. Consequently, as Stubbs (2008) suggests, ideas about regionalism and how members of a region must conduct relations among themselves, and with those external to the region, are grounded in two notions. The first is shared social culture and practices that are then transferred into how relations are carried out among members internal to the region. The second has its basis in a shared history – that is, past experiences that influence ideas about international and regional relations. The shared colonial experiences of the English-speaking Caribbean, its shared history, language and culture, failed attempts at political federation and vulnerabilities within the global economy, became fertile ground for regional integration.

J. Knight (August 2014) maps higher education regionalization as an evolutionary process that culminates in the creation of an integrated community (p. 351). Similarly, the process of higher education regionalization begins intentionally, moving from an ad hoc system of cooperation and collaborative partnership building, that is often voluntary and sometimes informal; to coordination, coherence and alignment that introduces an element of organization, to ensure that the interaction between actors are complementary, productive and brings value; to harmonization and convergence, which involves the creation of stronger strategic links that can involve systematic exchanges at both the institutional and national levels; culminating in integration and the creation of a common community or area that has been formalized and institutionalized, to form a comprehensive level of connections and relationships (J. Knight, August, 2014, p. 351-353). The establishment of the UWI (University of the West Indies), TLIU (Tertiary Level Institution’s Unit), CXC (Caribbean Examination’s Council) and ACTI (Association for Tertiary Institutions), which were all discussed in chapter two, are some of the examples of how education has been formalized and institutionalized to maintain and promote regionalization in the Anglophone Caribbean.

Therefore, regional integration (regionalization) and higher education regionalization are two separate but interconnected concepts. Higher education regionalization is “the process of intentionally building connections and relationships among higher education actors, structure and systems within a region. [While] higher education as a tool for regional integration takes a more tactical approach to how higher education can be used to achieve regional integration” (J.
Knight., November 2013, p. 112). Therefore, higher education regionalization embodies inter and intra-regional cooperation among institutions of higher learning. Intra-regional cooperation refers to interactions within a region and inter-regional to cooperation between more than one region (J. Knight, November 2013, p. 112). These levels of cooperation among institutions are intended to advance the regionalization process.

J. Knight (2014) observed that there were three approaches to the regionalization of higher education. They include: 1) functional; 2) organizational; and 3) political approaches. In the functional approach, higher education systems are aligned through the creation of quality assurance and accreditation frameworks, academic credit systems, qualification recognition, academic calendar alignment, academic semesters and ICT platforms, just to name a few. On the other hand, as part of the organizational approach, organizational infrastructure is created as government and non-governmental bodies, professional organizations, foundations and networks are formed and take on a variety of responsibilities. These include but are not limited to policy-making, capacity building, regulation and advocacy. The third approach is political. Here binding agreements, treaties, declarations, and conventions are created. Consequently, political will generates support for the regionalization project (J. Knight, August 2014, p. 355-358).

As was previously discussed, the higher education regionalization practices within the English-speaking Caribbean were initiated by the creation of the UWI and reinforced by CARICOM. Functional and economic cooperation were the impetus, as historically, the English-speaking Caribbean’s attempts at political integration, failed. However, political will and institutional frameworks have helped to maintain harmonization in education practices currently within the Anglophone Caribbean. While integration has been achieved within the secondary and postsecondary levels, work is being done at the tertiary level of the system, particularly through non-state actors like the Central Office for Regional and International Affairs (CORIA) and the Association of Caribbean Tertiary Institutions (ACTI).

Globalization stimulates regional dependence. Accordingly, regional integration is a response to the pressures of globalization. The latter has brought common challenges and opportunities for nation states who share the same geographic, cultural, economic and political context. Neoliberal pressures such as competition for production and the dissemination of goods and services have led to the creation of common market areas for regulated trade, and the free movement of goods, capital and labour (Woldegiorgis, March 2013, p. 13). Therefore, the creation of CARICOM in the English-speaking Caribbean can be said to have resulted from globalization and neoliberalism.
In order to compete in the global economic system the Anglophone Caribbean needs more investment in higher education. In so doing, it must create greater alignment between education output and labour market demand within the Anglophone Caribbean. “The liberalisation of education also [presents] a number of [other] challenges for regional territory level institutions, [such as the UWI] to compete effectively with overseas based tertiary level institutions, many of which have begun to offer courses in various countries in the Region” (CARICOM Secretariat, 2007, retrieved from, www.caricom.org/jsp/community/conference_on_caribbean/experts_forum_rapporteurs_report.jsp). As has been discussed, the movement of people and the flow of ideas between regions are also facilitated by improvements in information and communications technology and transportation - globalization. Consequently, in the neoliberal context, the knowledge economy requires skilled professionals, which also raises the issue of education quality and mobility within and across regions. As graduates cross borders, compatibility in qualification standards are often required (Woldegiorgis, March 2013, p. 13), which often take the form of transfer credit processes and credential recognition practices. Thus, within regional integration, there are often attempts to harmonize efforts, by creating common policy to facilitate cooperation. As previously described in chapter two, harmonization creates frameworks through which relationships are governed between actors. While it does not eliminate local diversities, it creates recognizable and compatible standards and regulations (Woldegiorgis, March 2013, p. 15). This creation of frameworks and harmonization policies for collaboration among educational institutions within regions, are some of the many examples of regionalization in higher education. On the other hand, quality assurance practices, mobility schemes, international student recruitment strategies are some of the many examples of internationalization in higher education.

Since 1948 the University of the West Indies has evolved as premier provider of higher education in the Caribbean (Howe, 2000, p. ix). But how should the regionality of the UWI be defined/ how does the UWI promote regional integration? It is not exclusively about the mere presence of the University of the West Indies in the CARICOM member states. While this remains part of the definition, as will be discussed, is it also about the impact of the UWI on the Caribbean region and the English-speaking sub-region, in the areas of politics, education, economics and culture, just to name a few. In short, its partially about its ability to bring unifying forces of collaboration across boundaries and within education. Accordingly, the research, teaching and service functions of the University of the West Indies are not just about the University’s impact locally in the region, but also its influence internationally, and its ability to harness these for regional development. As well, despite the presence of extra-regional forces
and their impact on the University’s raison d’être; its ability to simultaneously resist and survive as a symbol of the sub-region’s unifying tendencies, is another illustration of its regionality. In addition, it is also about the UWI’s collaborative relationships with other institutions of higher education intra-regionally and extra-regionally.

Historically the University of the West Indies emerged as a College of the University of London and in 1962 it received its independent charter to grant degrees and other credentials. The UWI was given a mandate to be “regionally integrated,” to serve the diverse needs of the Caribbean and to be “deeply rooted in Caribbean development” (UWI Strategic Plan, 2012 – 2017). Given this history, it could be said that as a consequence, the University of the West Indies has always been international. This is because the UWI was set up as a College of the University of London back in 1948. Because of its linkages to Britain, its roots are international and so it sees itself as international/world class. As a result, many other international linkages and partnerships have evolved overtime, all of which will be discussed in greater detail in chapters six and seven. Therefore, regionalization and internationalization have both been affected by globalization and neoliberalism.

3.2 Internationalization

“Globalization has compressed the world in space and time and our economies have rapidly impelled into the highly competitive environment of global markets [and] educational institutions are challenged to follow suit” (Stromquist, 2007, p. 81). The growth of the capitalist world economy, free trade movements, mercantilism and development are often used as euphemisms for globalization. These convey systems of power relations, ideologies and a set of assumptions about how the world works or ought to work, legitimizing processes and removing barriers to transnational activities involving the flow of goods, capital and services (Girvan, 2000, p. 65-66). In higher education, globalization is often manifested as internationalization. The latter refers to globalization’s effect on academic programs, faculty and students, that create new administrative structures and privileges. Within education, globalization has therefore brought greater emphasis on market forces, into the process of education decision-making. Accordingly, institutional isomorphism sets in, as practices from one institution to the next are mimicked, as ideas, people and programs oscillate between these environments. Consequently, purposes, methods and outcomes converge across institutions. Thus more emphasis is placed in skills acquisition than on literacy development, as students, faculty and institutions buy-into Neoliberal notions of education for workforce preparation (Stromquist, 2007, p. 81-84).
Internationalization and its impact on UWI’s regionalization efforts were investigated as part of this study. Some of the earlier research on internationalization alluded to two paradigms, namely, one of cooperation and the other - competition (van der Wende, 2001). These two paradigms are juxtaposed along the discursive lines of education as a ‘public good’ versus education as a private individual benefit. With the predominance of neoliberalism, the emphasis has increasingly been towards competition, wherein globalization creates economies that exploit knowledge for wealth creation. Within the competition paradigm, current practices of internationalization are primarily focused on student recruitment and cross border education practices, where human capital, educational products and services, are more often extracted from one jurisdiction and transplanted into another. Yet the central premise of internationalization in higher education has its fundamental roots in collaboration, and involves the exchange of culture, people and ideas for mutual benefit. It concerns the relationship between nations, where there is respect for sovereignty, national policies and culture (Jiang, 2008, p. 348), leading to increasing cooperation and activities that cross borders (van der Wende, 2001, p. 253). From this collaborative perspective, the process of internationalization involves a reciprocal exchange between nation-states and/ or actors within nation states, such as organizations and institutions, which involves a sharing of knowledge and culture. These have brought in an international dimension into higher education that has affected its purpose and function. The end result was intercultural skills development and understanding among the stakeholders (J. Knight 2008). For the institution, internationalization now includes, revenue generation initiatives; the exporting of educational products; the recruitment of international students; having awareness of and interacting with foreign providers – off-shore/site, and negotiating the presence of other on-line cross-border providers in the region; the provision of opportunities for student and faculty mobility; the creation of research partnerships and cooperation in/ on international development projects; the pursuit of accreditation and quality assurance standards, and to become globally recognized across systems of education, as sanctioned by other global institutions. These factors together are referred to in the literature the international dimensions of higher education (J. Knight, 2008) and were very prevalent features of internationalization at the University of the West Indies.

In their pursuit of ‘development’ CARICOM has adopted a definition of internationalization to mean the provision of access to higher education to students in the region; and the creation of a competitive higher education system that meets international standards of quality and relevance (CARICOM Secretariat, 2007, retrieved March 9, 2012 from, www.caricom.org/jsp/community/conference_on_caribbean/experts_forum_rapporteurs_report.j
On the other hand, the University of the West Indies describes its practices of internationalization or its efforts to internationalize as making the university “globally recognized” and “internationally competitive,” with the goal of serving the diverse needs of the Caribbean and “beyond” (UWI Strategic Plan 2012-2017). Therefore, for the University of the West Indies, internationalization has become an integral part of its strategic objectives. (The internationalization paradigms adopted by the UWI are discussed in chapters six, seven and eight).

3.3 The Methodology

To answer the research question, a case study research method was determined as the most suitable for this endeavour. According to Yin (2014), case studies are best used when there are how and why questions, and when there is a focus on contemporary rather than historical issues. As the only regional tertiary educational institution in the Caribbean, how is the University ensuring that its regional objectives are being achieved, in the face of increasing pressures from globalization and neoliberalism which manifests itself within higher education as internationalization? This was the central question under consideration in this research. Therefore, as Yin (2014) notes, case studies are best used when trying to explain some present social circumstance or phenomenon, as it seeks to answer the how and why, while seeking an in-depth description of some social phenomenon (p. 4).

Lodico, Spaudling and Voegetle (2010) describe the case study as a type of qualitative research that focuses on a single unit of analysis or bounded system (p. 156). The case or system under study here is higher education at the University of the West Indies. Lodico, Spaudling and Voegetle (2010) also note that the case study is used to gain insight and / or in-depth understanding of an individual, situation, group or process (p. 156) and can have evaluative qualities or capabilities (Gay, Mills and Airasian, 2012, p. 446). The goal of this study is to gain insight into how the UWI is navigating its mission in the new neoliberal and global realities; to find out whether internationalization is being pursued at the expense of the regional project; and to assess the implications of the regionalization process on the nation states of the Anglophone Caribbean, whose development it has been tasked with supporting. In short, the study evaluates the impact of internationalization on the regional mandate of the University of the West Indies.
In the English speaking Caribbean, the regionalization of education has already taken place at the secondary and post-secondary levels,\(^{33}\) with the administration of regional entrance and exit summative exams and shared curricula, across the various English-speaking island-nations. (The Caribbean Examinations Council was previously discussed in chapter two). Together, these feed the tertiary system, that is, the universities in the region, through a system of articulations at the regional level. The goals of this study are to explore the impact of internationalization on this institution; examine and evaluate the regionalization efforts of the University of the West Indies (in curricula, teacher education training, the provision of access to higher education, the promotion of regional integration and development); and higher education regionalization (the UWI’s efforts to collaborate with other institutions of higher learning). The strategic objective and mandate of the University of the West Indies (UWI) has always had a regional focus, from its original inception to the current day. In its Strategic Plan for 2012-2017, UWI has articulated its vision for becoming more “regionally integrated... [by building] a stronger more cohesive and integrated regional university [in order to] drive regional development, [promote] regional engagement... and find solutions to pressing regional issues” (UWI Strategic Plan, 2012-2017, p. 9-21).

Accordingly, in this case study, the unit of analysis is the UWI, in particular the three main campuses and the Open Campus located in Barbados, Jamaica, Trinidad and Grenada, respectively. The units of analysis or unit of study refers to a type of unit used to measure variables and includes groups, individuals and/or institutions (Neuman, 1997, p. 113), among other things. In short, it is what or who is being studied (Babbie, 1992, p. 92). On the other hand, the subunits (types of research participants) for the case study were the University of the West Indies executives – managers/administrators with strategic and operational portfolios that cut across issues of internationalization and regionalization.

The rationale for the selection of the four islands in the study was the presence of the three main campuses of the regional university within their geographical boundaries. The

---

\(^{33}\) As a participant in an academic conference in 2013 in particular a panel on Caribbean Regionalism, I was made aware through a key informant of the differentiation being made between Tertiary and Post-Secondary Education in the Caribbean. Post Secondary Education Institutions include some of the vocational and community colleges that confer the Advanced- A `Level credentials with transfer pathways into tertiary institutions. On the other hand, tertiary institutions confer degrees, diplomas and certificates, and are analogous to the Quebec CEGEP System.
The campuses are as follows: Mona\(^{34}\) in Jamaica; St. Augustine in Trinidad; and the Cave Hill Campus in Barbados. Additionally, although a non-campus country/underserved territory, Grenada has always had an Extra Mural Studies department (a satellite University of the West Indies presence), now called the Open Campus, established on that island. In conducting the research, there was an attempt to interview a cross section of participants from all four campuses. Senior executives and department heads at each of the campuses that could provide information on internationalization and regionalization were targeted. (See table 1.1 for the distribution of interview participants by location).

**Table 1** Interview Participants by Location

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LOCATION</th>
<th>MAIN CAMPUS</th>
<th>OPEN CAMPUS</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(MC)</td>
<td>(OC)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barbados</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grenada</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jamaica</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trinidad</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** The headquarters of the Open Campus is located in Barbados. Open Campus participants who were not in the study sites were grouped under the Barbados location.

Most of the senior executives interviewed were graduates of the University of the West Indies. As well, some were also former members of faculty who rose through the ranks into administrative portfolios within the UWI. Many also had a number of scholarly publications, particularly on regionalization. The rationale for the selection of the administrator group was also influenced by my own exposure to strategic planning and implementation within the Ontario higher education sector. From these experiences, I assumed that there was a higher probability that administrators at the UWI would be more knowledgeable of the institutional strategic

\(^{34}\) There is second campus in Jamaica- Western Jamaica along with two other Open Campus Locations. These were not visited; however staff from Western Jamaica and the Open Campus was interviewed.
objectives of regionalization and internationalization, than their faculty counterparts. As well, since the study’s aim was to gain an understanding of the operations of the UWI in those specific areas, the administrator group seemed best placed to offer this perspective. Having said this, it also means that the study is limited to the standpoint of the Institution’s administrator group.

In selecting the study participants for interviews, purposive sampling was used. Purposive sampling refers to the selection of study participants’ based on one’s own knowledge of the population (Babbie, 1992, p 230). This began with a review of the campus directories for the names, titles and contact information of potential informants, and as well from published reports on regionalization and internationalization, where study authors were named. Attempts were made to carry out in-depth interviews with respondents who shared similar portfolios across the campuses. When on occasion these potential respondents were unavailable, a snowballing technique was used to identify other knowledgeable informants. Here interviewees were asked to make recommendations to other potential respondents, who could provide some insight on issues of internationalization and regionalization.

Prior to beginning the field research, contact was made with the campus registrars to seek permission to interview campus staff. Each of the campuses had their own ethics protocol, with the exception of the Open Campus. For the latter, staff within the ranks of the highest administrative levels were notified of the study. Once permission was requested and granted, key informants were contacted and arrangements were made for travel to the sites. As part of the ethics and initial contact process, the abstract, interview schedule/questionnaire and consent form were sent in as part of the review and permissions granting process. At some of the campuses, the names of potential study participants were requested and sent in, and in return a short synopsis of their work and role was provided to the interviewer, so that decisions could be made about whether to select them as potential participants for the study. This interaction prior to conducting the field work also provided an opportunity to update the researcher about a potential participant’s portfolio, and to gather information on whether they were still under the employ of the University.

Ethics protocols across the campuses consisted of both formal and informal committees across the campuses. Informal because they were put in place for the request to conduct research at the campus, and then disbanded once the permissions were received. Regardless of the process, as the researcher, I sought official permission from the University, prior to beginning the research in each of the campuses. Finally, to maintain the confidentiality/anonymity of the respondents the designations MC – Main Campus and OC – Open Campus
were used and each of these interviews was numbered. For example, MC1 referred to Main Campus Interview respondent based on the island of Barbados or Jamaica or Trinidad, and who was not employed in the Open Campus (OC).

Interviews are essential sources of evidence in a case study, because most case studies are about human affairs or actions (Yin 2014, p. 113). The interviews pursued a “consistent line of inquiry” (Yin 2014: 110) on the topics of regionalization and internationalization. As a result, separate questions were developed and asked on these topics as part of the interviews. Yin (2014) also noted that the use of interviews in case studies is a fairly common and highly important feature (p. 110). Some of the respondents in the study worked for ‘UWI Centre’ which is comprised of the Central Administrative Departments\(^{35}\) with direct reporting relationships to the Vice Chancellery. On the other hand, other research informants reported directly to a campus-based administrator.

The case study interviews in this study were primarily “guided conversations rather than structured queries” (Yin, 2014, p. 110). They often began with asking respondents to speak about their role at the University, as it related to regionalization and internationalization. When specific areas that were outlined in the interview guide were not addressed, specific questions were asked in order to ensure that all key issues were discussed. (See Appendix Two for the Interview Schedule/Questionnaire). Most of the interviews could be described as “shorter case study interviews” (Yin 2014, p. 110) as they lasted an average of one hour and twenty minutes - less than two hours, while one of the twenty-five interviews conducted could be described as “prolonged,” - over two hours of conversation (Yin 2014, p. 110). In each of the cases where the interview ran past one hour, the respondent’s permission was requested for continuance. All of the interviews were audio taped. A total of twenty-five interviews were conducted across the four campuses. In cases where it was not possible to meet with key informants in person, these interviews were conducted via Skype, a computer application used for audio-visual communication. The first set of interviews that were conducted took place in Grenada, followed by Mona- Jamaica, then Cave Hill-Barbados and finally, St. Augustine-Trinidad. As well, in each site, Open Campus officials working at these campuses were also solicited as ‘key informants.’ (See Table 1.1). Attempts were made to visit the Cave Hill Campus, however due to travel

---

\(^{35}\) UWI Centre or University Centre consists of the Board of Undergraduate Studies; the Board of Graduate Studies and Research; Office of Administration; Office of Finance; Office of Planning and Development; UWI Consulting Company; and the Caribbean Quarterly (The University of the West Indies, Vice Chancellery, retrieved October 30, 2014 from [http://www.uwi.edu/AdministrativeDepts.asp](http://www.uwi.edu/AdministrativeDepts.asp)).
challenges, a second unplanned visit was made to Mona, and from there the Cave Hill participants were contacted using Skype. The interviews took place between December 2013 and September 2014.

At the end of each interview, participants were also asked for suggestions of books, reports, websites, articles and other types of texts, to help to help triangulate/corroborate the information discussed during the interview. These additional documents and resources also helped to mitigate the shortcomings of poor recall, or articulation by study respondents of particular events. These documents also provided additional information about regionalization and internationalization, the issues under investigation as part of this study. The use of multiple sources of evidence was also central for improving the reliability and validity of the study. As Yin (2014) notes, “in a case study, findings or conclusions are likely to be more convincing when there are several different sources of information (p. 120).

During the course of this research, the site visits to Grenada and Mona in particular, led to some refinement in the form of slight modifications to the original questions, and the addition of new ones to the interview guide. For example, quality assurance was not initially envisioned as an important consideration, but as the interviews went on, it proved to be an important discussion for regionalization and internationalization. As well, as the interviews progressed, a question was added regarding how respondents felt about whether internationalization and regionalization were competitive or collaborative/complementary forces within the UWI. Here the documentary evidence was very useful in helping to fill the gaps in the research.

To avoid the researcher’s perspectives unknowingly influencing the interviewee’s response, that is reflexivity, an interview schedule of written questions was used to guide the conversation. Responses were then summarized and rephrased and respondents were asked to confirm or correct the interviewer’s interpretation of their responses during the interview. As well, once the interviews were transcribed, they were returned to participants for review, comments and suggestions for changes.

The term ‘key informant’ is being used, because as suggested by Yin (2014), these interviewees provided insights and expressed their opinions about key facts and events which were used by the researcher to make further inquiries. Accordingly, the role of ‘key informants’ was critical to the success of the case study. They played the role of informants, rather than simply participants (p. 111). To add some literary variety the terms respondent/research respondents would be used interchangeably with ‘key informant/research informant.’

Websites and electronic sources were also used to corroborate information gathered during the interviews from respondents. These included the correct spelling of names, dates of
events and occupational titles, and even a broader range of information, when there was poor recall of information related to events mentioned during the interview. The use of this technique was suggested by Yin (2014), as a means for improving validity and reliability. To obtain documents for the study, the last question of the interview was an ‘ask’ of the respondent for additional information that could corroborate the interview details. These together formed the basis for the documentary evidence used in the analysis.

Some of the documentary evidence used for this study includes texts: annual reports; strategic plans; statistical reports as well as taskforce reports addressing the issues of regionalization, commissioned by the Vice Chancellor and Chancellor on separate occasions. Some of the reports used as documentary evidence include: A New Structure - The Regional University of the 1990’s: The Report of the Chancellor’s Commission on the Governance of the UWI, 1994; Chancellor’s Task Force on the Governance of UWI, February 2006; Taskforce on Achieving a More Regional University of the West Indies, 2011 - The Meeks Taskforce Report.
These documents were written and developed to provide information to the UWI Community and other potential stakeholders, and were not designed specifically for research purposes. Therefore, it was important to explain and understand the objectives of each of the documents used in the study, so as not to mislead or incorrectly interpret the evidence they provided. Their inherent bias is that they were intended to showcase the achievements of the UWI. Accordingly, they are highly descriptive. In the case of the annual reports, for example, they did not report on the institution’s shortcomings or its failed attempts at collaboration or partnerships.

While the strengths and challenges associated with interviews were previously discussed, similarly the advantages and disadvantages of documents must also be elaborated. The strengths of documentation are that they are stable, can be reviewed repeatedly; have not been created as a result of the case study; often contain exact names, references and details of events, and can often cover a long span of time, events and settings. On the other hand, the weaknesses of documentation are that they can sometimes be difficult to find, or may be deliberately withheld; can be biased, selective and incomplete (Yin, 2014, p. 106).

My thoughts about the interview questions for this research came initially from a concept paper which I developed early on in the process. Later, my experiences at the 2012 Diaspora Conference in Grenada and at various other academic conferences as a presenter, where I received feedback about the proposed study that occurred prior to the field work, nurtured some of the ideas for the research. As well, my interactions with visiting scholars from the UWI and with UWI students who were also presenters at some of the forums that I attended proved to be invaluable. Together these provided some insights into an understanding of regionalization and internationalization, which led to the creation of the methodological framework displayed in Figure 1.

### 3.4 Conceptual Framework

Throughout the thesis the terms political economy, decolonization and creolization have been used to offer explanations about the social, political, cultural and colonial histories of the Caribbean. However, these perspectives require a more specific explanation. They frame the thesis by providing insight into the motivations for particular cultural, political and economic actions taken by individuals, institutions such as the UWI, and governments, including CARICOM, particularly in the Anglophone Caribbean. They also suggest why there are sometimes inactions, tensions and contradictory approaches in the conceptualization and strategizing of Caribbean integration efforts and regional higher education development.
3.4.1 Political Economy

In Eurocentric thought, political economy emerged as a counteraction to mercantilism. Under mercantilism, the state intervened in order to secure the balance of trade in the evolution of modern Europe/industrialization. Under this system, the strategic focus was on raw materials taken from the colonies for manufacturing in Europe. This system discouraged the importation of manufactured goods from the colonies, thus keeping the latter dependent and underdeveloped. Instead, products manufactured in Europe were returned for sale in the colonies, increasing their dependency on the colonial powers. These trading arrangements gave rise to core to periphery dependency relations. Unlike mercantilism, in political economy, surpluses of value emerged from productive labour rather than from trade. Accordingly, the latter recognizes the value of manufacturing in the overall organization of activities such as the division of labour (Tabulawa, February 2003).

Political Economist Sir Arthur Lewis (also a former Vice Chancellor of the UWI) put forward a model of dependent development wherein he proposed that a united Caribbean (of Federated states) would be a more viable approach for economic development of the sub-region. However, the key to this success would lie in drawing on the region’s variety of mineral and agricultural resources (Wong, 1984, p. 136). Historically, in Caribbean political economy, state intervention/government’s direct involvement in overseeing the development process was critical. Accordingly, following the various world crises of the 1970’s, the “more laissez-faire approach of Caribbean governments was replaced by that of activist governments who sought partnerships with both foreign and local capitalists,” (Wong, 1984, p. 138) in order to drive the development process nationally and regionally.

On the other hand, another Caribbean political economist Sir Alister McIntyre (also a former Vice Chancellor of the UWI) conceived that federation was also a better political option for carrying out economic reconstruction in the region, and emphasized its importance in bringing about a stronger economy. The economies of scale of production in trade, finance and planning, along with inter-island specialization was also a significant feature of McIntyre’s work. McIntyre believed that this regional cohesion would help to bring about regional self-reliance. Federation would therefore help to reduce the high cost of agricultural export that relied on the protectionist policies of the metropolis/core countries. As well, through currency devaluation, manufacturing could be encouraged and nationals within the region could be persuaded to consume more locally produced and manufactured products. This would also help these economies to move away from the practice of producing what they did not consume and consuming what they did not produce – the dependence on food produced in North America
and Europe (Demas, 1989 June, p. 26-29). McIntyre also favoured an “integration movement to include the entire Caribbean archipelago. Furthermore, he favoured the building of closer trade and economic ties with Latin America by the CARICOM countries acting as a single group (Demas, 1989 June, p. 32).

However, as the last attempt at political federation in 1958-1962 in the sub-region failed, most countries continued on their quest for political independence. Despite the failure of federation, the Anglo-Caribbean sub-region have continued to pursue the regional integration agenda through CARICOM and prior to the emergence of this entity, the creation of the University of the West Indies, a regional university. Political and economic motivations were therefore the driving forces for their development. Thus nationalist and regionalist development agendas continue to have a tense co-existence in the Anglophone Caribbean. It is this backdrop that forms the basis for the centering of this thesis in political economy.

3.4.2 Decolonization

The colonial history of the Anglophone Caribbean and the independence movements that followed, in their attempts at self-sufficiency, also centers this thesis within decolonization/anticolonial theory. Anticolonial theory investigates the social practices evolving from colonial relations and their aftermath. To do so, indigenous knowledges are used to interrogate power configurations embedded into ideas, cultures and histories of knowledge production and use. It is an epistemology of the colonized, anchored in the indigenous sense of collective and common colonial consciousness. Therefore, to move to a decolonized system of education, an anticolonial investigation of existing ideologies and discourses is warranted (Dei, 2000).

Caribbean peoples must therefore decolonize the histories that have been taught to them from the colonizer’s perspective – by European educational structures - that have sought to minimize the violence of oppression and victimization of colonization; and the continued imperialisms of American hegemony ever present in the region. Critical therefore to the decolonization project would be the delinking of people’s ideas, cultures and education models from the colonial past (Ali, 2010:79).

Yet, education is a political process in which human life is bounded-up. It is the teaching and learning of how we think, feel and act (Issahaku, 2010: 30). Decolonization however could be facilitated by engaging in an undertaking of educational politicization of the ‘masses,’ through what Freire (1992) describes as ‘conscientization’ (p. 76). How then can academic institutions be used to educate the masses politically, culturally, academically? According to Fanon, to accomplish this, “if we want to increase the gross national income, reduce the imports of certain
useless, even harmful, products, improve agricultural production and fight illiteracy… in an underdeveloped country… everything rests on educating the masses, elevating their minds, …[through] political education” (Fanon, 1963:136-138). Fanon therefore called for a politicized educating of the ‘masses,’ to ensure the success of the anti-colonial struggle and eventual decolonization.

In the context of the Anglophone Caribbean, it is important therefore to understand and interrogate the Euro-American and neoliberal discourses that have been and are being brought into the society. Consequently, to achieve a decolonized education system, a reformulation/reconstruction of local national and regional identities using Caribbean voices to unearth a national and regional consciousness is needed. Here the intellectual elite – those who have been fortunate to participate in the higher education process – have an important responsibility. Fanon believed that this “small number of upstanding intellectuals, without set political ideas, who distinctively distrust the race for jobs and handouts that is symptomatic of the aftermath of independence…[could] be used intelligently in the struggle to steer the nation in a healthy direction” (Fanon, 1963, p. 121). Politicization through education was therefore essential. This would then make it possible to have these ideologies filter down the ranks to the other levels of the education system – to the primary and secondary levels - through a process of teacher re-education at the tertiary level, educational reform and curricula redevelopment, regionally, across the Caribbean.

A decolonized system of education is one that is transformative. It makes students feel liberated and empowered to pursue schooling that satisfies their material, spiritual hopes and aspirations. It is a just education system that calls for social commitment and political social action, which leads to educational transformation and social change. A regional decolonized education system would be one that is opened to hearing the different discursive interpretations of history and offers critical reflection (Issahaku, 2010: 32). Therefore the understanding of decolonization must move beyond the discourse of political sovereignty that resulted in the transmission of the nation-state model from the ‘Western’ colonizers to their dependencies, as proposed by such authors as Strang (1991).

To achieve a decolonized education system there is a need to reformulate/reconstruct Caribbean national and regional identities using Caribbean voices to unearth a national and regional consciousness. The denial of the histories of the Caribbean peoples within the formal systems of education; their continued erasure from the literature and the impositions on identity formation by the dominant classes,’ is highly problematic. The stories of whom or what is Caribbean for example – their individual and collective national identities are presented through
the eyes and perspectives of the ‘dominant.’ These have been incorporated into texts that continue to infiltrate systems of education in the English-speaking Caribbean. To begin the process of decolonization in education, notions of national identity and national consciousness must be revisited, to forge ahead with the reconstruction of a Caribbean story, where its identity is inclusive of the multiracial and multiethnic heritages that have created the Caribbean. It is a construction that must not be built-up in relation to, or as a comparison with/ of dominant White Western culture or in relation to it, instead, the English-speaking Caribbean must break down what Fanon (1963) described as the Manichean divide, which is a way of thinking in irrational, oppressive dualisms/ binaries, which positions 'Black in relation to 'White (Adapted from, Lecture Notes, 2008 Fall, p. 17).

As previously noted, Caribbean education systems and policies are very much shaped by Americanization and Europeanization, which continue to stifle development in that region. As a result, the alternative being proposed is decolonization within higher education development, which calls for an indigenous strategy to harnesses the intellectual capital of the region’s scholars and institutions. It would be a strategy defined by and created from the collective experiences of the region’s experts and peoples, with a primary reliance on expertise from within the region; with a course of action determined by the region; and driven by an assessment of its own needs. This however, would not be to the exclusion of innovations coming out of internationalization in higher education. However, the aim would be to develop an agenda from within the region, which would reap the most benefit for that locale. In this case study, given its regional mandate, this is an important task for the UWI.

3.4.3 Creolization

Another theoretical construct that foreground this thesis is creolization. In the interrogation of Caribbean-ness/ Caribbean identity, creolization has a place in the history and cultural understanding of that space. Thus for some, to be ‘Caribbean’ is to be creolised (Mordecai, 2011, p. 26). Creolization refers to a process whereby Africans and their descendants contest and continue to contest their oppression in the Americas. Having been uprooted from Africa and brought across the Atlantic, their diasporic experiences of unsettling, dispersion, oppression have resulted in mixtures and differences between and within Creole societies.

Creolization in the Caribbean can be said to have its emergence in the 18th century and early in the 19th century, through interactions between the Europeans, Africans and Amerindian peoples in the Caribbean, leading to a process of creative adaptation, transformation and
synthesis, which laid the foundation for Caribbean culture. The majority of the persons who participated in this process were of African descent because of their ongoing struggle over European domination, colonialism and enslavement. The Afro-Creole culture emerged in the Caribbean in a subordinate role to the Euro-Creole. Inequalities persisted and many persons of mixed-African and European descent became culturally assimilated to the Euro-Creole culture in order to achieve social mobility, particularly during the post-emancipation era (Bolland, 2006, p. 10-11).

Hence, their patterns of behaviour, beliefs, values and language, and their participation in a variety of elite and folk institutions, constituted somewhat of a bridge between the Euro- and Afro-Creole cultures. The use of these concepts, which emphasize African traditions and the active roles of people in creating culture and asserting their identity in an oppressive context, contrasts with the imperial view of the colonies as incomplete, impure, and inferior versions of their ‘mother country,’ and is historically linked to the process of decolonization and nation-building (Bolland, 2006, p. 10-11).

However, creolization should not essentialize ‘Blackness.’ Nonetheless, because the concept of race was constructed as a socio-historical process, racialized identity is both relational and historically contingent (Bolland, 2006, p. 6) to creolization.

As has been previously discussed, in the English-speaking Caribbean Africans, Amerindians and Europeans were not the only groups to inhabit the Caribbean space. The indentured labourers who were brought in, post-emancipation also have residency there. Consequently, “creoleness’ is not a culture that is historically fixed, though it has been shaped by the historical circumstances and struggles of its origins. Creoleness, rather, is a culture and identity in the making, and Indians, Chinese, Portuguese, Mestizos, Javanese, Lebanese and others have been participating with other Creoles in this process for many generations” (Bolland, 2006, p. 10). Therefore, while peoples of African descent have a significant role in the continuing development of Creole societies, the Afro-Creole is not the whole or end point (Bolland, 2006, p. 10) for the construction or understanding of the Caribbean identity process. Thus there is a danger in reformulating the Caribbean story as African and or English-speaking, given its ethno-racial mixture. Consequently, there must therefore be a careful attempt not to replace one hegemony (British / European), with another (African), in an understanding of this cultural space called the Caribbean.

What is Caribbean, in fact, is neither the insistence on mutually exclusive and immutable ethnicities, such as ‘Indian,’ ‘Chinese,’ ‘Mestizo’ and ‘Creole,’ nor the blending of one into the other in a general ‘melting pot.’ What is Caribbean is the development of cultures and societies that enable people to participate at different times and in different ways in a variety of activities and identities because these need not be mutually exclusive. The more open and organic view of creolization helps us understand this, as the dialectical view of creolization helps us keep in mind that the various ways people
contribute culturally depends on the distribution of power in the society” (Bolland, 2006, p. 9-10).

Bolland (2006) quotes the work of Stuart Hall who observed that creolization is not a process of homogenization. Instead it is heterogeneous and diverse and it is about identity that exists and is created not despite difference, but is inclusive of hybridity. It is an identity that is constantly evolving - producing and reproducing itself (p. 6). While Creolization has been helpful for understanding the commonalities and differences in the African Diaspora, it may also distort the understanding of the Indian and Chinese Diasporas which overlap and intersect with the former, in the context of Caribbean society (Bolland, 2006, p. 6). This is because, generally, when the concept creolization is used with reference to people of Chinese, Indian, Lebanese, Portuguese and other origins, it refers to the assimilation of these ethnic groups to Creole, and more specifically Afro-Creole, culture. The concept, used in this way, takes on an ideological quality when it is assumed that a process in the past resulted in the present Creole culture and society to which ‘newcomers’ may become assimilated (Bolland, 2006, p. 7).

Therefore, when creolization is identified as an assimilation of Afro-Creole culture in Caribbean history, indigenization and nationalism, it negates the contributions of all ‘others,’ who become marginalized in the process (Bolland, 2006, p. 7). In effect, they are what Fanon (1963) described as ‘amputated.’

Carnival and steel pan for example are predominantly expressions of Afro-Creole culture in the Caribbean. Its roots can also be found in French Catholicism, as part of a pre-Lenten celebration. However, to essentialize these as all encompassing expressions of Caribbean culture is to marginalize and negate the contributions to other ethno-racial groups that inhabit the Caribbean. In Trinidad and Tobago for example, Calypso and Steel band are national symbols and therefore marginalize Trinidadian Indians, and the other non-Afro-Caribbean groups that occupy these islands. In short, it assumes that to be Creole is to be a true Trinidadian and to be creolized or assimilated is the only way to assure belongingness (Bolland, 2006, p. 7). “To see them as simply becoming assimilated, however, implies that they continue to stand outside the society, but they have been contributing to the popular culture in various ways - food, religion, music - for many years” (Bolland, 2006, p. 7). That is, as far back as 1845, when their ancestors arrived (Bolland, 2006, p. 7). However, in the more recent expressions of

---

36 Amputation is a call for severance of ties, or connection, in this case to one’s past, history and culture (Dei Lecture Notes, Fall 2012, p. 26).
Carnival in Trinidad, Tassa drumming which evolved out of Hindu culture, Chutney Soca and many more varieties of art forms have been emerging and are being incorporated into Carnival celebrations in Trinidad and Tobago.

Additionally, the co-existence of these multi-ethnic groups within the Caribbean, particularly in places like Trinidad and Tobago and Guyana, which have higher East Indian populations than some of the other islands, often gives rise to racial tensions, particularly, though not exclusively along political lines. In both these republics, political allegiances and alliances to the main political parties are often divided along ethnic lines, among the groups most dominant in these populations. That is primarily, Black-African and East Indian. However, scholars such as F. W. Knight, (2012) contend, that these differences do not create mutually reinforcing cleavages, as has been found in places like North America and Europe.

Thus there are contestations – contradictions and conflicts in seeking an understanding of the social construction of identity in the Caribbean. These societies are among the longest and most thoroughly colonized in history. Consequently, colonization is not simply an outside influence, but is also constitutive of Caribbean identity formation (Bolland, 2006, p. 2). Therefore, colonial domination and the resistance to that domination “are two aspects of the same socio-cultural process that creates a society that is Creole because it is colonial” (Bolland, 2006, p. 2). It is this cultural dynamic that also continue to shape the process of higher education in the Caribbean. Consequently, “the development of effective contemporary analysis [of] education in the Anglophone Caribbean also has its genesis in its political [and cultural histories]…as post-colonial, post-independent democratic societies” (Ali, 2010, p. 75).

In sum, political economy, creolization and decolonization are therefore central to an understanding of the English-speaking Caribbean and the creation and continued existence of the regional university in that of the University of the West Indies. In its pursuit of its regionalization mandate, and its objective to be the intellectual source of all things Caribbean, the University of the West Indies must there continue to produce scholarship that interrogate political economy, decolonization and creolization; give voice to the marginalized communities within the region; and aid in the process of helping to secure and improve the understanding of historical and contemporary Caribbean culture, for the advancement and success of the regionalization project.

3.5 Data Analysis

A number of data analysis techniques are used, first to unearth descriptive meaning and then more in-depth perspectives. Data collected from ‘key informants’ included: their
employment history with the University of the West Indies; their levels of education; and their opinions and perceptions of the UWI’s achievements in the areas of regionalization and internationalization. Data obtained in the study that is, the interviews and documentary evidence, were analyzed using content analysis. Holsti (1968) refers to content analysis as “any technique for making inferences by systematically and objectively identifying special characteristics of messages” (Berg, 2007, 306). Here decisions on the inclusion or exclusion of content were made by consistently applying a criterion of selection for extracting material, to support the investigator’s research assumptions (Berg, 2007, p. 306).

Another tool used in the study analysis was a Case Study Database. I constructed the Case Study Database by assembling all of the interview notes and observations, and organized them into the themes that were derived from the content analysis, using Microsoft Excel. This created a tabularized format for all the field notes and interview responses. The suggestion for the creation of the Case Study Database came from Yin (2014). This proved to be an effective tool for locating quotations, and using key word searches, to find evidence cited by more than one interview respondent. These proved to be useful for developing the narrative in the case study.

Manifest analysis (elements that are physically present and countable in the data) and latent analysis, which is an interpretive symbolic reading of the data for analysis, were both used to evaluate the themes of regionalization and internationalization. The data was then coded and analyzed, and relationships between the themes in the research problem were explored, using the indicators outlined in the methodological framework. (See Figure 1.3). The central question remained: how is the UWI ensuring that regionalization was being achieved in the Anglophone Caribbean, in the face of internationalization?

The framing of regionalization and internationalization by the UWI community and the actors within it, revealed discourses regarding development, regional integration, capitalism and competitiveness, just to name a few. Many of these emphasized a political economy approach for understanding the role of the UWI in regionalization. As well, colonialism and global dimensions in education also gave rise to Euro-American discourses that were still affecting the Anglophone Caribbean.

The data analysis is presented in four chapters. One chapter is devoted to the Open Campus, the most recent campus created by the UWI. The campus proved to be the most promising source of evidence about how the UWI promoted regionalization, and its efforts in higher education regionalization. There is a second regionalization chapter highlighting other evidence of the UWI’s regionality, its promotion of regional integration. There are also two
chapters on internationalization. The first focused on the definition of internationalization, exchange and study abroad programs; and the emergence of the department of the Central Office for Regional and International Affairs (CORIA) in University Centre. On the other hand, the second assessed a number of the international partnerships and research collaborations that the UWI held with other extra-regional institutions, and governments. As well, international policies adopted by the UWI; regional and international student participation rates; the UWI’s role in CARICOM; and its impact on Caribbean development are discussed in these chapters.

Throughout these chapters, the UWI’s governance and structure in its attempts to reclaim its regional mandate remained a focus. However, the focal-point of this research is on the UWI as the sub-region’s regional higher education institution, and not on the national tertiary and postsecondary education systems, of the study sites. Accordingly, this placed a limit on the amount of data collected for the creation of a comprehensive profile of each country’s tertiary education system. Therefore, the chapters are not nation-specific.

Scholars have noted that to achieve regionalization, three foundational principles are required. These are: structure (the way units and systems are integrated); governance (the level of decision-making and political coordination systems in existence among nation-states); and legitimacy (the foundations through which the system is acceptable for the units making it up) [Verger and Hermo, 2010, p. 106 – 107]. In order to achieve full regional integration, issues of structure, governance and legitimacy must first be resolved. The English-speaking Caribbean region has made progress at the secondary and post-secondary education levels, with plans underway, to achieve similar results at the tertiary level, among the CARICOM member countries. This is in-part due to the creation of a Regional Tertiary Education Council, proposed to CARICOM by the former Vice Chancellor of the UWI, Dr. Nigel Harris in 2010, and agreed upon by the grouping (CARICOM, October 21, 2010, retrieved 2012 from www.caricom.org/jsp/pressreleases/pres416_10.jsp). However, in looking at the above criteria for the achievement of regionalization, the evidence provided through the interviews and documentary evidence were used to assess the benchmarks achieved. Although this study was not intended as an institutional evaluation, the former provided some of the backdrop for the discussion chapter. The above definition created a starting point for assessing regionalization and the UWI.

37 Vice Chancellor Harris stepped down from the office in April 2015 (The University of the West Indies-UWI Vice-Chancellor Demits Office in 2015, retrieved in 2015 from http://www.mona.uwi.edu/marcom/newsroom/entry/5699).
3.6 Conclusion

In the methodology the central themes of regionalization and internationalization were outlined and defined. As well, the terms regionalism and regionalization were distinguished from each other. In addition, the two paradigms of internationalization-competitive and cooperative – were described. As well, a conceptual framework employing political economy, decolonization and creolization was utilized to help interpret and understand the issues of regionalization and internationalization in the English-speaking Caribbean and University of the West Indies. In the upcoming analysis chapters on internationalization there are discussions around which perspective best reflected the position/operations of the UWI. What is also discussed is that for regionalization to be fully achieved, governance, structure and legitimacy are required. The upcoming chapters outline the UWI’s efforts towards regionalization and higher education regionalization, and the structures that are created to manage this process. As well, the role of CARICOM, which proposed functional cooperation in the area of education among member states in the Anglophone Caribbean, and the regional institutional status it has conferred upon the UWI is discussed. The functions of other regional education bodies working in pursuit of regionalization, along with the UWI, are also presented in the upcoming chapters.
CHAPTER FOUR – DATA ANALYSIS
Defining the Regional University

4.1 Introduction

This chapter seeks to explore the broader concept of regionalization at the UWI. It looks at the various perspectives on regionalization, and regionalism as presented by study participants. (In the next chapter, particular emphasis is given to the Open Campus. Here the elements at the work in the UWI that helped to shape the construction of regionalization are investigated. Attention is given in this chapter to the individual perspectives of the research participants – how they understood regionalization in relation to the UWI. Some of the areas discussed include: the regional nature of the UWI; definitions of regionalization and regionalism; and the descriptions of work being done by the UWI to maintain and promote its regionality. Also outlined is the history of regional integration/federation in the English-speaking Caribbean. This is important for setting the context for discussions about regionalization and the UWI.

The first part of the chapter begins with an overview of the post-World War II independence and regionalization activities that led to the formation of the ‘Federation’ and the UWI in the English-speaking Caribbean. Also reviewed are the economic circumstances that introduced the welfare state and instigated the formation of unions, both of which propelled improvements to education in the Anglophone Caribbean. This is followed by a number of examples used by study respondents to describe the regionality of the UWI. Finally, the chapter ends with a discussion of the milestones achieved and the challenges faced by the UWI to maintain its regional status.

4.2 Federation and the UWI

As noted, the UWI has gone through a number of restructuring phases. First set up as a single campus in 1948, at Mona in Kingston, Jamaica, by the early 1960’s, it expanded to include two additional campuses on the islands of Trinidad and Barbados. The first campus in Jamaica emerged in 1948 just after the end of World War II. This was an era which saw increasing labour demonstrations and unrest in the Caribbean, particularly during the 1930’s. The British colonial authorities at the time dispatched Lord Moyne to review the conditions of the West Indies and to investigate the cause of the riots in 1938 (Cobley, 2000, p. 9; Johnson, 1978). A Royal Commission was created called the Moyne Commission. The Commission conducted inquiries in the British West Indies from 1938 to 1939. The findings were presented in
a report which concluded that the increasing politicization in the Caribbean was derived from the war experiences of West Indian soldiers; the spread of elementary education; and the influence of industrial labour unrest in the United States on the region (F.W. Knight, 2012, p. 221; OC7 Interviews, 2013-2014).

The Secretary of State for the Colonies appointed the Commission to investigate social and economic conditions on the islands of Barbados, British Guiana (Guyana), British Honduras (Belize), Jamaica, the Leeward Islands, Trinidad and Tobago, and the Windward Islands, and to make recommendations. However, economic conditions in Britain during the interwar and postwar years were also deplorable. Consequently, the British parliament and its public, which had very little knowledge or interest in the colonies, were unlikely to be sympathetic to the needs of the British West Indies. The Moyne Commission recommended that a grant of £1,000,000,000 be given by the British Government to help finance and economic development in the colonies. By the standards of the times the scheme was expensive, particularly when domestic economic concerns in Britain were also grave. However, the generosity of the Moyne Commission’s proposal must not be obscured by the fact that improvements in the British West Indies would also help to improve the British economy. This was because the former would become better markets for British products when their conditions were improved. To facilitate this process, the Colonial Secretary of State to the Colonies, Williams Ormsby-Gore, carefully calculated the selection of the Commissioners. There were no ‘West Indians’ appointed to the Moyne Commission. Instead, he appointed British officials, one of whom was a trade unionist. The Commissioners selected were also identified as prominent officials who could explain the Report’s findings to the British public, to obtain support for the recommendations; and encourage the formation of unions in the Colonies. Despite the above, fearing political backlash from the British population, the full report of the Moyne Commission was not made public until after the War in 1945 (Johnson, 1978, p. 268-274).

The major function of the Royal Commission was to gain wide acceptance for a course of action which Colonial Office officials had decided was expedient. They were convinced that the underlying cause of the colonial disturbances was the low standard of economic and social conditions in the colonies. They traced this situation to the depression in the dominant agricultural sector. The solution to these problems, as they saw it, would lie not in temporary palliatives but in a "long-term policy of reconstruction" in the West Indian colonies. This policy would involve an expansion of the social services, aid to revive the staple agricultural industries, and the creation of new job opportunities for the colonial population by diversifying the economy. It was recognized that the British Government would have to assume some financial responsibility for the schemes since most colonies would be unable to finance them from normal revenues. The Colonial Office’s response to the colonial crises may be described as channelling revolution along paths of peaceful reform by providing cash (Johnson, 1978, p. 268).
With the formalization of unions, arising from these activities was adult suffrage, which was extended to not just land owners, but to all adults over the age of 21 (F.W. Knight, 2012, p. 221). These together pushed forward notions of rights, democracy and self-determination, and along with that, demands for education, to develop the necessary leadership required for governance in the British West Indies. The Moyne Commission also proposed political and administrative reform and sweeping changes to education\(^\text{38}\) (Cobley, 2000, p. 9; Randall, 2009, p. 75-76).

As mentioned earlier in this thesis, the labour unions were a successful catalyst for the formation of political parties in the region on the islands of Antigua, Grenada, Guyana, and Trinidad, for example. By 1947 the conference for ‘Closer Union’\(^\text{39}\) had taken place to discuss the creation of a unitary system of government, to manage the affairs of these small island states (OC7 Interviews, 2013 - 2014). At the same time, the British were encouraging some modified forms of self-government (F. W. Knight, 2012, p. 221 and Cobley, 2000, p. 10), in its attempt to rid itself of the colonies, as they were no longer profitable. That is because among other reasons, free labour through slavery had been abolished between 1834 and 1838, and sugar prices had fallen significantly on the world markets.

Consequently, the colonial office of the 19\(^{th}\) century revived the notion of federated states, citing efficiencies to be created through administrative centralization. At the same time, the political parties and their respective leaders were very focused on independence (F.W. Knight, 2012, p. 221).

A compromise was worked out. The West Indian Meteorological Services and the University of the West Indies (a college of London University) were set up, and plans were made for the creation of a political federation that would unite the various territories

\(^{38}\) The Moyne Commission led to the establishment of the Colonial Development and Welfare Fund to finance improvements in education and other spheres. The ‘Commission’ also recognized the need for the provision of higher education for the colonial elite in the Caribbean (Brizan, 1998; Cobley, 2000; Howe, June 2005).

\(^{39}\) A series of conferences took place between 1929 and 1947 to create a federation between Trinidad and Tobago, the Leeward and Windward Islands. In 1929 a Closer Union Commission was proposed but was not created until 1932 and the Closer Union Commissioners appointed. This was because a taxation policy could not be agreed upon and the governors/ administrators of the colonies did not want to relinquish their powers to a centralized legislative body. The Montego Bay Conference took place in 1947 and endorsed the federation of the Windward and Leeward Islands, with the creation of a strong central government. Grenada was unanimously approved as the headquarters, but it was also recommended that some other departments/ units be located in other territories. On July 22, 1947 a dispatch from the Secretary of State of the Colonies was sent to London, imploring delegates from the colonies to attend the Montego Bay Conference, now that an agreement was reached for the creation of a ‘Union’ (Hughes, 1958).
and eventually culminate with the political independence of the region (F.W. Knight, 2012, p. 222).

This Federation lasted from 1958 to 1962 and Guyana, then under the leadership of Dr. Cheddi Jagan, opted out of the both the Federation and the UWI. Instead, Guyana established the University of Guyana in 1963 (OC7 Interviews, 2013-2014; Cobley, 2000, p. 17). This exacerbated the fragmentation and fuelled much of the nationalistic tendencies that were already present in the British West Indies. In articulating the history and purpose of the post WWII education focus, one study respondent offered the following analysis.

I mean, I don’t know if you know enough about the background, or the history of you know this part of the world, but I mean during the war and after the war, the University was all about the business of development and welfare in the Caribbean. And from the late 40's into the 50's, universities in the various British colonies were seen as a way to help prepare those colonies for independence. And particularly there was a movement toward the formation of federal systems. You had federal universities, such as the University of East Africa, in what was then the East African Federation, Uganda, Kenya and what was then Tanganyika (now Tanzania), and similarly one here, where a regional system was put into place to serve the new federation. So that we’ve always had that in mind, and the University insists on calling itself (regional). It’s one of two; in fact, it’s one of two real regional universities in the world. The other one is the University of the South Pacific which serves twelve countries. I mean the other regional university is like the Universities of the Highlands, an island inside of Scotland, but that’s in one country. But we serve a variety of countries and so does the University of the South Pacific (MC4, Interviews, 2013-2014).

As the former colonies sought to affirm their independence, the Canadian government extended its support to these nation-states with the donation of two ships, the Federal Palm and the Federal Maple. The Canadians were very generous to the University of the West Indies (OC7 Interviews, 2013-2014; University of the West Indies, February 2006, p. 44), and in their honour, UWI named one of its residences at the St. Augustine Campus after that country. This was the beginning of these Commonwealth country linkages. In 1962, many of the English speaking Caribbean nations/islands became contributing countries to the UWI. All the monies were initially sent to Mona and then distributed. As well, in 1960, the former Imperial College for Tropical Agriculture in Trinidad became the second campus and, in 1963, the UWI’s Cave Hill Campus in Barbados was established (OC7 Interviews, 2013-2014).

---

40 Canada Hall is an all male residence located on the St. Augustine Campus. It was constructed in 1963, built from funds donated by the Canadian Government. (UWI, Halls of Residence, retrieved from https://sta.uwi.edu/residence/canada.asp)
The St. Augustine Campus is currently the largest of the three main campuses. (See Appendix 3 on student enrolment statistics). There are approximately 12,000 undergraduate students, 6000+ postgraduate students and seven faculties. These include; Engineering, Agriculture, Social Sciences, Humanities and Education, Medicine and Law. Additionally, there are over 800 academic staff and another 2200 non-academic staff (MC11 Interviews, 2013-2014).

As was discussed above, as part of its regionalization efforts, the UWI intentionally expanded from one to three campuses in the 1960’s, and as a result of these changes also increased its student population. This was and still is part of its mandate to serve the larger Anglophone Caribbean. Historically, Britain was involved in the creation of federated universities across the globe. In particular, in Africa and the Anglophone Caribbean, there was a drive to expand tertiary education in these former colonies, as recommended by the Asquith Report. While these federated institutions in Africa did not survive, the University of the West Indies has continued to maintain its status as a regional institution.

4.3 Regionalism, Regionality and Regionalization at the UWI

Changes to the financial arrangements in the UWI came after 22 years, when the former Prime Minister of Trinidad and Tobago, Sir Eric Williams, wrote the White Paper - National Institute of Higher Education, Research, Science and Technology (NIHERST), with proposals for restructuring the UWI. As will be discussed in chapter five, this led to a restructuring of the financial arrangements where monies for the day-to-day operations of the UWI would be advanced by main campus country governments. In turn, the UWI obtained support from the remaining islands through a complicated arrangement. Consequently, the UWI became a quasi-national-university. Accordingly, anytime the main campus governments wanted something for their respective economies, they would put monies into the UWI for that particular cause. As a result, when Trinidad needed engineers for its oil and gas exploration, the UWI obtained funding for this purpose. The resulting consequence is that the economies of the main campus countries

---

41 The National Institute of Higher Education, Research, Science and Technology (NIHERST) was conceived in the White Paper of 1977 written by Sir Eric Williams, former Prime Minister of Trinidad and Tobago and colleagues. NIHERST was conceived to coordinate the national effort in science, technology, higher education, specialised training and extension services. In this White Paper proposal, UWI was to form one part of NIHERST, co-ordinating most of the other agencies of higher education. The White Paper was drafted in the 1970’s when Trinidad and Tobago was experiencing an oil and gas boom. The government at the time was of the view that a high level of technology was needed for scientific research and development; and questioned the ability of existing institutions, such as the UWI St. Augustine, to meet that need (Williams and Harvey, 1985, p. 6 and 81).
became more advanced than the rest of the English-speaking Caribbean, giving rise to the notion of the underserved Non-Campus Countries. This also instigated various attempts at restructuring, in the institution’s attempts to find balance or equilibrium between retaining its regional status against the opposing currents of national sovereignty. However, in 2008, with the establishment of the Open Campus, Vice Chancellor Harris sought to reverse this trend (OC7 Interviews, 2013-2014). Here is what one respondent had to say about the regional process surrounding the financing of the UWI.

The way it works is that budgets are developed and negotiated at the campus levels, so Trinidad will do it here, through consultation with our government. It’s then put together with the Mona budget, the Cave Hill budget and then it goes to the University Council.42 ‘Council’ will deliberate and then there’ll be agreement from the 17 governments, how much each government will give to each campus. So what happens generally is the government of the country where the campus is, gives the most money to that campus. So the Trinidad Government gives us the most the Jamaican Government gives, but Turks and Caicos will decide well I’m going to send fifty students to St. Augustine and if I have a little money I’ll send this one over here. That’s how it’s negotiated and then it’s disbursed to the campuses. So the real energy takes place at the campus level, but the entire budget is negotiated regionally. So that’s one component of our regionalism. Decisions, strategic decisions, governance, ultimately it is a regional decision-making process (MC15 Interviews, 2013-2014).

While the UWI has a vision and mission outlined in a strategic plan that is regional in nature, campuses tend to operate somewhat individually with regards to the day to day affairs. The tensions between these national and regional objectives within the UWI are best articulated in the quotation below.

We are part of a regional enterprise and we therefore try to work as hard as we can to ensure that the regional mission, vision and goals of this University are met. Now, sometimes we tailor that to meet our own national requirements. So to be quite honest with you, the University of the West Indies today is both regional and national, because the communities, the community that St. Augustine serves, in the majority, are a Trinidad and Tobago community. Of those 16,000 students, probably 14,000+ are Trinidad and Tobago nationals. So I would be misleading you, or misleading anyone, if I said this is a regional University and therefore does not have a national mandate. We actually do have both, and that is the point that I have been emphasizing to my colleagues, that UWI must not ever sell itself short that it is regional and not national, it is in fact both, alright (MC11 Interviews, 2013-2014).

To articulate the insights that study participants bring to the research, it is important to outline their understanding of regionalism, regionness, regionalization and their connections to

42 University Council will be discussed in more detail later in this chapter.
higher education and the UWI. In defining and distinguishing regionalism and regionalization one study participant described it as follows:

We have a particular conceptualization of regionalism and regionalization which basically argues that like any other ism, regionalism is really an idea, say an ideology. So if you buy into the ideology of regionalism then you buy into the fact that regions can be a unit of analysis at the international level. So in other words, the regions are areas or geographic spaces if you will. They are spaces that fall somewhere between the nation-state and the global system and so they become the important connectors between the global and the local, between the state and the international community. Sometimes you need to have within respective regions, a process of regionalization. So regionalization refers to the process of becoming a region. It is a constant motion towards an ideal that you have an idea or ideology that you might have. So regionalization really is the process that leads to regionalism, the ideal of regionalism.... [To achieve this] you must first start with collaboration and then once collaboration is established, then there are other movements in industries and sectors, towards the idea of regionalism. Then finally you move to the political sector where then regionalism becomes an idea. Then taking it to the next level involves the politicization of the region. In other words, setting up a local body to ensure that the processes of regionalism are put in place, and to make sure that the goals of regionalism are attained (MC13 Interviews, 2013-2014).

For many other respondents, the notions of regionalism and regionalization at the University of the West Indies were best described in terms of its accomplishments. They cited its presence in all contributing countries through the Open Campus, and as another example, the human resource output of prime ministers, lawyers, doctors, civic, religious and social leaders produced in the Caribbean by the UWI.

They all went to law school together, they know each other. Kamla (The former Prime Minister of Trinidad and Tobago) knows Gonzalves (the Prime Minister of St. Vincent and the Grenadines) on a first name basis. She can phone Gonzalves and say remember those days at law school in Cave Hill Campus, right. Many of the leaders, not just at the political level, but in the bureaucracy at different levels, many of them went through the UWI system at a time when there was this type of division of labour that forced you to travel to another place to study, and then mingle with people from other countries at the same campus. But that sort of thing is becoming less and less the case (MC13 Interviews, 2013-2014).

Additionally, the production of trained individuals to fulfill the needs of the region, including trained physicians who could function without hospital support, was also noted as an example of regionalization. One participant discussed a conversation with a consultant working as an administrator in Grenada, who suggested that North American doctors would not be able to function well in the Caribbean. Accordingly, for many of the research participants,

____________________________

43 In the English-speaking Caribbean, this ‘body’ is called CARICOM.
regionalization was built into the mandate of the University of the West Indies (OC2; OC5, OC4 and OC9, Interviews, 2013-2014).

For some research participants the regionality of the UWI and its strategy for achieving regionalization was reflected in the mission\textsuperscript{44} and vision\textsuperscript{45} to advance education and in the creation of excellence in teaching and research innovations, for the development of the region (OC3 Interviews, 2013-2014). As another respondent noted

so the University of the West Indies has been one of the few institutions of the seven\textsuperscript{46} of them in the region that has perpetuated a regionalism agenda. It has done so through supporting CARICOM in providing access to higher education for the citizens of the region regardless of where they live. And of course, creating opportunities for their engagement in civil society, because a lot of our programs not only are about providing opportunities for our students while they are studying to learn more about their region, but also to have them engage in social change. The UWI also provides the opportunity for graduates to become employed in their countries of origin if possible, or because now we have CSME (Caribbean Single Market and Economy), the free movement agenda, they have the opportunity of moving to those locations to work in different jurisdictions. Consequently, regionalism in Caribbean Higher Education as a whole is a very important agenda (MC12 Interviews, 2013-2014).

Study respondents further noted that the UWI was predicated on a regional outlook and is one of the last remaining institutions that were established during federation. As a result, its mandate was reinforced by CARICOM which has the objective of trying to bring about regional citizenship and the politicization of regionalization, which was alluded to earlier (OC5 and OC9 Interviews, 2013-2014). As one respondent noted,

my understanding of the UWI as a regional university is first and foremost it is here to serve the communities of the region, the 17 or so countries that are, you know, we were set up to serve. The fact that we are providing a high level of manpower development for them; the fact that we are responsive to their needs; the extent to which we are researching problems that affect them; that's why we are a regional university (MC 6 Interviews, 2013-2014).

Respondents also noted that the regional nature of the UWI lies in the fact that it is currently owned by the contributing countries within CARICOM. It is not owned by a single government or

\textsuperscript{44} Mission: “To advance education and create knowledge through excellence in teaching, research, innovation, public service, intellectual leadership and outreach in order to support the inclusive (social, economic, political, cultural, environmental) development of the Caribbean region and beyond” (\textit{UWI, Annual Report 2011/2012}, p. inside cover).

\textsuperscript{45} Vision: “By 2017, the University will be globally recognised as a regionally integrated, innovative, internationally competitive university, deeply rooted in all aspects of Caribbean development and committed to serving the diverse people of the region and beyond” (\textit{UWI Annual Report 2011/2012}, p. inside cover).

\textsuperscript{46} There was an unsuccessful attempt to follow-up with this participant to provide more details about the ‘seven’ institutions.
territory in the English-speaking Caribbean. Instead, it is owned by CARICOM, which are the contributing territories. Study informants pointed to the organizational and reporting structure as yet another example of the regionalization of the UWI. That is, at the University of the West Indies there is a Chancellor and Vice Chancellor. The former, Dr. George Alleyne, though the highest ranking official at the UWI has a largely ceremonial role. On the other hand, the Vice Chancellor, Dr. Nigel Harris, runs the UWI, operationally. In turn, the Vice Chancellor (VC) reports to the CARICOM Heads of Government. The VC has a ‘cabinet’ called the University Council. Reporting to the VC are the four campus principals who are also part of the group of eight Pro-Vice Chancellors at the UWI. They all report to the University Council.

Consequently, the UWI is run by boards and authorities. At each campus there is also a Council comprised of members of faculty, governments and alumni that decide on the direction of the UWI (MC15 and MC1, Interviews, 2013-2014).

As a regional institution, respondents maintained that the UWI was the first port of call for governments. Additionally, UWI researchers and staff sit on CARICOM committees; assess regional needs; provide policy advice; and on occasion, would critique CARICOM policy or lack thereof. Additionally, the Vice Chancellor and senior staff attend the Heads of Government meetings and at times requests from CARICOM come to the UWI, through the Vice Chancellor’s Office, from the CARICOM Secretary General/ Secretariat. Sometimes panels are established to create discussions, collate and summarize findings from UWI staff and sent back to CARICOM, especially on policy issues. Interview participants provided an example of the response from the UWI academic community when the Dominican Republic passed a law to deport the descendants of Haitian immigrants born in the former territory. They noted that a number of professors from the UWI wrote an open letter to CARICOM condemning the actions as a violation. As well, this provoked an immediate response from Prime Minster Kamla Persad-Bissessar and Dr. Ralph Gonzalves from Trinidad and St. Vincent and the Grenadines,

---

47 VC Harris stepped down in April 2015. Dr. Hilary Beckles, the Pro-Vice Chancellor and Principal at the Cave Hill Campus, has been appointed as the new Vice Chancellor (The University of the West Indies - Sir Hilary Beckles to serve as next Vice-Chancellor of The UWI, 2014, September 11, retrieved 2015 from [http://www.mona.uwi.edu/marcom/newsroom/entry/5832](http://www.mona.uwi.edu/marcom/newsroom/entry/5832)).

48 The Pro-Vice Chancellors are: PVC and Principal, St Augustine Campus; PVC and Principal, Cave Hill Campus; PVC and Principal, Mona Campus; PVC and Principal, Open Campus; PVC, Board of Graduate Studies; PVC Board of Undergraduate Studies; PVC Research and PVC Planning and Development

49 General elections were held in Trinidad and Tobago in September 7, 2015. Dr. Keith Rowley of the People’s National Party was elected as the new Prime Minister of Trinidad and Tobago, replacing Kamla Persad-Bissessar (http://www.reuters.com/article/2015/09/09/us-trinidadtobago-election-idUSKCN0R92JS20150909).
respectively, corroborating the views espoused by the UWI professors/scholars. In it, they noted that if the Dominican Republic wanted to pursue membership in the Caribbean Community, its current actions were in contravention to CARICOM conventions, and were also a direct violation of international law. Study respondents noted that as the oldest university in the Commonwealth Caribbean, the UWI was therefore looked upon for leadership (MC13 and MC12, Interviews, 2013-2014).

UWI structure and governance were not the only articulations of regionalization and regionalism expressed by study participants. They also pointed to the co-mingling of different ethnicities and cultures from across the Caribbean, congregating in the main campus countries, as giving rise to this synergy. Accordingly, a review of the data collected revealed that eighty percent of participants in this study had obtained one or more of their academic credentials from the UWI. Many of them spoke very fondly of their interactions with other Caribbean nationals, and the long term friendships that resulted. As one research respondent observed,

...ties, marriages, friendships emerged and families created when students from across the English-speaking Caribbean coalesced at the institution...Persons attending the other main campuses were exposed to other young West Indian academics, which highlighted to them their similarities without obscuring their differences. They gained an appreciation for cultures and countries across the region and returned home to their countries of origin with a sense of regionalism (OC4 Interviews, 2013-2014).

Furthermore, regionality within and of the UWI was also seen to be reflected in the staffing choices of the institution. Study participants noted that faculty and staff were drawn from the wider Caribbean region. For example, there were professors and staff of Jamaican nationality working and residing at St. Augustine, Trinidad. Similar trends could be found at all of the other campuses. As well, within the UWI, there were regional decision-making procedures and systems, some more efficient than others, operating at the University. There are regional meetings where staff met regularly, for example, although with the advancement of technology, there is a growing reliance on technology to facilitate this interaction. As well, the creation of University Centre – the Vice Chancellery and the separation of the Vice Chancellor’s role from that of the Mona Campus Principal, were other examples mentioned, that pointed to the promotion of regionalization by the UWI (MC14 and OC5 Interviews, 2013-2014). As one study informant noted,

...well you know if you look at the University of the West Indies as a very good example of the intent to utilize the institution of higher learning to bring about the kind of regionalization that we are talking about here, you know. I can think that you can say that there are a few institutions of regionalization in the Caribbean or in the West Indies and one of which is the University of the West Indies, right, the second is the West Indies Cricket Team, right. I would say the third would be our culture, music, our carnivals, festivals and that sort of thing,
yes. But if you look at these things as manifestations of regionalism, the ideal type of regionalism. I think you have a really good sense that higher education could really play a good role here (MC13 Interviews, 2013-2014).

There were some interesting discussions among study participants about the current state of regionalism and the regionality of the University of the West Indies. Participants observed that in 2010, the Student Guild Committee at the UWI wrote to the Vice Chancellor “that the true essence of the University of the West Indies was being eroded and that the notion of ‘West Indies’ needed to be restored back into the University” (MC1 Interview, 2013-2014). This correspondence was taken very seriously, and led to the creation of A Taskforce on Achieving a More Regional University of the West Indies. The Taskforce was asked to explore what a more true regional University of the West Indies would look like; what features currently existed that were representative of the UWI’s regional character; and to propose measures that the University could take to bridge those gaps (MC1 Interviews, 2013-2014).

In the ‘Taskforce Report’ it was noted that greater efforts were needed to outreach into the other contributing countries, in particular the Eastern Caribbean. At that time, and at the time of the interviews for this study, their enrolment in the UWI across the main campuses was approximately 11% (See Appendix 3), while back in the 60’s and 70’s were much higher at the Mona campus for example. At the Cave Hill Campus it was noted that particular efforts were being made to outreach into the Eastern Caribbean and to offer incentives such as scholarships. Consequently, the percentage of non-Barbadians at the campus was estimated at 15%. They noted that although the replication of the campuses will continue in response to national demands for training, a greater integration of the faculties was needed. Consequently, in the Taskforce Report, one of the recommendations was the creation of common course curricula across the campuses. Also arising from the Report was the need to curtail the growing autonomy of the main campuses (MC1, Interviews, 2013-2014; Meeks Task Force Report, 2011).

One of the things that came out was the feeling that the UWI governance relationship, gave too much power to the individual campuses and not enough to the Centre. And therefore we needed to recalibrate that power. However, at the same time there was a group that said that while generally speaking power had shifted to the campuses and the campuses had become more autonomous, that there were important initiatives that were

---

50 West Indies was a term coined by Christopher Columbus when he sailed to the Caribbean and thought he had read the Far East. The term is still widely used today to especially be inclusive of Guyana, who shares a colonial history with the Caribbean, although its physical location is South America.
running against this current, moving in the direction of greater integration and greater regionalism (MC1 Interviews, 2013 - 2014).

There was a sense from respondents, and from the Meeks Taskforce Report, that the regionality of the UWI was being eroded by centrifugal forces and nationalistic ideals (p. 8). This was because too many of the main campus nationals were in attendance at the UWI and this was also a contributing factor to the breakdown of regionality. On the other hand, there were other respondents who felt that the reliance on the UWI to promote regionalism was seen to be too arduous a task to be placed upon the institution.

So I think you have put a large burden on education, when you look at the political level. You look at the level of CARICOM at what is happening and not happening in terms of the free movement of people, in terms of the Caribbean Court of Justice, in terms of regional institutions that function or not function at the different levels and whether we’re going to have a single currency. We can’t even agree on that. We don’t even have a transport system between us; a maritime transportation system between us. So you have to look at these other things, these are all the forces which create or how would I put it, are conducive to or detract from our sense of regionalism. We are of a schizoid nature in the Caribbean. We speak regionalism and we to act to our selfish ends when it is convenient, happily, happily. At the political level I have been on the other side as you put it where, Caribbean countries have voted together in block on things that are of the regional interest. So it is not an either or, it’s a case by case, all of the above, selfish me and collective us. So you know it’s hard to draw this sort of a black and white bifurcated notion that you speak about. I know that is the University response or quote and quote to regionalism in the Caribbean (MC9 Interviews, 2013-2014).

At the same time, there were study respondents who felt that higher education, and in particular the UWI had a role to play in regionalization and in the promotion of regionalism, leading to Caribbean integration. However, current events and circumstances were making this difficult.

Here is what one respondent had to say:

Higher education in and of itself is not the way to do it. If you have a sort of conception of what you want and then the end of the day, higher education can be utilized as an instrument to bring you towards that end goal. Additionally, if you have the end goal is integration, then it would make sense to have for example students from Barbados studying agriculture in Trinidad and students from Trinidad going to Barbados to study law and students from you know Guyana, going to Jamaica to study medicine or something like this. In other words there would be the division of labour in such a way that it would allow a mingling of our young people, with each other from various countries in the Caribbean. That itself would bring about the kind of integration that you would expect in the long run to work (MC13 Interviews, 2013-2014).

However, this was no longer practical. Instead there were study participants who felt that a new era had arrived and that tertiary education had sufficiently broadened and was now more widely distributed and was still in need of expansion. Consequently,
the fact that more Jamaicans are studying here and more Jamaicans are studying in Trinidad and more Barbadians are studying in Cave Hill is not necessarily reflective of the breakdown of the regional structure and mission of the University, but rather it is a response to economic and social forces. Now students can stay at home, you know and get their work done, you know. So we have to find other ways in which we recognize regionality (MC6 Interviews, 2013 - 2014).

On the other hand, for some study respondents, there was a sense that regionality had been weakened during the last two decades (MC1, MC6 and MC9 Interviews, 2013 - 2014). However as other study participants noted, corrective actions were being taken by Vice Chancellor Harris. They noted that he recognized the need to have ‘access and coherence,’ and created the Open Campus as a response to the “centrifugal forces that were tearing the University apart” (MC9 and MC1, Interviews, 2013-2014). Accordingly, study participants noted that

while it was recognized that one of the reasons why the campuses had become more divided is that, is that campus based faculties were being replicated, so in other words, like one time medicine had been at Mona, Engineering at St. Augustine; Law at Cave Hill, now medicine was on all three campuses; engineering at Mona and St. Augustine; Law is now at Cave Hill, Mona and St. Augustine. While these things were not going to change, in other words, we’re not going to return to one faculty or faculties on only a single campus, and while these national demands for training in the countries will continue, there was a need for greater integration of the faculties, through common curriculum across all campuses; so in many instances now the way history is taught at Mona is not necessarily the same as the way it’s taught at St. Augustine or Cave Hill and this applies across the disciplines (MC1 Interviews, 2013-2014).

Clearly reflected here were some of the tensions inherent in achieving a more regional University of the West Indies. Accordingly, inherent in the advancement of regionalization were numerous challenges.

The promotion of regionalism was also seen to emerge from the programs offered by the UWI. Participants noted that the UWI is making a valiant effort to develop and promote programs that have a regional flavour. These include sports and cultural programs such as a Caribbean Poetry course offered through the Single Virtual University Space to Caribbean writers and other interested persons, who are not necessarily students at the UWI. Added to that, a course on Caribbean Civilization was made mandatory for students in many of the faculties, (except in engineering and medicine) as another way to promote regionalism. Furthermore, as a regional university, a concerted effort was made so that, regardless of discipline, both in the formal curricula and in co-curricula activities, helping students to understand the region where they lived was a component of the learning taking place at the UWI. As well, knowledge transfer, the application of education to industry needs in the region,
such as energy, manufacturing, and tourism, was described as being aimed at strengthening these industries and the regional economies, by study participants (OC7, OC3, MC12, OC4 and OC5 Interviews, 2013-2014). Consequently, regionalization was also described as a mechanism for engaging small island states of the Caribbean in sharing knowledge, sharing information and building capacity together. And this is done with the express purpose of certain outcomes. On the one hand ensuring that as a region there is a sense of unity; there’s a sense of harmony, or harmonization; a sense of cooperation and an agenda of facilitating access to opportunity for all. These are very lofty goals for a region to achieve, where in many instances, states are scrambling for survival and so they tend to be, to move to nationalistic agendas (MC12, Interviews, 2013-2014).

Tensions between regionalism and nationalism have gained a foothold within the Anglophone Caribbean. As was mentioned above, main campus countries have pushed for greater autonomy, while the underserved/Non-Campus Countries wanted greater attention from the UWI to support their developing economies. Throughout the decades, the UWI’s various attempts at restructuring were in an effort to find the right balance between these two forces. These pressures have led some to acknowledge that the UWI was not just a regional institution, but that it was quasi-national. Thus the links between education and economic advancement were evident in the discussions with respondents, as the material conditions – lack of resources, small industries and lower levels of technology in these economies, created challenges for the Anglophone Caribbean’s participation in the global economy – as a region and as individual nation states. Therefore, there was and still is contestation by individual governments, for allegiance from the University, for their respective economies.

Despite its institutional autonomy, both the economic needs of the University and that of the respective national governments that financially support it have resulted in agenda setting, and attempts to align education and labour market needs. Yet the allocation of the operating budget for the UWI was a regional process – involving all the members of the contributing states. However, disparities in the respective economic situations of individual countries meant that main campus countries were advancing the funding, and the agreement to pay to the UWI what was owed, by the other contributing countries, was left as an honour system. Although the CARICOM treaty has been established since 1973 – there were no known mechanisms for sanctions or collection strategies for debts owing to the UWI. Further exacerbating this problem was that financing from the contributing countries were based on student enrolment numbers. Therefore, as we have seen in Appendix three, statistics from 2006 to 2012 revealed that 89% to 95% percent of students at the main campuses were from the host countries. This has created a power imbalance. Therefore, as the larger budget contributors, main campus countries continue to maintain the monopoly over the University’s agenda, driven by their own
national needs. Thus the inequalities between the larger main campus countries and the small islands of the OECS for example, have remained. Consequently, many of the economies of the smaller island territories have remained underdeveloped. As well, another consequence has been the replication of faculties, to meet the specific needs of the various main campus countries. These newly created faculties were managed by different administrators. The exception is the Faculty of Medicine, which has one dean for all three campuses.

The above has also affected curriculum development strategies across the UWI. While there have been attempts to make the course on Caribbean Civilization mandatory for most students across the campuses, there were exceptions to those rules. This course was not compulsory for students in the medical and science faculties. The hope was that education and the regional higher education institution, in that of the UWI would help to curb much of the existing fragmentation in the regionalization project, in the sub-region, by promoting regionalism within its academic programming. However, current approaches only compound the problem.

As was discussed in chapter two, the Caribbean and the Anglophone Caribbean are not homogenous entities. Despite its shared history and culture, there are socio-cultural and socio-economic dissimilarities, which have not created mutually reinforcing racial cleavages, but class consciousness. These require interrogation within the education process, in order to better promote and nurture growth in cultural understanding. Education can be one of the vehicles for cultural transmission, as understandings of histories and cultures are fundamental to the regionalization process.

At the same time, the UWI draws its strategic direction from CARICOM. As well, within its organizational structure, there was representation from CARICOM member states on University Council and the University Grants Committees, just to name a few- all of which pointed to its regionality. Additionally, University staff reported to CARICOM on issues affecting regional development and participated in its various sub-committees. Added to that, academic staff and faculty have been able to exercise institutional autonomy around issues of pertinence, regionally and internationally. These have been important instruments for regionalization.

As stakeholders within the UWI, students have also been able to voice their concerns and criticisms, when it became apparent that it was disintegrating into autonomous national institutions. Yet with advancements in technology, students were now able to remain in their respective countries to pursue higher education through the Open Campus. Although students from across the Anglophone Caribbean were still congregating in main campus countries, the physical and social intermingling which resulted when relatively large numbers of students moved across the region to pursue higher education at the UWI main campuses, have been
affected by advances in technology. There have also been changes to the student demographic, as more mature students - working adults with families - want an education, but were and are unwilling to leave their respective jurisdictions. The new regionalism will therefore need to harness the opportunities provided through technology in information management and communication dissemination. As well, as a source/ repository for all things Caribbean, the UWI will have to make these more readily available.

J. Knight, (November 2013) proposed three approaches to higher education regionalization. However, within the context of the Anglophone Caribbean, the process of regionalization can be said to have taken on functional, organizational and political dimensions. In short, they provided both a reason for regionalization and a process for how it was being conducted. As was discussed, CARICOM was the primary organizational structure that gave birth to other sub-structures in that of CXC for example. While the emergence of the UWI predated CARICOM, as regional organizations, both the UWI and CXC have been entrenched as mechanisms for functional cooperation in education. However, the driving forces behind CARICOM were politically and economically motivated. Consequently, the regional achievements of the UWI were touted as part of the progress achieved in regionalization and higher education regionalization within the Anglophone Caribbean.

4.4 Benefits, Challenges and Milestones

As part of the study, participants were asked questions on the benefits and challenges of regionalization and to describe what milestones had been achieved by the UWI to date, with regards to the regionalization of higher education by the UWI. The answers to these questions were varied. Some examples of why the UWI was considered a regional institution included the fact that the UWI created opportunities for women in the region. This was also viewed as a significant achievement/milestone in regionalization.

The idea was to provide a local institution that could take on board the needs of the region and educate the region’s people who would more interestingly, in a scenario where you had families sending out their boys perhaps, but sort of not addressing education for the girls, who in the sort of backward and underlying thinking, should be homemakers and that kind of thing. The University of the West Indies showed tremendous, or the founding fathers like Sherlock and so on, showed tremendous

51 The specific questions asked during the interviews were, what are some of the benefits and challenges of trying to achieve the regionalization of higher education in the English-speaking Caribbean? Describe some of the undertakings by the UWI to promote the regionalization of higher education in the English-speaking Caribbean. What milestones have been achieved to-date?
foresight by saying that we needed an institution to also address the imbalance and to 
educate our women. Honestly, at the time they said that, I don’t think that they had 
anticipated that they would have taken that matter so seriously, because right now in 
almost every faculty, perhaps except in engineering, you have 80% to 20% proportion in 
favour of women, and in some faculties like humanities its probably more like 85% to 
86% and 14%, you know. But the idea was that we would be all over the Caribbean and 
be a credible University (OC8 Interviews, 2013-2014).

Within the UWI itself the presence of its institutes across the campuses, such as 
SALISES (Sir Arthur Lewis Institute for Social and Economic Studies), Gender and 
Development Studies, and International Relations, all of which are not located within faculties, 
were noted as achievements of regionality. Respondents noted that these institutes have helped 
to promote interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary research, which were seen as highly 
revolutionary and innovative for Caribbean development. Added to that, the creation of a single 
dean for all of the faculties of medicine across the campuses was noted as another important 
example by study participants (MC1 and OC9 Interviews, 2013-2014).

Other milestones that were regarded by participants as reflective of regionalism, 
regionality and regionalization at the UWI included the creation of a Single Virtual University 
Space. This is an online platform for linking students to courses across the UWI. As one 
interviewee noted, 

the Single Virtual University Space is rooted in the current strategic plan. It says that 
by 2017 the University will be recognised as a regionally integrated, innovative, 
internationally competitive university, deeply rooted in all aspects of Caribbean 
development and committed to serving the diverse people of the region and beyond. So 
this is where the Single Virtual University Space is coming to facilitate the regional 
needs. But also we work closely with governments in the region, to make sure that the 
development needs of particular countries are addressed through the programs that UWI 
offer. This is because there is now a more strong commitment from the University in this 
era to make sure that the programs we offer are programs that are relevant to the 
region. And by saying that it is, is not to say we’re excluding universal education or that

52 “The Single Virtual University Space (SVUS), an initiative of Vice Chancellor Professor E. Nigel Harris. 
Through the SVUS, The UWI is answering the call of regional governments for increased access to UWI’s 
programmes, through technology and resource sharing among the campuses…SVUS is a cyber-platform 
that will enable students anywhere in the region to access the best teaching/learning resources from any 
of the four campuses of The University of The West Indies utilising video-streaming and related 
modalities. Technology will power a seamless SVUS environment and promote greater regional 
integration by sharing more courses across campuses and allowing access to larger numbers of students 
in the Caribbean's island-nations. It will serve to enhance research collaboration and effectiveness along 
with opportunities for international linkages” (UWI, Campus News- Open Campus-Cobley to Lead SVUS, 
Online; UWI, September 18, 2013, retrieved March 2015, from http://www.open.uwi.edu/news/francis-
cooley-lead-single-virtual-university-space).
our programs are universal and relevant…. Through Single Virtual University Space we are able to share resources; staff lectures; videoconferencing expertise…. So if you look at the range of postgraduate programs that the University has on let’s say for the last three or four years you will see quite a strong focus in areas that are of need in the Caribbean. So you find in Tourism… Energy efficiency… Energy Sustainability…or something like that so there are a lot of those programs that are coming on stream. They didn’t just happen you know, just out of the blue. They’ve come out because of the University’s commitment to ensure that the programs that they are offering are responding to developmental needs of the Caribbean (OC3 Interviews, 2013-2014).

Respondents also pointed to the examples of course offerings in the Masters program in International Relations. Although the program is located at the St. Augustine Campus, students at the Cave Hill who are interested in this program can access the courses through the Single Virtual University Space, synchronously and asynchronously. Added to that, students in medicine, through a pilot with the Hugh Wynter Fertility Management Unit at Mona, were able to telecast / video-conference an intrauterine operation - a laparoscopy - with lecturers at Mona explaining those procedures to students at the Cave Hill and St. Augustine campuses. This was viewed as cost efficient; of benefit to students regionally; and as examples of the regional efforts being undertaken by and at the UWI (MC13 and OC3 Interviews, 2013-2014).

The UWI’s survival as one of the few vestiges of ‘federation’ and its continued expansion were also touted as another significant achievement of regionality. Its regionality was also seen as the reason that the UWI has been protected from undue influence by individual governments.

Its attempts to diversify its funding sources, by seeking out commercial ventures and partnerships with the private sector in the region, in order to diminish its reliance on government supports, which have been on the decline, were also cited as achievements. Furthermore, the expansion of the law and medical schools and the growing emphasis on international student recruitment in medicine, were also cited as revenue generation initiatives for UWI to lessen its dependence on the governments of the contributing territories. Additionally, the processes for the approval of fee structures; the course/ curriculum development and review processes; staffing appointments were all regional processes that were cited as examples by study participants (MC1, MC6, MC13 and MC14 Interviews, 2013-2014).

Additionally, study participants noted that the establishment of the Open Campus itself was indeed a milestone for the University of the West Indies, as it was a particular response by the UWI to the governments in the underserved/ Non-Campus Countries. The donation of 88 acres of land, as a Deed of Gift, given by the Grenadian government for the construction of a larger physical Open Campus site was cited as another achievement. Study respondents in Grenada noted that the Open Campus location in the town of St. George had become
inadequate, due to the increasing enrolment and the ICT needs for operating the Open Campus. Participants noted that land was also given to the UWI in Chaguanas, Trinidad, by that country’s government (OC10 Interviews, 2013-2014; The University of the West Indies Open Campus Report, 2011-2012, p. 40).

The growing enrolment of students attending the Open Campus was yet another achievement. (See Appendix 3). Participants in Grenada noted the growth in students registered in the Open Campus grew from 31 in 2008 to over 350, by the end of 2013 (OC10 Interviews, 2013-2014). Another participant noted “larger and larger numbers are taking advantage of the Open Campus. Students can now afford the Open Campus and are taking advantage. There is now a UWI graduation in some of the non-campus countries” which previously had never happened (OC4 Interviews, 2013-2014). However, the participation of students in the Open Campus from the UWI-14 countries was significantly lower than those attending in Open Campus locations in the islands of Trinidad, Jamaica and Barbados. (See Appendix 3). As previously mentioned, issues of matriculation, funding and ICT access, all continue to be hindrances.

The National Bank of Dominica, the Republic Bank of Grenada and other private sector business organizations across the region provided funding for scholarships to Open Campus students, in addition to sponsoring lecture series, supporting training and other initiatives spearheaded by the Open Campus (The University of the West Indies Open Campus Report, 2011-2012, p. 40-41; Interviews, 2013-2014). This ability to attract diversified sources of funding was seen as an achievement for the UWI. However, the UWI’s inability to attract substantive donations from its alumni was seen as a setback to harnessing the potential of this stakeholder group (MC12 Interviews, 2013-2014).

Throughout this chapter, regionalism and regionalization at the UWI was explored. The benefits and challenges of regionalization have been described by participants who also identified the milestones achieved by the institution since receiving its ‘charter’ in 1962. They confirmed that historically, from its inception, the UWI institution and its connections to West Indies Federation and CARICOM formed the basis for its regionality. Its resulting governance and accountability structure, past and present is reflective of its regionality. Therefore, much has been accomplished regionally by the UWI. The steady growth of students participating in the regional university was proof that it has achieved some success. Furthermore, the human resource output from the Institution for the economies of the Anglophone Caribbean would certainly facilitate the free movement of labour across the sub-region, envisioned by CARICOM. Additionally, as was discussed, many of the Institution’s graduates served in the regional
bureaucracies and many are current and past prime ministers of governments within the Anglophone Caribbean.

The UWI was also able to develop strong intellectual traditions that held regional governments accountable; have exercised institutional autonomy, while its professoriate has demonstrated its academic freedom. At the same time, this intellectual class was also called upon for advice and analysis in global/ international and regional affairs, through active participation in CARICOM. The UWI has therefore become regional in scope, given its presence in and responsiveness to issues affecting the Anglophone Caribbean.

Despite these significant achievements by the UWI, the Non-Campus Countries/ other contributing countries were still being adversely affected by the limited presence of the University in their various jurisdictions. They and many of the UWI’s constituents continue to raise concerns about its stronger allegiances to the main campus countries. As was discussed, enrolment at the UWI was being dominated by students from the main campus countries. Accordingly, nationalistic tendencies and centrifugal forces were rendering the UWI quasi-national, as opposed to being fully regional. Consequently, equity in access remained a challenge, particularly for students from the Non-Campus Countries/ other contributing territories. Since education is a means for obtaining social mobility, limited access was exacerbating cleavages, by furthering the class disparities among individuals and across countries within the Anglophone Caribbean - the haves and have not-populations and governments. This exclusivity of access to higher education only served to promote elitism and fragmentation, between the larger and small contributing countries within the sub-region - an inhibitor to regionalization.

The UWI must therefore make itself more visible and accessible, particularly in the under-served territories/ other contributing territories. Central to this, would be strengthening its relationship with secondary and postsecondary sectors within the region, and conducting marketing and outreach to students in those systems. The UWI must make a concerted effort to inform regional students about the opportunities and admission requirement for entrance into the UWI. As well, regional governments need to make higher education a priority and align their economic development needs with higher education attainment goals – making human capital gains, which could be obtained from the UWI advantageous to them. Therefore, student loans and grants programs are desperately needed or other forms of mutual financial arrangements, to make higher education more accessible. For its part, the UWI created a fourth virtual campus with physical locations, in all of the contributing territories. The Open Campus, as it is called, is the focus of the next chapter. Non-Campus Countries/ other contributing territories must
capitalize on the presence of the Open Campus, by demanding the expansion of programmatic options, so that its advantages can be fully realized by the members of their respective populations and their economies.

In conclusion, this study examined the challenges faced by the regional university when it interfaced with internationalization in the context of neoliberalism and globalization. As we have seen throughout this chapter, what is emerging is a contestation between the national and regional. That is, centripetal and centrifugal forces at the national and regional levels are impacting the University of the West Indies’ regionalization mandate. For while the UWI has expanded as a multi-campus facility for example, and there is a regional financing process, whereby the seventeen contributing countries provide operational funding the UWI; and a centralized University Grants Committee has been established to manage that process; Campus Councils were also created, giving the main campuses greater autonomy over the financing arrangements. Neoliberal imperatives, such as the need for revenue, have also led to the replication of faculties across the main campuses. That is medicine, law and engineering. These are among the more expensive professional programs to operate. Furthermore, with the exception of the medical faculty which has a single dean for all campuses, these departments have their own campus structures and are operating as national rather than regional programs. There is also no centralized process for curricula development at the regional level, across the UWI. Instead, each campus has its own curricula development process. These examples illustrate the continued tensions occurring between the national and regional. Added to that, with a growing number of students from the main campuses participating in higher education at the UWI, bringing in much needed revenues, national governments in the jurisdictions of the main campuses are better positioned to influence the University, seriously jeopardizing the regionalization mandate of the UWI, in its ability to also provide adequate service to the other contributing countries. As was previously discussed in this chapter, when Trinidad needed engineers for its oil and gas exploration, it provided funding to establish this faculty at the St. Augustine Campus. The replication of faculties in the main campus countries also created internal competition for regional students.

On the other hand, at the international level, during colonization and during the post-colonial era, Britain continued to push for federated states and was instrumental in the creation of federated/ regional universities, globally. Two such institutions have survived, in that of the University of the West Indies and the University of the South Pacific. The British influence on the UWI is therefore deeply entrenched within its organizational structure. As discussed in chapter two, the UWI emerged as an isomorphic mimetic structure, as an apprentice of the University of
London. Therefore, in its recommendations, the Moyne Commission, which was appointed by the colonial administration of the time, offered suggestions in their final report that gave full control to the Colonial Government to manage the process of higher education development in the British West Indies.
CHAPTER FIVE – DATA ANALYSIS
Epitomizing Regionality -The Open Campus

The Open Campus embodies the whole idea of regionalism; it is the glue that adheres the Caribbean, keeping it together; not everyone could cross the waters to go and study, and so we needed to cater to the underserved; as the Open Campus was designed to expand the University’s offerings and conduct outreach (OC8 Interviews, 2013-2014).

Much of the discussions on the regionality of the UWI and its efforts to advance the goals of regional integration (regionalization) and the regionalization of higher education in the English-speaking Caribbean, mentioned the Open Campus. Accordingly, in addition to targeting participants whose work was aligned to regionalization and internationalization at the University of the West Indies, the research also solicited interviews with Open Campus staff located in the main campus countries. In addition to the main campus countries, Grenada was also chosen as an interview site, because of my own background and knowledge of the presence of the University of the West Indies Open Campus in that locale.

While the history of the Open Campus was alluded to in many of the interviews, it was the exploration of the Open Campus and Commission Reports, which provided much of the historical details. I thought it was important to first trace the historical development of the Open Campus, to set the tone and provide explanations for the context, which led to the discussions of regionalization with study respondents. When asked questions about the regionality (regional nature) of the University of the West Indies (UWI), Open Campus participants were most likely to speak of the achievements and work of this particular campus. There were ten study participants who were current or former members of staff at the Open Campus. (See Table 1.1 in chapter 3).

A number of sub-themes arose out of these discussions. The evolution of the Open Campus, including its former iteration under the Board of Non-Campus Countries and Distance Education; its outreach functions and efforts through the Tertiary Level Institutions Unit (TLIU) and the External Relations and Intra/Inter-Institutional Relationships (ERIIC) unit to regionalize higher education; the specific work and achievements/ milestones of the Open Campus in promoting the regionality of the wider UWI institution; the structure of the Open Campus;

53 OC refers to Open Campus study participants and MC to Main Campus study respondents.
accreditation and quality assurance; the cultural studies unit; and the research work of/ in/ and at the Open Campus, were a major focus of discussion in the interviews. Additionally, the Open Campus Reports from 2007 to 2013 were also reviewed and consulted for data. Salient highlights, especially those pieces of evidence, which served to corroborate what was discussed in the interviews, were gleaned from this documentary evidence, and used in the study. At times, the Open Campus web-pages were also used to verify information received from study participants. Both the regional nature of the Open Campus and its attempts to regionalize higher education, were aimed at promoting regional integration (regionalization) in the Anglophone Caribbean.

The chapter will begin with a discussion of the evolution of distance education at the UWI, including the formation of partnerships in distance technology with US based organizations, institutions of learning and funders. As distance technology matured, the UWI went through a number of organizational changes, including the creation of University of the West Indies Distance Teaching Experiment/ Enterprise and the Board of Non-Campus Countries and Distance Education, to extend the service of the University into all of the contributing countries that financially supported it. However, the efforts to support the underserved territories continued to be plagued by challenges, and in response, the UWI created a fourth online entity called the Open Campus. Well aware of its regional mandate, each phase of restructuring by the UWI was aimed finding the right balance between national autonomy and the regionalization of the Anglophone Caribbean. What will also be discussed in this chapter is the rise in importance of quality assurance. Its specific connections to distance education will also be a focus here. The chapter will also address teacher education programs at the UWI, particularly those managed by the Open Campus. Finally, it will culminate with discussions about the milestones achieved by the Open Campus and the benefits and challenges of regionalization for the English-speaking Caribbean.

5.1 The Evolution of Distance Education at the UWI

Prior to the opening of the University College of the West Indies in 1948, the founders of the University made the decision to create the Department of Extra Mural Studies in 1945. The idea was to set up centres in the Non-Campus Countries to ensure the presence of the University in the other contributing territories (Cobley, 2000, p. 15). Thus in recognition of the sub-region’s geography, the Department of Extra Mural Studies was established and staffed with a high profile office and distinguished officer, and had its initial headquarters in Jamaica. Sir Phillip Sherlock, a former member of the Irvine Committee, was appointed as the University’s
first Director of Extra Mural Studies (Roberts, 2013, p. 2; The University of the West Indies - The Library, 2004-2015, retrieved from http://www.mona.uwi.edu/library/hon-sir-philip-sherlock-om). The establishment of this department was seen as essential to the concept of being a regional university. Fourteen islands were initially part of that vision. Today, the University serves the archipelago of islands located in the Caribbean Sea, which are spread over 3000KM from Belize in the north and Trinidad and Tobago to the south. From the onset, the challenge of distance was present. Over time, the UWI’s Department of Extra-Mural Studies evolved into the School of Continuing Studies. The objective was to make the UWI more responsive to the continuing need for knowledge and skills development in the Non-Campus Countries, in the form of distance education courses, face to face training, short duration courses, professional development, research and other supports (UWIOC, About the Open Campus-History, retrieved from http://www.open.uwi.edu/about/history).

A member of the staff of the Open Campus noted that in the UWI’s 66 year history (at the time of the interviews), the institution had gone through three phases which included a number of changes and attempts at restructuring, aimed at meeting its regional obligations to member states. The first phase was from 1948 to 1962; the second, 1962 to 1984 and the third, 1984 to present. During the 1948 to 1962 period for example, the UWI was able to obtain its independent charter to grant degrees. There were also further attempts at restructuring during this era, all of which had implications for the UWI’s regionalization efforts (OC10 Interviews, 2013-2014).

As was discussed in chapter two, Sir Arthur Lewis became the Principal of Mona from 1958 to 1960 and Vice Chancellor from 1960 to 1963. Under his leadership, the UWI also expanded from the “unitary residential college, with faculties in Medicine, Natural Science and Arts, with special arrangements for Agriculture and Education” (Roberts, 2013, p. 1); and created two additional campuses on the islands of Trinidad and Barbados (Cobley, 2000). With the expansion to three main campuses, the residency requirement for access to the University was also removed, and evening and part-time courses were added at the St. Augustine and Mona Campuses (Cobley, 2000, p. 18). This created greater opportunities for persons from across the Anglophone Caribbean to access higher education. Additionally, “between 1967 and 1972, the number of resident tutors increased from two to seven, and university centres were established in Antigua, Dominica, Grenada, Montserrat, St Kitts, St. Lucia and St. Vincent” (Cobley, 2000, p. 18). Prior to that, distance education centres were located in British Honduras (now Belize), Barbados, Trinidad, British Guiana (now Guyana) and were staffed with resident tutors. As well, during that time, there was one tutor each for the Leeward and Windward
Islands (Roberts, 2013, p. 4; Cobley, 2000, p. 19) Resident tutors were frequently called upon to demonstrate initiative in fundraising and resource development. They were also highly regarded in their respective communities and contributed to the enhancement of outreach activities in their respective countries. However, access to the UWI main campuses by students from the Non-Campus Countries remained limited, at best. The cost of travel, lack of scholarships, lack of access to university level courses and the matriculation requirements of the UWI, were some of the many reasons for the low enrolment (Howe, June 2005; Cobley, 2000; The University of the West Indies, July 1994, p.33). The low number of enrolled students from the underserved countries at the main campuses is a trend that continues today. (See Appendix 3).

As previously discussed in chapter two, by 1972, the Caribbean Examinations Council was established. The Council was initially set up so that students leaving high school in the CARICOM member states would have a standardized qualification that would be recognized regionally and internationally. Later, a summative exam called Caribbean Advanced Proficiency Examination (CAPE) was also added for students leaving the community college and polytechnics [Caribbean Community (CARICOM) Secretariat-CXC, 2011, retrieved June 2015 from http://www.caricom.org/jsp/community/cxc.jsp]. The successful completion of the CXC exams served as a pathway for students seeking entrance into the sub-region’s universities, particularly, the University of the West Indies.

As member states of CARICOM, countries in the English-speaking sub-region shared common policies such as the Caribbean Examinations Council (CXC), as one example of functional cooperation (Greene, 2010, April 19, retrieved from http://www.caricom.org/jsp/pressreleases/press_releases_2010/pres172_10.jsp). CARICOM itself emerged in 1973 when member states within the English-speaking sub-region signed the Treaty to Chaguaramas. The Treaty created the Caribbean Community and Common Market and identified three main objectives, “1) economic integration of the Member States, by the establishment of a Common Market regime; 2) the coordination of foreign policy of Member States; and functional cooperation, including the efficient operation of certain common services and activities for the benefit of its people; and 3) the promotion of greater understanding among its people and the advancement of their social, cultural and technological development” (CARICOM, 2007, retrieved March 9, 2012 from http://www.caricom.org/jsp/community/conference_on_caribbean/experts_forum_rapporteurs_report.jsp). The other areas of functional cooperation mentioned in the articles of the treaty, included education and training (Greene, 2010, April 19, retrieved from http://www.caricom.org/jsp/pressreleases/press_releases_2010/pres172_10.jsp).
Under CARICOM, four main modalities of functional cooperation were identified. They included the, “sharing of policies and programs; dissemination of information; human resource development; and monitoring and evaluation” (CARICOM, 2007, p. 6). Consequently, the development of human resources for the Anglophone Caribbean was assigned as one of the responsibilities within education. Here the University of the West Indies and other regional institutions of learning were tasked with this primary responsibility by member states. To successfully compete in the global environment, CARICOM believed that higher education was central toward achieving this goal (CARICOM, 2007). With this, calls for higher education expansion grew louder, and so the UWI sought to do this through distance education.

Distance teaching was introduced into the Caribbean in the 1940’s when people in the region read for degrees through correspondence courses, mainly from England and the US. That is, they participated in distance learning by correspondence. Distance education is defined as education in which teachers and lecturers are separated by distance. Within the UWI it emerged in 1970, when the University Council endorsed recommendations for further development of its work in the Non-Campus Countries. It was seen as a means of overcoming the barriers of distance, by increasing the educational opportunities, to people across the region, who because of geographic distance and/ or their socio-economic circumstance, would find it difficult to benefit from a university level education. Thus the Distance Education Centres were developed to offer adult education and training, cultural subjects, public lectures and refresher courses. These centres created links to higher education for students in the underserved areas of the Anglophone Caribbean. By 1972, the Radio Unit (REU) at Mona, used radio as a teaching tool for Music and Languages. However, from as early as 1958, the REU produced radio programs which were broadcasted in schools and in teacher education training colleges in Jamaica and throughout the Caribbean. Despite these advancements, students participating in these educational options struggled to gain acceptance in the main campuses (Howe, 2005, p. 89; Roberts, 2013, p. 2-3; Crooks-Johnson, March, 1, 2014, p. 13).

As distance education expanded, study respondents noted that for many years, students in the underserved countries had the option of doing a Challenge Exam to gain access to main campus programs (OC6 Interviews, 2013-2014). In its outreach efforts to the countries that it served, the University of the West Indies expanded its ability to deliver its distance education services. Therefore in 1977, it introduced the Challenge Examination Scheme (UWIOC, About the Open Campus-History retrieved from http://www.open.uwi.edu/about/history; Roberts, 2013, p. 4). Through the Challenge Examination Scheme, students could take exams offered by the Faculty of Social Sciences at Mona for access to degree programs. The Challenge Examination
Scheme was subsequently made available to the other main campuses. Later, the first year of the BSc program was also offered as a ‘Challenge’ option to students in the Non-Campus Countries. The objective was for students to register for and write/ challenge the final exam from a UWI program. Students in the Non-Campus Countries typically registered at the campus nearest to their home country. To further facilitate this, the Extra Mural Studies departments in the form of the School of Continuing Studies on the islands of Antigua and Barbuda, Dominica and St. Lucia assisted in preparing students for these exams in the form of tutoring, local face to face preparation and the actual administration of these exams (Roberts, 2013, p. 5; Howe, June 2005, p. 89). However, this system though available was inadequate. Study respondents complained that very little tutoring and academic support was widely available, and that the preparation provided was inadequate for those students wishing to pursue these exams, in their respective territories (OC5 Interviews, 2013-2014). This was further substantiated by Howe (June 2005) who also noted that the UWI only provided the syllabi, a booklist and access to the library in the Extra Mural Centres, to assist students with preparing for these exams (p. 90). The challenges were also reflected in the low number of students from the contributing territories who were passing these exams and gaining admission to the main campuses. There were also criticisms that spaces were sometimes not made available to successful ‘Challenge Students’ from the Non-Campus Countries, due to strict rules about quotas on the main campuses. In addition, the libraries in the Centres often lacked the required reference materials for exam preparation (Howe, June 2005, p. 90 and 95). In the early 1980’s the UWI sought to make improvements to the Challenge Examination Scheme. There were efforts to provide course materials; there were visits from UWI main campus staff to the Non-Campus Countries, prior to the Challenge Examinations to assist these students; and there was also an attempt to recruit tutors locally, and improve the frequency of communication between staff in both jurisdictions (Howe, June 2005, p. 90). Yet the successful administration of the Challenge Examinations Scheme depended on a great number of persons and bodies dispersed over a wide geographical area [as there was] no single unit which coordinated the programme. As a result, there was confusion among students and Resident Tutors as to whom complaints should be addressed… [The program was described as] uncoordinated, haphazard and at best only incidental to the main campus operations (Howe, June 2005, p. 91).

Consequently, the Challenge Examination Scheme was soon absorbed by the University of the West Indies Distance Teaching Enterprise (UWIOC, About the Open Campus-History, retrieved from http://www.open.uwi.edu/about/history).
As the technology evolved, the continued expansion of distance education came through the University of the West Indies Distance Teaching Experiment/Enterprise (UWIDITE)\(^\text{54}\) in 1983. Former students of the UWI who participated in the study recalled UWIDITE, which began as a partnership and experiment between John Hopkins University in the US, and UWI in 1982. This was a three-year experimental project. It emerged as an initiative between the medical faculties of both universities in the areas of obstetrics and gynecology. Instruction was done via teleconferencing and the project brought distance teaching technology to the UWI (OC4, OC4 and OC7 Interviews, 2013-2014; Roberts, 2013, p. 5, Howe, June 2005, p. 92). As one interviewee noted,

the distance education experiment got us involved because the faculties had to participate in teaching, and that was in a sense the first time that we got any connection with what the School of Continuing Studies or whatever they called themselves, the people that had the centres in the different Non-Campus Countries. I’d say that until the distance education started, we knew nothing about them; basically it was a completely unknown quantity (entity). And I think that as a result of that, not a great deal happened in those places. Some of them did more than others, but it was always very much peripheral to the rest of the University. In Trinidad as you may know, it got to an enormous size, in Jamaica it got pretty big as well. But as a member of the regular University, you wouldn’t really know anything about it, and I think that the main thrust of the proposals in 1996, a lot of it came from the Non-Campus Countries, because they were basically saying well look, the University has been in existence now for forty odd years, what have we got out of it? The three campus countries had gotten a lot out of it, but the Non-Campus Countries really felt that they weren’t really getting anything at all – out of being members and paying whatever they had to pay for, towards the rest of the University (OC5 Interview, 2013-2014).

UWIDITE brought audio-teleconferencing to support the printed learning materials, tutoring support and occasional visits by campus lecturers to the Non-Campus Countries (Roberts, 2013, p. 5). The development of telecommunications technology helped to expand the UWI’s “services in education, outreach and public service in the region” (UWIOC, About the Open Campus-History, retrieved from http://www.open.uwi.edu/about/history). Though not without challenges, it also gave some recognition to the Non-Campus Countries, while helping the UWI to meet some of its outreach obligations. This also changed the nature of distance learning, as faculty, students and administrators had to adapt to changing technology (Roberts, 2013, p. 5). The predecessor to UWIDITE was Project Satellite, which was established in 1978.

\(^\text{54}\) The Caribbean Regional Communications Study (CARCOST) report provided the blueprint for UWIDITE and a three year grant of $600,000 US, for audio equipment for teleconferencing rooms and approximately $220,000 for technical assistance and training was provided through USAID. The project was administered jointly by the UWI and the Washington based Academy for Educational Development (AED) (Howe, June 2005, p.33).
and linked the Mona and Cave Hill Campuses via two NASA (National Aeronautics and Space Administration) satellites (Howe, June 2005, p. 92).

In 1984, under the leadership of Vice Chancellor Ashton Preston (1974-1986) and later Sir Alister McIntyre (1988-1998), the UWI went through another phase of restructuring. This also had implications for the Non-Campus Countries and consequently, distance education. The restructuring began in 1982 when the UWI “sought to resolve the tension between the regional nature of the University and the further devolution of autonomy to the three campuses” (The University of the West Indies, February 2006, p. 3). The three major contributing countries wanted greater involvement in the governance and management of the University, and an abandonment of what was pejoratively known as ‘Mona-centricity.’ At the same time, the Non-Campus Countries also wanted more responsiveness to their development needs. The result was the creation of Campus Councils in each of the main campus countries, and separate Campus Grants Committees to deal with the financing of each of the main campuses. However, a central University Grants Committee and University Council remained. These central University authorities retained custodianship of academic standards and for initiating programs for the specific benefit of the Non-Campus Countries, with assistance from the main campuses. The new structure took effect in 1984. An identifiable entity known as the ‘Centre’ was created with a separate budget, but was dependent on the transfer of funds from the individual campuses. As well, the Office of University Services was established to directly respond to the needs of the Non-Campus Countries (The University of the West Indies, February 2006, p. 3). However, the structure was complicated by the fact that the Vice Chancellor, in addition to being responsible for the Centre, retained the headship of the Mona Campus. In view of this, the final separation of the Centre and the Vice Chancellor from campus responsibility, took place in 1988 with the establishment of the Office of the Principal of the Mona Campus. Accordingly, a distinct institutional structure for the Office of the Vice Chancellor was created (The University of the West Indies, February 2006, p. 3).

As part of the restructuring, the Office of University Services and the Extra Mural Department were grouped together under the School of Continuing Studies. It became a separate autonomous institution with its own leadership. Accordingly, the expected benefits from the pooling of resources were never realized. Instead the impact of these changes on the Non-Campus Countries was further marginality. This decentralization compounded the feelings of neglect among the Non-Campus Countries, as the various main campuses became more inward looking. As a consequence, the Non-Campus Countries felt that they were missing out on the benefits of the presence of the University in their respective jurisdictions, particularly in
the areas of employment and research. Main campus countries like Trinidad also became critical of the UWI for its failure to push a national agenda for science and technology (Howe, June 2005, p. 90, 92). These feelings of marginality were also documented in the Report of the Chancellor's Commission on the Governance of the UWI, July 1994. Here it was noted that “the impact of the 1984 restructuring initiative especially the financial arrangements, which have strengthened the national focus in campus countries, weakened the centre and to a considerable extent, marginalized the Non-Campus Countries” (The University of the West Indies, July 1994, p. 32). The complaint of the Non-Campus Countries was that these financial arrangements shifted the burden of focus by the UWI primarily to the main campus countries, at the expense of support for their economies. As a result, the UWI initiated another Commission, which culminated in a report in July 1994.

The 1994 Commission continued to raise questions about the regionality of the UWI. Therefore, "it was felt that after 10 years with the new structure, it was time to examine how it had functioned, and correct any problems it had engendered" (The University of the West Indies, February 2006, p. 4). As well, by this point, the CARICOM Heads of Government in the Grand Anse Declaration of 1989 emphasized the importance of the regional nature of the UWI, by adopting the resolution in Annex I on Human Resource Development, which enshrined their continued commitment towards the UWI as a regional institution (Caribbean Community-CARICOM-Secretariat, 1989 July, retrieved from http://www.caricom.org/jsp/communications/meetings_statements/grand_anse_declaration.jsp)

Consequently, the goal of the 1994 Commission was to separate the function of management from governance within the UWI. Therefore, it made recommendations for administrative and financial reform, and stressed the importance of enhancing the competitiveness and status of the UWI. Inherent in the changes were recommendations to assign strategic planning; the maintenance of the University’s international reputation; relationships with governments; the needs of the Non-Campus Countries; and funding and regional development to University Centre. The 1994 Commission also recommended the strengthening of University Centre by having regional governments pay directly to it, rather than through the campuses (The University of the West Indies, February 2006, p. 4).

In July 1992, the University Academic Committee had proposed that the UWI become a dual mode institution, as recommended by the Renwick Report55 (Howe, June 2005, p. 99).

55 Given the problems encountered with the administering of distance education, the UWI created a number of mechanisms for feedback. The regular dialogue with campus-based distance education
Following the 1994 Commission Report, the decision was made to transform the UWI into a dual mode institution - providing face to face and distance education. As well, amidst growing concerns from the Non-Campus Countries about their need for higher education supports, to meet growing labour market needs within their various jurisdictions, UWIDEC (University of the West Indies Distance Education Centre) was created in 1996 (Roberts, 2013, p. 4-5).

The 1994 Commission Report also recommended the establishment of three boards, namely the Board of Undergraduate Studies; the Board of Graduate Studies and Research and the Board of Non-Campus Countries and Distance Education. University Council adopted all the above recommendations in 1994, and these took effect in 1996 (The University of the West Indies, February 2006, p. 5). As a result of both the Renwick Report and the 1994 Commission Report, the Distance Education Unit (Centre) was created and headed by a director. The latter reported to a Pro-Vice Chancellor, and was based at the Cave Hill Campus. The Distance Education Centre had three functions which included curricula development; program delivery; and telecommunications networking. Research, evaluation, training, continuing education and special projects were also part of its portfolio. The restructuring also resulted in the Office of Academic Affairs/ University Services being absorbed into the Board for Non-Campus Countries and Distance Education (OC5 Interviews, 2013-2014; Howe, June 2005, p. 101).

The impact of the 1996 restructuring was significant for its attempts to rationalize and consolidate distance education within the UWI. Distance education was seen as a way for the UWI to shed its elitist image, by providing greater enrolment opportunities for students from the Non-Campus Countries. It was also intended to help these islands fulfill their respective national goals, for increasing access to higher education, providing training and retraining for its human resources personnel, thereby bringing about greater equality of educational opportunity. Through distance education, it was also hoped that the UWI would be able to maintain its regional character. An effective distance education program was also urgently needed within the UWI and other local TLIs, to help stave off competition by off-shore institutions entering the Anglophone Caribbean (Howe, June 2005, p. 100). Combining these functions under the Board providers helped to put these challenges into perspective. One of these mechanisms for feedback was the Renwick Report, prepared by William Renwick, Doug Shale and Chandrasekhara Rao, *Appraisal of Distance Education at the University of the West Indies*. The Renwick Report recommended that distance education be incorporated fully as an integral part of UWI teaching delivery- making it a dual mode institution; and that a distance education centre be created to liaise with the faculties, manage and coordinate all distance programs (Howe, June 2005, p. 99).
for Non-Campus Countries and Distance Education was one of the ways the UWI hoped to achieve this coordination mandate.

5.2 Board for Non-Campus Countries and Distance Education (BNCCDE)

One of the proposals coming out of the 1994 Commission Report was the creation of the Board of Non-Campus Countries and Distance Education. The BNCCDE was created in 1996 and had three executing arms, namely the Tertiary Level Institution’s Unit (TLIU); the School of Continuing Studies (SCS) and the Distance Education Centres (DEC). As part of the restructuring which followed in 1996, the Office of University Services which was established in 1984, and which was based in Cave Hill, Barbados, became the TLIU. Consequently, the functions of the Office of University Services were also assigned to the Board of Non-Campus Countries and Distance Education in the same year (OC5, 2013-2014; The University of the West Indies, August 2007, p. 13; The University of the West Indies, February 2006, p. 3; The University of the West Indies, July 1994, p. 32-33).

The Board for Non-Campus Countries and Distance Education appeared in August 1996 (The University of the West Indies-Report of the Chancellor’s Task Force on the Governance of UWI, February 2006, p. 16; The University of the West Indies-Report of the Chancellor’s Commission on Governance of the UWI, July 1994, p. 37). The imperative for its creation was the decreasing enrolment of students from the Non-Campus Countries, which by 1988-1989 was only 5%, compared to 11.8% from the OECS and 21.7% from other territories, in 1960-1961 (Howe, June 2005, p. 101; The University of the West Indies-Report of the Chancellor’s Commission on Governance, July 1994, p. 32). Due to the findings of the 1994 Commission Report it was decided that vigorous efforts were needed to facilitate the participation of these students in greater numbers, which could be achieved by making offerings in their own countries. As part of the 1994 reorganization, the UWI identified a number of divisions and departments within the University that were conducting outreach. They were the School of Continuing Studies, the Office of University Services and the faculties themselves, which offered programs and courses through UWIDITE; the Challenge Examination Scheme; the Institutes of Business at Mona and Cave Hill; the Centre for Management Development at Cave Hill; and national tertiary institutions, such as the Sir Arthur Lewis Community College in St. Lucia, the

56 UWIDITE- University of the West Indies Distance Teaching Experiment, later renamed the University of the West Indies Distance Teaching Enterprise.
Antigua State College and the College of the Bahamas (The University of the West Indies-Report of the Chancellor’s Commission on Governance, July 1994, p. 32-33). One of the recommendations coming out of the 1994 Commission Report was a proposal that the BNCCDE manage the relationships between these various providers, including a rationalization of the structure, and amalgamate direct responsibility for the delivery of effective programs to the Non-Campus Countries under this Board (The University of the West Indies-Report of the Chancellor’s Commission on Governance, July 1994, p. 37). Consequently, the creation of the Board for Non-Campus Countries and Distance Education was an attempt to restore the regionality of the UWI, by giving focus to the underserved territories and communities.

**Figure 2**  Board for Non-Campus Countries and Distance Education, Structure

Statute 29 formally established the Board for Non-Campus Countries and Distance Education, which was given the responsibility to develop and administer the work of the University in the Non-Campus Countries, and also gave the Board responsibility for the delivery of programs in the those countries (Report of the Chancellor’s Task Force on Governance of UWI, February 2006, p. 34). As one study participant noted, “in 1996 they created three boards – the Board of Undergraduate Studies; Board for Graduate Studies and Research; and this other one called to the Board for Non-Campus Countries and Distance Education, which basically was responsible for all the outreach that the University was doing” (OC5 Interviews, 2013 - 2014). The Board for Non-Campus Countries and Distance Education (BNCCDE) was also assigned the responsibilities for setting policies, coordinating and monitoring the work of the School of Continuing Studies, exercising general responsibility for library services, and developing and administering distance education within the contributing countries. The BNCCDE was also responsible for the University Centres established in all the contributing countries. Its statutory mandate was to enhance the UWI’s relations with those countries without
With the establishment of the BNCCDE, notable successes were achieved. They included the growth in enrolment in distance education courses; increased numbers of articulations between UWI and other Tertiary Level Institutions (TLIs); increased numbers of franchising arrangements; country conferences such as forums for research presentations on issues of pertinence to the Caribbean; more professional development opportunities for staff in the TLIs; improvements to distance education facilities; and the recognition of selected TLIs as Colleges of the UWI, just to name a few (The University of the West Indies, February 2006, p. 34). The aim of the BNCCDE was to advance regionalization in the English-speaking Caribbean and higher education regionalization.

Interviewees in Jamaica, Trinidad, Barbados and Grenada all noted that regionalization has been University’s mandate since its inception. That is, meeting the needs of the underserved, in both the campus and Non-Campus Countries, formerly UWI-12 now UWI-14. Improvements in service to the UWI-14 were formerly being called for, from right across the UWI, and from the various governments and peoples within the English-speaking Caribbean (OC Interviews, 2013-2014). The creation of the BNCCDE was an attempt by the UWI to fulfill this objective. It achieved some level of success, as will be articulated in the subsequent paragraphs, by scrutinizing the work of its executing arms; the TLIU, SCS and DEC. However, after a number of years, the Board of Non-Campus Countries and Distance Education (BNCCDE) convened its last meeting in September 2007 on the island of Anguilla (The University of the West Indies, Open Campus Annual Report, 2007-2008, p. 3). However, to better understand higher education regionalization and the UWI’s contributions to regional integration it was important to examine each of the components of the BNCCDE.

5.2.1 The Tertiary Level Institutions Unit (TLIU)

The Board of Non-Campus Countries and Distance Education consisted of three executing arms, the Tertiary Level Institutions Unit (TLIU); the UWI Distance Education Centre (UWIDEC) and the School of Continuing Studies. The Tertiary Level Institutions Unit was designed to help expand the University’s offerings and conduct outreach. The responsibility of the TLIU was to promote, manage and deliver the work of the University, by working with other educational institutions across UWIOC, About the Open Campus-History, retrieved from http://www.open.uwi.edu/about/history and BNCCDE Report, August 28, 2007, p. 1). According to the Open Campus website,

this was a part of the wider effort to make more equitable the services offered to the countries hosting the University’s three main campuses and the other 12 countries, which all maintained the University. The primary objectives of the TLIU were to manage
franchise and articulation arrangements and other collaborative processes between UWI and other regional tertiary level institutions; promote institutional development of regional TLIs, thus enhancing their capacity to deliver portions of or full degree programmes; undertake research designed to improve tertiary level development, design and procure funds [to] manage special projects to address identified tertiary education development needs (UWIOC, About the Open Campus-History, retrieved from http://www.open.uwi.edu/about/history).

The stated mission of the TLIU was to enhance access to tertiary education in the region by linking other regional institutions to the UWI’s resources, programs and services, particularly in the Non-Campus Countries and in the underserved areas of the campus countries. Work with the regional Tertiary Level Institutions (TLIs) was central to this goal. As such, partnerships, joint programs, articulations and franchising arrangements were some of the methods employed in pursuit of this partnership. The UWI’s Tertiary Level Institution’s Unit also worked with CARICOM and the Association of Caribbean Tertiary Institutions (ACTI), to promote and adopt regional accreditation, equivalencies and articulations, as well as quality assurance processes and protocols. The TLIU also provided consultancy services to regional TLIs, offered technical assistance and supported program reviews and articulation development, particularly with the smaller Organization of Eastern Caribbean States (OECS) islands (The University of the West Indies – TLIU, 2007, p. 20, 23).

Through the work of the TLIU, a number of articulation agreements were established to create advanced placements for students coming from regional Tertiary Level Institutions (TLIs), particularly from the community colleges. These included, but were not limited to the Antigua State College, the Barbados Community College, the College of the Bahamas, College of Agriculture (Belize), Clifton Dupigny Community College (Dominica), Knox Community College (Jamaica), Eastern Caribbean Institute of Agriculture and Forestry (Trinidad and Tobago), Sir Arthur Lewis Community College (St. Lucia), St. Vincent and the Grenadines Community College and the Clarence Fitzroy Bryant College (St. Kitts and Nevis). However, these arrangements were not limited to the latter, but also included the universities, such as the University of Technology in Jamaica. As well, under the TLIU, a number of two plus two agreements were developed, in the areas of tourism and hospitality. Partnerships were also created with both public and private institutions such as T.A. Marryshow College and St. George’s University in Grenada. As of 2006, there were six two plus two joint programming arrangements; forty-nine articulation agreements brokered by the TLIU with thirty regional institutions, including with the UWI School of Continuing Studies, Trinidad and Tobago; and the recognition of associate degrees, was granted to graduates of TLI’s who had received a GPA of 2.5 or higher, for matriculation into the UWI. These included programs in nursing, mathematics,
science, agriculture, pharmacy, mass communications, hospitality and tourism, computer studies, land surveying, education, paralegal studies, social work and business studies, just to name a few. The institutions that were approved for general recognition of these qualifications came from the islands of Antigua, Barbados, the Bahamas, Belize, the Cayman Islands, Dominica, Grenada, St. Lucia, St. Kitts/Nevis and Trinidad and Tobago. The TLIU also completed fifteen franchising arrangements with fourteen regional institutions, from the Bahamas, St. Kitts/Nevis, Jamaica, Antigua, Trinidad, St. Vincent and St. Lucia (The University of the West Indies – TLIU, 2007, p. 7-23).

As we have seen from the above, although much was achieved during the more than ten year existence of the TLIU, from 1996 to 2006/2007, many challenges remained. For one thing, internal articulations had to be sought with the main campuses and their respective departments across the UWI, for the recognition of programs and courses offered through the School of Continuing Studies. As well, not all TLI’s from the CARICOM countries were successfully able to obtain franchises, articulations and/or qualification recognition from the UWI. This therefore left significant gaps in the provision of higher education, particularly to the Non-Campus Countries.

5.2.2 The School of Continuing Studies

The Department of Extra Mural Studies evolved into the School of Continuing Studies. However, although the School of Continuing Studies had a physical presence in many of the CARICOM member states, these services were viewed as inadequate. Many respondents alluded to the fact that Non-Campus Country students had to leave their respective islands to take advantage of higher education in the main campus countries, because of a lack of university level programs in their home countries. While this may have had some advantages for regionalism, the financial challenges that resulted were even greater (OC5 Interviews, 2013-2014). As one respondent noted, not much was known about the School of Continuing Studies, and so not much was known about their work, until the 1996 restructuring (OC5 Interviews, 2013-2014).

The School of Continuing Studies also provided a number of supports to the contributing territories. For example, B & B University College in Jamaica wanted to offer a BSc in Public Sector Management and approached the UWI. Since the request to facilitate the delivery of the BSc could not be done through the main campus, due to resource constraints, B & B was referred to the School of Continuing Studies. B & B met with SCS to discuss franchising arrangements for its associate degree program, and was informed that they would receive a response by December 2008 (The University of the West Indies, Open Campus Annual Report,
According to a 2007 report, the UWI had a franchising agreement in place with B & B to offer a Certificate in Public Administration and Management Studies and qualifications recognition with the UWI of associate degree graduates from B and B with GPA's of 2.5 or higher (The University of the West Indies, August 2007, p. 22).

5.2.3 University of the West Indies Distance Education Centres (UWIDEc)

The third component of the BNCCDE was the Distance Education Centres. In 1996, the University of the West Indies Distance Teaching Experiment / Enterprise (UWIDITTE) evolved into the University of the West Indies Distance Education Centre (UWIDEc) [UWIOC, About the Open Campus-History, retrieved from http://www.open.uwi.edu/about/history]. As one interviewee observed,

one of the important emphases' in 1996 was to put the Non-Campus Countries into the picture, right. And so as I said one of the three boards that were created was specifically Non-Campus Countries and distance education, and it was the first time that the whole outreach effort had in a sense become a formal part of the University, that those other bits of the University were expected to know about and interact with. So it was an attempt to get more resources to the Non-Campus Countries, and give them more opportunities for benefitting from being a member of the University. And we saw the distance education in particular, as a way of doing that. You know, our thrust within the Board was always to emphasize what we could achieve through expanding the distance education, (as part of) the system (OC5 Interviews, 2013-2014).

As was previously discussed, the UWI formalized itself as a dual delivery institution following the 1994 Chancellor’s Commission on Governance Report. This was bolstered by UWIDITTE and the advancements in information and communication technology (Roberts, 2013, p. 5). However, several challenges emerged as the UWI moved toward dual mode delivery of its education programs, from a primarily paper-based delivery environment. These included the fact that course structure and delivery were not always efficiently organized or appropriate to the needs of distance learners; [there was] little structured support provided to students within the prescribed arrangements; the identification of local tutors to offer supplementary instruction to Challenge students [was left to] resident tutors or to the students themselves [who also paid extra for this service]; there was also little contact or synchronization of instruction between tutors in off-campus centres and campus lecturers; the frequency of valuable visits by campus personnel to the various countries [appeared to be] greatly diminished due to lack of funding; … [there was] a need to upgrade the technology of distance education itself, to include a video-conferencing component which would enhance the interactivity of the student’s involvement (The University of the West Indies, July 1994, p. 34).

The Report of the 1994 Commission noted that the above were particularly poignant to students in the Non-Campus Countries and those enrolled in the Challenge and Outreach
programs. These students complained of feeling marginalized as their concerns were seen as peripheral to the “real work of staff on the campuses” (The University of the West Indies-Report of the Chancellor’s Commission on Governance, July 1994, p. 35). They claimed that their status as students of the University remained unclear, and in some instances many had to reapply for admissions, when they moved from one program to the next, even when they completed their first year of studies in their home countries, and sought to pursue their second year of courses on the main campus countries. Across the campuses, there were also inconsistencies with respect to the treatment of Non-Campus Country students, by main campus staff, who sometimes appeared ambivalent to their plight (The University of the West Indies-Report of the Chancellor’s Commission on Governance, July 1994, p. 35). The above were some of the many challenges faced by distance education students from the Non-Campus Countries. As such, the calls by governments from these contributing territories for change and fair treatment by the UWI, was unrelenting.

Study respondents noted that by this time, Dr. Nigel Harris, Vice Chancellor of the UWI at the time, began conducting country consultations in the Non-Campus Countries and also with the underserved areas in the main campus countries, including rural Jamaica and Trinidad (OC1 Interviews, 2013-2014). This was an attempt to hear from stakeholders on how the UWI could improve services to the governments and peoples in those jurisdictions. The concerns led to another phase of restructuring at the UWI. Therefore, according to BNCCDE meeting minutes dated August 28, 2007,

several consultative meetings were held with members of the three units [TLIU, SCS and DEC] to arrive at consensus on what issues needed to be addressed in the transition and on a provisional organisational structure. The Office employed a consultant, Dr Judith Robinson, to assist these deliberations and to help with the formulation of a business plan for the virtual campus. These discussions overlapped and fed into the Office’s contributions to the general University-wide Strategic Planning exercise (Board for Non-Campus Countries and Distance Education, August 28, 2007. p. retrieved from http://www.open.uwi.edu/sites/default/files/bnccde/BoardMeetings/index.htm).

The demand for improved service to the sub-region’s underserved territories gave rise to a fourth virtual campus, the Open Campus (Roberts, September 2013, p. 7).

5.3 The Open Campus

On May 27, 2007, as part of another major restructuring process, the University Council amended Statute 19 to create the Open Campus and allocate all of the previous functions from the Board of Non-Campus Countries and Distance Education to the newly created entity (The University of the West Indies, Open Campus Annual Report, 2007-2008, p. 3). Furthermore, in
July 2008, staff at the Open Campus renamed “the University Centres (formerly of the SCS and UWIDEC) the University of the West Indies Open Campus [in] each country, and…[changed] the title of the Resident Tutor/Head to Head of the Open Campus Country Site” (The University of the West Indies Open Campus Report, 2007-2008, p. 42). The development of the Open Campus helped to expand and enhance the regional nature of the University, especially in the Non-Campus Countries (OC1 Interview, 2013-2014). Interview participants noted that the Open Campus was really an amalgamation of several institutions that evolved from 1948 onwards. The most important ones would be the Extramural Studies Department, the School for Continuing Studies; the Tertiary Level Institutions unit (TLIU), and the Hugh Lawson Shearer Trade Union Education Institute (HLSTUEI), at Mona. From 1982, the UWIDITE – the University of the West Indies Distance Teaching Experiment, brought the development of distance teaching education technology in order to teach courses at the UWI. UWIDITE was an experiment and was now been subsumed under the Open Campus. So the Open Campus was a response to that whole restructuring which took place in 1994 onwards (OC2 and OC7 Interviews, 2013-2014).

The Open Campus was created to engage with the wider community. The UWI-12 (at the time), including Belize and the underserved rural areas, greeted the creation of the Open Campus with high regard, as it demonstrated the UWI's interest in addressing their needs. That is, because previously, they had not felt the presence of the University in their respective territory. The Open Campus was a symbolic gesture of this acknowledgement. Belize for example, had always been part of the UWI, but had not felt a part of that connection. The UWI was in the service of regionality, in light of questions about its regionality/ regional nature, the Open Campus was created to help increase the accessibility of a university education for people across the region (OC1 Interview, 2013 - 2014).

On July 2, 2008, at the 29th Annual Heads of Government meeting of the CARICOM Community in Antigua and Barbuda, the former Vice Chancellor and first Principal of the Open Campus, Professor Nigel Harris and Professor Hazel Simmons – McDonald, respectively, publicly launched the UWI’s 4th Campus. It was done as part of an official news conference in the presence of regional and international media (The University of the West Indies Open Campus Report, 2007-2008, p. 3). According to the Open Campus Report,

after much discussion within the University Council57 at its meeting on 27 May 2007 [Statute 19 was amended] to provide for the creation of the Open Campus of the University of the West Indies as a radical restructuring of those outreach functions, previously allocated to the Board for Non-Campus Countries and Distance Education.

57 Council refers to University Council. Its powers have been granted by Statute 20. The Council deals with the financial and academic life of the UWI. University Council is also the body that can amend or make statutes (Report of the Chancellor’s Task Force on Governance of UWI, February 2006, 16).
Given the enormity of the task of restructuring, re-aligning, and expanding resources, it was decided that the 2007-2008 academic year should be one of transition, during which the old structures (primarily the School of Continuing Studies, the UWI Distance Education Centre, and the Tertiary Level Institutions’ Unit) would coalesce in the Open Campus during the University’s sixtieth anniversary year (The University of the West Indies Open Campus Report, 2007-2008, p. 3).

One of the interview participants who worked with the UWI for many years, some of which included work with the Open Campus, provided the following narrative on the early years of the Open Campus and its predecessors.

Meetings in 2005 with the University and the UWI-12 led to the declaration of the Open Campus. The Open Campus was created through an amalgamation of TLIU, School of Continuing Studies, UWIDEC-UWIDITE and operated out of the main library of the St. Augustine Campus in the early years. Academic Affairs became the Office of the Board for Non-Campus Countries and Distance Education as part of the 1996 restructuring. UWI got a loan from the Inter-American Development Bank and the Caribbean Development Bank to upgrade its distance activity. Distance Education was added to the Board for Non Campus Countries in 1996. The Office of Academic Affairs became the Board (for Distance Education) in 1992. Initially though, we thought that the Academic Affairs Office would become the Board for Undergraduate Studies because it was more directly tied to Academic Affairs. However, the Board for Non Campus Countries became much more concerned with university outreach and was given that responsibility. In 1996 the BUS and Board for Graduate Studies and Research were created as well as the Board for Non-Campus Countries and Distance Education. Later the Board for Non-Campus Countries and Distance Education became the Open Campus, the 4th Campus of the UWI (OC5 Interview, 2013-2014).

In his inaugural launch of the Open Campus, the Vice Chancellor emphasized the UWI’s commitment to outreach beyond its borders. This he noted began in 1948 with the creation of the Extra-Mural Department. This reaffirmed the UWI’s engagement with high technology modes of distance education, which began with teleconferencing in the 1980’s. As well, it allowed the University of the West Indies to meet some of the concerns of the underserved populations in the contributing countries (Open Campus Report, 2007-2008, p. 3). With the advancement in online technologies, the delivery of distance education at the UWI evolved. It brought more student-friendly approaches and a much broader array of educational options,

---

58 Now UWI-14 - with the addition of Bermuda, Turks and Caicos, the OCCS had changed from UWI-12 to UWI-14 by 2014 (Interviews, 2013-2014).
59 The Board for Distance Education replaced the Advisory Committee, which was established in 1983 when UWIDITE was created. The Board for Distance Education created in 1992 was responsible for reviewing and restructuring distance education at the UWI; devising methods and techniques in distance education; delivering programs; and rectifying any problems affecting the emerging system (Howe, June 2005, p. 98).
60 Board for Undergraduate Studies.
including degrees, diplomas and certificate programs to students, within and beyond the Caribbean region (Open Campus Report, 2007-2008, p. 2). At the launch of the Open Campus in 2008, Vice Chancellor Harris noted that “the Open Campus will insist on quality education relevant to the region, student-centeredness, student-friendly services, and the creation of knowledge and outreach to the Caribbean Community, outside the walls of the University” (The University of the West Indies Open Campus Report, 2007-2008, p. 2).

5.3.1 The Structure of the Open Campus

In 2008 the composition of the Open Campus included the following departments, Student Services, which included Admissions, Recruitment, Assessment, Awards, Student Support and the Registry Unit; the Department of Academic Programming and Delivery; the Consortium for Social Development and Research (CSDR), which consisted of the Caribbean Child Development Centre (CCDC), the Social Welfare Training Centre (SWTC), the Hugh Lawson Shearer Trade Union Education Institute (HLSTUEI) and the Women and Development (WAND) unit. What also became part of the UWI Open Campus was the Radio Education Unit (REU) and the Human Resources Development Unit (HRDU); the Office of the Pro-Vice Chancellor and Principal; the Office of the Deputy Principal; Computing and Technical Services; the Office of Finance and Administration; the division of Open Campus Country Sites; Library and Information Resources; External Relations and Inter/Intra-Institutional Collaboration (ERIIC) unit. A cultural studies unit was also proposed to help develop cultural awareness and to conduct research on ‘culture’ in its many manifestations (See Figure 1.3 below). However, to date, this last unit has not been established (The University of the West Indies Open Campus Report, 2007-2008, p. 4; UWI Open Campus Council Organizational Structure, February 2008, p. 1; University of the West Indies Open Campus - UWIOC, Women and Development Unit, n.d., retrieved from http://www.open.uwi.edu/wand).

Study participants mentioned the work of the programming division within the Open Campus as one important feature which pushed the regionality agenda of the University of the West Indies. Curriculum, research and course delivery were also discussed by respondents as mediums for regionality. Therefore, it was important to delve a little deeper into a discussion of the Open Campus’ organizational structure and the functions performed by each of the units, to understand the connections drawn by study participants, about its contributions to regionalization.

The functions and responsibilities of the divisions and units were highly varied. For example, the Office of the Deputy Principal had responsibility for program quality reviews;
marketing and communications; admissions; recruitment; prior learning assessment and staff training. Additionally, the Office of the Director of Open Campus Countries which was renamed the Office of the Director for UWI Open Campus Regional Sites, was and still is responsible for managing all Open Campus Sites across the region. This division was again renamed Open

**Figure 3** Open Campus Organizational Structure, March 2008, UWI

Adapted from The UWI Open Council Campus Organizational Structure, March 2008, p. 2

Campus Country Sites and by September 2014, its director was responsible for supervising 17 Heads located in 17 countries, across 46 sites in the region. The Director of the OCCS resided in Dominica, and in addition to travelling across the Caribbean, connected with staff using technology such as Web Ex and other types of Web-conferencing technologies (OC8 Interviews, 2013-2014). On the other hand “the Academic Programming and Delivery Division (APAD) [was and still] is responsible for the delivery of programmes by distance” (The University of the West Indies Open Campus Report, 2007-2008, p. 7).

With regards to the management of the Open Campus, interviewees reported that this team was comprised of the Pro-Vice Chancellor and Principal, the Chief Financial Officer, the Director of Open Campus Country Sites, the Chief Information Officer, the Campus Librarian,
the Director of Programming Division, and the Director of the Consortium for Social Development and Research and the Director of Human Resources. One respondent also reported that the Marketing and Communications Manager was invited to attend some meetings, but was not an official member of the management committee of the Open Campus (OC8 Interviews, 2013-2014).

Within the Open Campus, the Academic Planning and Development (APAD) division was initially organized along programme level categories, explicitly Pre-university, Professional, undergraduate and graduate Programmes. In 2012, however, APAD changed its structure and reorganized around its three main activities, namely, “programme planning, course development, and programme delivery” (The University of the West Indies Open Campus Report, 2011-2012, p. 45). Three departments were created: the Program Delivery Department, the Course Development Department and the Program Planning Department. Each Head of Department reported to the Director (The University of the West Indies Open Campus Report, 2011-2012, p. 45-46). As a unit, APAD was also reliant on research from the Consortium of Social Development and Research and other sources within the UWI, which it used for generating curricula. The Consortium which is still operating today, consists of specialized units responsible for Caribbean social development “especially in non-traditional areas, through research, training and education, curriculum development, development projects, technical assistance, information management and community outreach and public service” (UWIOC, Women and Development Unit, n.d., retrieved from http://www.open.uwi.edu/wand), across the Caribbean.

The Consortium of Social Development and Research was one of the important units within the Open Campus that directly contributed to regionalization. As one respondent noted, the

Open Campus - CSDR- the Consortium for Social Development and Research, [comprised of the] Child Development Centre, Trade Union Institute, Social Welfare Training Centre [Women and Development and] they all did grassroots research; Site Heads were and still are expected to keep their ears to the ground in their respective countries/communities - to determine needs and instigate the creation of short courses, which were and are usually face to face. These provided opportunities for relevance, [and] for identifying needs in communities (OC9 Interview, 2013-2014).

In the 2010-2011 Open Campus Report, a number of priorities were outlined. Its goals were to transform the Open Campus structure to ensure ‘better fitness for purpose” (OC8 Interview, 2013-2014). Some of the priorities identified included a focus on service, especially to students and other customers; increases to products, programmes and services; improvements to the delivery of programmes and courses; enhancements to quality assurance processes
throughout the Campus; improvements in its services across all jurisdictions; building business models with the goal of achieving financial viability and sustainability, so that there would be less of a reliance on government contributions; pursuing research and facilitating collaboration with colleagues at the other campuses, and in the different contributing territories; as well as staff development and engagement (The University of the West Indies Open Campus Report, 2010-2011, p. 38). To reiterate, the units within Open Campus were designed to extend the University’s presence into the contributing territories, and the goals mentioned above, were intended to strengthen the University regionally. In her online message, the former Pro-Vice Chancellor and Principal of the Open Campus, Professor Hazel Simmons-McDonald noted, our campus is built on the strong foundations of the School of Continuing Studies (SCS), the UWI Distance Education Centre (UWIDEC) and the Tertiary Level Institutions Unit (TLIU) which have been valuable links between the UWI, the UWI-12 and other communities throughout the region. These Departments have been responsible for most of the outreach work of UWI through the provision of continuing education and a range of services to the people in these communities (UWIOC, Message from the Campus Principal, 2008 retrieved from http://www.open.uwi.edu/about/message-open-campus-principal)

As part of the continued restructuring within the UWI, the TLIU evolved into ERIIC, the office of External Relations and Inter/Intra-Institutional Collaboration unit (Open Campus Report, 2007-2008, p. 13; UWI Annual Report, 2011-2012, p. 104). ERIIC was integrated into CORIA - the Central Office for Regional and International Affairs,\(^6\) as of 2012 (OC9 Interviews, 2013-2014).

5.3.1.1 External Relations and Intra/Inter-Institutional Relationships (ERIIC)

The External Relations and Intra/Inter-Institutional Relationships (ERIIC) unit remained functional within what is now called the Open Campus until 2012, when it was subsumed under the Central Office for Regional and International Affairs (CORIA) (UWI, CORIA News Releases, November 20, 2012, retrieved from http://www.uwi.edu/corianewsandevents/corianewsreleasesitems.aspx#coria ). ERIIC continued to do much of the outreach across the region, building the UWI relationships with other tertiary level institutions. Like its predecessor, it was responsible for processing institutional accreditations; programme articulations; course equivalencies and student transfer arrangements with regards to associate degrees, diplomas and certificates. It encouraged inter-institutional collaboration among public and private institutions, including affiliation

\(^6\) CORIA will be discussed in chapter six in greater detail.
arrangements, franchising and joint programme delivery (UWIOC, Academics and Research, retrieved from http://www.open.uwi.edu/academics/academics-research-libraries). ERIIC also collaborated with organizations such as ACTI as documented in the 2007-2008 Open Campus Report.

ERIIC assisted the Association of Caribbean Tertiary Institutions in developing a project proposal for submission to the Caribbean Development Bank. The proposal, *Harmonization and Articulation of Associate Degree Programme to be offered by Regional National/ Community Colleges*, [was of] benefit [to] graduates of Programmes of regional TLIs in the OECS, [the] Bahamas, Barbados, Belize, Cayman Islands, Guyana, Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago. [It] harmonized associate degree programmes in *Business Studies, Modern Languages, Information and Communication Technology, Natural Sciences*, and *Auto Repairs* [and] articulated [these] with the programmes of regional universities. The duration of the project [was] 3 years….ERIIC [also] developed a proposal for a two-plus-two associate degree programme arrangement between regional TLIs and UWI. The aim of the project [was] to develop core curriculum for three Associate Degrees in *Social Sciences, Natural Sciences* and *Technology* to enable transfer with advanced placement into the UWI undergraduate programmes (The University of the West Indies Open Campus Report, 2007-2008, p. 36).

Throughout its existence, ERIIC continued to establish other collaborative regional arrangements with the TLI’s in the English-speaking sub-region, including the provision of technical assistance; data collection; and research (The University of the West Indies Open Campus Report, 2009-2010, p. 47). “The ERIIC Offices continued to support franchise and articulation arrangements through coordinating monitoring visits, [reviews] agreements that [had] expired, [liaises] with UWI faculties involved in these operations, [and works] with ministries throughout the region”( The University of the West Indies Open Campus Report, 2009-2010, p. 49). As well, as was previously mentioned, in collaboration with ACTI, the Office of External Relations and Intra/Inter-Institutional Relationships also provided support the quality assurance processes in other regional TLI’s.

### 5.4 Accreditation and Quality Assurance

As we have seen, the Caribbean was not immune to globalization. The UWI’s interaction with higher education institutions from outside of the region as well as international funding agencies, not only brought in distance technology, but also international dimensions such as quality assurance mechanisms into Caribbean higher education. As was previously mentioned, in 1996 three boards were created, the BNCCDE, the Board of Graduate Studies and Research and the Board of the Undergraduate Studies. Although the BNCCDE under the Tertiary Institution’s Unit and its successor, ERIIC, had the responsibility for managing relationships,
articulations and program reviews with other TLIs in the sub-region, it was the Board of Undergraduate Studies that was assigned to quality assurance. Gift, Leo-Rhynie and Moniquette (July 2006) adopted J. Knight’s (2003) definition of quality assurance to refer to program audits, evaluations, accreditation and processes of review (p. 126). Given this reality, in a meeting of the BNCCNE in 2007, it deferred the approval of articulations with the TLIs to the Board of Undergraduate Studies. Minutes approved from the BNCCDE meeting during that time stated that

  the Board reconsidered and passed on to the Board for Undergraduate Studies for approval a general provision for accepting Associate Degrees from a large number of regional national colleges as providing normal matriculation for the University. When approved by BUS, this brought the University’s matriculation requirements into line with the fact that many students are doing associate degrees rather than A levels (The University of the West Indies - Board for Non-Campus Countries and Distance Education, August 28, 2007, retrieved from http://www.open.uwi.edu/sites/default/files/bnccde/BoardMeetings/index.htm).

As discussed in chapter two, as part of the CAPE exams, students had the option of completing Advanced Level qualifications and/or associate degrees for matriculation to university. As will be discussed in later chapters, both the British and American models of education have had an impact on education development in the Anglophone Caribbean, hence the above options. However, while necessary, this shift to the Board of Undergraduate Studies created some tensions. For although efforts were being made to bridge relations with other TLIs through TLIU and later ERIIC, this other layer of bureaucracy proved to be very frustrating for the other regional institutions that were seeking accreditation support, franchising and articulation agreements with the UWI.

  Globalization also introduced technology into higher education and has changed the nature and delivery of higher education. Within the English-speaking sub-region it has helped to expand the regionalization project and higher education regionalization. That is, through the provision of resources dedicated to supporting the underserved territories/ Non-Campus Countries, the UWI was able to expand higher education in the region by making it more accessible to more individuals within the region. Consequently, regional governments should therefore have more access to qualified individuals trained within the region by the UWI for their respective economies. As well, with the emergence of the Open Campus, improvements to distance education facilities and outreach into the underserved areas of the Anglophone Caribbean has brought new momentum in the underserved territories.

  However, a review of statistics (See Appendix 3) revealed that the largest growth in enrolment has taken place at the St. Augustine Campus, with very modest increases in the
other two main campuses. Furthermore from 2006 to 2012, Non-Campus Country student enrolment at the main campuses went from 1,605 (2006-2007) to 4,936 by the end of 2012. In short, in a span of six years, only 19,738 students from the Non-Campus Countries were enrolled across the three main campuses. At the same time, since the establishment of the Open Campus in 2008, 22,876\textsuperscript{62} students were enrolled, cumulatively, over the four year period, to 2012. At the same time, the number of students enrolled in UWI programs that were attending other regional TLIs was less than one thousand in 2012. However, with the establishment of the Open Campus in 2008, the number of students enrolled at the UWI from the Non-Campus Countries/underserved territories increased from 5% to 11% (See Appendix 3).

Furthermore, with the TLIU and ERIIC, there was particular emphasis by the UWI of on regional inter-institutional collaboration. Given the outreach role of the Open Campus into the underserved areas of the region, those units were well placed to build these relationships. Yet more regional students will require greater access to higher education. The current participation rates and enrolment numbers among the Non-Campus Countries within the UWI, speaks to the growing inequality of access. Given capacity issues, consideration should have to be given to a greater number of articulations and franchising arrangements between the UWI and its regional counterparts. This is because with very few exceptions, few countries in the Anglophone Caribbean had reached a tertiary education participation goal of 15% by 2005, as set-out by CARICOM for the region (Howe, June 2005, p. 58). To date, most still have not achieved that benchmark for eligible students participating in higher education.

Additionally, as will be discussed in chapter six, CORIA (the Central Office for Regional and International Affairs) has assumed the responsibilities of ERIIC, which has since been disbanded. Consequently, maintaining the balance between regional priorities (such as increasing student enrolment in higher education), and international ones in the face of economic challenges may be troublesome for CORIA. Given the pressures of competitive forms of internationalization – the acquisition of research grants and research commercialization (discussed in chapter seven), there will continue to be mounting pressure on the UWI to assist the contributing governments with regional development, as they aim to compete in the global economy, as individual countries and as a sub-region.

\textsuperscript{62} These figures were taken from existing data tables in the UWI Annual Reports (See Appendix 3). However, I am unsure if these statistics included only new enrolments or continuing students who were re-enrolled in three and four year undergraduate programs at the UWI, annually.
5.4.1 National Accreditation Councils, Regional Accreditation Policies and the UWI

As will be discussed in chapters six and seven, the UWI also had a number of extra-regional inter-institutional partnerships. The same was true for other TLIs in the sub-region, who also had relationships with foreign universities (Gift, Leo-Rhynie and Moniquette, July 2006, p. 130). Historically, many of these institutions including the UWI demonstrated and controlled their quality assurance processes by taking external examinations from the Royal Society of Health, City Guilds, and the University of Cambridge, for example. These external entities defined relevance and excellence in regional educational programming. Yet the issue of accreditation was cited by study respondents as quite contentious. As one study participant observed “I mean for a long time the University said we’ve got nothing to do with accreditation. “We’ve got a Royal Charter or something but eventually; they crumbled and agreed to get themselves accredited” (OC5 Interviews, 2013-2014). Despite the obvious advantages of inserting quality assurance into education practices, here again we see an instance of mimetic isomorphism in response to global pressures.

As part of the 1996 restructuring, the Board for Undergraduate studies created and staffed a quality assurance unit in 1997/1998. Since then the unit has conducted quality assurance reviews in five year cycles within the UWI. At the same time, as was previously discussed, for many years, the TLIU and later ERIIC, granted accreditation and supported program reviews in other TLIs across the sub-region. However, reforms were needed across the Anglophone Caribbean, particularly because of the growing presence of foreign providers, and the influence of external policies on education development in the Anglophone Caribbean. Therefore in 1972, a regulatory body for nurses was created – the Regional Nursing Body. This was followed by the University Council of Jamaica in 1987; the University of the West Indies Quality Audit Initiative, in 1997; and the Regional Mechanism for Articulation, Equivalency and Accreditation which was proposed in 2000. The latter framework has been in operation and offers guidelines to CARICOM governments, on how to set up their own national accreditation mechanisms (Howe, June 2005, p. 171-173; Gift, Rhynie and Moniquette, July 2006, 132).

Although, Barbados, Jamaica and Trinidad created functioning quality assurance councils, the same cannot be said for all of the countries within the entire Anglophone Caribbean. Among the OECS islands for example, while policies have been put in place by their respective governments, accreditation bodies/ councils are at different stages of development in
most of these islands. Their small size may be to blame (Gift, Leo-Rhynie and Moniquette, July 2006).

On the other hand, at the regional level, the Caribbean Accreditation Authority for Education in Medicine and Other Health Related Professions was created, when the General Medical Council of Britain withdrew its accreditation of medical education in universities in the Commonwealth countries, including at the UWI (Gift, Leo-Rhynie and Moniquette, July 2006, p. 131). However, with the exception of the above, there were no other regional accreditation bodies in place, at the time of the interviews. Consequently, interview respondents noted that CARICOM for years have been talking about centralizing accreditation, [and] how to get a system that allows people to say what goes on in a community college in Grenada is equivalent to what goes on in Antigua, for example, and they still haven't. Apart from Medical Science they have not been able to do it. Instead, Jamaica, Trinidad, etc., each have their own national accreditation bodies. The problem is trying to get a regional thing in the Caribbean…. [Consequently] what has happened is that in the last couple of years, all the campuses have been accredited by one or another [national] accreditation body. The Open Campus was dealt with by the one in Barbados, because the head office is in Barbados, and the arrangement has been that the Jamaican, the Trinidadian and the other accreditation boards, will accept the findings of the Barbados Accreditation Council, as far as the Open Campus is concerned. So that process has now happened (OC5 Interviews, 2013-2014).

As we saw in the above quotation, the levels of cooperation between national accreditation councils within the sub-region and recognition of accreditation results for individual jurisdictions is reflective of J. Knight’s (2013, 2014) harmonization and convergence phase within the higher education regionalization continuum. Here collaboration was created by formalized institutions with a strategic purpose that affected both the institution and national governments, who collectively agreed to the findings of the three main campus accreditation councils. Their ability to find common ground may be linked to the core set of policies on quality assurance, previously established by CARICOM - the Regional Mechanism for Articulation, Equivalency and Accreditation (Howe, June 2005, p. 171-173; Gift, Rhynie and Moniquette, July 2006, 132; Roberts, 2001).

When the Open Campus achieved its accreditation in 2013, the following observations were made.

History was created in Barbados for the University of the West Indies (UWI) Open Campus and the Barbados Accreditation Council (BAC), when the UWI Open campus was bestowed institutional accreditation status. The ceremony was held on Monday, July 8, 2013 at the BAC’s headquarters in St Michael, Barbados and was streamed live across the Caribbean to the various locations of the Open campus in 17 countries. Institutional accreditation is an externally driven process which is used mostly by external quality assurance agencies to assure the quality of provision within an institution. It is the process by which an institution is evaluated against standards set by
an accreditation agency, in this case, the Barbados Accreditation Council (BAC). In July 2013, the Open Campus was accredited for six (6) years. The BAC's report to the Open Campus noted that, the commitment to quality was clear from all of those the team met, from the design and delivery teams in APAD to the online and face-to-face tutors. There are effective systems of monitoring and review of programmes, and appropriate international benchmarking of standards. The quality assurance unit provides an appropriate and high-quality service to the Open Campus (The University of the West Indies Open Campus Report, 2012-2013, p. 44).

These national accreditation councils have provided an array of services from granting institutions permission to operate in national jurisdictions; accrediting programs offered by local and foreign institutions; conducting accreditation exercises; and advising on accreditation recognition of postsecondary, tertiary and training institution awards and credentials (Gift, et al., July 2006, p. 129).

As we have seen, both internal institutional program approval and reviews, and external accreditation have been operating at the UWI for a number of decades. As was previously mentioned, the Board of Undergraduate studies was set up to conduct internal accreditation of programs within the UWI. More recently, national accreditation councils have been established in the main campus countries to carry-out external accreditation, including the registration of institutions and the monitoring of regulatory and licenses processes. Most of the latter have been governed by policies within the various ministries of education in the Anglophone Caribbean (Howe, June 2005, p. 171). Within the UWI, study participants observed that the accreditation council would arrange for a review of the University as a whole, or the individual campuses as a whole. So like last year (2013) that was done for Cave Hill and Open Campus and they were given full accreditation for [six] years. But that was a comprehensive accreditation process. But in terms of the accreditation for the individual programs and so on, that is an ongoing thing and it's not done just by persons within the region or within the University, it involves international assessor and it's always based on their feedback review of programs, and those are based on international standards.... The Open Campus has a rich slate of online specialists and expertise and online quality assurance and so on, so they also incorporate or subscribe to I should say, the international quality assurance principles. Because I know when I started out [and] embarked on this program that was one of the things that, the questions that were raised, you know, about how we're going to assure quality of the programs that are being streamed and so on (OC3 Interviews, 2013-2014).

The respondent went on to note that the UWI's accreditation and program review practices were very much aligned to international standards.

I mean anything that the University does in terms of quality assurance is consistent with international practices. In fact all the programs have to undergo rigorous quality assurance. There is the University of the West Indies Quality Assurance Unit which uses or conforms to international quality standards and I can speak even recently to the emergence of the Single Virtual University Space. One of the questions that arise from
time to time is you know what are you doing in terms of quality and what has been setup already, and you know what is actively being done to promote this policy. I am trying to find the right term that they use, but my brain is slowing down. But it’s like best practices, it’s not just about best practices, but it’s a policy, that the University is now working on and adopting, and it’s based on international principles and benchmarks for online quality assurance. So I know that the face to face ones are very well entrenched, and international assessors come from time to time. It’s an ongoing process, quality assurance and assessment of programs by international assessors it’s an ongoing thing throughout the University …. (OC3, Interviews, 2013-2014).

Study participants, however, raised concerns regarding the quality assurance review process within the UWI. The observation made was that program quality reviews did not typically evaluate the standard of work that was being done by students - the work they produced and the grades assigned. Although course evaluations have become standardized within the University, the concerns raised were that examiners and exam papers were not evaluated as part of the accreditation process. In the past, the presence of external examiners assessed marking standards and could veto assigned exam grades. However, under the current system the onus was individual teaching faculty, and no one else had the power to change it (OC5 Interviews, 2013-2014). From my own experience, this practice may not be inherent to the UWI. With the exception of the complaints and / or grade appeals process within a given faculty/ school, which has been embedded into policy, or internal program reviews for updating course materials, programs or assessment tools, the above may be a common practice in many institutions.

Although accredited, the Open Campus was still being challenged in many ways. Issues of access and matriculation continued to plague the Open Campus. Study participants noted that this may be inherent in the structure of the Open Campus itself.

Our admissions office is in Trinidad. Trinidad has always had in a sense a much easier time with admitting students because the educational level in Trinidad is higher generally than elsewhere. So St. Augustine doesn’t generally have a problem getting people with A ‘levels. Jamaica and the rest of the Caribbean do have a problem. So you get people that are used to the St. Augustine way of life, working for the Open Campus in St. Augustine. Basically they were turning away 1500 students and the Principal went there and said, look, we need the money. We need people in the system. We have allegedly open entry virtually, then what are you doing [by] stopping them from coming, and so they spent a fortnight offering places to these people that our own staff had said basically you can’t get in. [There are] a lot of sad stories to tell you about the way that the actual admissions process works. And it’s basically because these people want to keep the old UWI obstructions in place. Now there is, I mean, there is something to be said for some of it because, I think it’s arguable if you just said to somebody look, we’ll just let you in to do this degree, but although you’ve got virtually no background and have failed everything that you have ever taken before, they are going to fail the degree they are going to fail. Because we don’t have very much to back up people to give them
The above may also speak to the support required in education for the other levels of the system, in the areas of student readiness and teacher education training. That is, at the primary, secondary and postsecondary levels. The goal should be to improve literacy levels and educational attainment that better prepare students, including strengthening academic areas to help students meet the university entrance requirements. Why was Trinidad and Tobago so successful more so than the other English-speaking islands in the sub-region? What lessons could be learned? Was it their diversity of education programs at the secondary and postsecondary levels (Burnham, 2008)? Was it their teacher education training programs and qualification requirements? For example, in the 1950’s, when Grenada did not have its teacher education program and facilities, teachers from the island were sent to Trinidad and Barbados for training (Bobb-Smith, 2007, p. 258). The high participation rate of Trinidadian born students was further evidenced by their enrolment numbers at the UWI (See Appendix 3). Consequently, that island’s education practices and processes may offer lessons to be learned.

The Open Campus had also put in place a Prior Learning and Assessment process since 2004 to address the issue of access. Accordingly, as was noted in the 2012-2013 Open Campus Report, “a Programme Officer, Dr Janetha Long, was appointed to coordinate and manage the implementation of PLA at the Open Campus (The University of the West Indies Open Campus Report, 2012-2013, 22-23).

The Prior learning Assessment (PLA) unit is placed in the Office of the Deputy Principal. The need for PLA was established through a 2004 study which included the UWI and other stakeholders. The proposal for its establishment was approved by the Board of Undergraduate Studies (BUS), in 2006 and more recently in 2009, after the formation of the UWI Open Campus. Prior learning Assessment is a mechanism for identifying and providing evidence of experiential knowledge and skills. The evidence may be through portfolios, challenge examinations or demonstration of skills. In the Open Campus, PLA will be based on portfolio preparation and assessment. The University of the West Indies recognizes that learning takes place outside of the traditional setting and often through work and life experiences. It is also mindful that there is ongoing demand for university education by a diverse group of potential students, many of whom have relevant experience and subsequent informal learning, but do not have the traditional formal qualifications. Hence, the UWI Open Campus recognizes the importance of interfacing the outcomes, of relevant experiential learning with formal tertiary education and the need for Prior learning Assessment is an integral element of this (The University of the West Indies Open Campus Report, 2012-2013, p. 22).

Despite this, it was noted that it was still difficult to apply to the UWI, even to the Open Campus. Respondents noted that the admissions process was not fully online and that applicants had to
fax transcripts, the application forms and even marriage certificates, as part of the required documentation. The latter evoked laughter, as it was seen as totally unnecessary for the process of learning (Interviews, 2013-2014). Thus the issue of access continued to plague the institution.

These barriers, if not addressed in their entirety, will have implications for students from other TLIs hoping to gain access to the UWI. This is because the regionalization of higher education in the Anglophone Caribbean will require transfer credit processing and credential evaluation systems, to support student pathways from the TLIs, including from the postsecondary institutions. With the disbanding of the TLIU and its successor ERIIC, there may some ambiguity over jurisdictional responsibility within the UWI, from the point of view of regional TLIs. The Central Office for Regional and International Affairs (CORIA) which will be discussed in chapter six, inherited the responsibilities of ERIIC, including its outreach and partnership functions with the TLIs. On the other hand, the Board for Undergraduate studies retained the responsibility for quality assurance. As was discussed here and also in chapter two, regional organizations such as the Association of Caribbean Tertiary Institutions (ACTI) are working on articulation harmonization of associate degrees among the TLIs. This work needs to continue and must have the cooperation of all involved, if the Anglophone Caribbean is to achieve higher education regionalization.

Therefore, a successful tertiary education strategy must include actors such as CORIA and ACTI. As well, there must be agreement among member states, ministries of education, private and public institutions for cooperation in areas of accreditation and quality assurance. This must take effect within national systems before any regional undertaking. As was discussed, in the main campus countries, accreditation councils already exist, namely the Barbados Accreditation Council, the Accreditation Council of Trinidad and Tobago and the University Council of Jamaica (Gift, Leo-Rhynie and Moniquette, July 2006, p. 129). Therefore for it to be effective, a regional council must have representation from existing stakeholders, which include representatives from existing national councils, and must be granted legitimacy, authority and resources to carry out its functions.

It was also important to contextualize this discussion of distance education, access and quality assurance within globalization. As we have seen, CARICOM has been very instrumental in higher education regionalization. This was particularly evident with the creation of the Caribbean Examinations Council. Distance education also became a priority for member states, who viewed this as a means to increase higher education access in their respective countries. Furthermore, as the regional tertiary level educational institution, the UWI is a protected asset of
the CARICOM member countries who support it financially. At the same time, these
governments have created national institutions that both collaborate and compete with the UWI.
However, access to and the provision of higher education remains the goal of all higher
education institutions and their respective governments in the Anglophone Caribbean. Attention
will now be turned to the specific work of CARICOM in this area. Of particular interest in this
thesis was the emergence of CUPIDE and the Caribbean Knowledge and Learning Network.

5.5 Quality Assurance and Distance Education

In view of the growing use of technology in higher education and the proliferation of
online providers in the Anglophone Caribbean, CARICOM governments needed to ensure that
mechanisms were in place to oversee the accreditation of both local and foreign providers (Gift,
Leo-Rhynie and Moniquette, July 2006, p. 125). The delivery of quality programs as access to
higher education expanded due to the availability of distance technology, even within regional
institutions such as the UWI, became significant. As well, the unstructured and unregulated
appearance of cross-border providers, due to policies such as the GATS became a growing
concern to the Anglophone Caribbean. While in the face of competition from other providers
quality could be improved, there was also the danger that in the absence of policy and
regulation, low quality providers could also co-exist in this milieu. As a result, both quality
assurance and connectivity in borderless education became the primary focus of attention for
CARICOM (Gift, et.al, July 2006, p. 127-129).

5.5.1 Caribbean Universities Project for Integrated Distance Education
(CUPIDE)

The use of technology grew in importance in academic program delivery in both the UWI
and across the wider Anglophone Caribbean. Therefore, as the engine for the Caribbean Single
Market and Economy (CSME), CARICOM sought to bring about changes to the
telecommunications industry, to facilitate and coordinate the demand. The goal was to
standardize the sector and put in place a workable framework for its success (The University of
the West Indies Open Campus Report, 2007-2008, p. 37). The proposed initiative

was part of the work of the Caribbean Universities Project for Integrated Distance
Education (CUPIDE), which began in January 2003, [and] officially concluded in
December 2007. The goal of the project was to develop the human resources within the
Caribbean region through enabling each of the five participating universities (University
of the West Indies, University of Technology, Jamaica, University of Guyana, Antón de
Kom University of Suriname, and Université Quisqueya, Haiti) to develop and deliver

CUPIDE ended with a three day conference in November 2007 on the island of St. Lucia. Arising out of the conference was a number of goals for distance education in the Caribbean. These included the formulation /adoption of appropriate models of collaboration set within a policy framework; development of strategies for achieving best practices in distance education; the need for support from the leadership and administration of the institutions; timely training in the development and delivery of distance education based on the various modalities; coordination of umbrella relationships between regional institutions for garnering funding from donor agencies; support in procuring cost effective, available technological infrastructure and deployment to all institutions; encouragement and facilitation of the incorporation/adaptation of available technology; combination of existing quality assurance (QA) standards and rework or introduction of new provisions in QA to produce appropriate cultural content; provision of standards for assessment to evaluate the different mix/modalities of delivery methods in distance education; identification of a minimum standard level that ensures international recognition and acceptance of an institution, its programmes and its graduates; establishment /coordination of clear accreditation guidelines, regional bodies; development of Communities of Practice especially among the technical support expertise for on-line learning, based on the open source software, Moodle...[and] the Caribbean Knowledge and Learning Network (CKLN) was identified as an important entity for building on the achievements of CUPIDE and for fostering [this] collaboration (The University of the West Indies Open Campus Report, 2007-2008, 37-38).

The above quotation emphasized the need to strengthen cooperation between educational institutions and the telecommunications industry, as well as the need for a regional strategy for distance education. There was also a strong interest across the UWI towards advancing the goals outlined in the CUPIDE conference. It also brought about what study participants felt was a shift in the regionalism paradigm. For connections through technology meant that regionalism could still be achieved, without the physical mass movement of people across the campuses. Here is how one Open Campus respondent summed it up.

The Open Campus is a concept is of reaching across the region through technology. This is a new paradigm of regionalism. Students who were/ are part of the Open Campus, felt very much a part of the regional institution (based on study results). They felt as though they were part of one institution, although students still wanted an opportunity to travel, even if it was for a semester, to a physical campus (in a main campus country). [The advancement in technologies also provided innovative opportunities for administrators] to bring into a virtual space, senior managers from across the region to the OCCS for meetings, which were held monthly. Senior Staff from the 17 countries met regularly and visited where possible/ when necessary. This helped with regionalizing the University. Senior staff came together using the technology, beginning first with video conferencing then moving to Blackboard Collaborate, Skype, Blackberry Messenger, which were some of the other ways of regionalizing (communicating regionally). This was also certainly cost effective, as it was not always
possible to travel. With the evolution of the technology, UWI can remain regional in nature, and students from the Open Campus can have that regional experience (OC3, Interviews, 2013-2014).

As was discussed in the introductory and literature review chapters, and as will be discussed in chapters six and seven, globalization has impacted the internationalization of higher education. Therefore, with advancements in technology, the UWI has had to create policies to monitor online education development within the institution. However, despite the increasing use of technology among Open Campus staff and students, up until the time of the interviews, study participants noted that the online policy at the UWI was outdated. The policy was being redrafted and had an anticipated completion date of Summer 2014. One of the study respondents noted that

the University has online and multi-mode policy that governs you know, what needs to take place for the development and delivery of online and blended programs throughout the University. And you know that would give a good insight into the direction which the University is going, and how serious we take the effort that we’re making, to ensure that things are done properly. But unfortunately I mean we’ve just, it’s no point, there’s an existing online policy, but that came out about over ten years ago… (OC3, Interviews, 2013-2014).

As we have seen, CUPIDE helped to advance the use of information and communication technologies in institutions other than the UWI. Emerging from CUPIDE was yet another initiative by CARICOM, namely, the Caribbean Knowledge and Learning Network (CKLN).

5.5.2 Caribbean Knowledge and Learning Network (CKLN)

The Caribbean Knowledge and Learning Network (CKLN) was established in 2004. As will be discussed in chapter eight, it was brought about as a result of the influence of World Bank policy and European Union funding, both of which have continued to impact education in the Anglophone Caribbean. The goal of the CKLN was to strengthen connectivity across the education system in the Caribbean, especially among colleges and universities, using ICT’s\(^\text{63}\) (Caribbean Development Bank, May 2004). In signing the financing agreement between the European Union and CARIFORM for support of the Caribbean Knowledge and Learning Network, Dr. Edwin Carrington noted that

the main objectives of CKLN are to enhance the competitiveness and productivity of the Region’s labour force, by developing human capacity to access and utilize affordable Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs). Additionally, the project will

\(^{63}\) Information and Communication Technologies
address the need to upgrade and diversify the skills and knowledge of the Caribbean people, by improving the technical environment and ability of institutions to deliver cost-efficient and effective ICT-based education and training. Thirdly, the project is designed to significantly enhance the region’s ability to access international communication networks cost effectively (Carrington, May 2006, retrieved 2012 from http://www.caricom.org/jsp/speeches/caricom_eu_ckln_carrington.jsp).

Furthermore, some of the other goals of the Caribbean Knowledge and Learning Network (CKLN) included the introduction of modern approaches to learning, through the upgrading of tertiary education institutions across the region, and the facilitation of greater collaboration between institutions, in order to reach a wider cross section of students. It was also hoped that CKLN would become the vehicle by which the Caribbean region could link to the Latin American networks, and later, to other international networks particularly in the area of research (Carrington, May 2006, retrieved 2012 from http://www.caricom.org/jsp/speeches/caricom_eu_ckln_carrington.jsp). Further support for CKLN came from Dr. Edward Greene, Assistant Secretary General of Human and Social Development, Caribbean Community (CARICOM) Secretariat, who noted in his keynote address at the OAS/UNESCO Conference on Caribbean Higher Education, that the region needed to embrace the opportunities offered through CKLN, in order to foster more interconnectivity among institutions, not only among those countries that are a part of CARICOM, but also among those internationally and those located in Latin America (Greene, April 19, 2010, retrieved March 2012, from http://www.caricom.org/jsp/pressreleases/press_releases_2010/pres172_10.jsp).

By virtue of its provision of distance education for the UWI, Open Campus staff had representation on the CKLN Board (The University of the West Indies Open Campus Report, 2010-2011, 32; The University of the West Indies Open Campus Report, 2007-2008, 54). Thus according to the 2009-2010 Open Campus Report, the UWI held a series of meetings with the Caribbean Knowledge Learning Network (CKLN) to discuss possible partnerships for supporting CKLN in its arrangements for implementing CaribNET.\(^6\) Several monthly meetings were convened between the Open Campus Computing and Technology department, the Pro Vice Chancellor of Planning and Development, the Principal of the Open Campus, the University Chief Information Officer, Heads of the ICT departments on the campuses and representatives from CKLN to discuss the CaribNET initiative, and the role that the UWI and the Open Campus\(^6\) (The University of the West Indies Open Campus Report, 2009-2010, p. 19).

\(^6\) CaribNet is a Research and Education Broadband, High Fibre Optic Network. Source, Connect the Caribbean- Connect the Unconnected Caribbean by 2015, Caribbean Contribution to Connect the Americas Summit, July 2012
However, further reviews of the Open Campus Reports revealed no further involvement with CKLN since those meetings. Although as a project, CKLN has remained high on the CARICOM agenda.

5.6 Cultural Studies

One of the goals outlined at the end of CUPIDE was to introduce “new provisions in QA (quality assurance) to produce appropriate cultural content” (The University of the West Indies Open Campus Report, 2007-2008, 37-38). As previously indicated, the Cultural Studies Unit was initially envisioned as one of a number of units to be housed within the Open Campus to foster regionalism. However, Interview participants noted that cultural studies unit never materialized in the Open Campus. Instead they have now become “a cross campus interest” (OC4 Interviews, 2013-2014). Accordingly, the UWI main campuses at Mona, St. Augustine and Cave Hill have cultural studies programs at the undergraduate and graduate levels. Additionally, there are summer institutes in Trinidad, with a focus on carnival arts. Furthermore, respondents noted that “while Jamaica does not have a carnival, there is steel band and carnival on the Mona campus. People from outside of the campus would come to watch. Carnival promoted cultures other than Jamaica, and these were showcased. Jamaicans could watch and participate” (OC4 Interviews, 2013-2014). During my visit to Mona in March 2014 I had my own experience of the Carnival on campus. My taxi driver, who was not a student, insisted that I attend the parade. It was heartening to see students from all nationalities frolicking around Ring Road to music from across the English-speaking Caribbean.

5.7 Regionality and the Open Campus

During the interviews, when direct questions about regionality and regionalism were brought up, Open Campus staff alluded to a number of initiatives. Among them, were the UWI’s connections to CARICOM, which has already been mentioned in chapter four, Defining the Regional University. As was previously discussed though, through initiatives such as CKLN, CARICOM outlined a number of specific objectives for distance education, many of which have been adopted into the Open Campus.

When asked to define regionalism and the regionalization of higher education as it related to the University of the West Indies, here is what one respondent had to say,

the Open Campus embodies the whole idea of regionalism, in the sense that we understood that we weren’t reaching everyone on the Caribbean, not everyone can cross the waters to go and study, and so we needed to [cater] to the underserved. And the other, is that in a sense I would say to you that the Open Campus is the glue that
adheres the Caribbean - that keeps it together. It is the regional embodiment of the University of the West Indies, because sadly you find that because of costs and so on, there is a disproportionate, so to speak, preponderance of the particular host population in the University, say at Mona, St. Augustine and Cave Hill. Whereas, being seamless and online, you might have at least a part of the institution of a campus as part of the institution that could take on, and embody the one, without having to cross boundaries, get on a plane and that sort of thing. So that means to me regionalism by its mass (OC8 Interviews, 2013-2014).

Participants also reiterated throughout the interviews that the regional nature of the UWI was personified through the Open Campus. They were of the opinion that much progress had been made on regionalizing the University, although more work was needed. As illustrated in the quote below, one Open Campus study respondent made the following observation.

So I mean as I said before, one of the problems with the Non-Campus Countries is that they weren’t getting anything out of the University, they also felt when they were relating to the University in a very demeaning and unhelpful manner, and I think that part of what the University Centre wanted to do by setting up things like the Board of Non-Campus Countries and Distance Education and then the Open Campus, was to get a better relationship with the Non-Campus Countries (OC5 Interview, 2013-2014).

Respondents also mentioned that the regional nature of the Open Campus was complemented by the structure of the Open Campus and its operations. They noted that one example was placing a non-Grenadian as Head of the UWI location in Grenada. As well, UWI advertised to fill vacancies regionally. The current principal of the Open Campus is St. Lucian (at the time of the interview), and was based in Barbados. Examinations and assessments were done in Barbados, while admissions were done in Trinidad. [Furthermore] the organizational structure of the UWI was regional. Each year the VC and Chancellor travelled throughout the islands. In addition, graduation ceremonies for the Open Campus were rotated from island to island every year. It was always heartening to hear the valedictorian speak. When Grenada held the graduation ceremony, it was broadcasted on GIS – the Government Information Service. However, not every Open Campus location was large enough to host graduations...The first graduation in St. Lucia [had] over 100 graduating students, about 160, when the families were included. Although they [the graduates] were meeting face to face for the first time, they felt that there were bonds (friendships) as they had previously corresponded through message boards about their experiences. Furthermore, the Director of the Open Campus Country Sites is Dominican; the HR Director is Trinidadian; Ms Gillian-Glean Walker, the recently retired Head in Eastern Jamaica is Grenadian; Mrs. Steele, former Head in Grenada is Jamaican; and Dr. Jacobs, (who was the Head in Grenada at the time of the interviews), is Trinidadian. So this was regionalism in action, you know, in that informal setting, you can begin to perceive the richness that can emanate from that kind of interface (OC3, OC8 and OC10 Interviews, 2013-2014).

The continuing outreach efforts and establishment of Open Camps sites across the 15 territories and five associate member states of CARICOM, which numbered 46 sites, at the time of the interviews, was also cited as evidence of the UWI and the Open Campus' regionality (OC1,
OC6, OC8 and OC9 Interviews, 2013-2014). Given this achievement, Open Campus staff disputed the term Non-Campus Countries, citing that the phrase Non-Campus Countries was critically incorrect, as it would suggest that they did not or are not impacted by a campus. But the Open Campus really was in most CARICOM countries, but all of the contributing territories of the UWI. In fact it is the face of the University-online, multiple sites and its physical presence is the embodiment of regionalism/ regionalization (OC8 Interview, 2013-2014).

Respondents also pointed to the research practices by the Open Campus as contributing to the regionality of the UWI. As previously indicated, the Academic Programming and Delivery (APAD) department and the Consortium for Social Development and Research (CSDR) were two units within the Open Campus, whose roles included program development and research. In the 2012-2013 Open Campus Report it was noted for example that the Open Campus Country Sites channels requests to this Office for assistance by UWI to conduct research projects, which is in turn brought to the attention of the UWI Consulting Company, to ensure a university-wide response to the research needs of the countries of the region. The Office also works closely with the Deputy Deans of Outreach in the faculties and with the UWI Consulting Company to ensure that research projects requested by governments, through UWI Open Campus Sites, are undertaken and completed in a timely fashion. A number of departments and sections undertake research for internal Open Campus use. The Institutional Research Unit (IRU) within the Office of the Pro Vice-Chancellor and Principal is meant to ‘ensure that institutional research is conducted on a regular basis, to inform the efficient functioning of all units within UWI Open Campus.’ In this regard, the IRU conducted and/or facilitated a number of research projects in collaboration with Open Campus units and other UWI departments (The University of the West Indies Open Campus Report, 2012-2013, p. 48-49).

Requests from regional governments, especially among the other contributing countries for short training courses, staff development and research were also being coordinated through the above mentioned offices. This included work with regional colleges, private sector organizations and Chamber of Commerce. Open Campus Country Heads within the various regional jurisdictions continued to forge these partnerships. For example, Open Campus staff noted that there was a request from the Government of Dominica to train teachers in IT. A proposal was put forward and funding for the project was secured from the Caribbean Development Bank. Approximately 30 teachers participated and the Open Campus facilitated the training. These types of requests were ongoing as noted in the 2010-2011 Open Campus Report, “several sites in the Open Campus Country Sites (OCCS) responded to an increased demand for workforce development programmes, and saw a growth in partnerships with local, regional and international entities, to design and develop training programmes at the local level” (p. 8).
Study respondents were also asked about the deliberate strategies being undertaken by the UWI to promote the regionalization of higher education. Many in the staff from the Open Campus, who were interviewed for this study, alluded to programs and courses, while also noting some of the inherent challenges with curricula development. Although more students across the region were participating in the Open Campus, much of the course work examples focused on the main campus countries. Here is what one respondent had to say about this practice.

Management Studies [is] our biggest distance education program [and] one of the things I wanted to see happen is that we would use people in Grenada and in St. Lucia and in Antigua down in the colleges, to write full case studies. You know, what do you call these things, case studies and examples, you know. We’d have a whole set of examples of local happenings, that could be used. As far as I can see, nothing like that goes on and so we’re not trying to bring in expertise locally into our programs. We’re just letting them be written centrally, and not going out of our way to try and expose people more widely. So my feeling is that no, we’re not really trying. We’re just letting each campus do pretty much what it wants to do. But that may not be a bad thing. I mean I am not saying that this is bad. If you want a regional thing, if you want people to have a kind of regional awareness and stuff, then I don’t think we’re doing a very good job of that. And then there’s also, I mean… each of these campuses uses local (national) examples in their teaching (their reference points). It was very difficult to preserve regionality of the UWI in a context like that. Our distance education advisors said to us, if you have three campuses teaching different stuff you can’t run a proper distance education program - it has to be a centralized one…right now for example we have four different management studies programs (OC5 Interviews, 2013-2014).

The above also raised concerns about the dominance by the main campuses in the area of curriculum development. The Open Campus’ reliance on curricula from the main campuses and the autonomy they held over course development, made it difficult to incorporate course material examples from the other contributing territories. As well, study participants noted that in Grenada, St. Vincent and St. Lucia, full degrees were offered through the Open Campus in Management Studies and Accounting. However, the challenge remained for those students in the region who wanted to study programs such as law, needed to travel to a main campus country to pursue that degree (MC13 and OC5 Interviews, 2013-2014).

As well, although main campus and Open Campus facilities were co-located in the same campuses, there was a sense from study participants that despite its achievements, the latter was marginalized relative to the main campuses. There were also concerns that the Open Campus was not as well resourced as its main campus colleagues. That being said, the UWI was able to successfully extend its reach into the non-English Speaking Caribbean, through the medium of distance education. For example, the UWI engaged in projects with Haitian Higher Education Institutions. These included a Teacher Education by distance program under the UWI
Open Campus and Université Quisqueya partnership as well as a Project in Urban Planning, under a UWI St Augustine and the Université Quisqueya both of which received seed money from the International Association of Universities (IAU) (Caribbean Community –CARICOM-Secretariat, 2010, October 27, retrieved from http://www.caricom.org/jsp/pressreleases/press_releases_2010/pres433_10.js).

5.8 Teacher Education and Regionality

One of the initial assumptions of the researcher was the notion that the teacher education curricula and curricula across the various faculties in the UWI, would promote regionalism and regionness. It was assumed that together these would have a role to play in the regionalization of the English-speaking sub-region. As such, two of the questions asked during the interviews were, 1) How is the curriculum reflective of a regional agenda for higher education; and 2) How are the agenda/curricula for teacher education being developed by/at UWI? Or describe what is being done in academia/academic programming to promote higher education regionalization? In response, interviewees spoke of the challenges that each campus operated different teacher education programs. This was similar to the situation with the Management Studies programs mentioned earlier in this chapter. As one respondent noted, there is not a lot of collaboration. There is a need for integration. Each campus seems to be running/doing their own thing. The Open Campus does offer a BA in Teacher Education, arts and sciences, originally developed by Mona. And since 2008, it has offered a BA for secondary teachers, in Math, English, Spanish and Chemistry. However, there is no regional program for teachers, but the teacher education programs are initiated by each of the main campuses, who offered it to students across the region. However, the Open Campus is currently doing a review of teacher education, believing that its needs to be delivered in a better way. There is also an MA in Educational Leadership that is being offered and the Ed-Admin was also revamped by the Open Campus to involve people from across the region (OC9 Interviews, 2013-2014).

There were some successes in the attempts to regionalize higher education and teacher education training in the contributing territories, through UWI initiatives with the community colleges in the region. One of the respondents from Grenada noted that the teaching certificate offered by T.A. Marryshow College (TAMCC) on that island, was a joint program with the University of the West Indies. Accordingly, documents were signed by both institutions and the crest for both were on this document. As such, students who graduated from TAMCC and wanted to obtain a degree begun the UWI program in level II (year 2), as they are exempted from year one (OC10 Interviews, 2013-2014). Here again we see another example of higher education regionalization in the sub-region.
Other participants pointed out that technology was needed as a tool to help teachers with pedagogy, and that the technology was ‘leapfrogging’ but that the Caribbean was being left behind. It was also noted that technology could help change the classroom environment, as it would assist with learning and development (OC2 Interviews, 2013-2014). The participant further went on to note, it is easy for youths to access entertainment from the metropole using technology. However, it’s not easy for them to get anything local or regional. Caribbean content not readily available online. And although there is a team approach to the development of curriculum, there is currently too much content on Jamaica, although this is slowly changing. This is because of feedback received from program evaluations. The contributions of small island people are sometimes minimized. We also have our own biases and perceptions of our regional neighbours – Barbadians are seen as ‘selfish,’ for example, although this too was slowly changing (OC2 Interviews, 2013-2014).

The need for more technology in the classroom environment and the constraints within the teacher education programs were further elucidated in the following comments.

We have the technology to do lots of different things and we have the people with the kind of understanding to create those things for our students. However, I mean I go into my daughter’s classroom. It’s an old Victorian classroom. Teacher, chalkboard, well I think they now have whiteboards, and they use markers and the kids all sit down in the rows, you know and it’s like did we finish with the industrial revolution or what? What are we still doing in this mode? We have ICTs available to us, why aren’t the kids sitting around in groups and doing, working on different things? It is because the teachers can’t see it, the adults can’t see it. The kids are dying for it. And that does not mean it will make you less of a teacher, it makes your life a little more exciting, I would think… (OC2, Interview, 2013-2014).

Open Campus staff also pointed to the work of the Academic Programming and Delivery Division and various other initiatives, spearheaded by the Open Campus as evidence of its regionality. As well, the work being done to educate teachers for all levels of the education system was mentioned as another example of regionality (OC8 Interviews, 2013-2014). Here’s what this study participant had to say,

take for instance we’ve had a B Ed., in educational administration for a long time. We had a B Ed., for a long time in literary studies and there is a B Ed, in and you know what I mean by B Ed., Bachelors in Education….in Early Childhood Education and Family Studies. You know all of these things are really geared towards what is perceived as educational needs. The University of the West Indies can be validated and judged by fact that it has educated and trained so many of our teachers you know, at all levels of the system. And I can tell you for sure, that even in Dominica, many … graduates have done a B Ed., and many of them have gone on. All those things need to become known. Many have jobs as principals of schools in many parts of the island. Some of them have become education officers and so on (OC8 Interviews, 2013-2014).
The Open Campus and its predecessors promoted the regionalization of higher education through work with the TLIs. As well, the curriculum development process through APAD and CSDR who utilize research findings to create programs and courses, on issues of pertinence to the Caribbean, was another example of the institution’s efforts towards regional development. Distance education and the continuing efforts in teacher education training were also assisting in the promotion of regionalization.

5.9 Milestones, Benefits, Challenges and Regionalization

As part of the study, participants were also asked questions about the benefits and challenges of regionalization, and to describe what milestones had been achieved by the UWI to date, with regards to the regionalization of higher education. The answers to these questions were varied and were discussed in depth in the previous chapter on regionalization and the UWI, chapter four. However, a staff from the Open Campus who was interviewed shared the following perspective.

Online learning made content more accessible to all corners of the region. There was a lot of travelling in the initial establishment of the Open Campus. What resulted with the Open Campus is that students, though they were not able to travel, were able to make friends online with persons in other countries. It certainly replaced the travel by boat to the main campus; during the era of the 1940’s….You can get to know people very well online through the Open Campus. It does not matter what the modality or what medium is used, the mandate remains. It is authentic for the age and the period in time. The Open Campus is based on this medium. It was the far-thinking of the University and its administrators to have the Open Campus. (OC1 and OC4 Interviews, 2013-2014).

Additionally, study participants noted that the establishment of the Open Campus itself was indeed a milestone for the University of the West Indies, as it was a particular response by the UWI to the governments and peoples in the underserved/ Non-Campus Countries. Furthermore, the contribution of 88 acres of land, as a Deed of Gift, given by the Government of Grenada for the construction of a larger physical Open Campus site, was seen as another achievement. Study respondents in Grenada noted that the Open Campus location in the town of St. George had become inadequate, due to the increasing enrolment and the ICT needs for operating the Open Campus. Participants noted that land was also given in Trinidad, by that country’s government to expand the Open Campus in Chaguanas (OC7, OC8, OC10 Interviews, 2013-

---

65 What are some of the benefits and challenges of trying to achieve the regionalization of higher education in the English-speaking Caribbean? What milestones have been achieved to-date?
2014; The University of the West Indies Open Campus Report, 2011-2012, p. 40; The University of the West Indies Open Campus Report, 2012-2013, p. 7).

The growing enrolment of students attending the Open Campus was yet another achievement (See Appendix 3). Participants in Grenada noted the growth in students registered in the Open Campus in that territory grew from 31 in 2008 to over 350, by the end of 2013 (OC10 Interviews, 2013-2014). Another participant noted “larger and larger numbers are taking advantage of the Open Campus. Students can now afford the Open Campus and are taking advantage. There is now a UWI graduation in some of the Non-Campus Countries” (OC4 Interviews, 2013-2014) which previously had never happened. However, the participation of students in the Open Campus from the UWI-1466 countries was significantly lower than those attending Open Campus programs on the islands of Trinidad, Jamaica and Barbados (See Appendix 3). As previously mentioned, issues of matriculation, funding and ICT access all continued to be hindrances for students trying to gain access to the Open Campus.

Other notable achievements included the provision of access to higher education to regional students who would otherwise have not had an opportunity to attend university, were it not for the Open Campus. As one interviewee noted,

a pregnant woman walking across the stage during graduation to shake the hands of the Chancellor-women of poor circumstances who made it through UWI-(is a remarkable achievement). This would not have happened, had it not been for the Open Campus. People are equipped and there are savings as they did not have to leave their country and young families for study; they learned on the job; and they applied management principles. Plus they can apply as they learn to their jobs, so they are applying the management principles; they’re applying the pedagogic principles; and so on, on the job training, because a lot of our students are already working. Incidentally, most of them, the majority are between twenty-six to thirty years of age and increasingly, we are getting some coming straight from secondary school. But many of them are working and they don’t have time to separate themselves from the family, in order to be there with their kids who are sitting CXC subjects now. They could not leave home to get their education. I think you know those are what I might refer to as imponderables you cannot place a value on that, you know you have to see it yourself. These are benefits, but if I were to tell you the disadvantage, let me tell you something, finance, finance, finance, it is painful... (OC8 Interview, 2013-2014).

Many of the islands still do not have a student loans provision or policy for persons seeking higher education (Howe, 2005). Accordingly, there have been attempts to gain scholarships support through the private sector. For example, the National Bank of Dominica, the Republic Bank of Grenada and other private sector business organizations across the region, have

---

66 A synonym for the other contributing countries; this excludes Barbados, Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago.
provided funding for scholarships to Open Campus students, in addition to sponsoring lecture series, waiving fees, supporting training and other initiatives spearheaded by the Open Campus (The University of the West Indies Open Campus Report, 2011-2012, p. 40-41; OC8 Interviews, 2013-2014). More opportunities to diversify its sources of funding was being looked at by Open Campus staff and the wider UWI administration.

As part of its mandate, it was noted that the Open campus will continue to focus on the following developmental priorities, 1) the development of a consistent and effective approaches to product management and rationalization; 2) building strategic networks regionally and globally to support the mission of the Open campus; 3) creating inter-departmental alignment and system integration to support the core business; and 4) promoting and conducting research as a vehicle for Caribbean development especially within the UWI-14 (The University of the West Indies Open Campus Report, 2011-2012, p. 52).

5.10 Conclusion

In conclusion, this study examined the challenges faced by the regional university when it interfaced with internationalization in the context of neoliberalism and globalization. As was discussed in this chapter, the first significant regional expansion of the UWI took place in the 1960’s with the creation of three campuses located in Jamaica, Trinidad and Tobago and Barbados. It occurred during the period when the first islands in the Anglophone Caribbean began receiving political independence from Britain. Political independence became the penultimate demarcation of the decolonization project. Not to be outdone, the UWI too also received its independent charter to grant degrees during this period. Here, degree granting was repatriated. However, the decolonization process is ongoing. It is a continued struggle against international/ global influences on the region and the institution.

Globalization and neoliberalism continued to assault the UWI on multiple fronts, bringing both advantages and challenges. Therefore, during the 1980’s and 1990’s in an era of structural adjustment, the UWI pursued another phase of expansion. First Extra Mural Studies evolved into the School of Continuing Studies and played a significant role in providing higher education access to the underserved areas and territories of the Anglophone Caribbean. Beginning with paper-based distance education, followed by radio, then satellite and more recently online education, the UWI has evolved overtime and expanded its provision of higher education services exponentially, into the English-Speaking Caribbean. Much of this change came at the agitation, particularly of the Non-Campus Countries/ other contributing territories, and resulted in the reorganization of the UWI, in its attempts to achieve its regional mandate. Furthermore as
previously discussed in chapter two, during the 1980’s onward, many of the contributing countries to the UWI, who had adopted policies of fiscal restraint due to the SAPs (Structural Adjustment Policies), established Community Colleges. Here again we see these contradictions and contestations. While global lending institutions and policies were impacting these vulnerable economies, and limitations were placed on their ability to support the UWI financially, they, that is, the UWI and the nation-states of the Anglophone Caribbean were simultaneously expanding higher education opportunities for students in the region. In this scenario however, we saw the UWI providing a regional response, while national governments became inward looking, with regards to education provision for students within their own jurisdictions, citing neglect by the UWI for support to their national economies for this approach.

Since its inception in 1948 the UWI has looked, first to Europe, particularly Britain for quality assurance confirmations. However, despite receiving its own charter, the UWI, in the face of globalization has continued to pursue validation from external accreditation bodies. At the time of the study, research respondents noted that accreditation from both British and American associations were being pursued, by many of the professional programs within the UWI. These quality assurance mechanisms have therefore become part of the international dimension of higher education imposed on institutions of higher learning, globally. Therefore, as the Anglophone Caribbean developed stronger relationships with North American institutions, Advanced level qualifications (British-based model), began to be replaced by associate degrees (American-based model) in the postsecondary sector (community colleges). Added to that, the TLIU with support from ACTI (Association of Caribbean Tertiary Institutions) coordinated articulations across the regional TLIs for some of these associate degree programs in the colleges.

Furthermore, in response to the global, quality assurance practices were entrenched into the UWI, with the creation of the Board for Undergraduate Studies. As well, the regionalization of higher education was advanced with the establishment of the TLIU (Tertiary Level Institutions Unit) which also supported regional TLIs with their quality assurance processes. However, the arrival of the Open Campus may have also impacted the UWI’s relationships with the other regional TLIs, by slowing the growth of higher education regionalization, including franchising arrangements. Work will be needed to restore these relationships, while also maintaining the mechanisms for the oversight of quality in higher education. Yet here again we see these ongoing contestations between the regional and international. For with the receipt of its independent charter to develop and grant degrees, the UWI was simultaneously pursuing regionalization as a decolonization project, while at the same
time, it was also attempting to become globally recognized by its higher education peers, through its adoption of these quality assurance policies and mechanisms.

Added to that, prior to the creation of the Open Campus, attempts were made to provide higher education to students in the other contributing countries. However, the Challenge Examination Scheme which was introduced was severely under-resourced, as academic and curricula supports for students to prepare for these exams were severely lacking. Furthermore, the difficulties faced by students from outside of the main campus countries, who had met the necessary admission requirements, illustrated perhaps that regionalism and nationalism were again at loggerheads; and that staff within the UWI had not fully embraced regionalism. This continued even after the creation of the Open Campus. For while there has been exponential growth in the Open Campus in the main campus countries, the same levels of student participation have not occurred in the other contributing countries. (See Appendix Three). To be fair, both Trinidad and Jamaica have populations in excess of one million inhabitants compared to the other contributing countries. As well, needed are reforms in the quality of education in regional institutions, particularly in the Non-Campus Countries/other contributing territories. Work in this area will bring benefits to student preparedness that will bolster admissions and enrolments in higher education in the Anglophone Caribbean. That being said, students from countries other than the main campuses, faced immense difficulties gaining access, which led to interventions from the then Campus Principal, who sought redress by allowing admittance to over 1500 regional students. The admittance of these students however, was also motivated by the neoliberal imperative – the need for revenues in the Open Campus.

Information and communication technologies have also created opportunities for students in the underserved areas of the region to obtain degrees. However, ongoing flexibility in delivery will be needed, as larger numbers of working adults participate in higher education. This will support the ongoing economic and social development of the region and its ability to compete globally, thus advancing regional integration. However, while the Open Campus has created opportunities for persons in the underserved areas of the English-Speaking Caribbean, it has also curtailed the mass movement of students between jurisdictions, and potentially opportunities for developing shared intercultural understanding, regionally. As previously noted, the Caribbean, even the Anglophone Caribbean is comprised of a multitude of races and ethnocultures. The provision of online education therefore has the ability to negatively affect the regionalization project, which the UWI has been tasked with pursuing.

Higher levels of face to face and online delivery of full degrees and diploma programs are needed across the Anglophone Caribbean. While APAD and the Consortium (within the
Open Campus) have been responsive, in providing short duration courses to students in the underserved territories/Non-campus Countries, these were often peripheral and did not become mainstream courses and programs. Added to that, there was often little cohesion in course development approaches within similar faculties across the campuses. Therefore, courses developed for programs in one campus were not readily accepted in another, creating the need for articulations between campus programs. Furthermore, as was discussed, teacher education programs were not synchronized. The three campuses, each had separate teacher education programs, although labour mobility among members within this professional group was occurring within the Anglophone Caribbean. These separate programs have the potential to also create competition among the campuses for regional students, which runs counter to regional integration. Therefore, work with the ministries of education of the regional governments to strengthen teacher education training and pedagogical supports; and synchronize qualification requirements and training, will help to accelerate regional integration and higher education regionalization.

While the establishment of the Open Campus and the various attempts by the UWI to advance regionalization by providing greater access to higher education has had some success, more is needed. The enrolment of students from the Non-Campus Countries/other contributing countries is still significantly small, relative to their needs. By itself though, the UWI will not be able to meet the higher education needs of all eligible persons within the Anglophone Caribbean. Therefore, expanded access to higher education is reliant on improved collaborations between and among institutions in the higher education sector. The lack of considerable progress on franchising and articulation agreements between the UWI and other regional institutions, for example, since the disbanding of the TLIU and ERIIC, only served to continue the marginalization of the community colleges and re-invokes the hierarchies and elitist relationships of the colonial era. Enhancements to the quality of education provision will only come from improvements in communication, and cooperation among all education providers. Consequently, as the second oldest educational institution in the Anglophone sub-region (Cordington College preceded the establishment of the UWI); the UWI must take a stronger leadership role, in advancing the progress towards this goal.

Finally, the globalization and neoliberalism have also encouraged a stronger affinity between the telecommunications industry and higher education institutions in the Anglophone Caribbean. With the large network of higher education institutions in the region, this industry would gain significant financial rewards, if these projects are successful. As well, at present the telecommunications industry in the Anglophone Caribbean could be described as monopolistic,
with very few competitors. Furthermore, these collaborations would inject additional forms of academic capitalism into these institutions of higher learning. As was also discussed, CUPIDE (Caribbean Universities Project for Integrated Distance Education) and CKLN (Caribbean Knowledge and Learning Network) which were established at the instigation of, and with funding from the World Bank and European Union, promote Euro-American hegemony on academic institutions. They suggest the need for ICTs in education, potentially at the expense of more important regional higher education needs such as curricula updates, academic infrastructural development (additional schools, colleges, universities) and teacher training, for example. Regional higher education priorities must therefore be determined by both the UWI and governments, to prevent these ad hoc responses, when funding is offered with an already prescribed or predetermined agenda, from these global institutions. Therefore, while funding provided to CUPIDE and CKLN, would create greater connectivity between institutions with the potential of supporting the advancement of the regional integration project inclusive of the larger Caribbean area and Latin America, this agenda was set externally. Accordingly, regionalization was being hindered and advanced by internationalization, in the context of the global and neoliberal environments.
CHAPTER SIX – DATA ANALYSIS
International Academic Mobility and Cross Border Education

6.1 Introduction

Globalization, which is the increasing convergence and interdependence of economies on the liberalization of trade and markets, resulting in the global spread of business and services, social and cultural practices (van der Wende, 2001, p. 253; Deem, 2001, p. 7) has impacted higher education. Accordingly, standards, with homogenization and hybridization effects on education; focus on quality assurance and accreditation; collaborative and competitive paradigms in higher education, with accountability, rankings, competition and research commercialization, have become the normative discourses. They have appeared in the higher education literature and in and among higher education institutions, shaping their practices and policies. These forces and others have become known as the ‘international dimension of higher education’ (J. Knight, 2008). Therefore, higher education has been undergoing substantial changes in the face of globalization (Stromquist, 2007, p. 83).

Globalization has influenced higher education in a number of areas including, but not limited to the academic mobility of students faculty and staff; cross-border delivery of education and services; research commercialization; international linkages, networks and partnerships among institutions of higher learning and businesses; project development; and trade in education, due to policies such as the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS). In reviewing the data collected from research respondents and documents, many of the above appeared to be prevalent and present at the University of the West Indies.

Therefore, the analysis of internationalization at the UWI is presented in two chapters. In this first chapter, emphasis is placed on academic mobility and the cross-border delivery of education and services, in particular, intraregional and interregional – south to south collaborations. The chapter begins with a review of the history of internationalization in education in the English-speaking Caribbean, before turning to the discussion of academic mobility. It culminates in a review of the benefits and challenges of internationalization, particularly for students.

As part of the research, participants were asked a number of questions regarding internationalization at the University of the West Indies. They were asked to define internationalization; to comment on the impact of internationalization on higher education in the Caribbean; to reflect on the international policies and practices that have been adopted by the UWI; and finally to comment in whether regionalization and internationalization were antithetical
or complementary forces at the University of the West Indies. This led to more extensive
discussions about the internationalization activities that are occurring at the UWI.

Accordingly, this chapter is organized as follows. First, the historical linkages between
the UWI and extra-regional institutions are reviewed. This is followed by the highly descriptive
definitions of internationalization as presented by study participants and institutional documents
that are reviewed. Next there is a discussion of the historical international linkages to the
University, and an assessment of the formal structures within the UWI with responsibilities for
executing internationalization. The next section of the chapter looks at internationalization
abroad, with an extensive discussion on academic mobility, as well as a snapshot of the many
programs and projects that are happening as part of internationalization at the UWI – cross
border education practices. Some of the many student partnerships and programs, particularly
with universities in Central and South America and with the non-English-speaking Caribbean,
are also discussed. Another theme emerging from the data is ‘internationalization at home’
which refers to on campus activities, aimed at the domestic population. Finally, the benefits and
challenges of internationalization are discussed.

6.2 Historic International Linkages in Early Caribbean Higher
Education

As we saw in chapter two, Britain played a crucial role in colonizing, even education
development and in the creation of the regional higher education institution – the University of
the West Indies. As an apprentice of the University of London, this connection was among the
first international partnerships established by the UWI. Later, we saw relationships with other
British and North American Universities emerging. As was mentioned in chapter two, it was the
report of the Irvine Committee, appointed in 1944, which helped to initiate the dream of the
regional institution. However, it is important at this juncture to trace the historical reasons that
gave rise to the institution’s formation. This is necessary for contextualizing some of the
discourses surrounding higher education development and the extra-regional influences that
have shaped the UWI.

The Commission was chaired by Mr. Justice Cyril Asquith in 1943. The Asquith Report\(^67\)
of 1943 established the blueprint for University Colleges in Africa and in the West Indies. The
Irvine Committee which was a component of the Asquith Commission, was comprised of Sir

\(^67\) The Asquith Report was an amalgamation of the findings of two Commissions, one in West Africa, led
by Sir Walter Elliot and another in the West Indies, led by Sir James Irvine, in 1944.
James, Irvine, Chairman, Principal and Vice Chancellor of the University of St. Andrews; Raymond Priestly, Principal and Vice Chancellor of the University of Birmingham; Margery Perham, a fellow of Nuffield College and reader in colonial administration at the University of Oxford; and two West Indians, Hugh Springer, a trade unionist and a member of the House of Assembly in Barbados, and Philip Sherlock, Secretary of the Institute of Jamaica. The presence of the latter two members enabled the Committee to gain rapid entrance into the society, to witnesses sympathetic to their cause and to the general public. The Irvine Committee visited Trinidad, British Guiana (Guyana), Jamaica, Barbados and West Indian Students studying at Howard University in the US, and McGill University in Montreal, Canada. They also spent five days at the University of Puerto Rico, on a fact finding mission. The Committee was unanimous in their decision that a single University of the West Indies should be created (Cobley, 2000, p. 10-11).

It was estimated that between 1956 and 1957 there were more than 2,370 West Indian Students studying in the United States, Britain and Canada. However, of the 494 applications received for entrance into the UCWI (all held the minimum requirements for admissions), only 179 were accepted. Lack of scholarships and aid to support the educational ambitions of West Indian students, were cited as some of the challenges. At the time, most the students attending UWCI were on government scholarships, and it was also noted that the entrance requirements set by UWCI, were just too high for the majority of West Indian students completing secondary school. For in its attempts to maintain high standards and a good quality education, strict enforcement of matriculation requirements and academic performance, led to high failure rates in the student population. The emphasis was on punitive measures and not on what are referred in today’s education discourse as access and student success. Accordingly, some of the students who chose to pursue a postsecondary education overseas did so because they were not given consideration by UCWI. Since that time, the prospect of working one’s way through school, and the lower admission requirements by overseas institutions and presumably a preference for obtaining degrees from foreign institutions remain an attraction for West Indian students wishing to pursue higher education (Cobley, 2000, p. 15-16).

---

68 Philip Sherlock was a Jamaican by birth. Sir Philip Sherlock introduced Extra Mural Studies at the University of the West Indies. He had the honour of being the Region's first Director of Extra Mural Studies when the UCWI began to function in 1948 (CARICOM, 2011). He was also the second Vice Chancellor of the UWI from 1963 to 1969 (Beckles, 2013, p. 46).
In its attempts to improve access, as was discussed in the preceding regionalization chapters, the UWI has since expanded its physical and virtual locations across the English-speaking Caribbean. While at the time of the interviews, the number of students attending had surpassed 50,000, more work was being done to improve access. Despite these changes, still less than 12% of secondary school graduates, on average, can access a postsecondary education in the region (MC9 Interview, 2013 - 2014). One of the ways that the UWI hoped to improve participation rates and attract local and international students, other than through the Open Campus, was through internationalization. Attention will now be turned towards more contemporary approaches towards internationalization at the UWI. Using the information gleaned from study respondents and institutional documents, the next part of this chapter will focus on how internationalization was being defined at the University of the West Indies.

6.3 Defining Internationalization at The UWI

In defining internationalization, many participants pointed to the 2012-2017 UWI Strategic Plan. Articulated in the plan were the UWI’s vision and mission statements. The Vision Statement of the UWI was as follows: “by 2017, the University will be globally recognised as a regionally integrated, innovative, internationally competitive university, deeply rooted in all aspects of Caribbean development and committed to serving the diverse peoples of the region and beyond” (UWI Strategic Plan, 2012-2017, p. 41). In both the Mission69 and Vision statements, the phrase “and beyond” pointed to the UWI’s commitment to extending its reach outside of the Caribbean, that is, internationally.

In the 2012-2017 UWI Strategic Plan, internationalization was described in the glossary as the process of increasing involvement of universities in international markets via students, faculty, programmes, research, capacity building and partnering in response to globalization; and as a type of strategy, often used to increase the institution’s visibility and hopefully its ranking (UWI Strategic Plan, 2012-2017, p. 74). Therefore, the strategic objectives identified for internationalization included attracting quality international students and faculty; establishing a physical UWI presence outside of the Caribbean to engage with external agencies, other

---

69 The Mission Statement reflects the primary purpose of the University, that is, the reason for its existence. The enduring mission of the UWI is: To advance education and create knowledge through excellence in teaching, research, innovation, public service, intellectual leadership and outreach in order to support the inclusive (social, economic, political, cultural, environmental) development of the Caribbean region and beyond (UWI Strategic Plan, 2012-2017, p. 39).
stakeholders and the Diaspora; and improving the ranking of the UWI in world ranking systems (UWI Strategic Plan, 2012-2017, p. 62).

Therefore global recognition by higher education peers “as a leading contributor in research, teaching and learning, and knowledge creation on [the] Caribbean…[with a]… global reach [to] ensure partnerships and mutually beneficial relationships with international scholars; other universities, governments and institutions; international agencies; and public and private sectors worldwide” (UWI Strategic Plan, 2012-2017, p. 41) was being sought after by the UWI, through its internationalization efforts. In its pursuit of internationalization becoming ‘internationally competitive’ was also outlined as another of its objectives. The latter was defined as:

a university that is aligned with international benchmarking and higher education industry standards in research and undergraduate and postgraduate teaching and learning, with an increased focus on educational outcomes in a knowledge-based economy to attract high-quality students and faculty (UWI Strategic Plan, 2012-2017, p. 42).

Accordingly, the UWI has set-out what it wants to achieve through internationalization in its Strategic Plan, Vision and Mission statements. During my visit to the St. Augustine Campus in Trinidad, I observed that the 2012-2017 Strategic Plan themes, mission and vision were prominently displayed on campus property, on a series of banners. As well, as will be discussed subsequently, respondents from senior management who were interviewed, appeared to be well informed about the UWI’s Mission and Vision, as their responses about internationalization reflected their knowledge of the contents of the Strategic Plan, Vision and Mission.’

When asked to define internationalization, some noted that the UWI’s interest in global recognition and international partnership was initially introduced into the 2007 to 2012 Strategic plan (MC2 Interviews, 2013-2014). This was seen as the first formalized institutional thrust towards internationalization. In the Vision Statement of that Plan it was noted that by 2012, The UWI will be an innovative, internationally competitive, contemporary university deeply rooted in the Caribbean, committed to creating the best possible future for all our stakeholders. It will be the university of first choice for the region’s students and talented academics. It will provide a truly supportive environment that rewards excellence, and it will be agile enough to thrive in a dynamic global environment (UWI Strategic Plan, 2007-2012, p. 12).

Accordingly, both the 2007 and 2012 Strategic Plans brought together the UWI’s international and regional focuses. A scan of both Strategic Plan documents - 2007-2012 and 2012-2017-revealed that the term internationalization was formerly introduced in the 2012 to 2017 Strategic Plan. Prior to that, the terms ‘international and internationally were the preferred discourse, used in reference to ‘partnership,’ ‘recognition’ ‘students,’ ‘market,’ and ‘visibility’. To be precise,
these terms were mentioned over 36 times in the 2007 to 2012 Strategic Plan document. This revelation was certainly in keeping with J. Knight’s (2008) findings that the term internationalization, emerged in the political science literature in the 1980’s, and that prior to that “international education and international cooperation were [the] favoured terms...in some countries” (p. 2).

My initial assumption as the researcher was that the terms internationalization and regionalization were antithetical or juxtaposed to each other. However, as will be discussed, what was uncovered was the complementary nature of the coexistence of these forces within the University of the West Indies. This was reflected in the Mission, Vision and Strategic Plans of the institution, previously discussed. J. Knight, (2008) warned against the proposed dichotomy between internationalization and regionalization. She noted that global challenges had forced regions and countries within it to become interdependent, and to seek out solutions through collaborative partnerships, because of the growing technological and scientific competitiveness of individual countries. As such, nation states have had to rely on each other through the creation of bilateral and multilateral relationships (p. 7). Consequently, when asked, most respondents pointed to the more harmonious coexistence between internationalization and regionalization at the UWI.

Respondents in the study also noted that the challenge for the UWI was that internationalization was not clearly defined. As one respondent from St. Augustine noted,

I don’t think that there is any formal definition of internationalization within the University that I have read. What I have read is what has been stated in the University’s strategic plan which says that it is supposed to be what is its mission, what it intends to be, globally recognized [and] internationally competitive. The definition has not been very clear, nor has there been any clear literature, anything documented in the literature as to what that means. I have seen however, from practice what others have been pursuing in terms of internationalization. I am seeing it looks at mobility schemes for the most part, where you look at the movement of students and movement of faculty from institution to institution to facilitate the exchange of knowledge, and or the acquisition of skills, to benefit the student as a learner or the faculty as a teacher. The other aspect of internationalization that I see the University has been pursuing is that of strategic partnerships. So by strategic partnership there have been different levels across the institution to build partnerships. There has been the level of diplomacy where there has been some engagement with diplomatic agencies and stakeholders, governments, foreign missions and others, to bridge that divide between what is happening globally from what is happening locally. So that the institution can be ‘glolocal’ in terms of how it pursues its agenda. The other aspect of what I have been seeing is the issue of fundraising and funding ventures (MC12 Interview, 2013-2014).

Therefore, since a definition of internationalization was not formerly drafted and consistently adopted by the UWI in its many publications (except for the definition provided in the glossary of
the strategic plan) at the time of the interviews, respondents noted that each campus was left to interpret and implement it, based on its perceived priorities and/or that of the national governments, of the jurisdiction, where the campus was based. As a senior staff from Mona noted,

so sometimes internationalization for one campus may mean the recruitment of large numbers of students (from) outside of the Caribbean region. Because we can’t think of our Caribbean neighbours as international students, because we are the University of the West Indies, and it means it is their own as much as it is a Jamaican student’s university and in St. Augustine, it is the same thing. The campus belongs not only to the Trinidad and Tobago students, but all the students of the region. We are here to serve the students of the region. So we don’t term those students as international students. So when we talk about international students we’re talking about everybody outside of the English-speaking Caribbean. We have several definitions and these definitions are by no means wrong. But if we are going to go forward as one entity, as one university, there needs to be a central understanding of what internationalization is. Each campus can interpret that one central theme, in the way that benefits their campus because we exist, in separate, different societies, and the needs and the government imperatives would be different. So for Jamaica may be, our Government says that internationalization for this government means collaborating with countries and investing in renewable energy, and thinking about agriculture and food security and so on. So our imperatives would be different. For St. Augustine, it’s different, for Barbados the same thing, but we should have one central thing (theme) where the University is headed. That is what we were thinking when we discussed it (MC2 Interview, 2013-2014).

For some of the other respondents, internationalization referred to the notion that higher education had now crossed borders and the international recognition of degrees and standards, including quality assurance. Therefore, it was the recognition that the UWI was now part of an international system of knowledge creation, and its engagement with other institutions for research, student and faculty exchanges; the internationalization of curricula; and the seeking out of external partnerships and funding sources to advance research (MC3 and MC4 Interviews, 2013-2014). One respondent noted,

the UWI is part of an international family of scholarly institutions. Most of these institutions have had traditions, and they also have standards, disciplinary standards and so on, so the University has to be a part of that fabric. It has to be able to compete toe to toe with many institutions around the world in the production of research and in the output and publications, editorship of journals, refereeing journals, publications, refereeing of books etc.…So we were saying yes the University has to participate in that academic life of the global scholarly enterprise. And our students have to be competitive with the rest of the world…They should be able to get into the University of Toronto and do fine without a problem. We ought to be able to be trusted by international agencies to sort out a problem. They should be able to come to us and say well look, you know, you are the best people to be able to sort out this problem can we ask you to do it for us. So we get that international reputation in particular areas, in areas particularly that are of pertinence to the region, but not only, not just relevant to the region, but I mean we are
part of a global family, and our University too should have a strong reasonable presence of international students (MC6 Interviews, 2013-2014).

Accordingly, internationalization was seen as an effort by the UWI to link with institutions throughout the world, in order to enhance student perspectives in the new global village. As such, ‘global visibility’ in the larger world was seen as beneficial for Caribbean development.

Other respondents also pointed to an international focus on curricula; international recruitment, of faculty and students to improve teaching, which included the UWI being opened to visiting scholars and foreign students, exchanges and attracting fee paying students from outside of the region, while also providing intercultural opportunities. Additionally, learning and collaborative research, collaborating on grants with other institutions instead of working solo, and seeking out finances from partners to fund research; developing commercial operations from research; establishing and participating in networks; doing joint work; and creating joint programs, were all believed to help the UWI move beyond the traditional concept of internationalization into the larger transnational education movement (MC7, MC13, MC14 and MC9 Interviews, 2013-2014). As one interviewee noted,

So there is that traditional definition of internationalization where the University is opened to international scholars and international students and international sharing of experience. It is opened to funding and grants from international donors… internationalization I think is linked to the whole thing, I think of competitiveness. It’s linked to the whole question of globalization and global markets and how they are being perceived. So in the context of internationalization, you have what is also being referred to as Transnational Education (TNE) (MC10 Interviews, 2013-2014).

These were also highlighted as some of the many activities that were occurring at the UWI as part of its efforts to achieve its internationalization goals. More specific examples of these activities will be provided later in the chapter.

Another focus of internationalization was the association drawn by study participants to ranking systems. The increasing influence of the market approach to higher education; diminishing government funding; increasing emphasis on accountability; quality and performance indicators; outcomes based education were some of the factors that gave rise to

---

70 Definitions from three sources are provided. The term transnational education is used to designate higher education provision offered by one country in another to exclude provision in which only the student travels abroad (OBHE- Observatory for Borderless Higher Education). Any teaching and learning activity in which the students in a different country (host country) to that in which the institution providing the education is based (home country) - Global Alliance for Transnational Education. All types of modes of delivery of higher education study program, or sets of courses of study, or educational services (including those of distance education) in which the learners are located in a different country from the one where the awarding institution is based-UNESCO/ OECD (J. Knight, 2008, p. 89).
international ranking systems in higher education. As J. Knight, (2008) reported, students were now being perceived as clients and customers, and could now shop around for the best value for their investment in an education (p. 42). One respondent noted,

I think also with the internationalization there is also a new focus on the global rankings which was not something that UWI was concerned about before. But there was a new interest in looking at the metrics and how we compare according to these various global higher education rankings, university ranking systems…And the idea is to try and get on the ranking system or is the idea to start looking at people that you would consider yourself to be comparable with and trying to develop ones sort of area of expertise, similar expertise, or to have some sense of where the University wants to take that. I think they would like some visibility in the global rankings systems, but realize that systems vary. So would we be selected? I know because there are so many of them – Times Higher etc… the goal of being able to compete with anybody else out there, being on the same level as a Yale or Princeton or Harvard or whatever. We have to be able to find smart processes of doing this… it is striving to become world class and obtaining global recognition, which are both a good and a bad thing (MC14, OC9 and MC13 Interviews, 2013-2014).

Other participants noted that with respect to ranking, there were many areas of contention. One such debate was that ranking tables were not a true reflection of what was happening on campuses globally. As such, reputable universities such as those in Canada, like the University of Toronto, McGill and McMaster, do not appear to really participate in rankings, although university administration does pay attention to the institution’s placement within some of the ranking 71 systems. They were instead very sceptical of these matrices. However, it has become part of the internationalization discourse, and has gotten the attention of many institutions of higher learning, globally, including the UWI. However, the challenge for the UWI was that these ranking systems merged them with the Latin American institutions, and in their view, the UWI was not being fairly assessed. Participants were also very aware that institutions were ranked using performance measures such as the number of PhD educated faculty on staff, research output, student population and institutional size, just to name a few (MC2 Interviews, 2013 - 2014). Yet other respondents noted that the UWI should instead focus on benchmarking instead of ranking, as the former was not practical for the UWI. One respondent commented,

We can’t enter the ranking game no matter what anybody says…We are community college, we are public, we are private, we are a land grant, we’re everything and to play that game, we need fit into a particular grouping. Now I have met with QS the biggest

71 While this was the opinion shared by participants, it must be noted that like many other institutions, the University of Toronto does use rankings information for marketing and promotional purposes, especially those that are favourable. Business Schools like Rotman for example, often promote their rankings status relative to other schools offering MBA programs globally.
ranking agency in the world. I meet with them every time I go to NAFSA and any of these big conferences...Yet there are solutions, but we’ve got to pay for it as well. It’s not just a game that you know. We are an orange and they are analyzing apples. If they are analyzing apples, were are orange, pear, banana, everything. So we have to pick and choose. Now you can do programmatic accreditation. But I think the real opportunity for us is benchmarking, benchmarking against particular comparators in our area. So let’s say we want to compare ourselves financially, we pick the University of South Pacific, which is the only other university in the world that’s set up like us. We pick the SUNY, which is the largest university system in the world with 64 campuses. It is a State University in New York. It’s the largest system in the world. You know the UC system; UCLA...So UC is another system. There’s other systematic universities, you know, one university but with multiple campuses. So we could find four or five comparators around the world and we benchmark against them. Let’s say we want to pick agriculture, a thematic area, well then we go and pick agriculture, public universities that are focusing on agriculture for their country and their region. So you pick lower hanging fruit or more specific fruit and you compare against them, versus trying to say that I am ranked in the Times, that’s a complete waste of time for us. But whether we do ranking or benchmarking, accreditation is an absolute minimum requirement for us to sit at the global table (MC15 Interviews, 2013-2014).

As we have seen, study participants who were selected from among the senior management at the UWI had a clear sense of the current internationalization goals and objectives of the institution, and a pulse on what the future should or could look like for the UWI. Operationalizing the internationalization strategy was very much part of their everyday work responsibilities, hence their abilities to articulate these issues.

Using the works of J. Knight, (2008) and de Wit, (1995), a typology for analyzing and assessing internationalization at the University of the West Indies was developed. To help organize the many activities taking place in internationalization two broadly defined categories were used. They were ‘internationalization abroad’ and ‘internationalization at home’ (J. Knight, 2008). As previously discussed the UWI has incorporated regionalization and internationalization by strategically positioning itself as the Caribbean’s premier institution of higher learning (Howe, 2005). At present, it predominantly serves the English-speaking Caribbean, specifically, the CARICOM territories. However, it has also expressed an interest in extending its influence globally. Consequently, internationalization at the UWI will first be looked at by assessing how it was being coordinated institutionally. Respondents pointed to three departments/ divisions within the UWI responsible for internationalization. They were the international offices, the Latin American and Caribbean Centre and the Central Office for Regional and International Affairs. Their purpose and function in executing the UWI’s internationalization goals, will now be reviewed.
6.4 Organizational Structure Executing Internationalization at The UWI: The International Offices, LACC and CORIA

From conversations with study participants, three areas of the UWI appeared to have coordinating roles for driving the internationalization agenda/strategy. They were the LACC – Latin America and Caribbean Centres, located across the main campuses; the Central Office for Regional and International Affairs (CORIA) at University Centre, both of which had a direct reporting structure to the Vice Chancellery; and the International Offices scattered across the main campuses, whose administrators reported to the respective principals.

6.4.1 The International Office
At the time of its inauguration in July of 2008, the International Office at the Cave Hill Campus had a strategic focus to further internationalize the University and Campus. The Office emerged in response to the 2007-2012 Strategic Plan. Its primary functions were to promote study abroad, facilitate academic exchanges for students and faculty; negotiate strategic partnerships with foreign universities, international bodies, foundations and the international private sector. During its inaugural year, it established a Memorandum of Understanding with the Universidade Agostinho Neto (UAN), where it offered the opportunity to train medical students from Angola; and developed collaborative research on food security. Additionally, the Office also established a cooperative agreement with the Medical University of South Carolina (MUSC) to prepare medical and dental professionals. As well, through the Cave Hill International Office, the Department of Language, Linguistics and Literature negotiated an agreement with the University of Puerto at Humacao to provide academic exchanges and English Language training, as well as an arrangement to offer English language training to one hundred employees of Petróleos de Venezuela for two years (The University of the West Indies Annual Report, 2007-2008, p. 81; The University of the West Indies, Cave Hill, Barbados - International Office, 2015, retrieved from http://www.cavehill.uwi.edu/administration/international_office.asp).

The International Students Office at the Mona Campus played an instrumental role in increasing the international student population by 136% in the 2012-2013 academic year. Although there was a 25% decline in the number of international students pursuing medical electives, international students at that campus still comprised of approximately 4% of the population (The University of the West Indies, Mona Campus Annual Report, 2012-2013, p. 52). At Mona, the international Student Office was responsible for orientating new non-Jamaican students. The Office also had special arrangements with the immigration authority in Jamaica to facilitate the processing of passports and visa extensions. Additionally, the office coordinated
student exchanges, academic collaborations; the study abroad program and also managed the medical elective program. The International Office at Mona also prepared publications for the recruitment of international students to that campus (MC2 Interviews, 2013-2014). At Mona, the International Office was located in the Registrar’s Office and its administrative head was known as the Senior Assistant Registrar, while at Cave Hill, the administrator there was called the Director of External Relations, located within the Office of the Campus Principal. The St. Augustine Campus was differently structured. The administrator for that office was called the Director of the Office of Institutional Advancement and Internationalisation. It was the “only full blown international office within UWI” (MC15 Interviews, 2013-2014), with a variety of support staff, coordinators and managers. It was therefore the most resourced of the three. Both the Cave Hill and St. Augustine International Office staff reported directly to the principal, at their respective campuses. However, this was not the case at the Mona office. Respondents also noted that Principal Sankat at the St. Augustine Campus, proposed to make internationalization one of his legacies. Accordingly, he created an environment that facilitated internationalization at that campus (MC15 Interviews, 2013-2014; The University of the West Indies, International Office, 2015, retrieved from https://sta.uwi.edu/internationaloffice/mousearch.asp).

Basically what the international office [at St. Augustine] has become is this, we are a catalyst, so we see and we bring in opportunities from the outside and push them into the campus, or we see opportunities on the inside and we link them to opportunities on the outside. So we are project managers more than anything else. But we also deal in terms of making sure there is cohesion. So what I proposed for the University is what we are doing here. So what we say is that we can internationalize. The only place where internationalization is not taking place is in the classroom or the lab. So that’s not our job. Our job is to drive it and make sure that it happens effectively. So what has happened now [is]…that this campus is internationalized like no other and the one reason I can say that, is because I have finite resources and there’s still things happening in parallel. Sometimes you see a department go out and talk with some university unbeknownst to us or something will happen. Inevitably whether we started it or not, now at this institution it gets back to us, because nothing is signed off on in this institution without the Principal or I having a conversation on it and agreeing this is where the campus really should go (MC15 Interviews, 2013-2014).

As we have seen, all of the international offices were responsible for campus level coordination within the three main campuses. As well, the staff within each of the international offices reported directly or indirectly to the office of the Campus principals. They were not part of University Centre, although internationalization is a strategic priority for the UWI. Accordingly, the staffs within these offices have relied on their own personal connections with each other, to coordinate internationalization activities. They communicated with each other and interfaced
with faculties and other departments, including the LACC to facilitate internationalization efforts at the campuses in their respective jurisdictions.

6.4.2 Latin America and Caribbean Centre (LACC)

The objective of the Latin American and Caribbean Centre across the campuses was to expose UWI faculty and students to the wider Latin American community and cultures. Located in the Vice Chancellery, its goal was to establish relationships between the UWI, Spain, and the non-English-speaking Caribbean and Latin American institutions. It supported the UWI’s engagement with Latin America and Spanish institutions for mutual benefit. To do so, it brokered partnerships by implementing joint projects and facilitating student, staff and faculty exchanges. The LACC also coordinated cultural activities including film cycles, art exhibitions, concerts, seminars and workshops; and functioned as a clearing-house for information and events pertaining to Latin America and the Caribbean. The LACC managed many of the courtesy visits by Ministers of Government, representatives of international agencies and ambassadors of Latin American countries to the Vice-Chancellor, and to the Principal of the Mona Campus. The Coordinator of the LACC at Mona also sat in on bilateral meetings at the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Foreign Trade, involving Jamaica and Latin American countries (The University of the West Indies Annual Report to Council, 2007-2008, p. 46). It was the LACC and the International Offices which coordinated the language training programs between Petróleos de Venezuela S.A. (PDVSA) and the University of the West Indies that was previously discussed. The latter emerged after a successful pilot in the Summer of 2007 whereby thirty PDVSA professionals received a 3-month immersion in language and culture, delivered through a UWILACC/Petroleum Corporation of Jamaica (PCJ) partnership (The University of the West Indies Annual Report, 2007-2008, p. 43; The University of the West Indies Annual Report, 2011-2012, p. 105).

LACC is a Mona based, University-wide initiative which develops programmes involving all the UWI contributing countries. The Centre’s areas of operation encompass a range of collaborative activities designed to enhance the visibility of the UWI in Latin America and the non-English speaking Caribbean countries in particular. LACC seeks to maximise opportunities for institutional collaboration and cooperation agreements and activities between the UWI and other higher education institutions in the region. This is done through partnerships and arrangements with institutions and national and international funding agencies. LACC functions include project design and implementation; negotiation of cooperation agreements and coordination of their implementation; coordination of language training programmes, undergraduate student exchange programmes, graduate teaching assistantships and internships; training workshops, research seminars and publications; dissemination and coordination of applications for Latin American and Spanish scholarships; coordination of cultural events.
in association with embassies; [and] participation as the University’s representative in meetings and conferences. The conviction that academic networks and institutional links are important for the realisation of the strategic goals of an internationalised higher education system, underpins the philosophy of the LACC (The University of the West Indies Annual Report to Council, 2007-2008, p. 43).

Through the interviews with study respondents, it was revealed that the Mona LACC was the most active, although during my visit to St. Augustine, a Centre for Latin America and Caribbean Studies (CENLAC) office was seen on that campus. Research informants also noted that there was a high degree of communication and collaboration happening between the LACC and International Offices (MC15, MC5, MC2, MC2 and MC2, Interviews, 2013-2014).

The LACC has been quite successful in moving a number of CARICOM initiatives through to implementation. Therefore, when consensus was reached by CARICOM Heads of Government that foreign language acquisition and competence, particularly Spanish was of vital importance, “for effective interaction between the countries of different linguistic and cultural background in the region,” (The University of the West Indies - LACC – CARICOM Primary Spanish Curriculum, 2012-2015, retrieved from http://uwi.edu/lacc/partnerships/caricomspanishcurriculum.aspx), the LACC helped to facilitate this by carrying out a needs assessment, in 2006. Since that time, there have been a number of programs and exchanges for Spanish Teacher training, coordinated by the LACC, at the UWI.

In collaboration with CARICOM and other governments and agencies, the LACC has also been a catalyst for several regional initiatives (The University of the West Indies I- LACC – Overview, 2012-2015, retrieved from http://uwi.edu/lacc/partnerships/overview.aspx). The UWI is part of the Association of Caribbean Universities and Research Institutes – UNICA. This association was founded in 1967, and includes national the Universities in the Caribbean (French, Spanish, Dutch, English Caribbean; Central America and universities in Venezuela, Suriname and Guyana). From 2010 – 2012 the UWI Vice Chancellor was the President of UNICA and the LACC Coordinator at the Mona Campus, was the Secretary General. During that time, particular emphasis and resources were provided to support HAITI’s higher education system, in its recovery from the devastating earthquake. These types of initiatives are helping to support the larger regionalization efforts that promote the ideal of ‘Caribbean’ as constituting an area of ethnic, cultural and political diversities (The University of the West Indies - LACC—UNICA, 2012-2015, retrieved from http://uwi.edu/lacc/partnerships/overview.aspx).
6.4.3 Central Office for Regional and International Affairs (CORIA)

The Central Office for Regional and International Affairs established in November 2012 was the third division with coordinating responsibilities for internationalization across the UWI. It too, came about as a result of the Strategic Plan and was an initiative of Dr. Nigel Harris, who was the Vice Chancellor of UWI at the time. It was a well-intentioned decision arising out of two factors. The first was that the UWI was a regional institution, and secondly the need for a more cohesive, comprehensive approach to deal with both regional and international issues, through ‘University Centre.’ This was because the UWI had a large number of articulation and franchising arrangements, with the other tertiary level institutions in the region. The role of the office was to work more closely with those institutions, as the UWI transitioned out of the Tertiary Level Institution Units, where much of the collaboration with other regional institutions had taken place. At the same time, internationalization was gaining momentum. The Central Office for Regional and International Affairs was created in response to a very real need for cohesion, that is, towards achieving the UWI’s strategic objective of increased visibility and global positioning, while strengthening the UWI’s regionality. CORIA (Central Office for Regional and International Affairs) absorbed the former office of External Relations and Intra/Inter-Institutional Collaboration (ERIIC). At the time, the system was disparate and there was a need for enhanced collaboration towards a common goal in both internationalization and regionalization. More importantly, what was also required was advocacy and leadership for these issues within the institution. The objectives of CORIA were to coordinate policies and plans with respect to regional and international outreach, by ensuring a focused approached across the institution; advising the Vice Chancellery on regional and international matters; and managing stakeholder relationships – internal and external, regionally and internationally, including institutional partnerships (MC15, and MC4 Interviews, 2013-2014; The University of the West Indies Annual Report, 2011/2012, p. 104).

Now the UWI has always been an international university. Simply put, well, first of all we started off life as a College of the University of London (England) and its always particularly through research projects linked-up with other institutions, [we] undertake major research projects for funding, [and collaborate] to attract external funding. There’s of course, few sources of funding in this part of the world, and so what we do is go after external funding…So then we have always had a tradition of regional and international activity. The intention now is since this is one of the six areas of focus in the current strategic plan, that we needed a home for this. We needed something to drive it, hence

---

72 University Centre is another name for the Offices of the Vice Chancellery at The University of the West Indies.
the establishment of this office (CORIA)…In the strategic plan the Vice Chancellor has
direct responsibility for Outreach (strategic theme) and so he wanted someone in his
office who could take on the responsibility for this, and to manage all of these activities.
Now there are four sets of activities in outreach… we’ve got marketing and
communication… we’ve got Alumni Affairs… … [and CORIA] is responsible for [the
remaining two] regionalization and internationalization (MC4 Interviews, 2013-2014; UWI

While much has happened since the creation of CORIA, there was some sense of
disappointment among some study respondents on its achievements to date. Lack of resources
for the office and UWI bureaucracy continued to be hindrances. The hope was that CORIA
would bring about

cohesion and coordination … that if CORIA were created [it] would help us sitting in the
Vice Chancellery to deal with our problems, which is to have dedicated resources for
internationalization; and to have a common articulated strategy for internationalization.
We felt that the minimum that could have been done was the strategic plan for
internationalization…. even if you couldn’t get money, it was to say ok folks, we’ve
consulted with everybody, with you all and the deans and everybody, here’s what we’re
doing for internationalization as a University. To date that has not happened (MC15

There were continued challenges for CORIA. For example, respondents noted that there
was an initiative approved by the UWI executive to market over ten programs and recruit
students internationally. Although a company was contracted to help move this project forward,
and it was hoped that CORIA would help to lead it, the initiative disintegrated in the early
stages. Study respondents noted that what CORIA had achieved to date was project
coordination. For example, when there were delegations and institutions interested in visiting
and working with the whole University, these were coordinated through CORIA. In the past,
these were done by each individual campus and caused much duplication. Despite these set-
backs, the international offices across the three campuses were working collaboratively together
(MC15 Interviews, 2013-2014). As one respondent noted

but we’ve made strides; the campuses working together have established a functional
blueprint for how this would work; the system processes are developed and
implemented….We’ve developed strategic partnerships within the campuses; we’ve
contributed to mobility, this has already been achieved, you know, different projects that
are taking place, and you know we’ve increased in all these areas, right….Leadership is
on board, substantial impact already made, the future does look good, but you know
strategically, we had to bring everybody together to see it as a transformational tool. This
is very important. Internationalization is not something that should be seen as another
order of business, where we do programs etc., and we internationalize…. (MC15
As a multi-campus institution, the UWI made deliberate attempts to rationalize its internationalization efforts, through the establishment of dedicated departments within its structure. The campus-based international offices, the LACC and CORIA were all created for this purpose. Within the bureaucracy, their areas of focus evolved overtime, orchestrating a fairly comprehensive plan of internationalization at the UWI. Although challenges remained, as previously mentioned, the activities being carried out can be broadly categorized into two camps, ‘internationalization abroad’ and ‘internationalization at-home.’

6.5 Internationalization Abroad

According to J. Knight, (2008), in ‘internationalization abroad;’ emphasis is placed on cross-border activities. These include the movement of people and programs across borders through internships, scholarships, research programs and the movement of scholars and students for intercultural experiences and knowledge sharing. It also involves twinning arrangements, joint or double degrees and franchising, in receiving countries, just to name a few. Also included in internationalization abroad are higher education providers in overseas markets and collaborative international projects. The latter may include development assistance projects, market driven commercial ventures and other mutually beneficial initiatives, such as research collaborations (p. 24).

6.5.1 Academic Mobility of Students, Faculty and Staff

The first internationalization activity that will be discussed is international higher education mobility. In the literature it is referred to as the movement of ideas, information, people, programs, providers, technology, curricula, values and knowledge (J. Knight, 2008, p. 82). However, most of the data collected for this study focused on the movement of students and faculty between the UWI and overseas institutions. In one interview, a study respondent discussed a secondment between the UWI and a Canadian university as one example of the types of cross border arrangements that were occurring at the UWI. In this scenario, a staff member from the Canadian university was seconded to the UWI for a three year term (MC13 Interviews, 2013-2014).

6.5.1.1 Faculty and Staff Mobility

Some other examples of mobility included the ability of faculty members to participate in the academic travel program organized by the St. Augustine Campus, during the summer months. Dubbed ‘UWI Discovers’ this program was initiated after the Campus Principal
accompanied the former Prime Minister of Trinidad and Tobago, Kamla Persad-Bissessar on a 12-day State visit to India in January 2012. The trip also included a visit to the Indira Gandhi Open University. Following this visit a group of senior faculty, administrators and alumni from the UWI, participated in a three-week academic immersion program in India. UWI faculty also visited universities in other parts of the world such as Brazil, to experience its cultures. At the time of the interviews, two such tours had taken place and a third was being planned.

In 2011- 2012 a Memorandum of Understanding was also signed with the Indian Council for Cultural Relations, to establish an academic chair of Indology/ Gandhian Studies (MC2 Interviews, 2013 – 2014; The University of the West Indies Annual Report, 2011-2012, p. 104-105). Another outcome of the relationship between the St. Augustine Campus and India was as follows.

Just to give you an example, with our relationships with India, this campus now has three Chairs. That is three professors, funded by the Government of India on Indian Language, which is Hindi, Indian culture and Indian history all funded by them. And oh sorry, the one in culture and history is linked. But we have one in ayurvedic medicine, which is Indian traditional medicine, which is thousands of years old. And we have links to institutions. Building relationships with these countries allows you to build capacity very quickly (MC11 Interviews, 2013 - 2014).

Additionally, through a program funded by the Canadian Bureau of International Education, students from the Caribbean could also spend as much as one semester in Canadian universities. In one such example a study respondent noted that as staff, “I myself have been a beneficiary of this a couple years ago…I spent three weeks at the University of Saskatchewan looking at their governance and management practices and it was a great learning experience” (MC11 Interviews, 2013 – 2014).

A review of the International Office webpage of The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine Campus in April 2015, revealed that there were over 100 student exchange partnership agreements mostly with universities outside of the Caribbean. They included Belgium, Botswana, Brazil, Britain, Canada, Colombia, Costa Rica, China, Denmark, France, Ghana, Kenya, Namibia, Norway, Panama, Sweden, Venezuela, The United Arab Emirates and the United States. Additionally, there were over 60 agreements for faculty exchanges/ opportunities. The latter included observerships/practicum, internships, administrative exchanges, research collaborations, conference/symposia collaborations, collaborative programs, including publication and teaching; and professional development training (The University of the West Indies International Office, St. Augustine, 2015, retrieved from https://sta.uwi.edu/internationaloffice/mousearch.asp). As will be discussed shortly, research informants noted that academic mobility initiatives for students and faculty helped to enrich the
educational policies within the UWI. As well, it has provided international exposure to students and faculty and increased their academic and intercultural knowledges (MC3 Interviews, 2013 - 2014).

As discussed in chapter two, the Caribbean has one of the most ethnically and culturally diverse populations in the world. Its highly migratory populations serve as fodder for this modern transnationalism, which is being encouraged by internationalization. The intercultural ambitions of its student population were nurtured by an academic environment that put in place mechanisms for growing internationalization within the institution. Consequently, whatever languages and cultures that passed through its prisms, from this engagement, were transformed, giving rise through a process of creolization, to what Girvan described as the continued reinvention and reinterpretation of what constitutes ‘Caribbean.’

6.5.1.2 Student Exchanges and Study Abroad

Student mobility (exchanges and study abroad) was another type of internationalization activity taking place at the UWI. However, before moving further, it is important to differentiate between student exchanges and the study abroad programs at the UWI.

There is a difference between the study abroad program and the exchange programs as defined by the UWI. The exchange program refers to a reciprocal agreement between the UWI and an international partner. So we receive students under the exchange program and they pay tuition to their home university. They are only responsible for housing, air travel, local travel and other incidentals. [On the other hand], the study abroad program as defined by us refers to an arrangement where a student is coming from a non-partner institution to us (UWI). Or also our students going to a non-partner institution and the student is therefore responsible for paying tuition to that institution… Now we don’t necessarily receive anybody. That is the difference between exchange and study abroad. Because we don’t necessarily receive anybody, but our student may come to us and say, I’d like to spend a year in France, right, and the institution that I want to go to is the University of Paris. Let’s say we don’t have an agreement with that institution. So we ask the student to get a copy of the curriculum that they want to do, and then they take it to their dean or head of department. Then they go through it and say yes these are courses that we can give you credit for, in your program. They get the approval and when the student goes there, they are responsible for their own tuition. They are responsible for all fees there. They pay here just to register their miscellaneous fees, just to keep them registered on our books, but when they come back with the credits and everything, we apply it to that year. We don’t necessarily receive anybody in their place. The exchange program is different now, because we just swap students and the students don’t pay any tuition to the host, they pay to their home (MC2 and MC15 Interviews, 2013 - 2014).

Exchange programmes were usually run during the academic year in semester’s one and two (The University of the West Indies, Cave Hill, International Office, retrieved from http://www.cavehill.uwi.edu/administration/international_office.asp).
6.5.1.3 Exchange Programs

According to the UWI International Office webpage, many of the UWI exchange programs at the UWI were being coordinated by the Latin America and Caribbean Centre (LACC). For example, the UWI had exchange programs with Venezuela, Colombia, Mexico, Costa Rica and Chile. Since 2000, students from the Mona and Cave Hill Campuses, for example, have done exchanges to the Universidad del Norte and the Universidad Nacional in Colombia. (This certainly predated ENLACES which was established in 2008, discussed in chapter two, and points to a much earlier emergence of higher education regionalization in the Caribbean, Central and Latin/South America). The program was made possible through the UWI-Colombian Universities Agreement for Student Exchange for Linguistic Purposes. Through this MOU, and since that time, the UWI received students from Colombian universities for English immersion (The University of the West Indies Annual Report, 2011-2012, p. 106; The University of the West Indies Annual Report, 2006-2007, p. 50-51). According to the institutional documents reviewed, the UWI has also held a bilateral four week student exchange program with higher education institutions in Colombia, during the months of June and July.

Each year, students from the UWI campus community travel to Colombia for 4–6 weeks, during which time they participate in Spanish Language classes and a host of cultural activities. A similar group of students from various Universities in Colombia spend a month at the UWI, on its three campuses. To date, the UWI has received 333 students from institutions in Colombia, with the Mona Campus receiving 151 students. Likewise, Universities in Colombia, namely, Universidad del Norte and Universidad Nacional have received approximately 330 participants from all three UWI Campuses with the Mona Campus sending 151 of that total. For the first time, the LACC received 20 participants from the EAN University in Bogotá, Colombia in its English Language Summer Program. This was facilitated by an agreement between the University of the West Indies and EAN University (The University of the West Indies Annual Report, 2009-2010, p. 91).

One the other hand, in 2008, English language classes were offered to Costa Rican students and faculty at the Mona Campus. This was part of the Quality Leadership Exchange programme coordinated by the LACC and the Office of Student Services (The University of the West Indies Annual Report to Council, 2007-2008, p. 44-45). In 2010, Mona Campus also hosted overseas students from ten North American, African and European universities for one and two semesters. In turn, arrangements were made for the UWI students to attend academic institutions overseas (The University of the West Indies Annual Report, 2009-2010, p. 88-89).

Study participants also drew attention to a number of exchange programs for faculty and students with European universities.

A good example of that would be the relationship that we have with the University of Gothenburg and that is a chemistry arrangement. The Department of Chemistry at Mona
and the Department of Chemistry at the University of Gothenburg, that’s in Sweden… and those two departments, they exchange faculty. At a point in the academic year, our chemist will go to Sweden to teach tropical and other kinds of chemistry, that affect this side of the world and our region in particular, and food security being a concern for us and so on. And the chemist from Gothenburg will come here to give us their European perspective, but, they did not stop at just faculty members, because we now have chemistry graduate students who are now moving. We’ve received four of their graduate students. Finally we have students in chemistry coming here, and two of our graduate students going to Gothenburg each year, right and it’s a wonderful program. This is because it not only affects the students, but the teaching of chemistry on either side. So you have those kinds of relationships coming out of the whole internationalization thrust. Of course you know it adds resources, on either side, whether financial or just academic, because the students are funded via what is known as the Linnaeus Palme Project (an international exchange program). This is a foundation in Sweden, that encourages the movement of students between countries and, it’s done via departments, not by the institutions. So the institution cannot sign an agreement with the Linnaeus Palme Foundation. It has to be two departments, two academic departments. So those in Chemistry put in a bid for the Linnaeus Palme Project and they were funded. They have the same kind of program going on for literature, with the University of Malmo in Sweden and again it is a Linnaeus Palme funded project. They exchange faculty as well as students in the area of literature. So our students go there to do European Literature and their students come here to do West Indian Literature, right. So it’s a good program and its shows what can happen when departments collaborate, right. Because as I said, it’s not just an exchange agreement that was brokered, it was an academic program that they developed and within the academic program, both departments came to the exchange program. You had the academic program first, then the exchange of ideas, and then you had the exchange of research, and information and so on, before you had the actual exchange. The exchange just came as an extension of what they were doing before. So, I think those two projects are wonderful examples of internationalization working (MC2 Interviews, 2013 - 2014).

In the above quotation we see inter-institutional collaborative arrangements at the international level being driven by faculty. Given that members of faculty were not interviewed for this study, what is unknown is which group- faculty or administration - initiated the above projects. Thus far, the thesis has presented what appear to be internationalization efforts driven predominantly by UWI administration. What the above examples illustrate is the active involvement of faculty in the internationalization efforts at the UWI. As mentioned previously, the goal of the study is to explore the impact of internationalization on regionalization at the UWI. Based on my experience in higher education, as the researcher, I presumed that the administrative group could provide the insight needed for understanding the interplay between internationalization and regionalization at the UWI.

As previously mentioned, academic mobility was not just about the movement of people. It was also about the movement of ideas, research and knowledge. Here the cross border delivery of education and research collaboration gave rise to academic mobility for students and
faculty. Accordingly, while attempting to categorize internationalization activities into distinct groupings, we see project amalgamations giving rise to complex and mutually beneficial partnerships in the international arena for all involved.

In the above example we also see collaborative arrangements between departments within institutions, initiated for academic purposes. Neither state nor institutional bureaucracies are involved initially. Here globalization and neoliberalism have orchestrated their influence, as the free exchange of academic ideas, engagement with other scholars and funding, become the primary motivators for relationship building within academia. It has been widely accepted that teaching, research and service, and not economics form the core for the raison d’être of academic institutions such as universities. However, well-meaning organizations such as the Linnaeus Palme project can superimpose undue influence on scholastic endeavours and unintentionally manipulate the research objectives of autonomous institutions.

During the emergence of higher education during the colonial era, the Irvine Committee stressed the importance of extra-regional academic interactions for graduate studies and to break down the insularities in the region. However, the latter also kept graduate education in regional institutions such as the UWI, underdeveloped. This new transnationalism that has emerged, egged-on by globalization, has repurposed academic mobility within the UWI. The interactions created from internationalization (academic exchanges, study abroad, language skill acquisition) have helped to strengthen the global reputation of the institution; created innovations from research collaborations; provided intercultural experiences for students and faculty, increased intra-regional inter-regional academic activities, between the other linguistic groups within the Caribbean sub-region, Latin and Central America, all of which have had positive effects regional integration and higher education regionalization for the sub-region.

6.5.1.4 Teaching Assistantship Program

Another exchange program at the UWI involved teacher candidates at the institution and teachers in the primary and secondary systems across the region. For example, since 2006 the Chilean Agency for International Cooperation (AGCI) has sponsored the CARICOM Spanish Training Programs. Spanish teachers at the secondary and primary levels had the opportunity to participate in training seminars in Chile at the Universidad Pedagógica de Chile. The program was six weeks in duration for Spanish teachers from across the Caribbean. In 2007 the program targeted Primary School Spanish teachers from Trinidad, Antigua, Dominica, Jamaica and The Bahamas (The University of the West Indies Annual Report to Council, 2007-2008, p. 45-46). At
the time of the interviews in 2014, the LACC at Mona was preparing to send another contingent of teachers to participate in the program.

By 2008, 144 UWI students from the Mona Campus had participated in the Teacher Assistantship program (The UWI Annual Report to Council, 2007-2008, p. 43). In 2011-2012 thirteen UWI graduate students spent one year as part of the teaching assistantship program with Colombia. Since its inception in 2005, approximately ninety-nine UWI students participated in the teacher assistantship program between Colombia and the UWI. In turn, the UWI has received eighteen Colombian teaching assistants over the same period (The University of the West Indies, Annual Report, 2011-2012, p. 106). Funding for the annual Teacher Assistantship Program was provided for, by an agreement between the UWI and ICETEX (Instituto Colombiano de Crédito Educativo y Estudios Técnicos en el Exterior) and facilitated by the Embassy of Colombia in Jamaica and the Jamaican Embassy in Colombia. The objective of this programme is to expose recent UWI graduates to working in a Spanish-speaking environment and to gain experience in foreign language teaching methodologies (The University of the West Indies Annual Report, 2009-2010, p. 91).

Study participants highlighted the importance and benefits of the above program. Through ICETEX, Colombian students had the opportunity to go overseas. To manage the program, the UWI worked with IKEFEST, which at a time of the interviews, was the institute that governed student exchanges in Colombia. This was cited as the best possible arrangement for coordination, because it created a central point for organizing the scheme, rather than having to deal with the individual institutions. Through ICETEX students from the UWI were assigned to Colombian institutions for a year. The institutions would indicate their willingness to accept teaching assistants from the Caribbean, through negotiations. The program was also quite competitive, as students from other parts of the world were also contenders for placement opportunities in Colombia. At the UWI, potential student participants were screened via an interview process. Once selected, they received a briefing and other preparation for the program. This particular program has been in operation at the UWI since 2004. In a given year, approximately eighteen UWI students from across the various campuses were given the opportunity to participate in the program. In turn, the UWI received approximately six students from Colombia (MC5 Interviews, 2013 - 2014).

Interview respondents provided other examples of programs involving the cross border movement of students that were occurring at the UW. One respondent noted, we also have the English as a Second Language program that we coordinate in conjunction with the Department of Language, Linguistics and Philosophy. With the English as a Second Language Program, we market mainly to Colombia. We’re trying to
broaden our focus and to include Brazil, but for now we have been focusing mainly on Colombia. And we work with the Jamaican Embassy in Bogota to get that information out, as well as work with Colombian institutions that we have had a relationship with before, who need training for faculty and some senior students (MC2 Interviews, 2013 - 2014).

Although this does not fit the category of ‘exchange’ it can be categorized as another type of mobility program at the UWI. This was, the opportunity to teach English overseas. Through this initiative, the UWI had arrangements with China, Japan, Korea and a number of Latin American countries (MC7 and MC5 Interviews, 2013 - 2014). Another example of cross border delivery of services at the UWI for revenue generation was English-language programming, aimed at the non-English speaking territories, regionally and internationally.

The for-profit motives of internationalization, though not a primary focus of the UWI’s strategy, was still very much a reality. Discussions with participants and the review of relevant institutional documents suggested that opportunities for academic capitalism were being sought. The creation of UWI Consulting73, for research commercialization purposes and the fee for service English-language training programs previously mentioned were two such examples. Other types of academic mobility activities that provided some revenues to the UWI were the short-term study tours and summer programs, which will be discussed shortly. To this end, conference facilities have been built, and renovations to the residences have taken place across the various campuses, to accommodate this growing need. However, at the UWI greater emphasis seemed to be on the intercultural experiences and opportunities created.

Here again we see strong linkages between regional development and internationalization. Bilateral and multilateral cooperation were established in academia to provide remedies to the challenges of globalization, and build capacity within these institutions. This required policy harmonization to facilitate the resulting academic mobility. Thus the formation of organizations such as the Association of Caribbean and Pacific (ACP) states has encouraged these collaborative relationships. Accordingly, higher education policy integration was aiding in the advancement of the regional integration of sovereign states within and across regions. As well, the occurrence of region-making74, was driven here by shared concerns, and

---

73 UWI is a limited liability international business corporation and subsidiary of the University of the West Indies located in St. Lucia. Its mission is to unlock the development potential of the Caribbean by diversifying revenue streams for the UWI. It provides consulting, technological and entrepreneurial support through strategic alliances, particularly with the private sector and international partners (The University of the West Indies Annual Report, 2011/2012, p. 91-92).

74 Knight, W.A, Castro-Rea and Ghany (2014) discussed the fluidity of region-making. They view regionalism as an explicit or implicit intention by governments to create a region, encompassing more
was not confined to a single geographic boundary, but a conglomerate of states who shared a collective identity (small size, colonial legacy and similar problems), that have chosen to develop common political institutions/ institution in that of ACP.

6.5.1.5 Summer Programs and Study Tours for Non-UWI Students

The UWI also hosted a number of Summer Institutes and Study Tours for overseas students and delegations across the main campuses. In Barbados, there was the Barbados Interdisciplinary Tropical Studies (BITS) program, which exposed students to a wide range of agri-food-energy industries and related socio-economic issues in Barbados. The program offered intensive course work through integrated group projects, to help develop the skills of young professionals in the areas of planning, managing, decision-making, and communication (The University of the West Indies, Cave Hill, International Office, retrieved from http://www.cavehill.uwi.edu/administration/international_office.asp). Research participants noted that one of the international partners in the BITS program was McGill University in Montreal, Canada, and at the time of the interviews, the program was reported to have been in operation for approximately two years.

Another program mentioned by study participants was the Job Opportunities for Business Scale-Up (JOBS) project. The program was initially funded by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID). It was a collaboration between the UWI and The Kelley School of Business, Indiana University (KSB/IU). The aim of the program was to help young professionals in Barbados and those across the Organization of Eastern Caribbean States (OECS), develop skills in entrepreneurship (MC14 Interviews, 2013 – 2014; The University of the West Indies- Cave Hill School of Business, 2013, retrieved from http://www.uwichsb.org/News/Celebrating-JOBS-The-Past-Present.aspx). Through the JOBS program “graduate students from the University of the West Indies teamed up with students from Indiana University and the Governors’ State University, to provide consulting advice for existing local companies” (The University of the West Indies - Cave Hill School of Business, than one territory (p. 6). They also note that regions can be physical or functional. “Physical regions encompass continuous spaces controlled by more than one state; articulated by military, political or economic rationale. In contrast, functional regions are defined by non-territorial factors such as migration, identities, markets and ideologies; they encompass areas that may not necessarily be contiguous, but whose claims are usually upheld by non-state actors” (p. 5)
2014, retrieved from http://www.uwichsb.org/News/Celebrating-JOBS-The-Past-Present.aspx). However, study respondents noted that although strong relationships had been built with Canadian and US universities, the challenge with these types of initiatives was that they are very campus based. The limitation therefore was that while they had built relationships with Cave Hill more diverse opportunities were needed to expose these overseas students to a wider understanding of the Caribbean, and to expand these programs across all campuses. As one of the study participants noted to maybe spend two or three weeks in Barbados, two weeks in Trinidad, two weeks in Jamaica for example… I think I really realised the power of that when we were writing the innovation centre proposal to submit to the Inter-American Development Bank (IDB). When in order to really get a feel for the region, the IDB said well let’s do a scoping mission. We did a week in Barbados, a week in Trinidad, a week in Jamaica and it was so informative…and it really hit me how if I was a student on an exchange program, that if I was going to any one of those countries and then go back to them after the exchange program, I would get this tiny flavour of the Caribbean and it would be wrong…. You go to Trinidad you get this crazy entrepreneurial multicultural, you know a wealthy country that would give you a whole different flavour of the Caribbean. Then if you go to Jamaica you get this incredibly entrepreneurial you know real honest, you know, in your face Caribbean approach… What would you get if you went to Belize and Grenada and Guyana and you know, or the Dominican Republic and Haiti? I am sure they would get even a different flavour (MC14 Interviews, 2013 – 2014).

While helping to generate revenue, these programs also helped the UWI to extend its reach internationally.

At the St. Augustine Campus respondents reported that the growth of study tours and study abroad programs led to the creation of a full-time study tour coordinator to facilitate groups and these types of arrangements that were coming into the campus. Also on staff at that campus were two Student Mobility Coordinators, one for inbound and another for outbound student exchanges. Outbound study tours were also becoming prevalent among UWI staff. These had become revenue generation and internationalization schemes. Accordingly, they were being incorporated into the work of the international office at the St. Augustine Campus (MC15 Interviews, 2013 – 2014).

In addition, at the UWI Cave Hill Campus a number of undergraduate courses were offered to overseas students during the Summer. The courses were six weeks in duration, divided into two-hour segments in the timetable for a total of six hours per week or forty-two in-class hours (The University of the West Indies, Cave Hill, International Office, retrieved from http://www.cavehill.uwi.edu/administration/international_office.asp). At the Mona Campus there was also a Reggae Studies program offered during the Summer for both regional and international students. The program was a month long and students were taught by a music
The UWI made arrangements for the student’s accommodations and students also had the opportunity to visit the Bob Marley House/Museum, to learn about reggae music (MC15 Interviews, 2013 – 2014).

Furthermore, in collaboration with Trinity College in Connecticut, an MOU was signed with the UWI for another student exchange program. Through this initiative, the Trinity-UWI House was created. Prior to the exchange agreement with the UWI, Trinity College Students had been coming down to Trinidad for almost twenty years. They interviewed carnival mask makers, calypsonians, made documentaries, recordings and conducted research on culture. Faculty from Trinity would usually accompany the students and it was estimated that during that time period, more than forty had visited Trinidad. Prior to the MOU, students from Trinity took courses in Trinidad, taught by UWI faculty and staff off-site. Accordingly, for over the years Trinity had built a repository of Caribbean history and culture. With the creation of the MOU these archives were now being shared. As one respondent noted

Trinity [invited] Peter Minshall… a very famous Trinidian carnival designer who did the Barcelona Olympics…They carried him Trinity to do keynote lecturers. UWI didn’t even invite him to do keynote lectures… So two universities have come together… Now normally with exchanges, students pay tuition at their home university. So my students pay local tuition. Their students pay local tuition and their living expenses. And Trinity was unique, because their students are coming down here to do two courses, while UWI students would be a fulltime student at Trinity taking five courses (MC15 Interviews, 2013 – 2014).

The end result of this arrangement was fairly lucrative for the UWI, as revenues from tuition were also being generated.

Study participants noted that at the UWI a Memorandum of Understanding was often created to facilitate access by international students to UWI programs, and to allow for the mobility of UWI students to overseas institutions. However, many fears persist which may inhibit foreign students from coming to the campuses. The high crime rate in some of the main campus countries was acknowledged as one factor.

I mean you do see you do see the White students walking around campus in groups (for security reasons). So you know that they are foreign students. And they come here for a short while, particularly around carnival time as well; they come for attachments to the Centre for Festival and Creative Arts. They are on Agostine Street (MC10 Interviews, 2013 – 2014).

(Consequently, institutions like the University of Toronto use the advisory information from the Department of Foreign Affairs, Canada, to rank safety in countries. This information is often used as part of the study abroad departure briefings to students and faculty from the University of Toronto, intending to conduct research overseas. A number of Caribbean islands, including
Trinidad, have been placed on this advisory list used by the University). To minimize security, intercultural concerns and other types of challenges arising from mobility schemes, there were some attempts by universities globally, including the UWI to find ways for improving the student experience on campus, through ‘internationalization at home’ activities. This will be discussed subsequently.

6.5.1.6 Study Abroad

In 2007-2008 the UWI delivered two summer and winter study abroad programs. There were sixteen MOUS signed at the time and ten of them were executed at the Mona campus. A total of eighty-four students and fourteen visiting faculty took part in this program. There were two modules planned and delivered on the environment. Module one was based at Mona while Module two took participants to Barbados and St Lucia (The University of the West Indies Annual Report, 2007-2008, p. 21-22). As well during the same year, fifteen Spanish-major students from the UWI spent their March-break working in Mexican businesses. The practicum which lasted one week was a requirement for their degree program. The program was facilitated by the Department of Modern Languages together with the LACC and the Mexican Embassy in Kingston, Jamaica. It was designed to supplement student’s language learning experiences and provided them with exposure to the Latin-American business environment and culture (The University of the West Indies Annual Report to Council, 2007-2008, p. 45).

Study participants noted that many US Universities had study abroad programs and many were approaching the UWI, because they wished to bring their students to the Caribbean in some type of mobility program (MC14 Interviews, 2013 - 2014). However, at the time of the interviews, the flow of students through the mobility schemes in operation at the UWI, were very small, and to some extent, primarily unidirectional. As one study participant noted, we always have to keep a balance of numbers. The problem we are having now is that a lot of our Canadian partners and the University of Toronto in particular, we are out of balance. Because we have most of our students going than we have coming from the University of Toronto. We have students coming from the University of Toronto, but not in the numbers that we have going. It is small or non-existent. So that we have had to slow the flow of students to one or two right now, because that’s how we receive Toronto students, one or two. So until we resolve that imbalance, we have to slow the amount of students and that is primarily because of where the University of Toronto is...UWI also has relationships with York and Ryerson in Toronto. With Ryerson it is program specific - Social Work. Most programs at these institutions are opened, except for the professions like Law and Medicine (MC2 Interview, 2013 – 2014).

The Diasporic communities of West Indians residing in the US, Canada and Britain may offer some hope to UWI students wishing to study abroad. Study respondents noted that those who
had been able to take advantage of the opportunities to study abroad have utilized the kindness of relatives and friends in these jurisdictions, when seeking accommodations (MC2 Interview, 2013-2014). As well, the decision to travel to those jurisdictions was often motivated by these existing linkages.

As previously mentioned, study abroad was part of the UWI internationalization objectives. Accordingly, the creation of the international offices across the main campuses was aimed at increasing the study abroad opportunities for UWI students. Participants noted for example, that the UWI was involved with the ERASMUS program, one of the largest student and faculty mobility programs funded by the European Union (J. Knight, 2008, p. 5). The ERASMUS project, along with the African-Caribbean and Pacific (ACP) project – formally, CARPIMS (Caribbean Pacific Island Mobility Scheme) was coordinated by the International Offices at the various campuses. CARPIMS comprised three ACP projects.

One of the things that we do here is manage all of our European Mobility projects. We are involved in five Erasmus projects. And our partners with both CARPIMS and the ERASMUS Project would be the University of Porto in Portugal, because normally you have to have a partner institution in Europe to bid for the projects, as well as work together in all aspects of managing the project. We also coordinate three intra-ACP projects, which is exactly like Erasmus, but South-South Mobility between the Caribbean and Pacific, among ten universities. [The International Offices does the coordination] for all of them, the entire UWI. And those three intra-ACP projects for example, are worth $6.8 Million Euros, which we coordinate with them out of this office. And it’s $6.8M Euros to move Masters and PhD students for full degrees within the Caribbean, Africa and the Pacific. You can go and do a PhD in Samoa and Papua New Guinea and Fiji and Guyana, Suriname, Haiti … that directly relates to internationalization. Staff can also go on one or two month exchanges and then. For Erasmus it’s the same thing, but up to Europe (MC15 and MC2 Interviews, 2013-2014).

In addition to the University of the West Indies, some of the CARPIMS partners include the University of Guyana, University of Belize, Universite d’Etat d’Haiti, The University of the South Pacific, University of Papua New Guinea, Universidade da Paz Timor-Leste, National University of Samoa, Instituto Tecnologico de Santo Domingo, Papua New Guinea University of Technology and Universidade Nacional de Timor Lorosa’e. The Intra-ACP projects supported higher education cooperation among African, Caribbean and Pacific countries. Its objectives were to promote sustainable development and alleviating poverty, by the increasing the number of highly trained professionals available in ACP countries. Accordingly, the program facilitated the movement of PhD and Masters Students as well as faculty and staff, to help build institutional capacity and human resources, while encouraging socioeconomic development in each region, by enabling access a wider variety of postgraduate degrees and research
opportunities (Caribbean-Pacific Island Mobility Scheme, 2015, retrieved from http://www2.sta.uwi.edu/carpims/?show=institutions).

6.5.1.7 Medical Elective Students

Another type of student mobility program mentioned by study participants that was operating at the UWI was the medical elective program. Under the medical elective program, regional and international medical students are assisted with finding residency, paid placement opportunities and short-term rotations at medical facilities in Jamaica. The program is coordinated by the international office at Mona through support from the faculty of medical sciences.

These students will come from anywhere between two weeks to a year to do their rotations in the different areas of medicine. Our largest intake of medical elective students currently comes from the Spartan School of Health Sciences in St. Lucia. We do have formal agreements for the elective program with Kings College, which is a Medical School within the University of London. We have a special arrangement for the Medical Elective Students with Yale University in the US. But, we do receive students from everywhere else without an agreement. And in those arrangements those students have to pay to do the electives with us (MC2 Interviews, 2013 – 2014).

The medical faculty was the first program established at the UWI (formerly UCWI) back in 1948. Through its long history it has earned a strong reputation whereby regional and international students have sought after opportunities to enroll in its programs. As we have seen, and as will be discussed shortly, its programs had achieved recognition from as far away as Africa, particularly in the countries of Angola and Botswana.

6.6 International Students

In many areas of the world mobility has become the most ‘accessible and quantifiable index for assessing internationalization’ (de Wit, 1995, p. 1). Consequently, internationalization has become synonymous with international student recruitment. For some institutions and governments, these high fee-paying consumers of education have added to their bottom-line. Historically, as mentioned above, the flow of international students to the UWI had been through the Faculty of Medicine. Participants noted that the UWI had a long established relationship with the country of Botswana to train medical students, for example. The government of Botswana have been giving full scholarships for their students to come to UWI. These students were recruited as international students and received primarily at the Mona Campus (MC2, MC7 and MC14 Interviews, 2013 - 2014). However, at the time of the interviews it was noted that,
right now the flow of students from Botswana, has gone down and I was learning last week that quite a number of them prefer to go to South Africa because it is closer to home. Coming to this side of the world, they don’t get to go home; sometimes they don’t get to go home until the end of the program, so they are here for five years away from family, away from, anything familiar, so they want to go closer to home. The other thing too is that they have forged similar arrangements with universities in the US and that is very attractive to them as well (MC2 Interview, 2013 - 2014).

Participants also reported that they had heard that Botswana was in the process of setting up its own medical school. This would also affect the inflow of international students to the UWI from that country (MC14 Interview, 2013 - 2014).

Statistics from the Cave Hill and Mona Campuses revealed that in 2012-2013 there were international students from Australia, Bolivia, Brazil, Britain, Burma, Canada, China, Denmark, Finland, France, Ghana, Honduras, Hong Kong, India, Ireland, Kenya, Mexico, Malta, Myanmar, Netherlands, Nigeria, Papua New Guinea, Samoa, Saudi Arabia, Sierra Leon, Sri Lanka, Sweden, Zambia and the United States, attending the UWI. They were enrolled in full-time and part-time undergraduate and graduate programs in the faculties of Social Sciences; Humanities and Education; Law; Medical Sciences; and Science and Technology (The University of the West Indies - Cave Hill Statistics, 2012, p. 24-27; Office Of Planning, Mona Campus-Unofficial Statistics). (See statistical tables on international student enrolment in Appendix 3). While the statistics did not mention their length of study or the credentials being pursued, there was a sense from participants in the study that there were a growing number of international students across all campuses.

To aid in the recruitment efforts, as part of the internationalization strategy, staff at the international offices attended international fairs and conferences to recruit students. These activities have yielded a few graduate students from Canada, in particular. However, more recently, at the Cave Hill campus a recruiting firm was contracted to assist with obtaining international students (MC2 and MC9 Interviews, 2013 - 2014). Respondents at Cave Hill for example noted,

I know that I can speak in broad terms that our largest contingent of foreign students are from the University of California and we have had varying yearly amounts, sometimes we get twenty-two, sometimes we get thirty-two, then off-course we have Canadians, what does that add up to, well I don’t know. Then we have the Scandinavians, from Norway and Sweden who are interested in Reggae, you know, it is not an extraordinary horde of people by far, but...I mean it has grown over the last six years, no question about it, and it will continue to grow...[However], while the number of international students at the UWI has increased, this group does not make up a significant number within/ across the campus student population...Similarly, the St. Augustine Campus would have international students who would be interested in Soca and Calypso (that genre of music) or cricket. The population of international students is small but growing.
Growing the international student numbers is part of the strategic agenda. These students pay at a premium (they are/ will be full-fee-payers) and can help with the UWI's bottom-line (MC3 and MC9 Interviews, 2013 - 2014).

While there were different activities within internationalization occurring at the campuses and varying levels of international student participation, the UWI will need more self-sustaining models. The reliance on international student fees, while helpful, would not be enough to offset required revenues for university financing. Additionally, state financing was insufficient and the UWI had great difficulty recovering funds owed from cash-strapped regional governments (MC12 Interview, 2013 - 2014).

We have to look at more self-sustaining models for bringing foreign students who bring their own resources and therefore provide some assurances that financially the institution is gaining. But more importantly for me is not the financial part, it’s that, as an institution, forgetting that you want to be globally competitive, forgetting that you want to be internationally recognized, globally recognized and internationally competitive, learning is about, which is the business that we are in, whether we’re even talking research, or we’re talking even from the perspective of faculty learning or we’re talking from the perspective of the student learning. Learning is global and we have to ensure that for our students to be good, to contextualize their own experiences, well in terms of where they are in their country, where they are in the region and where they are in the world, that bringing, having opportunities for exchanges or having opportunities for students to come from overseas to participate in our programs, enriches our institution to a large extent. Learning formally and informally both in terms of the curriculum that we provide for our students, but also in terms of understanding cultures, that cross-cultural exchange that could really only take place if a student engages in intimate scenarios, where they learn from another student who comes from another part of the world, and we cannot be internationally competitive unless we do that. So we have to we have to work at increasing our numbers of international students. I know we are working on it in terms of the graduate programs, we see the value there and we see the opportunities there (MC12 Interview, 2013 - 2014).

Despite this most recent challenges, interview respondents noted that the upgrades to the new medical facility building at the Mona campus, were in part due to revenues generated from the fees from international students in the medical program. While loans were also needed, the growth in the medical program provided significant financial revenues for project start-up. Yet the inflow of international students and mobility agreements to the campuses were often directly related to the types of bilateral and multilateral agreements entered into mainly by the governments of the main campus countries, in particular. The Prime Minister of Trinidad and Tobago’s trips to China and India mentioned earlier in this chapter, resulted in bilateral agreements with those countries and mobility arrangements for the UWI. As well, UWI statistical reports revealed that Indian students were enrolled at the St. Augustine Campus (See Appendix 3). My sense was that there was hope among staff that these numbers would grow in the future,
along with the general population of international students across the campuses. Respondents noted that while the numbers of international students to the campuses were not large, they yielded opportunities for UWI students and the respective national governments (MC7 and MC6 Interviews, 2013 - 2014).

6.7 International Faculty

Respondents reported that as part of its strategic goals, the UWI had made concerted efforts to attract international faculty. They noted that postings were placed internationally and credentials of potential candidates were often peer-reviewed. As well, for faculty promotions, international scholars from appropriate fields of study would assist with the screening process (OC9, MC13 and MC14 Interviews, 2013 - 2014). As previously mentioned, one of the strategic goals of the UWI with regards to internationalization was to attract quality international students and faculty. Study participants noted that approximately 5% to 30% of faculty members from across all campuses were recruited from outside of the region. This was a deliberate recruitment strategy by the UWI. However, the UWI has found it difficult to compete with North American and European institutions, which had larger resource pools and were better often positioned to lure faculty to their institutions, due the incentives and the remuneration they offered (MC2 and MC7 Interviews, 2013 - 2014).

6.8 Internationalization At Home

J. Knight, (2008) described internationalization activities happening on campus as ‘internationalization at home.’ These included the international and intercultural dimensions of teaching and learning; research and extracurricular activities; developing relationships with local cultural and ethnic communities/ groups, and integrating foreign students and scholars into campus life (p. 22-23). Despite the benefits of study abroad and exchanges, international mobility was often limited to a small minority of domestic students and staff on campus. The vast majority of students throughout their academic career, never get to travel overseas because of cost prohibitions; familial and other obligations at home; concerns over the transferability of credits received from overseas; fears of encountering racism or other types of negative experiences abroad; minority group marginalization; fear of going to unfamiliar places, just to name a few (Soria and Troisi, 2014, p. 263). Consequently, among institutions of higher learning, there was a growing interest in improving the intercultural competencies of domestic
students, faculty and staff as well as the experiences and interactions of international students in host country campuses - internationalization at home (Soria and Troisi, 2014).

At the UWI there were a number of discussions with study respondents that alluded to ‘internationalization at home’ activities taking place on campus. They noted that there was a growing interest in foreign language development/acquisition as elective courses among students, including medical students, for example. The latter hoped that by taking a foreign language, they would make themselves more marketable globally, while improving their intercultural competencies. This included expanding their opportunities to obtain residencies and future employment in non-English speaking countries. In the past, when scholarships from non-English-speaking countries were being made available, UWI staff was limited to selecting graduates from the language departments. This was slowly changing. Spanish courses for example were becoming quite popular among engineers, and as previously mentioned, among medical students as well (MC5 Interview, 2013–2014).

Keynote lectures by visiting scholars were other types of activities that took place across the campuses, to promote ‘internationalization at home.’

So we do something called the Global Citizenship Dialogues where we bring in people of global repute and we do a kind of Larry King gizmo type of thing, where we sit and talk with them and have a conversation on stage. And we don’t talk about internationalization. The last one we had was the Soca Star called Kees. He sings Soca music; he’s very famous in Trinidad. Kees Dieffenthaller – KES the Band, and he came in and we talked about his upbringing and his worldview, and where he sees himself in the future, and this is focused on students to excite them about being globally oriented, right. Then we also work with all the embassies in Trinidad to bring cultural performances, visiting dignitaries, keynote speakers to the Campus. So it’s a means of doing projects to bring the world to the Campus. If we can’t carry the world abroad via study tours and mobility, let’s bring the world here, and let’s excite the imagination here. And that person also manages all of our relationships and partnerships, our MOUs and institutional visits that we host. We host visits of individuals and groups from universities from around the world. Every single month there’s groups coming in to talk to us about collaboration (MC15 Interviews, 2013–2014).

As well, at the St. Augustine Campus for example, an international student week was held for the first time in 2013. Additionally, foreign language clubs and cultural activities were also prevalent at the Mona Campus (MC5 and MC13 Interviews, 2013–2014).

Student mobility is just one component of what we do as part of the LACC (Latin America and Caribbean Centre)….Here at Mona and what helps, I mean and also we do a lot on the cultural level out of this office in conjunction with the campus here. Being resident here makes this campus benefit a lot more than the other campuses. There is a Spanish Club for example and we assist them in organizing you know, concerts, music, drama, film festivals, things like that you know, so that there is always some activity showcasing the culture of Latin America and also not forgetting the Spanish Caribbean.
Because Cuba, we have very good relations with Cuba, Puerto Rico, the Dominican Republic and Haiti (MC5 Interviews, 2013 – 2014).

Internationalization at home served to bring intercultural experiences on campus to the domestic population. It was also part of the UWI strategy to assure its mission and vision for internationalization. Exposure to others from across the globe, helped to enhance the campus experience. As well, bringing into the campus experience, the wider Caribbean, made up of its multitude of languages and cultures served to make significant in-roads to the UWI’s strategic approaches towards internationalization.

6.8.1 Regionalization and Internationalization: Intraregional Students and Programs

As we have seen, the academic mobility trends that have occurred with international and regional institutions have also helped to promote regionness, regionalism and regionalization. Therefore, for some respondents, internationalization and regionalization were similar processes occurring in different arenas and/or on different scales. One respondent provided the following explanation.

Well other people might have a different view, but certainly if I start off wanting to know more about the countries in my region. I want to learn more about Cuba and then perhaps the Dominican Republic or Haiti or something else, that can lead me quite easily to want to have an appetite to learn more about Spain or to learn more about Holland or to learn more about the Panama Canal or something (MC13 Interview, 2013–2014).

Accordingly, across the UWI, perhaps also propelled by globalization, the growing interest in internationalization seems to have created greater motivation to seek out more south to south partnerships. As has been discussed, the UWI has done this primarily through MOUs, exchanges, language programs and other types of collaborations with the Spanish and French-speaking Caribbean, Central and South America. Therefore, when the earthquake that devastated Haiti occurred in January 2010, the UWI was quick to respond. It did so with expertise to assist in the recovery and rebuilding efforts, including the hosting of over eighty-four graduate students at the St Augustine and Mona Campuses, because they were displaced from their respective universities (MC7, MC5, MC13, and MC11 Interviews, 2013–2014). In a CARICOM News Release it was revealed that the

UWI Mona Campus welcomed 26 Haitian scholarship students from the Université d’Etat d’Haïti (UEH) on full scholarships to complete their studies at Mona for one year… [while] the St. Augustine Campus offered tuition and accommodation to 70 Haitian students from the State University and 54 of those students arrived in mid-September, 41 are in Engineering, 12 in Agriculture and one (1) in Management Studies (CARICOM,
The Haitian students lived in Halls of residence on the campuses. They were spread out across a number of departments including, Linguistics, Pure and Applied Sciences, History and Archaeology, Psychology, and Economics. Once their studies were completed, their Bachelor’s degrees were conferred by Université d’Etat d’Haïti (UEH) [CARICOM, 2010, October 27, retrieved June 2015 from www.caricom.org/jsp/pressreleases/press_releases_2010/pres433_10.jsp].

Additionally, at the time of the interviews a Haitian delegation was in Jamaica and the UWI had signed an MOU with that country. As well, the UWI was working on a proposal with the Haitian Ministry of Education and Vocational Planning to bring graduate students for studies at the University. The aim was to have approximately thirty students begin their studies with English language training, for up to three months, before transitioning into graduate programs at the UWI (MC5 Interviews, 2013 – 2014).

Another approach by the UWI was the creation of a tuition incentive program for ACS (Association of Caribbean States) students, in particular, students from the Spanish, French and Dutch-speaking Caribbean. This idea was the brainchild of Principal Sankat, at the St. Augustine Campus (MC11 and MC15 Interviews, 2013 – 2014). As part of this ACS initiative the UWI agreed to

treat students from those ACS countries in terms of their fee-paying ability, not as international students. We have created a separate category for them so that they can pay a lower fee. It’s a differentiated fee structure for students from the ACS, non-contributing countries. So we now have a fee structure for local and UWI –seventeen, Turks and Caicos, whatever. We have an international student rate. There’s now a forth rate, which is for students from Curacao, Dominican Republic, Netherland Antilles, Martinique, Guadeloupe who are in the Caribbean, members of the ACS that are not part of the UWI-seventeen. That was just approved at University Council two months ago. We are now going to begin actively recruiting students from those countries. Put it this way, [we needed to do this] to attract them into the UWI fold, because it’s one thing to talk about internationalization but would you see Guyana and Suriname as internationalization. The answer - they are regionalization. In many ways, Martinique and Guadalupe and French Guiana and Curacao and Haiti, it’s not really internationalization, it is regionalization. [The UWI] is the leading Caribbean university, and its beginning to open its doors to a wider Caribbean student and staff experience…. [We need] to embrace these islands and these other non-English speaking countries …Could you imagine the student experience at St. Augustine? If [we] had people from Brazil speaking Portuguese, French and Dutch-speaking students and all of that, could you imagine what we will be producing? We will be producing an amazing output; we will get closer as a region. As well, these students all have access to Europe. In the Dutch Caribbean, all their students go to the Netherlands….So what we did is we created a specialised fee structure to entice them. You have to dangle the carrot. You can’t
just say well we’ll create spaces for you with international rates. This is a direct intervention (MC11 and MC15 Interviews, 2013 – 2014).

Throughout this chapter, we have seen the influence of the international on the regional and to some extent, a type of peaceful co-existence of both internationalization and regionalization at the UWI. They were not, as initially thought of by the researcher at the onset of this study, as inimical. Instead, they were and are mutually reinforcing practices within the University of the West Indies. As we have seen, UWI’s strategic international objectives identified in its vision and mission were being executed in mobility initiatives for students and faculty, intra-regionally and inter-regionally. In turn, these helped to increase the numbers and levels of collaborations with the other linguistic groups that constituted the Caribbean. This was aided by the financial incentives that were provided to facilitate their greater participation in the University of the West Indies. Accordingly, both regionalization and higher education regionalization were being strengthened through internationalization.

Nationalism, in the form of the national priorities of individual governments, and the bilateral and multilateral relationships that this created, also helped to advance the growth of internationalization at the respective campuses. Accordingly, the strategic priorities for internationalization at the UWI was decentralized and individualized through the main campuses. While this was not being coordinated centrally, as was initially envisioned by some members of the UWI community, because each international office reported to the Campus Principals, the choices made by the respective campuses, with regards to their internationalization priorities still converged. This allowed for some level of cohesion, as the three departments within the UWI responsible for internationalization, had different areas of focus, but the collegiality among staff within these departments produced levels of communication, for facilitating the process of internationalization.

Thus the international and inter-regional relationships that resulted have also broadened the understanding of ‘West Indies.’ It reinforced the inclusion of all the linguistic groups that comprised the Caribbean, as well as the parts of Central and South America, previously discussed. Although not all the islands and territories within this grouping were contributing members to the financing of the UWI, the institution has embraced them as important participating members. While there were financial incentives to be obtained from their participation (competitive internationalization), the greater value for the UWI, as expressed by study respondents was the increasing diversity of the institution - a further testament to its regionality. The intercultural experiences, innovations and learning that would be gleaned from
this unrealized potential, of this exercise in inclusivity, only served to further strengthen the regional identity.

6.9 The Benefits and Challenges of Internationalization for Students

Study participants noted that there were benefits and challenges with regards to mobility for students. For example, the interactions that UWI students had when they worked closely with students from other universities were viewed as immensely rewarding. Participants hypothesized that at first students may seem intimidated and then later perhaps frustrated, because they may feel that they did not have the same opportunities as their counterparts from overseas. They may begin to question their preparedness for work in the modern world. However, having had the opportunities to work with students from overseas, this engagement would broaden their intercultural experience. As well, it may also incentivise them about wanting to leave the region to get additional experience and education and further expand their worldview (MC14 and OC5 Interviews, 2013 - 2014). Another respondent further noted,

I would argue that if you did law at Cave Hill you would be world class in terms of Caribbean Law because they are the experts in it. But if you look generically across standards B.A.s and B.Sc’s, maybe I believe that’s even looking at something as simple as writing CV or doing a presentation, there’s a confidence in the non-UWI students that I think comes from being trained in those things, even before higher education, you know. I don’t think we do that well enough. So in terms of internationalization, we don’t prepare our students enough at the right level and get the timing right. So that by the time they are finished their final degrees, they are at the same level as someone coming out of, I don’t know, any US university (MC14 Interview, 2013 - 2014).

Consequently, the exposure that would come through internationalization from academic mobility could help to improve, not just the intercultural engagement, but could also provide opportunities for learning. The reciprocal exchange of ideas and experiences would be significant and potentially impactful for all involved.

Constraints identified by study participants with regards to academic mobility included finance and credential recognition. For example respondents noted that there was a high demand for veterinarians in the region. However, the high fees that international students would have to pay; and the lack of accreditation of the UWI veterinary school with US accreditation bodies, made it prohibitive for US students to obtain financial loans for studies in the region. It was noted that the UWI was working towards accreditation with the American Veterinary Medical Association, at the time of the interviews. There were often (CXC) Advanced Level
requirements for overseas students, which were qualifications that US students would not have, and this also posed a challenge (MC14 Interview. 2013-2014).

The approach to internationalization by the UWI could be described as ‘comprehensive,’ which was the phrase used by some participants. The integration of regionalization and internationalization had created a high level of momentum for south to south inter-institutional collaborations, inter-regionally. This further supported the growing process of higher education regionalization within the Anglophone Caribbean. As was discussed, academic mobility, through study abroad and exchange programs and other on campus programming have become very much a part of campus activities in the UWI academic space. Propelled by globalization, the UWI has made a deliberate effort to coordinate this myriad of activities through the creation of structures to implement regionalization and internationalization. One of the research participants summed it up this way,

ratings and rankings; the benchmarks the University uses to compare itself; the presence of international students on the main campuses; the summer exchanges; partnership funding arrangements with Consortia – European Union; the creation of international departments at the various main campuses; [the establishment of] CORIA and the UWI’s participation in international fairs. Internationalization is affecting you even by language you use nowadays (OC9 Interview, 2013-2014).

As a strategy internationalization has been proven to be quite advantageous for the UWI. Its institutional partnerships and activities have become quite extensive, structured and organized, thus enhancing its reputation and the regionalization of higher education. Students, staff and faculty have benefitted, and will continue to benefit immensely from these arrangements.

6.10 Conclusion

Respondents noted that strategically, what the UWI has done was to provide better coordination of its internationalization agenda in order move ahead and compete with other universities around the world.

A very significant focus took place on what can we do to leapfrog and jump ahead in response to internationalization. And in order to do that we had to clearly get some basic operational things going. So you had to have better exchanges; better management of MOUs, more substantial revenues generated from study tours. So we professionalized what was in existence already but then we built a whole new set of capabilities and capacities. And having said that you know, almost five and a half six years later we have completely transformed internationalization. The St. Augustine Campus is the leader in the University in internationalization, comprehensive internationalization not traditional, but comprehensive, meaning permeating everything that we do. From our hiring to our facilities, to our classes, to our collaborations, it’s really, because what I realized very early on is that internationalization is both an operational thing, but it’s also a mindset.
It’s a strategic approach. It’s a philosophy and so we’ve done a whole lot, this has been a fascinating journey over the last four or five or six years (MC15 Interview, 2013-2014).

For some study participants, there was an evolving definition of internationalization at the University of the West Indies. That is, how was internationalization being defined presently and how did it need to change for the future. This was seen as critical to the UWI’s survival. As one respondent noted,

so what does internationalization mean to UWI? Today it means institutional partners, well historically it’s meant partnerships, a little mobility, research collaboration, external examiners, course supervision and we have something called study and travel grant which our faculty can use to go abroad. Today we’ve added mobility, scholarships, curriculum enhancement, accreditation and research grants and a little bit more, for example Summer Institutes…So that’s what we are doing today…But where should we go in the future? One UWI four components and not four UWI’s, alright, quite frankly that’s what it is now. Active international recruitment, English as a Foreign Language Business, joint and double degrees, open education, global Summer Institutes, UWI abroad, non-Caribbean campuses, a green university directly related to internationalization. Being world class means we have to be able to do so environmentally, you know. New business models, we have to change who we are in order to achieve this - an evolving institutional philosophy. So basically the current modus operandi is disjointed. Broad understanding and general commitment, but it has to be deliberate, not reactionary. It has to be planned, resourced and executed (MC15 Interview, 2013-2014).

What we have seen throughout this chapter were micro and macro-level approaches to internationalization. The chapter focused on academic mobility by providing a snapshot of the many cross-border education practices and programs at the UWI, which served to bring about the international dimension of higher education. It began with a look at the goals of internationalization outlined in the UWI’s strategic documents and how this was being operationalized at the campus level.

The purpose of this study was to examine the challenges faced by the regional university as it interfaced with internationalization in the context of neoliberalism and globalization. What has been presented was a very ‘comprehensive’ application of internationalization by the leading institution of higher education in the Anglo-Caribbean. The neoliberal imperatives led regional governments and the university to pursue a number of bilateral arrangements, which brought in much needed revenue and resources to the UWI. Some of these relationships were initiated by trade missions to China and India, by the government of Trinidad and Tobago for example. They brought immense benefits particularly to the St. Augustine Campus, in the form of research chairs and funding for agriculture. While there have been many benefits for the St. Augustine Campus, it also created competition among the campuses, leading to separate bilateral arrangements also with China. These bilateral approaches undermine the
regionalization efforts. It would have been much more beneficial to proceed with a multilateral approach where all the campuses involved. Added to that, these bilateral agreements leave out the non-Campus/other contributing countries in these arrangements, further marginalizing them.

Similarly, many of the other inter-institutional collaborations such as international student recruitment efforts; the Linnaeus Palme project, study abroad and exchange programs that were campus specific, including the Summer Institutes, JOBS and BITS programs, which were bringing in much needed revenue – also forms of academic capitalism – were also undermining the UWI's regionalization efforts, because they were campus based. That being said, as the inter-institutional collaborations with international education institutions were increasing, so too were the agreements between the UWI and institutions in Latin America and the non-English-speaking Caribbean, such as Haiti, Cuba and Puerto Rico, to name a few. Thus internationalization at the UWI seemed to be simultaneously advancing and inhibiting the regionalization project.

At the same time, the UWI has institutionalized its internationalization efforts into three departments. Two of these departments report to University Centre – the Vice Chancellery–namely CORIA and the LACC, while the International Student Offices had a reporting structure into the office of the Campus Principal. Consequently, the LACC (Latin America and Caribbean Centre), was able to coordinate Spanish language training programs for teachers across the English-speaking Caribbean and other types of exchanges that were regional in nature. As well, within the St. Augustine International Student Office, the ERASMUS and CARPIMS programs which facilitated student and faculty mobility, was regional in scope. However, given the reporting structure of the International Student Offices into the Office of the Campus Principal at the main campus countries, and what research informants cited as the lack of a coordinated internationalization strategy, each International Student Office in the main campus countries was interpreting and pursuing internationalization activities, largely driven by the agendas of their respective national governments.

Furthermore, we also saw an organizational approach to higher education regionalization occurring at the UWI. That is, through its involvement in UNICA, it was able to coordinate regional support for Haitian students in the aftermath of the earthquake in January 2010. Added to that, the UWI's participation in ACP also helped to promote South to South collaborations, and potentially resist Euro-American dominance, with regards to its inter-institutional partnerships. In both these examples, regionalization has been broadened to include the wider Caribbean - its other linguistic groupings. However, at the same time, the UWI
administrators interviewed wanted to ensure that within global ranking systems, the UWI is not aligned to institutions in the South, and that it is distinguished from them. They were concerned that this affiliation would align them to institutions of lower quality, relative to those in Europe and North America. For expressly stated within the UWI's 2012 to 2017 Strategic Plan is being 'globally competitive' and 'internationally recognized.' Therefore, despite the importance of these south to south collaborations, Euro-American discourses prevailed in the mindset of the study respondents. Consequently, within the UWI we see these contestations and contradictions between the regional, national and international, and their continued impact the regionalization efforts of the University of the West Indies.
CHAPTER SEVEN – DATA ANALYSIS
International Programs and Partnerships

7.1 Introduction

In the preceding chapter, globalization was discussed as being closely linked to internationalization. This is because education, was and is an agent of globalization/ medium for globalization, and so was also being shaped by it. Consequently, internationalization has become higher education’s response to globalization (Marginson, 1999, p. 19; J. Knight, 2008; Stromquist, 2007; Mohamedbhai, 2003; Porter and Vidovich, 2000). Higher education has facilitated the movement of ideas and information in societies and through advancements in technology and transportation, modes of education delivery and academic research has been transformed, for example. Furthermore, since the drafting and implementation of the UWI’s Strategic Plans, Vision and Mission statements of 2007 and 2012, we saw concerted attempts to institutionalize internationalization into the very fabric of the UWI’s operations. For clearly articulated in those documents were goals aimed at improving reputation and ranking, through collaborative partnerships with institutional peers and networks, regionally and internationally, in the hopes of building capacity and global status. J. Knight, (2011) identified the above as a strategy that was often used by other education providers across the globe. Therefore, globalization has been a catalyst for internationalization, through the development of cross border education and services, and the creation of research collaborations and international networks among higher education institutions (Gacel-Avila, 2009, p. 11).

The study focused on broader questions about the impact of internationalization on the regional university- the UWI. Accordingly, specific questions on joint and double degrees or research collaborations were never specifically asked. There were questions however, about international policies being adopted by the institution, which gave rise to discussions about international and regional partnerships. Consequently, in analyzing the data, a number of patterns emerged that were related to international linkages as a form of internationalization.

The aim of this chapter is to outline the research collaborations that existed between the UWI, institutions, governments and development agencies, in the UWI’s attempts to further its internationalization agenda. The chapter provides a broad overview of these relationships, drawing on a few examples of the myriad of relationships in existence. Joint inter-institutional research projects; research commercialization; joint degrees, programs and curricula development, are some of the many forms of international linkages described in institutional
documents and discussed during the interviews. As well, the UWI’s relationships with regional and extra-regional governments, institutes and international development agencies are explored; and finally, the benefits and challenges of those relationships are also examined.

7.2 Collaborative Programs and Partnerships

J. Knight (2011) coined the term collaborative programs to refer to international or domestic programs, where there was close cooperation among partner institutions in curriculum development, design, organization and program delivery, including joint research to meet the requirements of a degree (Gacel-Avila, 2009, p. 18). As was discussed, the UWI developed an organizational structure through the creation of the LACC, CORIA and its international offices, to implement its internationalization strategy, and in particular, to manage and develop partnerships. As noted in the previous chapter, much of this has been done through the creation of MOUs. As such, collaborative programs, for example joint and double degrees, have been built on the premise that international academic collaboration was a natural extension of exchange and mobility programs within institutions of higher learning (J. Knight, 2011).

In this chapter, the term collaborative programs will be the umbrella grouping used to categorize the academic and research partnerships (other than mobility and exchange programs, discussed in the previous chapter) that were occurring between the UWI and other institutions, both intra-regionally and extra/inter-regionally. Like many other institutions, the UWI was interested in seeking out collaborative partnerships to improve its programming relevance, academic quality and competitiveness as a regional and global institution.

In her study of Higher Education Institutions in Latin America, Gacel-Avila (2009), pointed out that collaborative programs have been used to overcome institutional shortcomings, with regards to academic programming and human resources, such as access to expertise and to international faculty and staff, which otherwise would not be affordable for many institutions (Gacel-Avila, 2009, p. 32). This sentiment was also shared by UWI study respondents, and was also reflected in the institutional documents that were analysed for this research.

There were a number of joint research and programs occurring at the University of the West Indies. Much of the emphasis on collaborations was aimed at meeting regional needs, while at the same time, sharing knowledge with other areas of the world that had similar issues of concern. Attempts will now be made to categorize some of the collaborative programs and partnerships that existed between the UWI and governments, international agencies, and educational institutions, using some of the typology found in the works of J. Knight, (2008 and 2011) and Gacel-Avila (2009).
7.3  Collaborative Programs and Partnerships

7.3.1  Joint Research – Inter-Institutional Collaboration

Inter-institutional research collaborations have occurred between the UWI and regional and international academic institutions. For example, in 2006-2007, the University of the West Indies signed a Memorandum of Understanding with the University of Guyana (UG). As part of the agreement, University of Guyana faculty and staff were admitted into PhD programs within the School of Graduate Studies and Research at the UWI’s three main campuses. As well, a cataloguing workshop for library staff at the University of Guyana and the public sector was funded and organized by the UWI. Added to that, a research project on mercury analyses, using samples from workers engaged in with gold-mining activities in Guyana was developed. Additionally, a comparative study of Eric Williams’ and Forbes Burnham’s impact on Caribbean development was initiated, along with a study of Brazilian migrants residing in Guyana (The University of the West Indies Vice Chancellor’s Report to Council 2006/2007, p. 20).

Furthermore, “following a request from the Prime Minister of Guyana, the School of Graduate Studies and Research supported a visit of Seismic Research Centre staff to Guyana, to investigate unidentified geological phenomena in the Sawariwau District, South Rupununi” (The UWI Annual Report, 2009-2010, p. 25). As a result, the Coordinator of the Women and Development Unit at the University of the West Indies was invited to provide advice on upgrading and strengthening the Women’s Studies program at the University of Guyana, in January 2011 (The University of the West Indies Annual Report, 2010-2011, p. 52). The Women and Gender Equality Commission (WGEC) launched in August 2015, in collaboration with the University of Guyana, the Gender Studies Unit. As part of this initiative the University of Guyana will partner with the West Indies (UWI) and York University in Canada. The Unit will conduct research, develop curricula, advocate for and promote capacity building aimed at decreasing gender-based violence, achieving gender equality, fighting discrimination against women in the workforce, and finding solutions for the underperformance of boys in academia (Ministry of the Presidency: Cooperative Republic of Guyana, 2015, retrieved September 2015 from www.motp.gov.gy/index.php/2015-07-20-18-49-38/232-ug-s-gender-studies-unit-launched-on-day-two-of-national-gender-policy-conference). These relationships have continued throughout the years and were reflective of the inter-institutional collaborations at the regional level.

Some examples of institutional partnerships between the UWI and Latin American counterparts included collaborations with Brazil. Respondents noted that the UWI signed a May 2014 agreement with the Coimbra Group, which is a consortium of 64 Brazilian universities, with
a student population of over one million, and thousands of research labs (MC9 Interviews, 2013-2014). As one respondent noted,

so we have embraced that fact, given also the fact that we have populations of aspiring middle class people especially in a country like Brazil, which has created a middle class of about 30-40 million people in the last fifteen years and their own internationalization efforts. They have come late into the game, but they are reaching out and so we have concluded this agreement with them, which I think will help both of us. So that's another impact on the University, in that it has moved beyond the Anglophone world, in terms of how it connects in the circles of learning, teaching and research (MC9 Interviews, 2013-2014).

With assistance from the LACC, the UWI, Mona also collaborated with the Escuela de Hotelería y Turismo de Valencia (EHTV), in Spain, to provide “training in Tourism and Hospitality, [and] Spanish language and Methodology for Teaching Spanish for Tourism” (Vice Chancellor's Report to Council, 2006-2007, p. 52). Other inter-institutional collaborations mentioned by study participants included the University of South Pacific, the University of Ghana, University of Flensburg, Germany, and the University of Toronto where, in one instance; staff were jointly hired for a project. Collaborations with various UK universities; the University of Guttenberg in Sweden, and universities in Ghana and Nigeria, were also mentioned by study participants (MC6 Interviews, 2013-2014). All together these collaborations were aimed at capacity building in the UWI.

7.3.2 Research Commercialization

Gacel-Avila (2009) noted that research collaborations within academic institutions needed to move beyond academic output, towards the economic development of regions and nation states. Academic institutions needed to be aligned to the neoliberal agenda, if they were to remain relevant and useful. They needed to substantiate their contributions to human capital for the development of economies. Accordingly, strategic alliances were crucial. China has become a dominant power and has had a growing influence on the Caribbean. As mentioned in the previous chapter, Caribbean governments, like their North American and European counterparts, have taken a number of delegations on trade missions to China. This has resulted in numerous projects with the Chinese Government and its many institutions, and the UWI was no exception. For example, the St. Augustine Campus of the UWI entered into an agreement with the Chinese Agricultural University in Beijing and the Crop Research Institute of Guangdong Academy of Agricultural Sciences (CRIGAAS) in Guangzhou, China. Their goal was to use the two hundred acres of land located near the Piarco Airport, given by the Government of Trinidad and Tobago, to develop the Orange Grove Farm into an Agricultural
Innovation Park (Government of the Republic of Trinidad and Tobago, 2015, retrieved from http://www.news.gov.tt/content/agricultural-innovation-park-orange-grove#.VU_h-vAxU-M

MC11 Interviews, 2013-2014; The University of the West Indies, Campus News, December 18, 2014, retrieved from http://sta.uwi.edu/news/releases/release.asp?id=1343). As one staff member at the UWI noted,

we want to use this park to demonstrate new technologies, so that we could encourage young people back into agriculture. But we also want to use this park to show agriculture, not only as production, but agriculture as entrepreneurship and as business. So we’re going to combine food, agriculture, food production, food processing, food preparation, and restaurants. That is, as they say, from the farm to the fork, all coming out of that Park…. We have to transform agriculture. Now countries have done this. We went to Beijing and we saw what they consider to be their form of an agricultural innovation park - urban agriculture. So how do you bring back urban people, urban youths into agriculture? You’ve got to make it attractive (MC11 Interviews, 2013-2014).

The goals of the collaboration identified here was to bring about transformational change within a sector of the economy, namely agriculture.

The UWI Office of Research also continued to oversee the application process for patent protection at the institution. Particularly at the Cave Hill Campus, opportunities for research commercialization were being explored. In 2011-2012, the feasibility of establishing three spin-off companies was being assessed by UWI staff at that Campus. They were:

FITTHR Limited which would offer comprehensive workplace wellness programmes and evidence-based solutions to the Health Care industry; 4R Limited which would offer services to industry clients in the management of research, analytics for research and resources for research; and Travellers Palm Inc. which, in collaboration with McGill University, would explore the feasibility of harvesting and processing Giant African Snails to be sold as edible export commodity, animal feed and fertiliser (The University of the West Indies Annual Report, 2011-2012, p. 32-33).

The above were only a small sampling of the many research commercialization activities that were taking place at the UWI. These have brought benefits to the institution and to those within it, who held the patents for the innovations and products or services that were produced. These types of activities also created linkages between the UWI and other international universities. As well, they also illustrated the academic capitalism motives that were very much alive and functioning at the UWI. However, the benefits of collaborative programs for students came mostly in the form of joint and double degree programs, and in new curriculum.
7.4 Joint Programs and Degrees and Curricula Development

In 2006 the UWI established the Institute for Sustainable Development\(^{75}\) to assist Caribbean nations with addressing issues such as technological innovation; changing demographics; resource demands- shortages; the environment; climate change; and disaster risk management, just to name a few, all of which were challenges for Small Island Developing States (SIDS). Also of concern to these nations were issues of organized crime, rising homicide rates, and illegal trafficking of narcotics and firearms. Under the Institute for Sustainable Development (ISD), students were able to earn degrees such as Masters of Science (MSc), Masters of Philosophy (MPhil) and Doctorates in Philosophy (PhD). Accordingly, collaborative links were created with the University Consortium of Small Island States (UCSIS), as well as other universities and research institutes to develop a joint international degree in Sustainable Development (The University of the West Indies Annual Report, 2011-2012, p. 55).

Respondents noted that though the UCSIS, this grouping of the University of the West Indies, the University of Mauritius, South Pacific, the University of the South Pacific, the University of Malta, the University of the Gran Canary Islands, and the University of Virgin Islands was doing and building joint programs for teaching and research, that addressed some of the problems related to the sustainability in small islands (MC7 Interviews, 2013-2014).

A joint degree awards one joint qualification upon completion of the collaborative program requirements established by the partner institutions (Gacel-Avila, 2009, p. 18; J. Knight, 2011, p. 300). The UCSIS operated Masters of Sustainable Development program was delivered online. As such, when students registered with the host institution, they could earn up to 50% of the credits towards this degree from any of the other universities involved in the program (MC7 Interviews, 2013-2014). The Small Island States with their shared geography and issues, created a natural affinity for research collaboration, especially around the continued viability of the Caribbean Sea. Accordingly, “because you know we have a common

\(^{75}\) The ISD (Institute for Sustainable Development) comprises the Centre for Policy Studies in Sustainable development led by the Alcan Chair in Sustainable Development; the Environmental Management Unit, led by the James Moss-Solomon Senior Chair in Environmental Management; the Disaster Risk Reduction Centre and the Unit in Sustainable Tourism and Hospitality. These entities have near-complete autonomy under the ISD umbrella. ISD also hosts the International Secretariat of the UCSIS, the University Consortium for Small Island States, and the Violence Prevention Alliance. The ISD supports or is affiliated to several regional and international institutions, including the Caribbean Disaster Emergency Management Agency, the Pan American Health Organisation and the United Nations Environment Programme (The University of the West Indies Annual Report, 2011-2012, p. 55).
environment, common ecology, climate and all these sorts of things, there were many areas in which to collaborate and so in that context, the UWI has been building research linkages” (MC7 Interviews, 2013-2014) and regional linkages.

In November 2008, the LACC initiated a partnership with the University of Puerto Rico (UPR) in the areas of disaster risk reduction and risk management and, disaster management and legislation (The University of the West Indies Annual Report, 2008-2009, p. 87). Additionally, “at the request of the Caribbean Disaster Emergency Management Agency (CDEMA), the School (of Graduate Studies) facilitated the participation of UWI staff in CARICOM missions, in response to the disastrous earthquake in Haiti” (The University of the West Indies Annual Report, 2009-2010, p. 25). As well, one study participant noted that the creation of the Caribbean Disaster Emergency Management Agency (CDEMA) was modeled after a similar example in Cuba, where the UWI had a number of partnerships (MC7, Interviews, 2013-2014). These partnerships which extended into the Non-English-speaking Caribbean were also attempts by the UWI to expand its regional footprint.

Respondents provided other examples of collaborative program development. The online delivery mode was used for another collaborative program between the School of Business and Computer Science to offer the Heriot-Watt MBA program. The program was delivered locally by facilitators and exams were sent back to Heriot-Watt for grading. The respondent noted that Heriot-Watt, which is located in Scotland, was listed among the top ten business schools in the world (MC15 Interviews, 2013-2014).

As well, through the Open Campus, the CARICOM Canadian Virtual University (CVU) Scholarship Program for Caribbean nationals was managed. Under the program, UWI students would “gain access to the ten Canadian Universities in the Consortium and entrance to the UWI was] also facilitated” (The University of the West Indies Open Campus Report, 2009-2010, p. 20). Furthermore in 2010-2011 academic links were established by the UWI, Mona, Department of Government Sociology and Social Work (GSSW) with the University of Calgary. Through this agreement, a Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) was signed for collaboration in the Social Work program (The University of the West Indies Strategic Plan, 2012-2017, p. 31-32).

Gacel-Avila (2009) noted that the internationalization of curricula was considered to be the most effective strategy for institutionalizing the international dimension of higher education. Similar to the findings of the Gacel-Avila (2009) study of Latin American institutions, developing graduate studies programs with international partners was also being used by the UWI, as a strategic device to update its higher education curricula. As one respondent noted,
right now, as we speak, the University of Georgia has an Educational Leadership Masters program. That is, a program that is designed to help build the knowledge, skills and competencies of our leaders in the educational system. Now I don’t expect I have to bring people here from Georgia to teach the course, everyday, day in and day out. Now first of all they are helping us, they were here last week. We’re working on a joint curriculum that could be delivered from where they are. So you know, internationalization today allows tremendous opportunities for universities that want to embrace it (MC11, Interviews, 2013-2014).

This strategy was also seen as a way to develop the UWI’s competitive advantage and its future successes. The importance of research for UWI undergraduates, graduates and post-graduate students was also noted by respondents, as a way to gain recognition from others outside of the region. This was also a consistent theme in the 2012-2017 Strategic Plan. Also mentioned in the Plan and confirmed by study respondents, was the importance of research publications and opportunities for UWI students and staff to work collaboratively with other overseas institutions (MC4 Interviews, 2013-2014). Not only would these help to improve the UWI’s prominence among other global institutions of learning, but the exposure for students and experience gained would provide tremendous mutual benefits.

As well, as part of its strategic objectives, the UWI also highlighted the importance of publications toward achieving global recognition. Staffs were therefore being encouraged to publish, particularly in international journals. As well, the UWI created “Research Days” across the campuses “as a platform through which members of the academic community…could expose the public to innovations and outstanding research projects” (The University of the West Indies Strategic Plan, 2012-2017, p. 29). As such, The Inter-American Development Bank also funded a project on the Impact of the National Youth Service in Jamaica. The project was coordinated by the Social Welfare Training Centre (SWTC), a division of the Consortium for Social Development and Research within the UWI Open Campus. As part of the project, several research papers were written and published regionally and internationally (The University of the West Indies Annual Report, 2010-2011, p. 52).

It is very important for us, very important for us, I mean, you know, while you know there are all kinds of issues about university rankings, at the end of the day it is important for us to be known as an institution, with very high standards, whose staff will produce the right kinds of publications in the right sorts of peer reviewed journals, who will be at the right kinds of conferences, and who will produce work of the highest order and that of-course will ensure that we can attract students from elsewhere too. So it’s a virtuous circle. You know, we are talking to Cambridge University about a project. They’re going to send students to us and we’re going to send students, doctoral students to them, so they will learn there, and our people will be exposed to things that we can’t provide at the UWI and their students will be exposed to the kinds of biodiversity that we have in this part of the world, and work with our Department of Life Sciences (MC4 Interviews, 2013-2014).
Additionally, in its attempts to establish the Masters in Public Health program, UWI St. Augustine staff sought assistance from the University of Alabama. UWI staff visited the University and had conversations with their Medical Sciences Faculty, to engage them in the collaboration. The faculty and staff from the University of Alabama were invited to UWI, where they worked to develop the curriculum. At the time of the interviews, the program was operational, and staff noted that the University of Alabama continued to provide assistance to UWI with examiners etc. Similarly, when the UWI wanted to develop a program in Sports Management, it sought assistance from FIFA (Fédération Internationale de Football Association). Austin Jack Warner, a Trinidadian, was the former Vice President of FIFA. The UWI capitalized on those connections to establish its academic program. The program was launched and the UWI-St Augustine became the 10th country in the world to offer a FIFA run postgraduate program, in Sports Management. Similar collaborations have also taken place with Montfort University in Britain, with curriculum development support to the UWI for the delivery of a Design and Innovation program; and with the University in Birmingham on Crime in Forensic Science programming (MC11 Interviews, 2013-2014). Accordingly, internationalization allows universities like ours the opportunity to leapfrog, to move very quickly to respond to national and regional needs, because you are building upon institutions that have already gone through this. They have these programs and we can partner with them and we can tailor these programs to our own needs (MC11 Interviews, 2013-2014).

The history of collaborative degree programs at the UWI were not without challenges. One respondent recalled that in the early days there was an attempt at distance education collaborations between the UWI and some Canadian universities. At the time, Woodville Marshall was in-charge of the Non-Campus Countries- Open Campus. The position of the UWI was that ‘we are happy to work with you, but we want it to be a joint degree.’ However, those negotiations were not successful, and in the end, these institutions used the UWI facilities - the distance education teleconferencing rooms - to deliver their programs, and UWI had very little to do with the programs, other than to provide them with a platform (MC1 Interview, 2013-2014).

7.5 Internationalization, Foreign Providers and The University of the West Indies

Respondents also commented that there were other forms of collaboration that existed between the UWI and foreign institutions. For example, the UWI’s facilities, particularly the Open Campus locations across the Caribbean, have been used as examination centres, and
the UWI staff often served as invigilators during these exams. These services have been provided for RDI, which did work for British Universities. Other participating countries included the US, Canada and China (OC10 Interview, 2013-2014). These services have also provided revenues for the UWI, as fees were charged to the institutions involved. These international providers from Europe and North America however, also competed with the UWI. They had for example brought more flexibility into the higher education space. As well, their program frequency, mode of delivery and availability, offered more access to students wishing to pursue higher education.

As previously discussed in chapter two, students who completed the Advanced (A) Level qualifications at the Community Colleges in the region, for entry into the university system were now also earning associate degrees. These qualifications also made access to North American based institutions operating in the sub-region easier for regional students so inclined. At the time of the interviews, the issue of associate degrees was being debated within the UWI, on whether to change from the 2+3 to the 2+2 model, in the face of this competition. That is, when a student completed their two year A’ Level qualifications at the Community Colleges, would they require two or three years of additional study within the UWI to complete their bachelors degree. Respondents noted that there were concerns over quality- on whether this move would water-down the standard of the degree offered by the UWI. However, it was also noted that the UWI was feeling pressured, because of globalization, to move towards the 2+2 model (OC5 Interview, 2013-2014).

7.6 UWI Partnerships with Governments and Institutes

As previously noted, the UWI is owned by the contributing member countries within CARICOM. In turn, the UWI Vice Chancellor reported to the heads of Government of CARICOM and the resources of the UWI were at their disposal. At the same time, individual governments within the Anglophone Caribbean were at liberty to establish bilateral agreements, even when multilateral arrangements were in existence through CARICOM, at the regional or international level. Similarly, the UWI had the institutional autonomy to negotiate agreements with CARICOM members and also with non-members countries. These had the potential to be advantageous for the UWI and for individual countries within the Anglophone Caribbean, but also contributed to much of the fragmentation that existed within the sub-region. For example, respondents pointed to the work that was being done with Guyana and Cuba. The former, although a member of CARICOM was not a contributing member to the UWI, and the latter was neither a member of CARICOM nor a contributor to the UWI. The UWI for example established relations
with the Government of Cuba in the areas of disaster risk management and medicine. As well, participants in the study identified the UWI’s work with the Government of Guyana on the Iwokrama Rain Forest Centre, which oversees a million hectares of land, located approximately 300 KM from the capital, Georgetown. This sustainable development project also involved collaboration between the Commonwealth Secretariat, Overseas Development Administration (UK), UNDP/GEF, USAID and the IDRC- the International Development Research Centre (MC7 and MC4 Interviews, 2013-2014; Horizontal International Solutions Site, 2011, retrieved from http://www.solutions-site.org/node/67; Iwokrama International Centre for Rain Forest Conservation and Development, 2015, retrieved from http://www.iwokrama.org/about-us/our-partners/). The UWI’s goal in all this was its steadfast commitment to research and regional development.

Respondents mentioned that the University was also doing work with the Government of Trinidad and Tobago. The UWI was involved in the training of that country’s National Defense Force. Furthermore, the creation of the Diplomatic Academy as a component of the Institute of International Relations at the St. Augustine Campus was a result of funding received from the Government of Trinidad and Tobago. Evolving from the Institute for International Relations was an independent organization called the Diplomatic Academy. The Vice Chancellor at the time, Dr. Nigel Harris, went to the Minister of Finance and Tertiary Education and Skills Development in the Trinidad and Tobago Government, with a proposal to request funding for the establishment of the Academy. With the support of the Minister of Foreign Affairs in the Trinidad and Tobago Government, at the time, Minister Winston Dookeran, the proposal was accepted, a grant of $5 Million was received and the Diplomatic Academy opened in March 2014 at the St. Augustine Campus. The aim of the Diplomatic Academy is to train Caribbean diplomats and re-establish international relations as a practical asset, beneficial to regional governments. The intent is to produce well trained diplomats to represent institutions such as CARICOM, in multilateral negotiations at the international level (MC15 Interviews, 2013-2014; The University of the West Indies - The University of the West Indies – The Pelican, 2013, p. 23-25).

The Institute for International Relations was created at the UWI in 1966 with funding from Switzerland- SWISSAID. Respondents observed that a number of International Relations offices were created around world - the Cameroons, Malta and Nairobi and Kenya, including the UWI’s only location in Trinidad. The purpose of their creation was to expand the range of study and research in the area of international relations; to examine regionalism and regionalization in the Caribbean; and to examine the reasons for the failure of West Indian Federation. Additionally, other goals included the attempt to understand how small island states were
developing and working together; and to examine how they were collaborating around issues such as trade, education and sports, in the hope that they would someday agree to some form of integration at the political level. Accordingly, the purpose of the Institute of International Relations was to help foster the notion of integration in the region; and to help build ties between countries. Although the institute is located in Trinidad at the St. Augustine Campus, it’s a regional organization and not a national one. As such, the Director for the IIIR (Institute for International Relations) reports directly to the Vice Chancellor of the University of the West Indies (MC13 and MC15 Interviews, 2013-2014; The University of the West Indies – The Pelican, 2013, p. 22).

Extra-regional relations between the UWI and China have also led to the establishment of Confucius Institutes at the three main campuses. The purpose of the institutes was to facilitate the teaching and learning of Chinese languages and to conduct research on China’s cultures and peoples (UWI Strategic Plan, 2012-2017, p. 31-32). However, Confucius institutes on university campuses across the globe have not been without controversy. Some have since closed, citing interference with academic freedom given China’s adversarial relationships with Taiwan, Tibet and the Falun Gong religion. Critics claimed that their “rapid expansion has raised concerns about whether universities have entered into arrangements that could compromise their academic integrity and independence… and asked whether universities should be lending their imprimaturs to institutes sponsored by a foreign government – and an autocratic one at that” (Redden, July 2014, retrieved from https://www.insidehighered.com/news/2014/07/24/debate-renews-over-confucius-institutes)

There were a number of other concerns raised about international partnerships. One particular anxiety was the issue of risk assessment. Respondents were quite concerned about the ability of partner institutions to absorb risk, when legal agreements, such as Memoranda of Understandings were developed. The creation of project charters outlining schedules, timelines, areas of responsibilities, and stipulating what’s to be accomplished between the partners, were seen as insufficient. How problems would be handled, that would invariably arise in implementation for example, was not often incorporated into these legal documents. As well, change management processes and mechanisms to guarantee success/indicators of success, and quality assessment processes were not often given adequate consideration. Furthermore, the project approval process, each partner’s role in program design and processes to address cross-cultural issues between faculty and students, who were learning from different partners with different cultural experiences, expectations and different understandings of knowledge, for example, were often not considered, in the early stages of many partnerships (MC12 Interviews,
While all of the above limitations did not exist in every partnership arrangement, their prevalence was alarming and was of great concern to study respondents. Here is what one interviewee had to say:

And I don’t think people take the time to understand that. That in internationalization there is a significant amount of demand placed on the person who has to engage cross culturally with other people, where you have to navigate cross border about the kinds of arrangements in the research. It takes time to plan, it takes time to negotiate, it takes time to understand, it takes time to come to consensus and all of these things do impact upon people’s workload (MC12 Interview, 2013-2014).

Research respondents were hopeful that as the institution evolved and learned from experience, greater scrutiny of international partnership documents would become part of institutional practice.

7.7 The Impact of International Development Agencies on Caribbean Higher Education

International development agencies have often acted as conduits for globalization. As such, established institutions such as the UNESCO, the World Bank, the OECD and the IADB, set the agenda, by making recommendations for higher education reform, which have been adopted globally (Gacel-Avila, 2009, p. 7). Consequently, study respondents pointed to the policies and regulations within the higher education space, such as the use of semesters to organize higher education delivery, the use of GPAs, transfer credit processes, accreditation and credential recognition, as adoptions that have also taken root within the UWI (OC6, OC7, OC9, MC1 and MC3 Interviews, 2013-2014).

According to Ali (2010), globalization has been one of the mechanisms for inter-relating policy ideas, whether by convergence or divergence, by employing techniques of harmonization, standardization and negotiation as part of implementation. The execution of policies outlined by international development agencies has influenced the development of educational systems within the Caribbean, which in turn has had implications for the socio-economic development of these nation states (p. 76). As such, Ali (2010) noted that the dependency of Caribbean Governments on international agency funding has left an indelible mark on state bureaucracies over recent decades, in terms of the methodologies they employ in educational policy formulation and implementation (p. 75). In order to implement these policies, regional governments have had to seek sector funding in the form of loans, with high interest rates over fairly long periods, which may have stymied Caribbean social and economic development (Ali, 2010, p. 77). The vulnerability of the Anglophone Caribbean lies in the fact that information used
by international agencies to inform policy, often made minimal reference to data from the country/countries where the policy was being applied. In turn, these policies were consumed by these unsuspecting nation-states. Caribbean economies were particularly susceptible, “as technocrats from funding agencies would skilfully inject external policy agendas into national policies,” often because of a lack of primary data or by ignoring “empirical indigenous evidence” (Ali, 2010, p. 77). Beginning in the 1970s, the structural adjustment policies of the IMF, World Bank and IDB encouraged the consumption of international education policies (Ali, 2010, p. 77). Ali (2010) defined ‘policy consumption’ as “the process by which external policy agendas and policies themselves were incorporated within a national policy, either in whole or part” (p. 77). Accordingly, governments and institutions needed to exercise greater diligence as part of the policy making process, and in the negotiation of agreements with international development agencies (Ali, 2010, p. 80). As has been discussed, internationalization has brought an international dimension into higher education. Aided by globalization, knowledge transfer, through policies and accountability mechanisms, imposed by international development agencies, have converged upon educational institutions such as the UWI. Inevitably, the end result was conformity to global patterns in higher education delivery and administration.

7.8 Research Priorities

For many years there was a heavy emphasis on HIV/AIDS funding in the Anglophone Caribbean by international development agencies. These included research on AIDS and HIV, funded by the International Development Research Centre (IDRC). Some examples highlighted in UWI documentary evidence used for this research included a project involving the UWI, and three countries, namely, Barbados, Suriname, and Trinidad and Tobago and York University in Canada. As part of the project, researchers analyzed the political economy of sexuality and HIV/AIDS by analyzing the discourses that arose out of media and informational/advocacy campaigns on HIV/AIDS, that challenged or reinforced gender-based causes of the epidemic. As well, the United Nations Fund for Women (UNIFEM) and the Caribbean Office and the United Nations International Children’s Emergency Fund (UNICEF) also carried out case study research in each of the participating countries (The University of the West Indies Annual Report, 2007-2008, p. 48). The challenge however, was that while these issues were important, they may not have necessarily been the issue of greatest priority for regional governments and or/ for the University of the West Indies. However, the driving force may have simply been the availability of funding for this area of research, and the need for finance. As part of the study, one interview participant at the UWI made the following observations,
funding agencies have defined targets, goals…so you simply need to align your goal with theirs, you know what I mean, and we have to do that, we really have to do that, because [they are] an important source of funding…. There are few cases where we have a problem and we’re looking for funding to sort it out, and so you may have to align yourself with other people’s problems a little, but you know, by enlarge you are trying to resolve your own issue (MC6 Interviews, 2013-2014).

As was previously discussed, in its bid to become internationally competitive, the UWI has made research a focused priority for the institution, as part of its strategic objective. It wants to generate cutting edge and impactful research, especially for niche market targets, by increasing international research collaboration, in a bid to offer solutions to the region’s development challenges, while at the same time, contributing to the global intellectual discourse (The University of the West Indies Strategic Plan, 2012-2017).

Study participants also identified a number of other health related projects on non-communicable diseases that involved international collaborations. One example was research work between the University of Toronto Munk School and the Institute for International Relations at the UWI, and professors at the Cave Hill Campus. The project was funded by the International Development Research Centre76 (MC13 Interviews, 2013-2014). There were also projects funded by international agencies such as IDRC, in collaboration with the Sir Arthur Lewis Institute for Social and Economic Studies (SALISES) in a number of areas. These included projects on Managing Adaptation to Coastal Environmental Change: Canada and the Caribbean; The Barbados Country Assessment of Living Conditions in association with the Caribbean Development Bank for the Government of Barbados; A National Training Plan for Barbados for the Technical and Vocational Education and Training Council; The National Survey of the Small Business Sector in Barbados for the Ministry of Economic Affairs, Empowerment, Trade, Industry and Commerce; and The Executive Opinion Survey for the Global Competitiveness Index for the World Economic Forum, Switzerland ( The University of the West Indies Annual Report, 2011-2012, p. 35).

The IDRC also funded a youth violence and organized crime project coordinated by the UWI in 2011. Some of the goals of the project were to explore the relationship between youth violence and organized crime and the role of women (The University of the West Indies Annual Report, 2011-2012, p. 54). Other collaborative research included projects on sexual health by

76 The International Development Research Centre (IDRC) is “part of Canada’s foreign affairs and development efforts, IDRC invests in knowledge, innovation, and solutions to improve lives and livelihoods in the developing world….IDRC was established by an act of Canada’s parliament in 1970 to help developing countries find solutions to their challenges” (Government of Canada- International Development Research Centre - IDRC, About Us, 2015, retrieved from http://www.idrc.ca/EN/AboutUs/Pages/default.aspx).
the St Augustine Unit (SAU) of the Institute for Gender and Development Studies (IGDS) of the University of the West Indies.

The World Bank also funded the Caribbean Risk Atlas project which investigated hazard risks in Grenada, Barbados and Jamaica. The project was coordinated by the UWI’s Institute for Sustainable Development, with support from the Disaster Risk Reduction Centre, the Seismic Research Centre, the Department of Engineering, the Department of Geography and Geology, the Mona Geoinformatics Institute, the Department of Physics at Mona, and the Water Resources Authority of the Government of Jamaica. Under the project, a server for sharing GIS data was launched; an earthquake catalogue used to generate Seismic Hazards for Jamaica was compiled, and software for estimating earthquake loss (MAEViz), which took into account the unique characteristics of the Caribbean, was modified (The University of the West Indies Annual Report, 2011-2012, p. 56). The above were only some of the many examples of research projects funded by international agencies at the UWI, aligned to some of its research priorities.

International development agencies such as the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), the World Bank, the Inter-American Development Bank (IADB), the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA)\(^\text{77}\) and the International Development Research Centre (IDRC)\(^\text{78}\), have negotiated with individual countries and with regional networks such as CARICOM, in the areas of debt load/ reduction and loans, which have impacted education policy at all levels. As well, individually, as we have seen, some of these same organizations have also funded research projects at the UWI and development projects within national jurisdictions across the Anglophone Caribbean. As previously noted, CARICOM Heads of Government inform the educational strategy for individual institutions such as the UWI. As well, as was discussed, financial support for the UWI also comes from CARICOM member states. Therefore, the prevalence of international agencies in the


\(^{78}\) IDRC is a Crown corporation created by Parliament in 1970 to help developing countries use science and technology to find practical, long-term solutions to the social, economic and environmental problems they face (Government of Canada – Organization Profile – International Development Research Centre, retrieved from http://www.appointments-nominations.gc.ca/prfOrg.asp?OrgID=IDRandlang=engandpedisable=true)
Anglophone Caribbean, have had an impact on discourses about teaching, learning, research and development in all levels of education and governance in the Anglophone Caribbean. As well, these organizations have single-handedly steered the research priorities for the UWI and the English-speaking Caribbean.

Despite the benefits of these research collaborations for the region, the UWI and the individual countries in the Anglophone Caribbean, there were also concerns. Research informants noted that within the higher education landscape, the history and philosophies of international donor agencies had implications for faculty work load and academic freedom. Respondents noted that academic freedom and faculty workload remained ‘vexing’ issues within the institution, in the face of the numerous research projects taken on by the UWI. As one respondent noted,

academic freedom gives faculty the opportunity to make discrete and strategic choices about what is relevant to their profession. And to the profession as a whole, it is that of teaching and research. And in some instances, they seek out those opportunities to partner with others, because it is something that they think is going to help them in terms of their knowledge and their ability to relate this knowledge to the classroom, whether this classroom consists of students who they teach, or the classroom is the world where they transmit knowledge, as producers of knowledge. And to some extent the faculty find themselves in situations where there are decisions taken beyond their control. I am not sure if I should say gently suggested, but it is, I would not say mandated, but they are strongly being urged to collaborate with partners. This is especially the case when they are involved in specific projects that bring funding into the institution. The issue for them is that whether there is time available for them to engage in this, given the fact that they are doing a multiplicity of things. In terms of teaching, they have several courses; they also have several students who have demands. There are also several research students whom they have to provide supervision to; and then they have their own plans, which they begin each year with. In these plans they would be required to publish a certain number of articles or book chapters, or books, for their continued affiliation with the University. So when you have all of this to do, and then on top of that you have the administrative tasks of managing your courses and developing courses; and reviewing courses and developing programs; and then you are asked to mount or be part of other projects that bring funding to the institution, which you did not anticipate in the beginning, but because it is something that relates to your area of expertise, you have to find a way to bring this into the mix. This along with your regular duties is why that for some of them, it’s vexing. It’s not that it’s something that many of them don’t want to do. It’s just that they don’t have the sufficient time or capacity to do it (MC12 Interviews, 2012-2013).

As well, respondents noted that historically, many of the policies that are agreed to at the national and regional levels between governments and international agencies have had implications for education. As one respondent noted,

most of the state driven policies that have been in engaged by countries in the region, that have to do with the internationalization of education, in particular higher education, have been more driven by partnerships between governments and development agencies. Most of the agencies in the region have played a critical role working either
with individual governments in the region, or working with governments through various frameworks, such as the CARICOM Secretariat or the OECS Secretariat (MC12 Interviews, 2013-2014).

The World Bank for example, has had “a strong neoliberal political philosophy with a strong market orientation” (Gacel-Avila, 2009, p. 7). As such, in the area of internationalization, emphasis had been placed on: institutional differentiation; diversification of funding sources; performance indicators and accountability measures for monitoring funding; and the implementation of policies for enhancing quality, relevance and equity in education. On the other hand, UNESCO’s Education for All Policy was aimed at promoting more comprehensive and humanist approaches to education, including higher education, while for the World Bank, its policies focused on human capital production for the labour market; and knowledge generation and transmission as determinants for social mobility and global citizenship (Ali 2010; Gacel-Avila, 2009; Clifford, 2010). Accordingly, one respondent commented,

most of the policies that have been pushed in the [Caribbean] region have focused on principally on five things. One has to do with the relevance, pertinence of programs to the changing labour force needs, which always comes up in their country consultations, in their country strategy papers and in their reports. The second has to do with technology and most of it has to do with how we are managing knowledge in the region. Are we embracing the right information and communications technology platforms for transmitting knowledge across the region? And to a large extent, the World Bank, with some support from all of the others have supported the establishment of the Caribbean Knowledge and Learning Network...Which has been pushing the [ICT] agenda across the region. The third area has to do with the issue of quality in higher education and what they have facilitated. On the one hand, the establishment of external quality assurance systems and therefore fledgling accrediting bodies in the region, and the other has to do with the establishment of and these bodies, which takes me to the whole regionalization discussion. What I am talking about here is that internationalization through these development partners, is pushing a regionalism agenda also, not just a nationalism agenda. In this particular case, quality assurance bodies have had their primary focus not only assuring the quality of on-shore [institutions] but the quality of programs and qualifications of those off-shore. They have had to ensure that there are correct recognition mechanisms in place for those persons who have pursued education overseas, to recognize them though a due diligence checks in the particular country, where they were moving to. So a qualification gained overseas has to be recognized in the specific country by the accrediting body, before the employers would accept it, to ensure that it is not a dubious qualification. That it’s been correctly earned. So that’s the third. And the fourth area I would say is the issue of the diversity of institutions. So in other words, do you have research institutions exclusively, and what role are universities playing in research? Do we have colleges and community college and to what extent they are playing in terms of preparing graduates, high school graduates for the labour force? And then there is the mix of those in-between, polytechnics and so on. So it’s legally recognizing that within the region, you have different types of institutions and managing their relationships. And related to all of those four areas I would say there’s a fifth. This has to do with the issue, now that you have internationalization, that has been driving this, are you paying attention to the relevance of programs, the quality of
programs, how these programs are configured to the 21st century’s information communication technology platform? How is this all playing out in terms of ensuring that institutions, regardless of who they are, play a critical role as a university as a college, or a community college. What are we doing to create greater access for higher education in the region? What are we doing to minimize the brain drain phenomenon? So the policies have been driving this and the other institutions that have had to work within this changing terrain (MC12 Interview, 2013-2014).

The above quotation by the respondent also pointed to the impact of internationalization on regionalization. While there were many benefits for higher education in the region, they were probably as many challenges, brought on by the influence of international funding agencies and the policies they imparted into the system. What was discussed above was the effect of internationalization on issues of quality for example, that gave rise to accreditation councils and policies in the Anglophone Caribbean, that were discussed earlier on in the thesis. As well, in the chapter on the Open Campus, we also saw that with the emergence of CKLN, information and communication policies and usage became prevalent within the framework of higher education in the Anglophone Caribbean. At the same time, these policy insertions also brought improvements to distance education. Additionally, another effect of international development agency funding was the need to put in place IT systems that ensured the timely and accurate reporting back to these donor agencies. Dysart-Gale (2012) noted that Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs), including Information Management Systems (IMS) and databases, have been used to ensure effective communication between international organizations and donor-recipients, such as educational institutions and Non-governmental Organizations (NGOs). Their uses have become widespread and they were now being used as “tools of choice for linking small islands to external partners in education, trade and development aid” (Dysart-Gale, 2012, p. 4).

Furthermore, the respondent has alluded that these policies have also helped to maintain a level of differentiation within the system, across the postsecondary and tertiary institutions in the region. While this certainly offered choices, the stratification may also affected higher education regionalization in a negative way. That is, the finances needed to maintain such a system and the hierarchies created could perhaps be contributing to the destabilization of mechanisms for cooperation. Finally, another impact was on program relevance and diversity, which have also come about, due to inter-institutional collaborations between the UWI and other education providers, both regionally and internationally. While these may have happened even without the influence of these external entities, the latter have certainly helped to accelerate the growth by which these occurrences have taken place within the UWI.
As we have also seen, much of the funding that has been sought, were in important areas of research for social, health, environmental and economical development. These were deliberate attempts by the UWI to build its capacity as a regional institution with strong research capabilities, through collaborative relationships with other universities, governments, agencies and institutes. According to the UWI Annual Report 2011-2012, there was an awareness expressed that varying degrees of conditions were attached and stipulated by international donor agencies. To be in compliance and to ensure that these sources of funding remained accessible to the UWI, the institution created policies and management systems to deal with the granting process (p. 86).

The above changes may have helped the UWI to become ‘world class,’ a status it has sought as articulated in its strategic documents. Due to policy imposition and consumption, the UWI, like many other institutions, has had to ensure that notions of quality were embedded into the strategic partnerships they engaged with, and into the mobility schemes that they participated in. As well, the UWI has had to embrace new technologies as a requirement for working with universities abroad, to provide a more efficient mechanism for exchanging knowledge and information. In doing so, the UWI made strides towards achieving the strategic demands of CARICOM – CSME. The impact therefore of these policies has not been only on the UWI, but also on the nation-states to which it was beholden (MC12 Interviews, 2013-2014).

7.9 Conclusion

As a strategy, internationalization has helped to expedite change and reform within higher education, thus transforming it. Now more than ever research with higher education was not aimed solely at academic output, but because of globalization, was tied to productivity, capacity building and innovation. Through international cooperation, networks and international cooperation in research, higher education has achieved the desired intercultural and international dimensions. This occurred when different academic traditions collaborated; when staff and students involved in collaborative work were exposed to different design perspectives, academic backgrounds, teacher traditions and approaches to scientific outcomes that created different forms of student and faculty interactions. By doing so, intercultural sensibilities were heightened and global citizenship competencies developed (Gacel-Avila, 2009, p. 23).

However, while there have been many benefits, there were also other causes for concern. For one thing, research was still largely driven by an extra-regional agenda in the Anglophone Caribbean. The implications therefore for regional development could be disastrous, if not righted. Furthermore, the replacement of dominant hegemonic relationships
(Britain and the US), by seemingly more benevolent forms (the European Union and China),
may simply exchange one imperialistic partner for another. Consequently, the UWI and
CARICOM must carefully assess the areas in the regional economy with development potential.
Together, they must decide on the research priorities that would support development in the
region, and negotiate for these in the international arena. To do this, as mentioned by some
respondents, an internationalization strategy, coordinated by University Centre, will be needed.

Globalization however, has also continued to encourage high levels of financial
dependency in the South, more specifically in the Anglophone Caribbean. While research grants
from international agencies and governments were helping to build the research capacity of the
institution, the agenda setting for research priorities of the region were being decided extra-
regionally. The UWI must therefore work to find the right balance to manage these relationships
and lessen its dependency on funding from international sources.

Also within the UWI and across the various national jurisdictions, accreditation and
quality assurance mechanisms have been embedded. However, as previously discussed,
neoliberal imperatives have resulted in program duplication across the main campuses. The end
result of which has been a requirement for a transfer credit system across the campuses, in
some instances, because the programs did not cohere. Here the UWI campuses were operating
as separate entities instead of as a regional institution with regards to program development.
This approach also leaves out the non-campus countries.

Furthermore, despite the presence of the Open Campus and its online provision of
higher education, there was also now competition between the Open Campus and Single Virtual
University Space. Consequently, instead of a coordinated university-wide approach and
possibly incorporating the work of the Single Virtual University Space into the Open Campus, to
ensure the availability of all programs across all campuses synchronously and asynchronously,
were available to students region-wide, there was now internal competition. That is competition
for resources and for students, because of these internal fragmented approaches towards
program development. These challenges, if not addressed will affect regional qualification
recognition frameworks and tertiary education strategies being developed. Furthermore, this
process also potentially creates loop holes, with foreign institutions who offer similar programs,
but perhaps without the regional focus. This is because, accreditation and quality assurance
processes often do not coordinate program level reviews. These processes are often left up to
the individual institutions to complete, and compliance is ascertained at regular intervals (usually
every five years), by the appropriate body. For example, within the UWI how are MBA programs
recognized and vetted across all campuses, when there is the potential for so much variety?
Thus these campus level/ national approaches are posing challenges to the regionalization of higher education in the Anglophone Caribbean, and possibility the broader Caribbean.

Some other examples of campus specific initiatives posing challenges to the regional project included the FIFA sports management program at St. Augustine and the Cricket Academy in Barbados. While fundamental to the region, training in kinesiology for teachers at the other levels of the system, particularly in the secondary schools and colleges was lacking. There are shortages in trained coaching staff to help mentor Caribbean athletes who can develop and compete at the national, regional and international levels, with regional expertise, instead of relying on scholarships from US based schools in order to advance in the professional sports. Here again the campuses were operating as silos, in national campus-based agendas, instead of a university-wide regional effort.

At the same time, these quality assurance and accreditation processes, together with the introduction of GPA (Grade Point Average) system and Semesterization, are part of larger patterns of conformity being imposed at the global level upon institutions of higher learning. They are also part of the neoliberal performity and accountability frameworks, impacting the regional and national higher education systems in the English-speaking Caribbean. Furthermore these globalized neoliberal practices promote uniform cultural messages, which further facilitate the hegemony of external Euro-American discourses about higher education on the UWI. If left unchecked, these too would be detrimental to the regionalization project.

Additionally, research and inter-institutional collaborative relationships were also creating networks and avenues for growth in international student participation on the UWI campuses. Students from many of the countries where collaborations were occurring were enrolled in part-time and full-time programs at the UWI (See Appendix 3). The peaceful co-existence of this mosaic of cultures could lure potential graduates, to make the Caribbean a permanent place of residence. Therefore, their intercultural value is of continued significance. However, international student recruitment numbers though important, were not considerable enough to displace persons from the domestic population seeking admissions at the UWI.

In this chapter, it was observed that although Guyana opted out of being a contributing country in 1963, when it established the University of Guyana, there were numerous regional collaborations between the UWI and the University of Guyana. Consequently, the inter-institutional partnerships at the international level were also encouraging collaboration among southern institutions, thus broadening the regionalization mandate. The UWI has forged relationships with the Non-English-Speaking countries such as Cuba, Puerto Rico, Haiti and extending as far south to Brazil, to name a few. This pursuit of South to South inter-institutional
collaborations could be interpreted as part of the decolonizing forces at work, aimed at resisting Euro-American dominance. Another motivation was the neoliberal incentives offered, such as potential sources for students, hence increased revenues; the availability of programming expertise, equipment and other resources, to help build capacity within the UWI.

Research collaborations were also giving rise to commercial ventures such as the Orange Grove innovation park in Trinidad. As well, joint and double degrees, academic mobility and regional networks such as the University Consortium for Small Island States were helping to strengthen regionalism and regional integration. Through these arrangements, students were learning more about problems and solutions, specific to their region; their engagement with external partners were also helping to further innovations; and the research capacity of the UWI was being strengthened.

However, in the above example we also see the contestation between the national, regional and international impacting the UWI in the pursuit of research funding with Chinese universities by the St. Augustine Campus. Here again the approach was campus-specific and national, influenced by the Trinidad and Tobago Government’s relationship with China. While the innovation park has the potential to bring significant benefits to agriculture, it excluded the other contributing countries that perhaps in some instances had stronger agrarian economies than this main campus country. Added to that, this bilateral approach created a situation (discussed in chapter eight), where the Cave Hill Campus also initiated talks with China about funding for agricultural development. Again we see individual campuses pursuing bilateral relations instead of a multilateral approach needed by the UWI to advance the regionalization project.

As we have seen, the international offices at the respective campuses were signing on to intra-regional and international partnership agreements, that brought campus specific benefits. The danger with this approach was that it mostly supported nationalism, rather than regionalism. In this scenario, the autonomy of the campuses was being encouraged, which was an occurrence that the UWI Centre has had to reign-in, from time to time throughout its history. Furthermore, if this was not quickly addressed, it also has the potential to widen the fragmentation and continuing disparities in higher education across the Anglophone Caribbean.

Finally, the curricula development support offered to the UWI by other institutions, regionally and internationally, as well as the collaborative programs that were developed, were important for building capacity within the UWI. It afforded opportunities to faculty and students with regards to a wider array of program choices with regards the institution’s academic offerings. Furthermore, many of these were among the Small Island Developing States,
increasing the south to south collaborations, as they now had a larger pool of academic expertise at their disposal. However, these collaborative programming approaches continued to facilitate the production of isomorphic institutional structures, which while useful, was detrimental to the decolonization project and indigenous knowledge development in the Anglophone Caribbean. The struggles of the Consortium for Social Development and Research and the Open Campus, who, instead of getting support from the main campus country academic departments, were choosing to replicate programs, because of a lack of internal cooperation, was one example of how this may be occurring. This was because, in order to assure its ‘world class status’ the UWI was choosing to replicate more of the programs found in international institutions, potentially at the expense of ‘local.’ Furthermore, as the UWI simultaneously pursued international inter-institutional relations, that were not properly interrogated, it affected the regional decolonization project and its functioning as an autonomous independent institution of higher learning.
8 CHAPTER EIGHT - DISCUSSION

8.1 Introduction

The overall goal of this study was to explore the impact of internationalization on the regionalization of the University of the West Indies. Respondents were asked separate questions about these two concepts. On the question of regionalization respondents were asked to discuss or describe: 1) their understanding of Caribbean higher education regionalization; 2) how regionalism and regionness were being promoted in higher education; 3) the undertakings by the UWI to promote the regionalization of higher education in the English-speaking Caribbean, and the milestones achieved to-date; 4) how curricula was reflective of a regional agenda for higher education; 5) how teacher education was being used to promote the regionalization agenda; 6) how the regional strategy was being assured by UWI, and provide evidence to support the response; and 7) the benefits and challenges of trying to achieve the regionalization of higher education in the English-speaking Caribbean. On the other hand, with regards to internationalization, respondents were asked to: 1) define internationalization; 2) explain the impact of internationalization on higher education in the Caribbean, but more specifically the UWI; 3) identify some of the international policies that have been adopted by the UWI; 4) discuss the international student participation rate at the UWI; 5) describe whether regionalization was being hindered or advanced by internationalization. That is, were these two forces complementary or antithetical?

However, in conducting the interviews with the UWI administrations, what evolved from these discussions were more complex. It was not only about internationalization [the infusing of an international or intercultural dimension into the purpose, function and delivery of higher education at the UWI – J. Knight, (2008), p. 21], but the effect of the international on the regional. That is, the effect of global neoliberal forces on regional integration among the nation-states of the Anglophone Caribbean, and how they were choosing to respond; the UWI and its ability pursue and achieve its regional mandate in the face of globalization and neoliberalism; and regionalization as a decolonization project. These simultaneously brought challenges and advancements for the region and the UWI. Furthermore, it was also about the political economy approach to development recommended by local economists, which promoted interventionist governments; and the pursuit of foreign investment and regional entrepreneurship in national jurisdictions to advance regional integration. Added to that, regionalization was also part of the decolonization process of delinking from colonizing and imperial forces, in pursuit of a course of
action towards regional and national self-determination, which embraced the region’s ethnocultural diversity, which emerged because of its colonial history. At the same time, being tasked by CARICOM with advancing regionalization, there was also the realization that globalization was ubiquitous, and that in order to survive, the institution needed to stealthily navigate this environment to secure the success of the regional project. As well, not only was the UWI tasked with a research, teaching and service function, but the institution’s emergence directly linked it to the social, cultural, political and economic development of the Anglophone Caribbean. Collectively, these resulted in innumerable contestations between the national, regional and global which will be summarized in this chapter.

This research is a case study of the UWI. Consequently, as a qualitative research project, the semi-structured interview questions were used mostly as a guide for the conversations with the respondents. Therefore, quantification of the responses was not the goal. Instead the aim was to obtain ‘thick description,’ to capture emerging patterns and themes from the data collected. As part of the triangulation process, data from reports and websites were also used to corroborate the information obtained from respondents. These data sources also provided additional details that supported many of the respondent’s viewpoints on regionalization and internationalization.

This research study is one of the first to explore internationalization at the UWI. To date there have been many studies, books, and articles about the regionality of the UWI and its role in Caribbean integration. There have also been numerous publications on Caribbean integration itself and on higher education, in separate publications. Books by Ian Boxill (1997); Sherlock and Nettleford (1990); edited works by Hall and Cameron (2007), Glenford Howe (2000), Pantin (2005) are a few notable examples that have also been referenced in this study. These publications have explored the challenges faced by the UWI in fulfilment of its regional mandate, and have tended to also emphasize education development within the various national jurisdictions across the Anglophone Caribbean. However, none explicitly looked at the regionalization and internationalization of higher education in the Caribbean and the role being played by the UWI. This is where this research deviates from what has been done previously.

Additionally, recent literature on higher education regionalization (J. Knight, 2013, 2014) has prognosticated that higher education regionalization was mostly non-existent in the Latin/ South American region, including the Caribbean. While there are lessons to be learned from
for advancing higher education regionalization within the sub-region, it’s a fallacy to maintain, that this process was only just occurring. In reality, this area is comprised of a number of sub-regions, with a long history of regional cooperation in higher education. As was discussed in chapters one and two, within the Caribbean there are a number of distinct linguistic groups (Dutch, English, French, and Spanish) which constitute the Caribbean. This research looked particularly at the Anglophone Caribbean and found that education regionalization does exist and predated Bologna. The numerous inter-institutional partnerships, including research and mobility schemes have created high levels of collaboration and harmonization intra-regionally and inter-regionally. As well, the number of organizational mechanisms has been created to manage these relationships and at the centre of it all, is the regional institution, in that of the UWI. This study therefore confirmed the existence of education regionalization and higher education regionalization within the English-speaking Caribbean.

The first part of the chapter provides a summary of the key findings from the research. This is followed by a synopsis of some of the important highlights on regionalization and regionalism, internationalization and the regional nature of the University, as presented in the thesis. The next part of the discussion in this chapter is whether regionalization and internationalization are working as complementary or antithetical forces. Following these discussions is a look at the contestations between the national, regional and international in the application of regionalization and internationalization, in the face of globalization and neoliberalism. Included here are discussions about CARICOM and the UWI; British and American influences; as well as accreditation and quality assurance. What is illustrated is the emergence of superstructures that seem to guide, direct and support the UWI’s relationships within the local, regional and international/ global spheres. Their impact on UWI programming and research interests is also reviewed. What follows next is a discussion about resistance and resilience. Included here are discussions about UWI financing as it struggles to survive in the global and neoliberal contexts; and the role and impact of culture and leadership in the Anglophone Caribbean on the UWI. South to South collaboration is another important discussion that is presented in this section on resistances. The chapter ends with a brief

---

79 Bologna refers to the process of regional higher education cooperation/ higher education regionalization among European countries that resulted in the creation of the European Higher Education Area comprised of degree recognition, academic mobility and quality assurance frameworks, to name a few, across a network of higher education institutions. The agreement was first signed in the Italian city of Bologna in 1999 (J. Knight, 2008).
discussion of the areas of scholarship that could be pursued in the future and conclude with remarks about the importance of finding equilibrium when navigating the national, regional and international planes.

8.2 Key Research Findings

At the University of the West Indies, regionalization (regional integration) and internationalization were not inimical. As was previously discussed, internationalization helped both the UWI and the Anglophone sub-region to build capacity and support regional development. Cooperation and collaborative practices created educational partnerships extra-regionally, that supported academic mobility; and expanded research in areas of pertinence to the Caribbean on environmental, social and health issues. The partnerships in disaster management and research on HIV/AIDS were two of the many examples highlighted in this thesis. However, throughout its history, the regionality of the UWI was often called into question. Administrators, regional governments and other stakeholders have voiced their concerns through feedback mechanisms and commissions that were formed to find equilibrium between regionalism and nationalism. While these concerns have dissipated, they have not disappeared. Furthermore, with increasing internationalization on the campuses, the institution must remain vigilant to retaining the balance between regional and international priorities, as the latter dimension has added another layer of complexity to existing tensions.

The small island states of the Anglophone Caribbean were compelled to begin the process for the provision of higher education using a regional approach, because of their colonial history, limited resources and small size (Foster, 1995, p. 10). Therefore, regionalization for the UWI became synonymous with regional development. As the sub-region’s premier institution of higher education the UWI has worked assiduously to maintain its mandate, by providing advice to regional governments; supporting the human resource and development needs of their respective economies; providing access to education and employment; and assisting in the education development of all other levels of the system, just to name a few.

Regionalization was also promoted through higher education regionalization. Within the UWI, CORIA (the Central Office for Regional and International Affairs) and its predecessors, TLIU (Tertiary Level Institutions Unit) and ERIIC (the External Relations and Intra/Inter-Institutional Collaboration) unit, were established to facilitate collaborative relationships among the sub-region’s Tertiary Level Institutions (TLIs). The result of this included articulation agreements; administrative support in areas of quality assurance and program reviews; credential recognition; and equivalency frameworks for associate degrees and Advanced Level
qualifications - the pre-university requirements. As well, other regional level organizations in the form of the Association of Caribbean Tertiary Institutions (ACTI), which was the brainchild of a former UWI Vice Chancellor, has flourished in the Anglophone Caribbean, and have brought in further organizational frameworks to support these collaborative arrangements. The work of UNICA (the Caribbean Association of Universities and Research Institutions) and the cooperation frameworks established through ACP (Association of Caribbean and Pacific states) and ACS (the Association of Caribbean States), have served to create greater levels of intra-regional and inter-regional cooperation among governments and institutions of higher learning – giving further credence to the existence of higher education regionalization being operational in the Anglophone Caribbean. Contrary to previous literature, albeit in the Anglophone Caribbean, higher education regionalization was in existence, although not at the level of sophistication as Bologna. However, more work needs to be done to improve relations with the other linguistic groups within the Caribbean region, to accomplish regional integration, as envisioned by CARICOM.

As discussed in chapter three, J. Knight, (2014) put forward three approaches for establishing higher education regionalization. They were: 1) functional; 2) organizational; and 3) political. The functional approach to the regionalization of higher education involved the creation of quality assurance frameworks that promoted qualification and transfer credit recognition; academic calendar alignment; Semesterization; mobility schemes and the use of similar ICT platforms. This helped to create harmonization, an essential component of the regionalization process, which leads to compatibility in recognizable standards and regulations (Woldegiorgis, 2013 March) globally. Within the UWI and across the English-Speaking Caribbean quality assurance mechanisms have been put in place, and particularly in the main campus countries, national accreditation bodies were now operational, although a centralized regional body has yet to be established. The presence of these entities in the sub-region further confirmed the existence of higher education regionalization in that space.

On the other hand, the organizational approach involved the formation of networks and the creation of governmental and non-governmental organizations to take on a variety of responsibilities, including policy-making, capacity building, regulation and advocacy (J. Knight, August 2014, p. 355-358). The existence of the TLIU, ACTI, UNICA, ACS and ACP were some of the many examples of existing organizations and networks promoting higher education regionalization in the Anglophone Caribbean. As well, the choice by CARICOM to institutionalize the UWI and the Caribbean Examinations Council (CXC) and tasking them with promoting functional and non-functional cooperation in education; along with the Grand Anse Declaration
were other examples of the political approach, facilitating higher education regionalization. Thus the existence of these three approaches further confirmed the occurrence of higher education regionalization in the Caribbean.

Globalization has also had other implications for higher education and regionalization. It has brought reduction to time and space through advancements in communications and technology. Accordingly, education was no longer constrained by time, distance and the location of the nation-state. Instead it has evolved as a truly international activity (Forest, 1995, p. 22). The UWI’s distance education programs offered through the Open Campus and Single Virtual University Space have created greater access to higher education in the Anglophone Caribbean. However, at present, there were still disparities in higher education. With the exception of Barbados and possibly Trinidad and Tobago, most of the eligible population in the Anglophone Caribbean still have difficulty accessing higher education. Finance and the matriculation requirements for entry into the UWI for example, remain barriers. Compounding their challenges was the GATS which made education one of twelve trade related sectors. As part of this free trade initiative which functions as a set of voluntary commitments, World Trade Organization members are required to treat other members equally. What has resulted under GATS was the opening of access to markets and greater competition. Accordingly, unlike their OECD counterparts, these smaller island territories were constrained by the conditions outlined in this agreement, as they did not and do not have the economic mechanisms, to establish a higher education presence outside of the Anglophone Caribbean. Instead, the number of foreign owned institutions within the sub-region has grown exponentially (Brandon, July 2003). Therefore, the danger of institutions of ill repute setting up in the region was real. As well, not all governments had quality assurance bodies’ in-place, to manage this in their respective jurisdictions, nor were members of their population sophisticated enough to decipher high quality versus low quality foreign institutions. Furthermore, through distance education, these institutions of ill-repute may continue to co-exist in this milieu, and their activities not readily observed and sanctioned.

Another challenge for the Anglophone Caribbean was the strong business focus of foreign institutions of higher learning. As a result, many of these institutions may not be as committed to the regionalization and regionalism project within the sub-region. Accordingly, they may not offer programs with a high degree of Caribbean content or relevance, to the English-Speaking Caribbean. At the same time, the proliferation of higher education institutions in the Anglophone Caribbean provided greater levels of access for students. As well, the affordability
and flexibility of these foreign institutions of higher learning will continue to lure regional students.

Curriculum and teacher education training were also important vehicles for regionalization and education regionalization. The UWI’s affiliation with CARICOM; its curriculum development work through the Open Campus departments of APAD (Academic Programming and Delivery) and CSDR (the Consortium for Social Development and Research), have helped to move social issues into the academic arena. These units have created programs and short duration courses from grassroots research, particularly in the Non-Campus Countries/underserved territories. Additionally, Spanish language skills development and training programs, as well the requirement of the Caribbean Civilization’s course, as an elective taken by some UWI students, served as mediums for transmitting intercultural education, regionally and inter-regionally. However, greater support for teacher education training was needed. Across all four campuses, the teacher education programs were not coordinated, and were structured to the national needs of the particular main campus location. On the other hand, the Open Campus’ teacher education training program, modelled after the one offered at the Mona Campus, offered in the Non-Campus Countries, was regional in scope. As a result, there were articulation agreements between the postsecondary institutions and the UWI for teacher education training programs, resulting in dual credentials for participating students. (See previous discussion in chapter four about the UWI and T.A. Marryshow College in Grenada). Although teachers and staff from the Faculty of Education were not interviewed for this study, respondents did also point to the need for more pedagogical support for teachers, regionally. Opportunities to update textbook and teacher materials and embed literacies, such as critical thinking into teacher education were also essential. The earlier discussion of the Caribbean Kalinagos comes to mind here. As well, the need to critically evaluate Euro-American discourses within education, and encourage the development of indigenous knowledges should be a goal for education.

Many Caribbean societies have secured statehood through independence and have established a sort of collective identity, which may have been foisted upon them and or/ may have emerged from their own collective understanding of themselves. Although consensus may not have yet been reached on what constitutes the quintessential Caribbean society, the eventual goal of CARICOM is regional integration. This continues to be a work in progress for these nation-states. Thus in their struggles for survival, these small states have illustrated solidarity toward a common regional nationalism (F.W. Knight, 2012, p. 228). The example of the outpouring of support through UNICA in the aftermath of the Haitian earthquake, and the
The sub-region’s position on the Dominican Republic’s policies against the descendants of Haitian migrants discussed earlier, comes to mind here.

As well, as discussed in chapters one and two, Caribbean people did not arrive at a common point, via a common route. Therefore, Caribbean society inherited languages that they have made into their own – creolized. Together, they have enriched and reformed these languages to express and reflect their individuality. This resulting creolization of Amerindians, Europeans, Africans, Chinese, Indians, persons from the Middle East and others, which have congregated into this geographical space between North and South America, some by choice and others by force, have created an ethnic mosaic – a kaleidoscope of culture. Thus the Anglophone Caribbean is like a prism by which whatever passes through it is transformed, creating one of the most ethnically diverse spaces in the world. Yet race did and does not constitute a mutually reinforcing cleavage as in Europe and North America, for example, although race, colour and class are powerful status indicators within the sub-region (F.W. Knight, 2012, p. 228-229).

Yet as UWI and the Anglophone Caribbean struggles for survival, high levels of fragmentation have remained as an obstruction to regionalization. Having thrown off the asphyxiating bonds of imperialism, the region found both its stability and viability threatened by a number of insidious forces, including models of development with varying levels of success; political instability at various points in history; and economic challenges, due to their limited natural resources and small, underdeveloped industries, just to name a few. But their survivalist mentality has remained (F.W. Knight, 2012, p. 228-247). At times these forces have encouraged the pursuit of the nationalistic agenda over that of regionalism/ regionalization. As one respondent framed it “selfish me, collective us” (MC12 Interviews, 2013-2014- chapter five). Therefore, as F.W Knight, (2012) observed, the fragmented Caribbean community must begin to think seriously and collaboratively about the welfare of their community (p. 245-246). High levels of cooperation among higher education institutions and governments in the region must be strengthened at all costs, if the regionalization project is to be fully realized.

8.2.1 Regionalism and Regionalization

Some study respondents’ defined regionalization as a mechanism for engaging small states in the Caribbean in knowledge and information sharing, through the process of working together in order to build capacity (MC12 Interviews, 2013-2014). For others, it was about the intent of the UWI to help bring about the integration of the Caribbean, by ensuring that regionalization was reflected in the composition of the student body; and in the curricula
materials used at the Institution. Other interviewees defined regionalization as the glue that adhered the Caribbean; and for some respondents, regions are areas or geographic spaces, units of analysis at the international level; and regionalism is an ideology (MC13, OC8, MC14 Interviews, 2013-2014). For many, regionalization and the UWI were also seen as synonymous terms; as it is part of the institution’s mandate, to serve the entire English-speaking Caribbean, through its provision of higher education services (OC10, OC4, OC8 and OC1 Interviews, 2013-2014). In addition, regionalism was also viewed as a “political thing” and as “an awareness of the rest of the Caribbean” (OC5 Interview, 2013-2014; MC2 Interview, 2013-2014). These discussions were previously presented in chapter five- Defining the Regional University.

Study respondents also pointed to the creation of the Open Campus and its predecessors as the embodiment of regionalism within the University of the West Indies (OC8 Interviews, 2013-2014). Accordingly, both the Open Campus and the Single Virtual University Space were held up metaphorically and literally by research respondents as the epitome of the regionalization of the University of the West Indies. This is because these units focused on outreach into the undeserved areas of the Anglophone Caribbean, as they were intended to fill gaps left by the lack of main campus facilities in these different locales. Study respondents commented that from its inception, the University was designed to have a presence across the entire Anglophone Caribbean. Consequently, its physical presence in those jurisdictions, first through the Department of Extra Mural Studies in the 1940’s (Cobley, 2000), and later the Open Campus was held up by respondents as the ultimate example of the UWI’s regionality. This was further confirmed by interview respondents who noted that “from the outset when there was one campus at Mona it was always understood that the University was more than a campus, and needed to reach out into the region. So as early as that, the Extramural Studies would have been the earliest kind of demonstration that we are more than just the physical location” (OC9 Interviews, 2013-2014).

The offering of higher education initially through radio, paper-based correspondence and later, distance technologies, including online and hybrid delivery, were identified by respondents as some examples of how the UWI was carrying out its regional mandate into the sub-region and beyond. The increasing enrolment of students from across the islands and territories including at the Open Campus (see Appendix three), was proof that the UWI was having some measure of success in providing greater access to higher education. The growing number of Open Campus locations was also cited as further evidence that advances were being made towards achieving the regionalization goal/ mandate of the Institution. This is because through
the online delivery mode, the UWI is able to offer programs and courses to more of its constituents in locations that previously had limited access to higher education services.

Yet the potential for online delivery to reach not only the UWI’s current student population, but the entire English-speaking sub-region, and also intra-regionally to the non-English speaking territories, and extra-regionally to anyone anywhere interested in education and/ or in learning about the Caribbean, requires significant coordination among the University’s internal units. Thus clearly delineating the functions of the Open Campus and the Single Virtual University Space, and suggesting ways that they could better collaborate, at the executive and policy levels, would be in the best interest of the University. As previously discussed, there have been tensions around the similarity of their mandate.

While there has been some movement towards program expansion, access to a larger variety of full undergraduate and graduate programs offered via the Open Campus, have been limited except in areas such as Management Studies. Furthermore, the matriculation requirements to access programs and the prior learning and recognition strategies within the Institution, are highly bureaucratic, and often required documentation such as marriage certificates, which had no bearing on academic ability. Instead, these requirements created barriers/ restrictions for Open Campus students as well as access to the main campuses.

During the interviews, study respondents complained about the slow expansion of programs and the lack of support from main campus faculties, for the work of the Academic Programming and Delivery Division (APAD) in the Open Campus. One respondent, who at the time of the interviews was pursuing a Master’s degree online with a US university, remarked that there were growing requests for Masters Degrees online, but that the UWI and the Open Campus had been very slow to respond (OC10 and OC9, Interviews, 2013-2014).

As previously discussed in chapter four, the UWI’s Open Campus includes the Academic Programming and Delivery (APAD) unit, which has the responsibility for curriculum development. As well, another unit within the Open Campus is the Consortium for Social and Development Research, which conducts grassroots community-based studies, particularly in the smaller underserved territories. Study respondents noted that there was considerable resistance from the main campus faculties towards the Open Campus. In particular, respondents reported that faculties across the main campuses were very reluctant to work with Open Campus staff, to develop hybrid and online courses from existing programs within the University. As well, many of the resulting research and programmatic development from the Consortium have not made their way into main campus curricula content. Instead, much of the Consortium’s work was confined to short duration programs, workshops, public service announcements and lectures in
the underserved/ the Non-Campus Countries and territories. As a result, there was a growing perception that the Open Campus has a marginalized status within the University itself.

The above challenges faced by the Open Campus may also be inherent in its structure. The Open Campus Principal like those in the main campuses, reports to the Vice Chancellor. As such, while it has jurisdiction over online curricula content, it has limited authority to make requests of staff located in the main campuses, because of the reporting structure. The latter is the responsibility of the main campus principals to whom department heads and deans directly report. Thus to minimize some of this tension there may be a requirement to rethink the current structure, and or to confer some authority over the management of curriculum development to a centralized unit within the University.

Furthermore, despite the growing physical and virtual proliferation of institutions in the region, including the expansion of the UWI Open Campus, tertiary-level education is not readily accessible. For with few exceptions, less than fifteen percent\(^{80}\) of the students graduating from high schools and postsecondary institutions, had access to tertiary education in the Anglophone Caribbean in 2005. While changes have been made, and some progress achieved, most CARICOM territories have also not yet met the fifteen-percent benchmark agreed to earlier. Added to that, out-migration for employment and education is still occurring in significant numbers. CARICOM, for example, reported that even with the growing number of postsecondary institutions in the region, the brain-drain has not subsided.\(^{81}\) Added to that, the recent fiscal retractions for education in Barbados will have an impact on tertiary education

---

\(^{80}\) At the post-secondary level, CARICOM has identified a number of areas for development, including the pursuit of a 15% enrollment of the post secondary age cohort in tertiary-level education programmes by 2005. However, across the Caribbean, the highest gross enrolment rate at the tertiary level is Cuba at 109, followed by the British Virgin Islands at 75% and Barbados with 53% (Tewarie, 2010, Slide 10 retrieved March 2012 from https://docs.google.com/viewer?a=v&d=cache:Ysr_kfrtmCUJ:www.caricom.org/jsp/single_market/services_regime/Tewarie%2520Concept%2520Paper%2520for%2520the%2520Development%2520of%2520A%2520CARICOM%2520number%25202.ppt+Vision+2020+Subcommittee+Report+on+Tertiary; CARICOM Community Secretariat - CXC, 2003, retrieved June 2015 from http://www.caricom.org/jsp/speeches/30cxc_carrington.jsp).

\(^{81}\) For example, it has been estimated for example that in the decade preceding 2007 approximately 50,000 nurses migrated from the region, a loss of US$2.2M (CARICOM Secretariat, 2007, May 16, retrieved from http://www.caricom.org/jsp/pressreleases/pres109_07.jsp). “Similar studies for medical doctors, medical technicians, teachers and other trained personnel reveal startling statistics, especially for countries such as Jamaica and Guyana where an International Monetary Fund (IMF) study (2005) estimated that over 40 and 75 percent respectively of trained personnel in these countries migrated during 2000-2004” (CARICOM Secretariat, 2007, May 16, retrieved from http://www.caricom.org/jsp/pressreleases/pres109_07.jsp).
output in the Anglophone Caribbean. Additionally, as has been discussed, many regional governments including Jamaica and Grenada, have been recent recipients of IMF funding. Historically, this had meant reductions to the public service, including education.

Despite the above, as was discussed in chapter five *Defining the Regional University*, there are growing collaborations among Small Island Developing States (SIDS) and their institutions of higher learning. UNICA (the Association of Caribbean Universities and Research Institutes), ACS (the Association of Caribbean States) and ACP (the Association of Caribbean and Pacific States) for example, have created regional solidarity with joint research and academic programming, with particular emphasis on issues of concern to the South. They are in effect, promoting regionalization in the South.

Yet the continuing challenges of access to UWI programs, particularly by Non-Campus Country students and potentially by students from the main campus countries, due to education funding cut-backs, reveal that regionalism may have not gained a foothold, even among the academic and political elite within the institution and across the Anglophone Caribbean. While the Institution has embraced its regionalization mandate, its administrators have remained the gatekeepers of access to a university education, creating ambiguities and contradictions. For example, at times throughout its history the UWI has made access to the Institution more difficult for some of its constituents than was necessary. The Challenge Examination Scheme for example was intended as a pathway for Non-Campus Country students to gain access the main campuses, to pursue an undergraduate education. Yet the tutoring and library support services provided to them for preparation was grossly inadequate. As well, at times those who were successful were prevented from attending due to strict quotas at the main campuses (Howe, 2005). These types of access issues have continued on, even with the emergence of the Open Campus, as reiterated above. Furthermore, the UWI’s greater focus on international collaborations, though of importance, and its seemingly lesser attention to the strengthening of collaborations with its postsecondary and secondary counterparts regionally, may also be to blame for this malaise towards regionalism. Additionally, while the ideology of regionalism has become central to many of the political positions taken by CARICOM at the regional and international levels, the same cannot be said for decision-making and action on economic issues. As discussed earlier in the thesis, the ‘economic imperatives’ of individual nation states have meant that an ideology of regionalism has not made it past the political realm, and so has not been transformed into ideas that promote substantive action on regional economic development. Instead as will be discussed later in this chapter in the section on Shifting Planes, the economic realm has been dominated by a primary focus on the nation-state.
In chapter one, it was noted by Boxill (1997) that an ideology of regionalism was needed to attain the elusive regional integration objective being pursued by CARICOM. Furthermore, he noted that the idea has not yet been transmitted into the sub-consciousness of members of the wider Caribbean population. As producers of knowledge and as the regional institution, there is much work to be done here by the UWI and its staff. At the same time, the UWI administrators interviewed have pointed to the UWI’s continuing work with CARICOM and regional governments on education and development issues. As one respondent observed,

our main aim is to ensure we work well with our tertiary level institutions and to work with governments because the university is the most important system, source, repository of technical expertise in the Caribbean and since we are supported by the contributing governments, we’ve always worked closely with them to find solutions to problems in their countries. And so that’s another aim, it’s to make sure that the expertise of the University is made available to the contributing countries (MC4 Interviews, 2013-2014).

The University of the West Indies emerged out of a political process guided by colonial Britain. Since 1973 and the signing of the Treaty of Chaguaramas, the University became answerable to the governments of CARICOM, particularly because of its funding relationship with them. The superstructure CARICOM is therefore the embodiment of the economic and political regionalization of the English-speaking Caribbean. As Payne (1980) noted,

the University of the West Indies...is dependent not so much on the domestic politics of one particular state, but rather on the complex and changing character of international politics within a clearly defined region. The University’s position is further complicated by the fact that the Commonwealth Caribbean has witnessed the rise and fall of several different movements of regional integration, during the period of its existence. The ebb and flow of integration in the Commonwealth Caribbean since the end of the Second World War has affected the development and functioning of the University (p. 474).

The physical presence of the UWI across the sub-region while important is insufficient for achieving regional integration. This is because regionalization as a process also requires regionalism as philosophy or ideology to be encouraged among its constituents.

8.2.2 Internationalization

Globalization and the neoliberalism have foisted business and market-orientated discourses upon institutions of higher learning. With the realities of its financial situation, the UWI introduced internationalization into its 2012-2017 Strategic Plan. In the Institution’s Vision Statement it is noted that by 2017 the aim of the UWI is to become ‘globally recognized’ and ‘internationally competitive,’ while in the Mission, the phrase ‘and beyond’ highlighted the ‘UWI’s commitment to extending its reach outside of the Caribbean.’ To accomplish this, the process of internationalization was institutionalized with the creation of the Latin American and Caribbean
Centre (LACC); the Central Office for Regional and International Affairs (CORIA); and the International Offices, on the main campuses.

Within the UWI the process of internationalization is being orchestrated both as a competitive and collaborative paradigm. Accordingly, mobility schemes - student and faculty exchanges; strategic international partnerships with other organizations and universities interregionally and extraregionally that have brought in financial benefits to the University; and international student recruitment, including the recruitment of students from the non-Anglophone Caribbean, is part of this competitive approach. For example, as was discussed in the chapter International Academic Mobility and Cross Border Education at the University of the West Indies, exchange programs like ACP, CARPIMS and Erasmus Mundus are all funded by the European Union, and have provided opportunities for faculty and student mobility; as well as programming and research of importance to these small island states.

Additionally, in its pursuit of a ‘world class status’ the UWI has set its sights on participating in ranking systems. However, being distinguished from Central and South American institutions was cited as key to this process. This is because in the pursuit of this ‘world class status,’ the UWI wanted greater comparability to its North American and European institutional peers, such as McGill University, the University of Toronto or Yale etc., who were all part of the rankings game. However as was previously discussed, the UWI also has numerous collaborative relationships with institutions in the South, but due to the importance of institutional competitiveness globally, wanted to be distinguished from their Southern counterparts in these ranking systems (MC2, OC9, MC13, MC14, MC15 and MC12 Interviews, 2013-2014).

Yet typical of Caribbean ingenuity, ranking was problematized, and recommendations emerged about re-engineering the process to fit the needs of the Institution and the sub-region. Consequently, institutional benchmarking and/ or accreditation were promoted as being more advantageous to the UWI. There was a sense that the ranking “instruments were analyzing apples and that the UWI was an orange, pear, banana, everything” (MC15 Interview, 2013-2014). Competition was therefore seen as crucial for maintaining the ‘world-class status’ of the Institution. As one interviewee noted,

[the] impact [of internationalization] on higher education forces Caribbean institutions to develop best practices. It forces them to compete at a higher level because when you start internationalizing, one thing that happens is that you have to deal with others, as you are now the big fish in the small pond. As the University of the West Indies, all of a sudden you are now thrown in with a whole bunch of big fish, and you have to be able to compete with those other big institutions, like the Harvard’s, the Yale’s, the Oxfords and the Cambridge’s, the University of Toronto and so on. So this means that your standards have to be higher now; you have to improve the way you offer courses; and you have to improve the delivery of the courses, so that you can actually compete with some of these
big places. Now that’s a very important thing, now I think that’s positive in some ways. You also have to be able to attract individuals who may not necessarily be from this region. So that includes not only students, but also attracting members of staff, lecturers and professors and so on… (MC13 Interview, 2013-2014).

Competition in higher education within the Anglophone Caribbean also came from foreign providers of education who were now operating in the Anglophone Caribbean. As one respondent noted “it is an awakening to the understanding that we are not the only game in town and competition is sometimes a wonderful thing” (MC2 Interviews, 2013-2014). However, there was some sense that the population in the sub-region was not sufficiently sophisticated to discern which of these new competitors were of questionable quality.

On the other hand, as part of the collaborative paradigm, joint degrees; joint curricula development; accreditation; degree recognition and quality assurance practices have now been entrenched into UWI operations, as part of the accountability mechanisms imposed upon it; and due to its need for comparability with other institutions across the globe. For example, there is now a FIFA approved Sports Management program at the St. Augustine Campus. As well, CXC has adopted the practice of associate degrees and in response to this, and in the face of increasing competition from US institutions, the UWI is giving consideration to the adoption of the 2+2 model of program delivery. The UWI has also adopted Semesterization and Grade Point Average (GPA), all with the aim of seeking greater alignment with their global peers. Furthermore, at the UWI, the Board of Undergraduate Studies created a quality assurance division to accompany the changes that have come about, because of globalization. Students have gained enormously from these changes. With the joint programs for example, they can now simultaneously earn degrees from both the UWI, as well as other overseas institutions (MC11 and MC13 Interviews, 2013-2014).

Accordingly, as previously mentioned, to maintain its ‘world class status,’ historically and at present the UWI still looks externally for accreditation, mentorship and quality standards, which have been set extra-regionally. Thus by continuing to pursue external accreditation, particularly with British and American bodies, the influences of the Euro-American discourses are maintained. However, these were seen as necessary for the retention of a ‘world class status.’ Therefore, the collaborative research and programs it has engaged in, have strengthened the Institution’s research capacity; provided significant opportunities for student and faculty mobility; and brought in required funding for ongoing program development, thus also meeting its financial obligations. For example, through collaborative internationalization, the UWI was able to forge relationships with China resulting in Confucius Institutes that were now set up on all the main campuses, as well as obtain funding for agricultural programming. It also
allowed the UWI to seek out partnerships in more purposeful ways, with Central and Latin America – Brazil, Panama, Costa Rica and Venezuela; and with European countries such as Finland, Denmark, Norway and Sweden. Yet the reliance on extra-regional funding has imposed international policies upon the region and the UWI; and discourses about technology and program delivery that were now pervasive within the Institution. At the same time, these relationships were helping it to gain the international recognition it desires, while building its capacity for its continued contribution to regional development. Furthermore, these relationships were seen as necessary if the UWI wanted to remain desirable, vibrant, competitive and comparable to similar institutions around the globe.

However, internationalization was not a state to be achieved, but an ongoing process (Brennan and Dellow, 2013). For the UWI, internationalization has facilitated improvements in higher education quality, recognized by national accreditation councils within the Anglophone Caribbean, and from institutional peers, in the regional and global scholastic arenas, who continue to collaborate with the institution on a number of research areas and academic programs. Internationalization has therefore become entrenched into the organizational culture, processes and policies of the Institution.

Yet within the UWI, at the time of interviews, there was no consistent definition of internationalization nor was an internationalization strategy articulated to give guidance to the international offices, whose administrators reported to the campus principals. Consequently, the UWI’s internationalization objectives were individualized by campus and operationalized according to the needs of the main campus countries. In short, it is highly fragmented. Therefore study respondents noted, for the Jamaican Government internationalization may mean collaborating with countries and investing in renewable energy, while for Barbados it’s a different thing or for St. Augustine, it’s different (MC2 Interview, 2013-2014). One central approach to internationalization is needed and is being recommended.

8.2.3 Technology

Globalization has also brought with it the need for technological advancements within education. As discussed in the chapter Epitomizing Regionality- the UWI’s Open Campus, at the instigation of the World Bank and the need for ICT development within the sub-region, CARICOM created the Caribbean Knowledge and Learning Network (CKLN). This came through a policy initiative called “the Global Development Learning Network (GDLN). [It] proposed [the formation of] distinct geographic regions for the introduction of information and communications technologies (ICTs) [aimed at encouraging] sustainable human resource
development” (Ali, 2010, p. 77). One of the ways it proposed to do so was by improving the regional connectivity of the education system across the CARICOM member states. However, although CARICOM created CKLN, curriculum development was managed regionally for the postsecondary and secondary systems through CXC, with support from the UWI. On the other hand, tertiary level institutions like UWI, managed their own curricula, albeit, at the campus level, to some extent. Therefore, in its current capacity, the Caribbean Knowledge and Learning Network (CKLN) does not have jurisdiction over curricula development, and so has failed to achieve any traction since its inception. Accordingly, the creation of a bureaucratic structure to respond to problems, without conferring legitimacy is problematic, and would not lead to progress. For without legitimacy and resources, authority to make decisions that are far reaching are inhibited, especially when other entities already exist, and they have partial responsibility for problem solving some of these same issues.

The problem of creating structures to solve problems in education, and later dismantling or repurposing/ re-engineering them because they failed to reach the heart of the problem, may also be historical. For example, as was discussed in the chapter, The Caribbean and the History of Higher Education in the Anglophone Sub-Region, the Negro Education Grant was created by Britain to fund education during the colonial era. The Grant was intended to be temporary, but responsive to a need. This need however was not temporary, but ongoing. Even today, as we have seen, education funding continues to be a troubling issue for governments of the Anglophone Caribbean and for the UWI. Again, here we see the influence of external entities manipulating the direction of education, and potentially affecting the region’s economic priorities and its potential for growth.

8.3 Internationalization Complementary or Antithetical

On the question of whether internationalization and regionalization were complementary or antithetical, most respondents stated the former. They noted that internationalization was not possible without regionalization and that the opposite was also true – the more the institution internationalized, the more it regionalized. Furthermore, the UWI as a regional organization was seen as a more highly desirable partner internationally than it would be if it were national. They noted that “nobody would pay attention to us” (MC4, Interviews, 2013-2014). As well, when the UWI was present in international forums in Europe, they were seen as representing the Caribbean (MC4 and MC7, Interviews, 2013-2014).
8.4 The Regional Nature of the UWI

All of the UWI administrators interviewed for the study understood the symbolic and strategic importance of the UWI as a regional institution. The UWI was a representation of the measure of success achieved through regional integration and what was necessary and possible, for these small island states to remain viable - economically strong - in the face of globalization and neoliberalism. In my discussions with these respondents, they observed that embedded within the Mission and Vision of the UWI was a regional mandate. Therefore, throughout the course of the interviews they alluded to the Institution’s many contributions towards regional development, through the production of human resources to support the political and economic needs of the Anglophone Caribbean, and to fulfill labour market gaps in private and public sector organizations. The numbers of prime ministers who had formed regional governments were also mentioned by respondents, as one of the many examples of the Institution’s regional contributions. Additionally, the financial arrangements whereby regional governments provided the operational funds to support the UWI; its human resource outputs, research and commercialization activities and their effects on the Anglophone Caribbean, were identified as helping to advance regional development.

Study respondents also identified a number of reasons to support the idea that the UWI was regional. They included the University’s multiple campus locations; its relationship with CARICOM; funding decisions and arrangements with the contributing territories; its involvement in supporting the other levels of the education system, through CXC (the Caribbean Examinations Council); the existence and expansion of the Open Campus; the attempts to infuse regionalism into aspects of the higher education curricula at the UWI; and the types and number of collaborations between the UWI and other national education institutions in the sub-region. They also discussed the UWI’s structure and its relationship to CARICOM, and the historical attempts by the UWI to institutionalize regionalization through the TLIU (Tertiary Level Institution’s Unit), followed by ERIIC (External Relations and Intra/Inter-Institutional Collaboration) unit, and its most recent iteration, CORIA (Central Office for Regional and International Affairs).

Another example discussed was the participation of UWI staff in the standing committees and other sub-committee structures within CARICOM, and their reporting relationship to CARICOM on issues of regional importance. As previously discussed, these committees were created to provide functional cooperation in the sub-region, in areas of health, education, agriculture, foreign affairs, technology, natural resources, finance, transportation and
labour, just to name a few (Boxill, 1997, p. 47). For example, as was mentioned earlier in this thesis, UWI staff sit on the Caribbean Examinations Council (CXC), which is the CARICOM entity for oversight in secondary and postsecondary education in the sub-region. As was uncovered in the chapter The Caribbean and the History of Higher Education in the Anglophone Sub-Region (chapter 2), the secondary and postsecondary curricula are managed regionally through the Caribbean Examinations Council (CXC). The Council awards the Caribbean Secondary Education Certificate (CSEC) and the Caribbean Advanced Proficiency Examination (CAPE), credentials. When the Council is in need of curriculum experts they often turn to the UWI staff for support. An interesting observation was made by study respondents about this arrangement. They noted that the participation by UWI staff in CXC was not done necessarily with the expressed intent of promoting regionalization and regionalism, or the regionalization of the education system. Instead they viewed their participation on the Council simply as curricula experts. Therefore, from the perspective of study respondents, promoting a regional understanding while participating in curricula deliberations in CXC would happen almost accidentally (MC14 Interviews, 2013-2014; OC5 Interviews, 2013-2014; CARICOM Secretariat, 2003, April 24, retrieved from http://www.caricom.org/jsp/speeches/30cxc_carrington.jsp). As well, it was noted that “once you get beyond CXC, which is now not on every island, there isn’t an agreed upon framework, which makes life difficult for the people moving around [the education system in the region]” (OC5 Interviews, 2013-2014). Again we see that within CARICOM, these differences in the various levels of the education system were posing challenges for the creation of a coordinated regional higher education system/strategy.

The Open Campus which had 46 locations at the time of the interviews was also cited by respondents as another example of the UWI’s regionality. Added to that, as “the leading and oldest University in the Commonwealth Caribbean” (MC4 Interviews, 2013-2014), the UWI has become the “first port of call for regional governments [wanting] advice and technical expertise” (MC12 Interviews, 2013-2014; UWI Annual Report, 2009-2010, p. 68). However, since the establishment of the UWI in 1948, the smaller contributing territories have always felt peripheral to the main campus countries. This is because the number of students from the Non-Campus

82 “The members of the CXC are: Anguilla, Antigua and Barbuda, Barbados, Belize, British Virgin Islands, Cayman Islands, Dominica, Grenada, Guyana, Jamaica, Montserrat, St Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, St Vincent and the Grenadines, Trinidad and Tobago, Turks and Caicos Islands….The Council admits external entries from St Maarten and Saba from the Netherlands Antilles….CXC is governed by a Council comprising representatives from each participating country” (CARICOM Community Secretariat-CXC, 2011, retrieved from http://www.caricom.org/jsp/community/cxc.jsp). Fifteen of the twenty members and associate members of CARICOM participate in CXC.
Countries entering the UWI remained relatively low (See Appendix 3), due to barriers such as finance and access. In its attempts to address this historical and ongoing challenge, the UWI created “the Board of Non-Campus Countries (and Distance Education) and then the Open Campus, in order to get a better relationship with the Non-Campus Countries” (OC5 Interview, 2013-2014). As was also discussed, the creation of the Open Campus was an initiative of the then Vice Chancellor of the UWI, Dr. Nigel Harris. As one participant observed “so our Vice Chancellor, in recognizing this vast need and the need to have access and coherence and create this regionalization of which you speak… created the Open Campus [as] the [UWI’s] primary response” (MC8 Interview, 2013-2014). In his inaugural speech at the Heads of Government meeting in 2008, when the Open Campus was launched, Vice Chancellor Nigel Harris emphasized the long-standing commitment of the University of the West Indies to outreach beyond its campuses, signalled by the creation in its first year, 1948, of the Extra-Mural Department and reaffirmed by the early engagement with high tech modes of delivery when the University embarked in the early 1980’s on distance education by teleconferencing. The elevation of the units dedicated to these concerns for underserved populations among the University’s contributing countries to a Campus, on par with the other three, indicated a strengthening of this resolve to unlock the potentialities of the region (The University of the West Indies Open Campus Report, 2007-2008, p. 3).

Thus the number of countries served by the University of the West Indies, through its multi-campus facilities was cited as another characteristic of the Institution’s regionality.

The expansion of the UWI during the early 1960’s from a single campus university to the creation of two additional main campuses and Extra-Mural Centres in the other contributing countries was not without challenge. When it was decided that the UWI needed to expand, there was initially jurisdictional tensions on where it should be established. The Irvine Committee had recommended Jamaica as the site for the UWI and stipulated that future expansion should be contained to that island. However, the collapse of the 1958 to 1962 Federation experiment created access issues or what Rex Nettleford, a former Vice Chancellor of the UWI described as a “tyranny of distance” (Nettleford, 2004, May 11, p. 18; OC1 Interviews, 2013-2014).

There was much resistance from many quarters to limit the expansion of the UWI to the island of Jamaica, as originally recommended by the Irvine Committee. This further exacerbated the national tensions which partly led to the collapse of the 1958 to 1962 Federation. Jamaica was the first to opt-out of this Federation following a national referendum (Payne, 1980). Trinidad and Tobago soon followed, and their premier at the time, Sir Eric Williams made the infamous statement that “one from ten leaves nought” in reference to the ten countries in the Federation, and that the idea of the experiment was now dead (Allahar, October 2005, p. 133;
In Trinidad, the conversion of the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture (ICTA) into the UWI St. Augustine Campus was very much part of the social-re-engineering process, common to the Caribbean experience. After the establishment of UWI St. Augustine, the creation of another campus on the island of Barbados was supported by Trinidad. However, the economic capacity of maintaining a multi-campus facility and the economic circumstances of the nation-states and countries in the sub-region, led to fierce opposition towards expansion, and fears about the loss of the Institution’s regional status. The resulting fragmentation and cleavages created from this fall-out surrounding the practicalities of regional integration, have yet to be resolved.

Throughout the years, the UWI’s administration, particularly its various Vice Chancellors, have had to navigate between politics and economics to help fulfill the Institution’s regional mandate. As we saw during the 1960’s, Sir Arthur Lewis received support from the national governments of Barbados and Trinidad, in the form of land and funding to establish the two new campuses. As well, Trinidad at the time was experiencing economic prosperity and wanted an engineering faculty to support its oil and gas exploration efforts. Its leader, Sir Eric Williams wrote a White Paper-NIHERST (National Institute of Higher Education, Research, Science and Technology), admonishing the UWI for its failure to develop science and technology programs to better support economic development in the Anglophone Caribbean. On the other hand, the St. Lucian born Arthur Lewis felt that the islands of the OECS (Organization of Eastern Caribbean States) – the ‘Little Eight’- (which included St. Lucia) had been isolated by the collapse of the 1958 -1962 Federation. Hence it was believed that the creation of these two campuses in Southern Caribbean would facilitate greater access to the University for these smaller island nations.

In summary, the above examples illustrate that the UWI administrators interviewed for the research were actively thinking about importance of the University of the West Indies in the regional integration process. They maintained a shared set of assumptions and collectively were invested in securing a future for the UWI, to ensure its viability and growth, in the face of the precarious vulnerabilities and the realities of globalization and neoliberalism. Thus along with above mentioned achievements, University Centre was created to manage the regional project; outreach was being conducted into the non-English speaking Caribbean through the Association of Caribbean States (ACS), including the offering of spaces to Haitian students, to complete their degrees, following the January 2010 earthquake; and expansion of the UWI via
the Open Campus. Administrators therefore understood the imperatives of regional action and the need to band together in times of crisis, as well as the importance of expanding the UWI, despite the challenges of funding higher education.

8.5 Shifting Planes:

8.5.1 National, Regional and International

As was discussed in chapter two, the Anglophone Caribbean was thrust into the global economy through the Kalinagos encounter with the Spaniard Christopher Columbus, which gave rise to mercantilism and the Transatlantic Slave Trade. Conquest through European colonialism that led to enslavement of ‘Black people who were brought from Africa to the Caribbean, being traded and dehumanized, for tobacco and sugar, fuelled the necessary capital for the industrialization of Europe. The core to periphery relations which developed through globalization created imbalances, whereby the former advanced technologically, while the latter remained mostly underdeveloped.

Not only were agrarian raw materials exported from the British Colonies, particularly to Britain, but over time, as other mineral resources were discovered, they too were exploited and exported, while their processing and manufacturing took place mostly in Europe. Nettleford (2004) reminds us of the Bauxite exploited in Jamaica and Guyana that was returned to region as exorbitantly priced commodities in the form of aluminum pots (p. 18-19). Later when slavery was abolished, indentured workers were brought from Asia and Europe into the sub-region to meet the labour demand, leading to further creolization and the emergence of the wage economy.

The two World Wars also had devastating effects on both sides of the Atlantic. Loyalty to the British Crown meant that many ‘West Indians’ fought in the World Wars as their economies continued to be exploited to support Europe’s militaristic efforts. As World War I ended, the global economy was launched into a great depression. Consequently, the social, political, and economic conditions of these British Colonies, as they were known then, became deplorable. As the price of sugar fell on the global markets, the economic value of the Colonies depreciated, although they remained of strategic importance. Therefore, agitation for change from within the Colonies led to social and political unrest and a push towards self-determination. Consequently, the emerging political elite in the colonies championed the political, social and economic rights of the poor and working class.

In the post colonial era, as was previously discussed in chapter two, in the 1900’s a number of commissions of inquiries were launched to investigate the social and economic
conditions of the British colonies. These allowed Britain to manage the political process towards independence, by initiating federated statehood - Crown Colonies, while continuing to exploit their resources. In turn, the sub-region received some levels of economic support from the British imperial government. Improvements to the social, economic and working conditions provided advantages, as the stability of the Colonies meant that trading relations with Britain, were minimally disrupted and the Colonies remained protected, further anchoring Britain’s political and economic influences.

As educational opportunities developed within the region, and as globalization brought improvements in technology and transportation, travel to pursue higher education became more accessible for the Caribbean elite. Consequently, their exposure brought new ideas back into the Anglophone Caribbean, and its peoples become more politically astute. As their knowledge of global economic structures expanded, they utilized the mechanisms of labour disruptions, political protests and unionization to demand improvements to their social, economic and working conditions. In response, the colonial governments acquiesced, by making services such as health, education and housing, a right of the peoples and a responsibility of governments, hence the emergence of the social welfare state in the Anglophone Caribbean.

As the transition towards independence began to unfold, the government and educational structures which materialized in the Anglophone Caribbean mimicked the British parliamentary and educational systems. Yet the agrarian nature of the economies and their limited natural resources fuelled continued dependency in core to periphery trading relations. This meant greater exposure to economic downturns and increased vulnerability in the global economy. Despite their achievement of political independence, to stimulate growth, the governments of many of the former colonies continued to rely on economic supports from Europe and North America, through their respective governments and lending institutions. The conditional borrowing patterns with their high interest rates saw increases in processed/manufactured goods imported into the region, leading to trading imbalances and the high consumption of goods from overseas markets. These arrangements also created power structures that unduly influenced/ and are continuing to affect the Anglophone Caribbean. This is because the high interest rates attached to the loans meant that in times of economic difficulties, fiscal management policies were imposed by these external lending institutions, to the detriment of local/endogenous solutions and industries. Accordingly, the structural adjustment policies of the 1980s had devastating effects on the Anglophone Caribbean.

Thatcherism and Reaganomics or for some the ‘Washington Consensus’ (Gore, 2000; Jules, 2010; Lewis, 2006), destroyed the social-welfare arrangements in these smaller economies.
The neoliberal practices that resulted created trade liberalization that dispensed with protectionist measures that guaranteed access to European markets for agrarian products from the Anglophone Caribbean; replaced nationalization with privatization, as governments were encouraged to sell off assets to private enterprise/multinational corporations to raise revenue; while decreasing funding to the public sector in areas such as health, housing and education. These neoliberal practices had devastating effects on these economies, as the high levels of foreign investment never materialized; and the retrenchment of public sector workers led to a growing disparity between rich and poor, resulting in high rates of poverty, particularly among the most vulnerable in the society. At the same time, higher education resource output was seen as critical to the economic development of the Anglophone Caribbean.

At the same that governments in the Region were responding to the externally imposed Structural Adjustment Programs (SAPs) with cuts to the public sector, including in education, as discussed in chapter two, many began establishing Community Colleges and Universities, some of which were public and others private, to meet the growing need for higher education in the various national jurisdictions of the Anglophone Caribbean. Many of these privately owned institutions were foreign providers, who began to set-up in some instances, at the invitation of some national governments. The examples of Grenada and St. Kitts were discussed in chapter two. These newer institutions while needed, as the higher education needs of students in Region are still unmet, also created competition for the UWI. Here again we see contestations when national priorities were advanced at the expense of the regional university.

Additionally, as discussed in chapter five, in the era of the SAPs, the University of the West Indies too pursued expansion, with the creation of UWIDEC (University of the West Indies Distance Education Centres) in 1996 with a loan from the Inter-American Bank and Caribbean Development Bank, with the goal of extending higher education into the underserved areas of the Region. Therefore, despite external pressures to reduce spending on public expenditures by governments, including in education, the UWI sought funding to support expansion. As well, in 2008, the UWI created a fourth campus by amalgamating the Board of Non-Campus Countries and Distance Education (the Tertiary Level Institution’s Unit; School of Continuing Studies and Distance Education Centres) and the Hugh Lawson Shearer Trade Union Education Institute (HLSTUEI), part of the Consortium for Social Development (CSDR). This again led to further expansion of the UWI. The online delivery of education helped to bring higher education into the underserved areas and territories of the Anglophone Caribbean. While this was being demanded, particularly by the Non-Campus Countries, the technology that has expanded program delivery also discouraged the mass movement of students across jurisdictions,
discouraging the cohort experiences and opportunities for building intercultural relations, which came about when students from the different nationalities of the Region congregated at the main campus. With the establishment of the Open Campus, students can now remain on their respective islands to pursue postsecondary studies. Furthermore, the replication of the faculties of medicine, law and engineering at each of the main campuses, largely at the behest of the national governments in these jurisdictions, also created some of the same challenges mentioned above, for the regional project.

As described earlier, the political economy approach to development in the English-speaking Caribbean championed the need for local/ regional and foreign investments into these economies to support growth. Yet as Marshall (2008) observed, while the local can be strengthened through interactions with the global there is also significant disjuncture when western education systems are introduced into developing countries, particularly its effects on local knowledge. Furthermore, distance education technologies often brought discourses about modernity into education that promoted homogenization – uniform cultural messages - that upheld mastery and the superiority of Western sources of knowledge, and have become standardized into education practices. The adoption of GPA, Semesterization and quality assurance practices at the UWI are some of the examples that come to mind here. The latter were often infused into the conditions of global lending institutions such as the World Bank and educational authorities such as UNESCO. This end result is that local knowledges or indigenization was marginalized and become, what have been described by Foucault as ‘subjugated knowledges.’ This sometimes took the form of standardization within curricula, to ensure that course equivalencies could be easily mapped from one jurisdiction to another, given the increasing mobility of students. Furthermore, courses about the local were often seen an unimportant to certain professional practices, and were often replaced with what are sometime presumed to be more relevant course material. In the case of UWI for example, students in some of the professional programs, such as Engineering and Medicine, were not required to take the mandatory Caribbean Civilization’s course. Yet another example of this is the attempts by the Caribbean Knowledge and Learning Network to bring ICTs across the education systems in the Anglophone Caribbean, described in chapter five. Here again we see the contradicting effects of globalization and neoliberal policies. One the one hand, the project's goal to aid with improvements in connectivity is necessary, yet it was being encouraged at the expense of the promotion of local knowledge and the exclusion of the Caribbean Examination’s Council (CXC), who has the authority on curriculum development from this process.
Therefore, in the face of globalization and neoliberalism, the University of the West Indies was wrestling with decolonizing education, by promoting Caribbean culture in its curriculum through its Caribbean Civilization’s course; investing in and developing local knowledges to support Caribbean intercultural, social and economic development, through its work in the Consortium for Social Development and Research (CSDR); and its offer of tuition incentives for students in the non-Anglophone Caribbean, in hopes of broadening the regionalization project. But at the same time, promoting ICTs with a globalizing effect, which blatantly disregarded the ‘local.’

8.5.1.1 CARICOM and the UWI

The islands of Jamaica, then Trinidad and Tobago were the first in the Anglophone Caribbean to gain political independence in 1962. The independence movement continued through to the 1960’s and 1980’s. However, as of the completion of this thesis, there are still a number of French, British, American and Dutch dependencies in the Caribbean. As was previously discussed, inadequate resources (limited natural resources and a high reliance on tourism and unprocessed agrarian products for export and revenue generation), forced a continued reliance on external sources of funding for economic development in the Anglophone Caribbean. Due to their small size, these island nations and territories have long pursued regional integration/ federations to foster increase collaborations – and so formed a Community, known as CARICOM. Later a ‘Common Market’ was added to what is now known as CARICOM-CSME (Caribbean Single Market Economy) [Caribbean Community (CARICOM) Secretariat, 2011 retrieved from www.caricom.org/jsp/community/original_treaty.jsp; Caribbean Community (CARICOM) Secretariat, 2001 retrieved from www.caricom.org/jsp/community/revised_treaty-text.pdf].

CARICOM\(^{83}\) was initially established in 1973 through the Treaty of Chaguaramas\(^{84}\) and its member countries agreed to continue funding the UWI. Again in 1989 at the CARICOM Heads of Government Meeting, the Grand Anse Declaration was signed and member countries committed to have the UWI continue indefinitely as a regional institute. With this declaration,

\(^{83}\) The agreement was adopted as part of “the resolution on Annex I on Human Resource Development” Grand Anse Declaration -CARICOM Secretariat, 1989, retrieved from http://www.caricom.org/jsp/communications/meetings_statements/grand_anse_declaration.jsp).

there was also an agreement from CARICOM to maintain its financial support to the UWI (OC5, OC8 and OC7, Interviews, 2013-2014; MC11 and MC15 Interviews, 2013-2014; CARICOM Secretariat, 1989, retrieved from www.caricom.org/jsp/communications/meetings_statements/grand_anse_declaration.jsp) Thus, many of the research respondents have pointed to these agreements as proof of the UWI’s regionality. The agreements have formalized and cemented linkages between the UWI and CARICOM. Respondents pointed to this as proof of the UWI’s regionality, as well as the practice whereby the financial policies and matters relating to the financing of University were discussed at the Finance and General Purposes Committee. This committee is comprised of representatives from all across the University. Similarly, many of the boards within the UWI were comprised of representatives from across the CARICOM member states.

As we saw in the chapter Defining the Regional University, UWI staff also worked closely with CARICOM governments and ministries of education and higher education by providing consultancy and advice to them on issues concerning human resource development (MC4, Interviews, 2013-2014). As one interviewee noted,

we work closely with government, ministries of education and higher education and human resource development. We sit on all the various committees and commissions dealing with education, dealing with human resource development, as I had told you earlier, we sit on the CARICOM committee that’s coming up with a plan of action for human capacity development that is being led by the Caribbean Examinations Council. So we’ve been doing this for an awfully long time. So this is not something new, the whole regionalization thrust came up from you know, the very first days of the University when this was deliberately conceived to be a regional organization (MC4 Interviews, 2013-2014).

Furthermore, when national governments particularly in the main campus countries embarked on trade missions, UWI administrators were included. The end result have been research chairs, funding for institutes and other on-campus projects, including Confucius Institutes, agricultural innovation parks and many other forms of collaboration, all benefitting the UWI. Consequently, national agendas are simultaneously helping to support national needs and the Institution’s strategic priorities.

The challenge with this arrangement has been the funding disparities that have become apparent across the four UWI campuses. Though autonomous, the UWI’s strategic mandate and objectives are gleaned from the CARICOM. Consequently, when regional agreements / disagreements are sacrificed or replaced with bilateral arrangements, resource allocation and distribution across the Institution is uneven. This occurs despite the presence of regional entities such as the Finance and General Purposes Committee/ University Grants Committee. To this
extent, individual campuses have pursued funding from China and India individually, instead of collectively. Here is what one respondent observed.

Right now St. Augustine and Cave Hill are both going to the government of China for investment in agriculture. Now the government of China have plenty money and they are investing in both campuses, but still that wasn’t coordinated. It was almost done like a thief in the night, by each of the campuses, and that is unacceptable. So we are stepping on each other’s toes (MC15 Interviews, 2013-2014).

Another respondent noted that the CARICOM agenda worked when economic crises brought people together to look for solutions. However, there was a tendency for nation-states in the region to go externally to partner with governments like China, to individually to find solutions for their countries. Respondents further observed that even when there was opportunity for dialogue, Prime Ministers tended to do their own negotiations, even after multinational discussions at the level of CARICOM had taken place (MC12 and MC15 Interviews, 2013-2014). As one responded noted,

when they go back to their separate countries they enter into bilateral agreements and not multilateral. So therein lies some serious issues and I think it has a lot to do with the propensity to support your own needs. Because at the end of the day, you are a politician and you have a custodian population. They vote you in and they want resources and if the resources are not being shared and are going to another country and they don’t benefit as much, then you pay the ultimate price when elections come, and that’s the reality of our society (MC12 Interviews, 2013-2014).

As a political body, CARICOM has had a highly economic focus on functional cooperation. However, even when multilateral agreements had been formalized there was often a sense that the economic situation of individual countries or territories affected how they would eventually act. For depending on economic need, the multilateral arrangements would be dispensed with in favour of a bilateral arrangement that would maximize the benefit for the individual nation-state.

The problem is further compounded by the fact that many of the contributing countries to the UWI are not meeting their financial obligations towards the Institution. As well, the main campuses seemed to be working at the behest of each of their individual governments, as discussed in the example above, with regards to seeking funding from China. Fuelling this is the growth of students on the main campuses, predominantly from those jurisdictions. That is, there are mostly Jamaican students at Mona, Barbadians at Cave Hill and Trinidadians at St. Augustine. Thus the student fees which fund the operational costs came mostly from the three campus countries. Therefore, campuses are seemingly more responsive to local/ national needs, as seen in the pursuit of bilateral relations, over a multinational regional approach, to the detriment of the Non-Campus Countries/ other contributing territories. This created
contestations between local and regional priorities and problems of equity, with regards to the distribution of resources for development, regionally. Added to that many countries do not have student loans programs, creating accessibility issues for many potential students across the Region. These disparities continued to exacerbate the inequities and undermine the regional university’s mandate of supporting Caribbean development in the pursuit of regional integration.

Added to that, many of the other contributing countries which have stronger agrarian economies than some of the main campus countries were left out of those discussions between the UWI and these governments or lending institutions. In its bilateral approach to pursuing funding for agriculture, the other contributing countries were further marginalized in this process. The nutmeg industry in Grenada for example, the second largest in the world, is still exporting predominantly raw material, with limited manufacturing/processing of nutmeg products. Therefore, with its engagement in bilateral relations with China, here again we see the UWI pursuing the national at the expense of the regional.

8.5.2 The Global

8.5.2.1 The British and American Influence

From its inception, the University of the West Indies was set up to fulfill political and economic needs in the Anglophone Caribbean. This included the production of intellectual capital for the labour market, particularly the public sector and governments. On the other hand, politically it was conceived to ensure that the relationship between the ‘mother country’ and the sub-region was retained, and as a symbol of Federation. Historically, a series of political and economic arguments have been advanced purporting the reasons for the creation of the University of the West Indies. These were previously articulated in the chapter *The Caribbean and the History of Higher Education in the Anglophone Sub-Region*. They included but were not limited to: nationalist movements towards self-determination, where agitators for change were championing the need for a university to support nation building; economic concerns by Britain who wanted to relinquish its financial responsibilities, as free labour was no longer available through slavery which had been abolished in the 1830’s; demands from workers for better working conditions; political and labour protests that were potentially destabilizing and could affect the British economy, if production was disrupted in the British West Indian Colonies; and tensions in Britain and across Europe as ‘Black and Brown Peoples’ made their way into that space to seek better prospects for education and employment, but were faced with racial discrimination (Cobley, 2000; Payne, 1980). These together, offered significant reasons for
stakeholders both in Britain and in these West Indian Colonies, to manage the political movement towards independence and create the University College of the West Indies. As one interviewee observed,

but I mean during the War and after the War, the University was in the business of the development and welfare in the Caribbean. And from the late 40’s into the 50’s, universities in the various British Colonies were seen as a way to help prepare those colonies for independence (MC4 Interview, 2013-2014).

As was discussed in the chapter, *The Caribbean and the History of Higher Education in the Anglophone Sub-Region*, in 1921, the British Government created the West Indian Agricultural College in Trinidad, which was renamed the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture (ICTA) in 1924. This later became the second UWI campus in 1960 (Cobley 2000). During its early years, ICTA served the needs not specifically of the Caribbean, but those of the British Empire. This is because much of the research produced by the ICTA was exported out and was never applied to Caribbean economies. In addition, as an apprentice of the University of London, it was Britain rather than the region that recruited and selected faculty for the UCWI, via the Inter-University Council for Higher Education in the Colonies (Cobley, 2000, p. 13). It might have been true at the time of its inception in 1948 that the British West Indies could not have immediately supported a multi-campus facility. These sentiments were supported by research respondents who noted that “the smaller islands did not have the critical mass or human resources at the time [to establish a university]” (OC8 Interviews, 2013-2014). However, the establishment of the Cordington College in Barbados and the ICTA, in 1743 and 1921 (Cobley, 2000, p. 2) respectively, puts this assumption into question. With these mechanisms, Britain controlled both the higher education process and the pace of development in the sub-region. As Nettleford (May 2004) noted “Caribbean peoples are even now still dependent on codes of ethics, institutional frameworks and operational mechanisms which have not been necessarily crafted in their total interest” (p. 6).

This historical emergence of the UWI gave rise to ideologies, rituals and practices that have shaped higher education in the Anglophone Caribbean. It has affected the perceptions of higher education attainment, institutional operations and knowledge creation (where information should come from and what is legitimized as academic knowledge), centred as discursive constructions, drawn from particular perspectives (Vighi and Feldner, 2007; Henry and Tator, 2002). Its initial influence was Britishness and more recently, American ideologies about higher education have begun to dominate the global sphere. Thus, “every ideological stance we assume is always already parasitized by an intricate network of discursive devices whose function it is to structure our point of view in advance, silently bestowing an appearance of
necessity upon it” (Vighi and Feldner, 2007, p. 148). Consequently, language can never be totally free from the socio-cultural influences and economic interests in which it is produced and disseminated (Henry and Tator, 2002, p. 25).

As previously discussed, capitalism which emerged out of the mercantilist tradition, has depended on an underclass of forced labour to produce wealth. The rise of the mercantilist relationships between Europe, particularly Britain and the former colonies, and the Triangular Slave Trade discussed at length previously, attest to the above. At the same time, it is often assumed that the economic growth that champions global competiveness can be used to tackle reductions in poverty and inequality (Vighi and Feldner, 2007, p. 150-151). Yet the application of globalization thrust upon countries and nation states have been uneven. As discussed in the thesis, models of development imposed on the South have caused and continues to cause growing disparities between rich and poor individuals and countries. This is because these models of development are not endogenous, and assume similar collective trajectories for small island states globally, despite differences in histories, resources and economies. Therefore, the impact of lending institution policies and ideologies on the Anglophone Caribbean’s economies and its regional higher education institution has not yielded the levels of economic growth, intellectual output and levels of production, to substantively impact their development and change their dependency status.

Furthermore, capitalism, through neoliberalism and globalization has foisted upon institutions of higher learning the importance of academic output - knowledge creation and skills development - for economic development. As has been discussed, the purpose of education in this neoliberal environment is solely for employment; as relevancy in education becomes strongly associated with labour market demand and hence, employment security. Therefore, the skills produced and the learning obtained is legitimized in dominant discourses, if they can illustrate their purpose and function in the labour market. As stated throughout this study, the UWI was created for the political and economic development of the Anglophone Caribbean. However, whose knowledge and what discourses are exerting power over education in the English-Speaking Caribbean, is what must be interrogated in higher education, especially, by the regional university, who has been tasked with advancing regional integration.

In the battle for hegemonic spaces, ideology is imposed in the execution of power (Vighi and Feldner, 2007). As discussed throughout the thesis, European colonization and American domination have infused discourses about and upon the South. Beginning with the Kalinagos and later through colonialism and post colonial relations, Eurocentric values, ideas and beliefs have sought to dominate the Anglophone Caribbean. More recently, the structural adjustment
policies and other forms of neoliberalism imposed by external lending institutions have brought American discourses into the Anglophone Caribbean. Yet resistance to this Euro-American hegemony have become entrenched in articulations of Caribbean culture, in the pursuits of political independence and in the ingenuity of turning isomorphic structures, through processes of re-engineering into useful applications for education and economic development.

Yet the contestations between the regional and international and to some extent the discursive dominance of the latter over the former was presented in the data analysis chapters. They illustrated the UWI's and the national governments in the sub-region, complicity in this process. For example, as was also discussed in the chapter, *International Programs and Partnerships* - chapter seven, the research and development agenda was determined extraregionally and imposed upon local institutions. International organizations such as UNESCO, the WTO, CIDA, and IDRC determined what got funded within the local institution. At the same time, the agrarian sector in the Anglophone Caribbean remained woefully underdeveloped. Many of the islands and territories have retained a strong agriculture sector, although in recent times, tourism and the service sector, coerced through World Bank and IMF fiscal management/ structural adjustment policies, have gained significant momentum.

Accordingly, in many economies within the Anglophone Caribbean, there is still a heavy reliance on raw materials for export, such as the nutmeg industry in Grenada. Furthermore, in adding the Imperial College of Topical Agriculture as the second campus of the UWI, it was hoped that the institution would help develop agriculture and the manufacturing sectors in the Anglophone Caribbean. While the innovation park discussed in chapter seven proposed by the St. Augustine

---

85 The External Aid Office began in 1960 as part of the Department of External Affairs, which later became the Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade (DFAIT). It was seen part of Canada’s commitment – its ethical responsibility - as an industrial nation, to provide assistance to persons beyond its borders who were suffering severely and lived in abject poverty – “humane internationalism” (Trilokekar, 2010, p. 133). However, in 1986 a separate government agency was created from DFAIT called CIDA – The Canadian International Development Agency in a bid to further expand Canada’s foreign aid program. Starting from the 1970’s and continuing through the 1990’s there was a change to Canada’s foreign policy, of focusing it poverty reduction strategies globally to align with Canada’s security, diplomatic and commercial interests (Trilokekar, 2010, p. 133-134) On the other hand, the International Development Research Centre (IDRC) was established by the government of Canada as a Crown corporation in 1970 to work in close collaboration with researchers from the developing world. Therefore, there is the view that unlike CIDA, IDRC tends to respond to the expressed needs of the developing world, rather than imposing northern or global approaches. However, as was discussed in chapter seven, the Canadian Federal Government disbanded CIDA in March 2013, leaving the IDRC as Canada’s primary overseas assistance development program (Saunders, Globe and Mail, retrieved from http://www.theglobeandmail.com/globe-debate/cida-the-strange-life-and-quiet-death-of-canadas-foreign-aid-experiment/article10218956/)
Campus is a step in the right direction, one can understand the sentiments of the underserved territories, who have been consistent in their outcry, that with its more than 60 years of existence, they have yet to reap substantial benefits from the UWI. While the UWI must take some responsibility for these failings, governments too, in the underserved countries must display more confidence in the work of the UWI, and must meet their financial obligations toward it. Many governments in the region for example, still owe millions of dollars in debt to the UWI. This negation of the regional project only serves to increase the region’s vulnerability (openness to manipulation) in the international arena.

As we saw previously, early in its history, postgraduate studies at the UWI were deliberately underdeveloped. There was therefore an expectation that students would travel outside of the Anglophone Caribbean for postgraduate work. As such, ambitious students had to leave the region if they wanted to obtain a higher level of scholarship. Thus the out-migration of students and professionals from the Anglophone Caribbean, who have gone on to support economic development of other countries extra-regionally, remains an ongoing problem for the sub-region. However, there have been some shifts due to research collaborations and partnerships, which were discussed in the chapter, ‘International Programs and Partnerships’. These have positively affected the availability of postgraduate programming at the UWI, which has expanded due to these collaborations, giving more exposure to regional students and faculty, residing in the sub-region.

However, while with the support from Britain the Anglophone Caribbean saw the establishment of the regional University of the West Indies, these historical linkages have also served to create stratifications, which have had implications for assumptions about the quality of institutions in the South, relative to their North American and European counterparts. As was discussed earlier in the thesis, the prevalence of Euro-American discourses about the ‘standards’ required for institutions of higher learning were still very much present in the Anglophone Caribbean. Furthermore, a British or American university education was still being held up as the pinnacle of success for aspiring West Indian students. This historically was further exacerbated by the inter-island scholarship scheme which recruited the ‘brightest’ regional students for overseas universities, and which continued, long after the establishment of the UWI in the region. Added to that, the stringent matriculation requirements of the UWI only served to perpetuate the notions of inferiority upon most local institutions in the Anglophone Caribbean.

Among the administrators interviewed for the study, there was also the sense that the Anglophone Caribbean region is a place inclusive of all who inhabit it remained and that the
regional project was broader and needed to include the other non-Anglophone groupings. Therefore, the Spanish, Dutch and French-speaking islands, as well as Guyana, Belize and Suriname, and to some extent the coastal regions of Colombia, where much of the Spanish-language training programs with the UWI were being facilitated, were inclusive of study participant’s construction of the Caribbean region. Consequently, these respondents were very supportive of the UWI’s outreach into the Non-English-Speaking sub-regions, citing the economic and interpersonal benefits, which could mobilize greater innovations for the benefit of the entire region. In that regard, they saw the possibility for a potentially more even distribution of wealth from educational output, given their similarity in size, dependency status and needs. However, among study respondents, it was also important to be distinguished from the higher education institutions located in South America. The Euro-American discourses about education quality, again resurfaced, as administrators felt that when compared with North American and European institutions of higher learning, their southern counterparts were not on par, hence the importance of being distinguished from them. Yet at the same time, the neoliberal imperatives led to a growing interest in collaborating with Brazil and its many higher education institutions.

To this end, it can be gleaned from this is that the research respondents had a very clear understanding of the UWI’s mandate as a regional institution. As UWI administrators, respondents were very knowledgeable about the role of the international offices and the value of inter-institutional collaborations and research funding. These partnerships with international agencies, academic institutions, lending agencies and governments were important features that brought numerous benefits in the form of financing, research collaborations, academic mobility, joint programs and curricula. However, Euro-American discourses, were strongly influencing research interests; partnership pursuits and organizational structure. As Henry and Tator (2002) observed, ideologies are often organized to maintain and stabilize particular forms of power (p. 92). Consequently, as will be restated in the pages ahead, relations with European and North American institutions were given greater value than those between the UWI and its Southern counterparts. As Henry and Tator (2002) noted, as socially constituted subjects people participate in discursive exchanges which are shaped by power relations (Henry and Tator, 2002, p. 92). To this extent, this thesis has found that decolonization has not yet reached the sub-consciousness of the Anglophone Caribbean psyche.

8.5.2.2 Accreditation and Quality Assurance, Funding and Research

Globalization and neoliberalism have therefore brought mechanisms of accountability and quality assurance into higher education across the globe. In the English-speaking
Caribbean globalization has continued to affect the UWI’s quest for external validation of its programs, from external accreditation bodies. Study respondents noted that prior to 1962, the UCWI, as it was called then, got degrees conferred from the University of London. This helped to establish a tradition of seeking accreditation from external sources as validation of the institution’s program quality. This practice was still in existence today, particularly among the professional schools – Law, Medicine and Engineering. Currently, these schools all have accreditation from Britain and/or from the US. More recently, the business programs at the UWI, have been seeking international recognition for its MBA programs (MC15, OC1, MC11 and MC10 Interviews, 2013-2014; OC5, Interview, 2013-2014). One respondent summed it up this way,

they got degrees [from] the University of London; so we have these strong British traditions. But you know the links are very strong there but, with time, and I have seen this, as I have been the head of a department, I have been a Dean of Engineering, and so I know all about the accreditation. We still have British accreditation etc., but you know there are shifting tides. And so over the years, one could see how we built up links with the United States and Canada (MC11 Interview, 2013-2014).

However, for many institutions in the region, their focus has been primarily on national priorities. Accordingly, many have not pursued or had the financial means to pursue external accreditation. As well, in many of the CARICOM territories, accreditation bodies were still non-existent. Consequently, their institutions were often viewed as being of lower quality. Together, these have affected the perspectives of many in the region that external institutions were more prestigious than the local, and/or feelings that graduating from an offshore or British/US institution located in the Caribbean, for example, was better than graduating from the UWI or another local institution (MC10, Interviews: 2013-2014). The discourses that have emerged also included the notion that the local could never meet the standards of, or would always be ‘inferior’ to international entities; and/or that one must leave their place of origin and migrate, in order to improve their circumstances. These discourses have also prevailed because of the UWI’s matriculation policies, which have posed access challenges for regional students. As such, these ideas about higher education have become ingrained into institutional practice, and are pervasive among members of the population in the sub-region.

The reliance on external accreditation bodies for validation have also led to a discourse that high quality education standards were set externally. At present, although accreditation bodies exist in the main campus countries, the UWI still looks outwards for accreditation, mentorship and quality standards that have been set extra-regionally, in pursuit of a ‘world class’ status, as stated in its strategic objectives. As was discussed, the influences of the
international on local education have also been facilitated by the ongoing reliance on the University and national governments within the region on external sources of funding from Europe and North America. These external organizations have infused a global outlook upon the University. They have crafted policies that have affected education delivery and funding. When main campus countries borrow funds from lending bodies such as the IMF, funding for education and other aspects of the public sector are often retracted. The structural adjustment policies of the 1980s previously discussed was one such example. Additionally, external lending organizations have brought in discourses about access and technology usage, as well as standards regarding quality. In effect, they have altered the purpose and function of education and the nature of the University. At the same time, the resources of governments within the region are limited, as many still have highly agrarian and service oriented economies. Accordingly, the sub-region’s dependency on external markets and funders makes it easier to influence their economies. As a result, external influences and neoliberal practices seem to be shaping what and how priorities are being determined for education in the region. In short, they are affecting how the transformation within education is occurring.

Yet part of the goal of the higher education regionalization project is decolonization. That is, a delinking from the hegemony of Euro-American dominance in pursuit of a local alternative to development, of which the UWI plays a central role. As previously discussed, the UWI was created to meet the political and economic needs of the Anglophone Caribbean and in the post-colonial era, obtained its independent charter to grant its own degrees. Yet the achievement of self-actualization by the Institution seems to require affirmation from the global, hence the ongoing reliance on these external validation processes. The needs of academically mobile students’, who are encouraged to extend their scholarship beyond the regional space, may yet be another motivation. As an integral part of the regionalization project of the English-speaking Caribbean, the UWI aspires for ‘world class status,’ hence the pursuit of global recognition from these international accreditation bodies. The danger however, is in this objective is a constantly moving target. These comparators therefore convey to the regional university, that while it may come close to, it could never be as good as, and/or achieve the level of recognition that is on par with these ‘world class’ institutions found mostly in North America and Europe. At the same time, the UWI administrators interviewed for this research boasted of the success of their graduates at these overseas institutions; as well as the exchange opportunities that are better facilitated by the pursuit of these accreditation standards, that help to broaden and enrich student and faculty learning, because of the adoption of these policies; and international recognition received by other global institutions (MC1, MC8, MC10, and OC12 Interviews, 2013-
2014), illustrated by the increasing number of inter-institutional collaborations, at the international level. Yet as the regional university, more relationship building is required between the Anglophone Caribbean and the Non-English-Speaking Caribbean, if the regionalization project is to thrive and compete at the global level.

In the chapter *International Programs and Partnership*, in the information presented about the research being done at the UWI for this study, there was a significant emphasis on social and health research. While this presentation was only a snapshot of the extensive research being undertaken at the UWI, it is still an important responsibility for the University. What seemed to be lacking though is knowledge mobilization in order to update curricula at all levels of the education systems in the Anglophone Caribbean, to effectively bring about the required changes for socioeconomic development, on issues such as HIV/AIDS. However, what has been occurring is information dissemination from these studies in articles, pamphlets, information bulletins and public service announcements. However, the information has not been incorporated into curricula at the secondary and postsecondary systems, for example. Furthermore, there are other implications. When the funding priorities of the international agencies change, for instance, these research areas within the University are adversely affected.

In addition, international funding agencies have encouraged institutional differentiation and have also placed greater emphasis on research-intensive universities. This led many respondents to comment on the growing research culture at the UWI. As one respondent noted, so in other words, [does the region] have research institutions exclusively, and what role are universities playing in research, [does the region] have colleges and community colleges and to what extent are they playing [a role in the sub-region] in terms of preparing graduates, high school graduates for the labour force. And then there is the mix of those in-between, the polytechnics and so on… (MC12 Interviews, 2013-2014).

Consequently, being juxtaposed between the global, regional and national, the institution has embarked upon a discourse of excellence. But should the University’s goals be about international aspirations or local-regional needs or both? As was discussed, the UWI has inherited like many other institutions, the practice of ‘mimicry.’ Today, this has become more sophisticated in its replication of relationships, processes and systems for managing its affairs. But what is to become the Centre of Excellence for and within the UWI? Who dictates and who should dictate these measures of assessments for what is defined as excellence within the UWI? For in its goals to pursue ‘excellence,’ the UWI aims to achieve recognition from its international peers on its graduates and research outputs. However, should the dominant international discourses prevail, the UWI, systems of education and the Caribbean society itself
would continue to remain underdeveloped. This is because their priorities would fail to adequately address local needs. Furthermore, is the goal to become more like others an attainable feat (isomorphism), as standards and expectations in the global arena are constantly changing?

A lack of funding at the regional and national levels for research and the operational needs of the UWI were motivating these international research relationships. At the same time the potential for pharmaceutical and other products from plant life in the region, which for centuries have been used by members of the population in the Anglophone Caribbean, seemed very much undervalued in this process. With the research agenda being set externally, there is a danger that these potentialities would be exploited and appropriated by governments and industries outside of the Region. For example, the Marijuana plant for which Jamaica is notorious, is being legitimized as an industry, particularly medicinal marijuana, in the US and Canada – a new neoliberal up-take. However, what is not known is the UWI’s involvement in research in this area. Ideally, it should be the leading research institution in this field. However, this may already be in the hands of extra-regional institutions, which to some extent, may be due to an undervaluing of local knowledges. It is these kinds of missed opportunities that can occur when agendas are being set externally. Therefore, the UWI must, on an ongoing basis seriously examine whether internationalization is being pursued at the expense of regionalization. It is these contestations between the local, regional and international that the University of the West Indies must grapple with.

8.6 Resistance and Resilience

8.6.1 Financing and the Regional University

As the UWI was expanding, it was also facing financial challenges. The creation of the multiple campuses gave rise to centrifugal forces that was tearing apart the regionality of the Institution. One respondent alluded earlier in the thesis that a paradigmatic shift was now needed, in the face of the new multi-campus structure of the UWI, to grapple with the contemporary notion of the regional university (OC3 Interview, 2013-2014). In response, the UWI created a number of taskforces, such as the commissions of inquiries that had occurred during the colonial era to solicit feedback from its constituents/ stakeholders. What resulted was a series of institutional restructuring efforts by the UWI. Here again was another example of “what Rex Nettleford has called ‘the sort of piecemeal institutional engineering…facilitated by the heritage of British muddling, though coupled with native Caribbean facility (Cobley, 2000, p.
18-19). In short, it was another example of mimetic isomorphism of colonial structures and repurposing them to address local concerns.

One recommendation from the 1984 Taskforce and resulting restructuring was the creation of individual Campus Grants Committees, giving more autonomy to the main campuses, in addition to retaining the University Grants Committee, to manage University financing (The University of the West Indies, February 2006, p. 3). As previously discussed in chapter two, funding for the University of the West Indies comes from the contributing countries in the Anglophone Caribbean. However, although the UWI has been enshrined in CARICOM as the regional university, it does not receive financial support from all the members of CARICOM. Instead, most CARICOM countries also have public and private community colleges and or/ universities, as part of their higher education landscape. As one respondent observed,

well I mean we’ve got a regional system in that the University of the West Indies serves the whole Commonwealth Caribbean. And the Commonwealth Caribbean except Guyana, because we serve the independent countries as well as what they now call the British Overseas Dependent Territories. They are all members of the University including Bermuda. So the Turks and Caicos, Anguilla, Caymans, Montserrat, and US and British Virgin Islands are all members of the UWI (MC4 Interviews, 2013 -2014).

However, only 17 members of CARICOM contribute to UWI financing. Since the restructuring, funding for the Institution’s operational costs was being advanced by main campus governments. At the same time, these states were scrambling for resources, and so tended to revert to nationalistic agendas. As well, despite its long history in the region, the UWI has no mechanism in place for the collection of debts owed from regional governments. Consequently, tensions have emerged between the regional and national priorities. This has had particular implications for the UWI at various times throughout its history. The analogy was summed up by one participant as follows:

It’s like a multinational company based in Toronto, who may not always look at itself as being multinational, although it is. And it is clearly branded as multinational. And everyone knows it’s multinational. But that particular building stuck in Toronto may not always behave in the best interest of the multinational company (MC8 Interview, 2013-2014).

Changes to the financial arrangements for funding the UWI, where national governments in the main campus countries advanced the operational funding to support the UWI have also created disparities. The smaller underserved/ Non-Campus Countries have complained about differential treatment in favour of Trinidad, Barbados and Jamaica. Consequently, the UWI created the Open Campus to improve access to the Institution, by students in the other contributing countries and underserved areas of the region. However, even in the main campus
countries, the rate of Open Campus students have far out-paced those attending from what were previously known as the Non-Campus Countries (See Appendix three). Accordingly, because of the growing preponderance of national students at their respective campuses, more and more, the main campuses have tended to focus on national issues, further exacerbating regional-national tensions. As well, even with the existence of the Open Campus, students from the other contributing islands and territories still have to leave their respective islands to pursue certain degree programs. The UWI has attempted to resolve this with the creation of the Single Virtual University Campus (SVUS) initiative, by providing synchronous and asynchronous access to courses. However, tensions have emerged between the Open Campus and the SVUS, which some respondents have noted have a similar mandate. That is the provision of online access to courses and programs. Additionally, programs were being replicated across the UWI. There are now law, engineering and medical programs in all three of the main campuses, which are very expensive to operate. This has caused other challenges. In some instances articulations had to be created, as automatic course transfers were not readily granted across the campuses. Across the campuses also, courses with similar content were also differently named. Therefore, although the Board of Undergraduate Studies provided oversight for course standards and quality control, reviews of the similarity of course content in the various locales was not part of its process. The above also created problems over jurisdiction in the management of courses and of intellectual property. However, the dictates of the various national governments and the growing autonomy of the main campuses, in their attempts to meet local labour market demand and raise revenue, led to their creation. At the same time, the Open Campus was “developing its own programs” (MC15 Interviews, 2013-2014), replicating those offered by the main campuses, citing a lack of cooperation from main campus administrators and faculty. This too was done in their attempts to survive economically as a Campus. As one respondent noted,

this has shocked a lot of us here, you know. If you have the technical capacity already invested in the [Open] Campus, our expectations of the University at the campus level is that the Open Campus is a delivery mechanism. So we develop programs and we work with you to deliver it. Now they are saying oh they have invested a lot of money. They’ve got a $15 Million grant or something from the Canadian Government to start developing content, and now they are competing with us in this country. You open the newspaper for example, and you see the Faculty of Social Sciences advertising accounting and on the next page you see the Open Campus advertising the same program but via the Open Campus (MC15, Interviews, 2013-2014).

Thus there are neoliberal imperatives – profit making/ survival and the creation of job-ready workers for the labour market, impacting the process of higher education, here.
Adding further to the disparities is the funding arrangements through the GATE (Government Assisted Tertiary Education) initiative in Trinidad. Here students are able to achieve a free undergraduate education, courtesy of the Government of Trinidad and Tobago, while students wanting to pursue postgraduate studies received 50% of the cost towards this credential. A similar arrangement was available in Barbados until 2014, when the Freundel Stuart government disbanded the practice. As one respondent observed, “some campuses have been sheltered by their governments. But the governments are now beginning to say well gee, well we can’t afford it either. So you need to go and find other resources” (MC6 Interviews, 2013-2014). Consequently, as of 2014 students in Barbados were being charged fees - up to 20% - towards the cost of their education. This change has had funding implications for the UWI Cave Hill and led to a significant decrease in student enrolment in Barbados. “The drop in enrollment followed the Government’s decision to make Barbadians pay their own tuition fees from the start of the current academic year. Outgoing principal Professor Sir Hilary Beckles has reported a 21 per cent decline in enrollment as of January this year” (Madden, April 10, 2015 retrieved from Barbados Today, http://www.barbadostoday.bb/2015/04/10/dip-in-uwi-numbers-just-a-phase/). Consequently, a number of newspaper articles in Barbados raised alarm, causing senior administrators at the UWI on the island to call for a reversal of the decision by the Barbadian Government. Opposition leaders of the political parties on the island also joined in the debate, promising to reinstate the pre-2014 funding levels for education, if elected. At the same time, the UWI's Pro Vice Chancellor for Planning and Development touted that the shortfall was temporary, and was optimistic about the resurgence of the enrolment numbers (Madden, April 10, 2015, retrieved from Barbados Today September 2015, http://www.barbadostoday.bb/2015/04/10/dip-in-uwi-numbers-just-a-phase/). However, during graduation ceremonies in Barbados in 2014, Chancellor George Alleyne attempted to alleviate fears with the proclamation that the “UWI is here to Stay…[and that] Universities are durable institutions and ours is no exception, and by all the indicators of scholarship, service and research your university is serving well the purpose for which it was created” (Williams, October 18, 2014, retrieved from Barbados Today September 2015, http://www.barbadostoday.bb/2014/10/18/sir-george-uwi-is-here-to-stay/). Yet the concerns raised were legitimate. At the Cave Hill Campus in the undergraduate department, the Faculty of Humanities and Education was the hardest hit, with a 38.04 per cent drop, while in the graduate division, registrations in the Faculty of Medical Sciences fell by more than three-quarters. The two faculties also saw the largest declines in new student registrations – 60.31 per cent and 55.88 per cent respectively. The drastic declines come as Barbadian students at the Cave Hill Campus are, for the first time, paying tuition fees after the Freundel Stuart administration
announced last year it would no longer be footing the entire bill for their university education…. Regarding new students, the statistics showed that those fell from 2,240 to 1,468 – a 34.46 per cent decline in the number of people who are entering the Cave Hill Campus to begin degrees (Joseph, September 10, 2014 retrieved from Barbados Today, http://www.barbadostoday.bb/2014/09/10/backward-step/)

In the discussions with interview respondents it was noted that the actions of governments, particularly in the main campus countries have significantly impacted the UWI, positively or negatively, depending on whether funding is received or retracted. In addition to GATE, the Trinidad Government’s investments in higher education, as well as its trade missions to India and China, discussed in chapter six, have brought benefits to the UWI St. Augustine Campus. On the other hand, funding cuts in Barbados have had a significant impact on the Cave Hill Campus budget. Therefore, the current funding arrangements and actions by main campus governments have led to the proposition that the UWI is “both regional and national [or] quasi-national” (MC11 Interview, 2013-2014). As was discussed in the chapters on ‘Epitomizing Regionality,’ on several occasions throughout its history, the UWI staff and students (the Student Guild Committee) also came to the realization that there was a breakdown in the regional nature of the UWI, because of the increasing autonomy of the main campuses. What has also resulted from these arrangements is that even in the main campuses, departments and divisions are also differentially resourced, as was the case with the international departments across the campuses. As was described throughout the thesis, the ‘economic imperatives’ of individual nation states within CARICOM have also had an effect on the UWI’s funding and focus.

The administrators interviewed for the research observed that there were discrepancies between that the UWI wanted to do and what was actually occurring with regards to the promotion of the regional project. With the expansion of the Open Campus for example, students from the other contributing countries could remain in their respective national jurisdictions to pursue higher education. The drawback to this, as previously mentioned, is that the opportunity to travel and co-mingle with cohorts of students from the different national jurisdictions, attending the same programs was being curtailed. This effectively inhibited opportunities for intercultural interaction, regionally, stifling the regional project. That being said, the programmatic options available to students participating in the Open Campus was limited, as most major degree programs, at the time of the completion of this study, were still not being offered by this campus. At the same time, the participation of students in the main campus countries in the Open Campus was growing exponentially, while students from the other contributing countries were being turned away because of matriculation requirements, creating
disparities in enrolment. This has resulted in exponential growth of the Open Campus in the main campus countries, relative to the other contributing territories. In Trinidad and Tobago for example, the ratio is six to one. (See Appendix Three). Furthermore, the lack of a consistent student loans program in many of the other contributing territories has made higher education inaccessible to these students, further undermining the regional project. Added to that, the replication of the faculties of Law, Medicine and Engineering by the main campuses, have created competition among these campuses for the same pool of students. Moreover, the advertisement in local newspapers for the same programs, by both the Open Campus and Main Campus, in particular jurisdictions, both of which needed revenue for their respective survival, has created competition, and again, is sabotaging the regionalization mandate of the UWI. Thus the contestations between national priorities and regional objectives were pervasive within the Institution.

In this neoliberal reality, the UWI has also continued to explore alternative sources of funding. As we have seen in the chapters International Academic Mobility and Cross Border Education; and International Programs and Partnerships - chapters six and seven, the relationship between governments and international agencies; and those between the latter and educational institutions such as the UWI, have policy and funding implications. Additionally, it has affected the funding priorities of governments and the UWI in the sub-region. Consequently, given the reliance on external funding, investment priorities and research interests, are driven by the dictates of international agencies. As one respondent commented,

funding agencies have defined targets, goals…so you simply need to align your goal with theirs, you know what I mean. And we have to do that, we really have to do that. Because [they are] an important source of funding…. There are few cases where we have a problem and we’re looking for funding to sort it out and you may have so little alignment with other people’s problems, but you know, by enlarge you are trying to resolve your own issue (MC6 Interviews, 2013-2014).

There was also some sense from respondents that many development agencies and NGOs were interested in working with macro-structures such as CARICOM. Therefore, it was in the UWI’s interest to promote its regional nature in order to secure funding from these global entities. However, there were difficulties in trying to achieve regionality, as the region’s geography, cultural, political and economic diversity, posed many challenges.

Study respondents also pointed to the work that was being done at the specific campuses to diversify the institution’s funding base, and bring in additional revenues. The growing number of international students on campuses, whose fees have helped to support the expansion of the medical facilities at the Mona Campus, was cited as one such example. Study
respondents also noted that research commercialization and business innovation projects were helping to strengthen the UWI’s research culture. One such example was the work being done by UWI Consulting on a mobile technology innovation project, which was funded by the World Bank, at the Cave Hill campus. There were also discussions about Caribbean Export, which is a regional entity funded by the European Union, to “support Caribbean companies exporting products outside of the Caribbean” (MC8 Interview, 2013-2014). The above were all seen as examples of the UWI’s regionality and its promotion of regionalization in the Caribbean and its attempts to diversity its funding base.

While the global and neoliberal imperatives are aiding in revenue generation, through these funding alternatives, external entities were now dictating what types of investments were being made in education at the UWI. With this focus on revenue generation, academic capitalism now had a permanent foothold within the institution. Here according to Slaughter and Rhoades (1997 Summer) and Hanley (June 2005) the university is corporatized as new managerialism is brought into the institution through this new research infrastructure, that allow market-oriented mechanisms to drive knowledge production. In essence, the university and its professional staff have become “capitalist entrepreneurs” (Rhoades and Slaughter, 1997 Summer, p. 14). Accordingly, academic capitalism is defined as the university’s market-like efforts to secure external funding (Hanley, June 2005, p. 3). Here, the challenge for the regionalization project is that while economic benefits for the university may be substantial, given these efforts, the commercialization potential of research and other academic products produced by the university may be advanced at the expense of the regional project. Thus, globalization and neoliberalism are simultaneously advancing and restricting the regionalization project.

8.6.2 Culture, Leadership and Development

According to Allahar (October 2005), the modern “Caribbean was constructed on the politics of social inequality that are directly tied their statuses as dependent capitalist satellites of imperialist centres in an increasingly globalized world (p. 134). As previously discussed colonialism created a cultural hierarchy that gave ascriptive status to race, ethnicity and class in the region. According to Nettleford (May 2004), these obscenities must be reengineered out of the Caribbean cultural ethos, if a sane economically productive future is to be secured (p. 12). Consequently, the regional integration process must be inclusive of the multi-ethnic, multi-racial and multi-linguistic groups that constitute the Caribbean. As one respondent noted,

regionalization has to be more than just the English-speaking Caribbean you know, because of the sea. Because in the sea there are other players who speak another language who
have cultural differences and so on... We have with Colombia a shared history, you know. We share a common geography, we share many common problems. So we have to be regional and international and it’s not a big jump to say well, if you’re dealing with these players within the region then expanding where you are is really important. Remember too that the Caribbean is made up of diverse peoples... And in truth, these peoples have links you know with the world. They’re Europeans, obviously African, they’re Asians, India, China, and you know, there may be also be a smattering of other countries within the context of the Caribbean. So by our very nature, we’re international, we’re regional, but international because many of these countries actually have links with their colonial power or the former colonial power. I mean the fact that we’re able to have the EU support us, has to do with the fact that many of the Europeans, at least some of the European countries actually have other presence in the Caribbean and indeed, you know; many Caribbean persons are related to the European people (MC7 Interviews, 2013-2014).

As we have seen, the Caribbean has been constructed culturally from creolization of racial and linguistic groups, including Europeans. Therefore, to delink from them would potentially lead to a process of ‘amputation,’ as this grouping was also part of the region’s construction of its identity. Yet an anticolonial perspective can bring attention to the dominating and dehumanizing tendencies that Euro-American discourses have had on the Caribbean. Notions of ‘inferiority,’ ‘dependency,’ ‘underdevelopment’ and ‘backwardness’ have been central in the latter discourses. Yet it was the rise of the Caribbean intellectual elite during the 1930’s that gave initial credence to the Caribbean experience. The realities of the social, political and economic conditions of the region found a foothold in literary expressions, which sought to replace the European romanticism that had constructed the Caribbean, as ‘underdeveloped’ and ‘backward’ as well as the ‘exotic other.’ Today, those expressions of resistance can be found in the music and other artistic representations that emanate from the region. It is here that the UWI and other educational institutions across the region can play a pivotal role. Debunking the myths of the ‘man-eating Kalinagos’ in the education process, is one example. As well, defining what is ‘Caribbean’ would help to improve the region’s chances for full integration. Furthermore, it would support the development of a social, political and economic agenda for the region, which would then be aligned to the priorities of the individual nation-states within it. A point of entry for the construction the Caribbean identity is self-knowledge. Its creation would help us excavate and interrogate who we are collectively as Caribbean peoples, and help us determine where we want to go as a Region. Accordingly, this identity project must be inclusive of all the linguistic and racial groupings that comprise the Caribbean.

The expansion in higher education has increased nationalism and regionalism, by providing students within the UWI and across the Anglophone sub-region with a greater awareness of Caribbean society and the Americas, its histories and cultures. This has been facilitated by courses such as Caribbean Civilization, offered as part of the CAPE curricula and
also in most faculties within the UWI. Additionally, language training programs and the internationalization – at-home activities within the UWI, also provided students with exposure to the broader Caribbean and to Central/ South American cultures. Thus the existing creolization created from the racial and ethnic complexities that exist within the region; along with the exposures to the languages and cultures provided through these academic engagements, will support the continued evolution of a psycho-social identity of the Caribbean, thus promoting regionalization.

Previous studies such as Girvan (2014) have pointed to culture as the vehicle through which Caribbean regionalization can be advanced. This proposition has also received support from former Vice Chancellor, Rex Nettleford, also a patron of the arts. He described culture as an “element of serious communication and self-definition” (Nettleford, 2004, May 11, p. 2) within Caribbean societies. As a region, the Caribbean has survived by using culture as a development strategy (Nettleford, 2004, May 11, p. 3). Yet in their struggle for survival high levels of fragmentation have remained as an obstruction to regionalization. Having thrown off the asphyxiating bonds of imperialism, the region found both its stability and viability threatened by a number of insidious forces, including models of development with varying levels of success; political instability at various points in history; and economic challenges, due to their limited natural resources and small underdeveloped industries, just to name a few. But their survivalist mentality has remained (F.W. Knight, 2012, p. 228-247). At times these forces have encouraged the pursuit of the nationalistic agenda over that of regionalism/ regionalization. As one respondent framed it “selfish me, collective us” (MC9 Interviews, 2013-2014- chapter five). Therefore, as F. W. Knight, (2012) observed, the fragmented Caribbean community must begin to think seriously and collaboratively about the welfare of their community (p. 245-246). Accordingly, high levels of cooperation among higher education institutions and governments in the region must be strengthened at all costs.

The resistance and survivalist mentalities have emerged in music and depicted in art-forms such as Calypso and Reggae, which constitute some of the expressions of Caribbean culture. With the exception of the Open Campus, the three main campuses of the UWI have established cultural studies programs. Therefore, “the people of the Caribbean have transformed liabilities into assets and have long eked out of suffering and severance modalities of survival through the exercise of the creative intellect and the creative imagination - collectively and individually” (Nettleford, 2004, May 11, p. 5). In the neoliberal context, these artistic expressions have served as sources of revenue for the sub-region and for the UWI. As discussed in chapter six, as part of its internationalization programs, the Summer Institutes
brought students from the Scandinavian countries for Reggae Studies in Jamaica, while students from Trinity College in Connecticut, have travelled to Trinidad to study carnival arts. Thus Nettleford (May 2004) was adamant that these products of creative imagination must not presented exclusively as acts of minstrelsy to entertain ‘our betters’ including visiting potentates, but be incorporated into Caribbean education systems, which are the primary agents of socialization for regional students (p. 14). Yet rationalizing the continued existence of cultural studies programming within the Institution may be a challenge in the future. This is because unlike the more expensive professional programs of law, medicine and engineering, which have been replicated across the main campuses, cultural studies often do not produce work-ready career focused professions. However, the continued development of cultural studies, and the offering of a Caribbean Civilization’s course by the UWI and other postsecondary institutions will provide generations of young Caribbean scholars with an understanding of the Region. The UWI itself is a cultural institution and so for the region’s 21st century citizens to cope with the chaos, contradictions and complexity of a rapidly changing social and world order… tertiary institutions throughout the region… [must] grapple with the challenge of harmonising technological thought and spiritual feeling…[with an] emphasis on research into the indices of culture impacting… Caribbean life. The conscious development of these is part of the re-engineering process with an eye to providing opportunities for new career outlets – in graphic arts, book illustration, jewel-craft, textile designing, theatre, dance, music composition and recording etc (Nettleford, 2004, May 11, p. 14-15).

However, Nettleford (May 2004) warned of the unevenness of globalization. This is because the world is divided into discrete jurisdictions comprised of nation states, some of whom are more powerful than others (p. 18). Although Nettleford (May 2004) did not specifically mention the hegemony of the Euro-American discourses, he alluded that their domination will continue to disadvantage the less powerful, (Nettleford, 2004, May 11, p. 18) such as the islands and territories of the Caribbean.

Yet at the same time, the Summer institutes in reggae studies and carnival arts were being promoted for revenue generation among students from Scandinavia and the US, who have the available finances, these programs have yet to be infused into the curricula at the elementary, secondary and post-secondary systems, or made mandatory for students at the UWI. This is certainly disadvantageous to the regionalization process. While in the face of decreasing cuts to education, alternative revenue streams must be secured by the University, the above practice also continues to facilitate the appropriation and profiteering from these art forms, by persons from outside of the Caribbean, at the Region’s expense. Furthermore, innovation and development in culture for example, would be advanced by an improved
understanding of the cultures that constitute the Caribbean. This is central to the process of education. Therefore, denying these opportunities to students and educators in the region would only serve to create further knowledge deficit and fragmentation in the regionalization project. The University of the West Indies must therefore work to find solutions for these contradictions and contestations.

8.6.2.1 Leadership

The administrative leadership of the UWI in the form of the various Vice Chancellors also formed part of the resistance and resilience to neoliberalism and globalization in the pursuit of regional integration. Despite the Institution’s own financial challenges, when the earthquake in Haiti occurred, as Chair of UNICA, Vice Chancellor Harris led a coordinated effort to support the students and academic institutions of Haiti. With support from the various UWI departments, campus principals, the Caribbean Development Bank and private entrepreneurs, efforts were mobilized in the spirit of true regionalism. Vice Chancellor Harris was also instrumental in leading and initiating the Open Campus, in an attempt to meet the needs of the underserved areas of the Anglophone Caribbean, who at that time, were without a campus. This initiative sought to change the discourse from Non-Campus Countries to other contributing territories.

On the other hand, Vice Chancellor Rex Nettleford advanced the importance of culture in higher education, during his tenure. Additionally, Vice Chancellor Alister McIntyre was instrumental in the creation of the Association of Caribbean Tertiary Institutions (ACTI), an organization aimed at regionalizing higher education; and saw the UWI through a number of restructuring phases during the 1980’s and early 1990’s. Added to that, Sir Arthur Lewis led the expansion of the UWI from a single to a multi-campus facility during the 1960’s. With the latter, the residency status was removed and continuing education programs increased, bringing to the fore, an early attempt at the massification of higher education in the Anglophone Caribbean. These are only just a few of the highlights of the achievements of these UWI administrators, who have attempted to champion regionalization, in the face of opposing currents. Collectively, they promoted the expansion of the UWI across the Anglophone Caribbean. However, as the UWI expanded, the vision of the regional university was impacted, and its regionality endangered. These senior administrators have earned their place in history, having played a significant role in shaping the direction of the UWI despite the challenges.

The University has also produced a number of leaders and workers for the Caribbean labour force. However, the education system and the leaders it has produced seem to have become “a conveyor belt for capitalism by camouflaging themselves, behind the mask of
neocolonialism” (Fanon, 1963, p. 100). That is, they uncritically accepted policies imposed on systems of education by external superstructures that finance institutional research needs. They also pursue the research agenda, largely set by external bodies to the detriment of local and regional priorities. As well, they have become semiconscious to discourses of dependency and inferiority that pervade the institution. As we saw with the example of the Kalinagos, in the chapter, The Caribbean and the History of Higher Education in the Anglophone Sub-Region, the linguistic misdiagnosis of French and Spanish translations into the English of the words *carne*, *caniba*, *cannibal*, *canima*, *caribal* (Brizan, 1998, p. 16) and its many variations, along with a misreading of the presence of skeletal remains hanging in the habitats of indigenous peoples – created for generations of Caribbean students,’ misinformation about its earliest inhabitants. It is this researcher’s view that it is the responsibility of higher education to promote the continued critical evaluation of the materials and discourses within its systems of education.

The University should encourage dialogue and ensure that the voices of the local, the marginalized and oppressed peoples are listened to, and that indigeneity is reflected in education and in research output. The CSDR of the UWI offers this possibility through grassroots advocacy around local needs. As well, when translated and brought to the forefront within the academy, these can be used in dialogic negotiations with entities such as international agencies, who have superimposed ideas about needs upon the local space that have been brought in, and are based on assumptions regarding what is happening elsewhere. That is, their ideas presume that those occurrences must also be prevalent in the local spaces. For “ignoring the subaltern’s or oppressed person’s speech is to continue the imperialist project” (Alcoff, 2012, p. 22-23).

The promotion then of a counter-proposal to these Euro-American approaches to development, calls for a ‘local’ strategy, to harnesses the intellectual capital of the region’s scholars and institutions. That is, the decolonization of higher education. It would be a strategy defined by and created from the collective experiences of the Region’s academic professionals and peoples, with a primary reliance on expertise from within the Region; with a course of action determined by the Region; and driven by an assessment of its own needs.

8.6.3 Promoting Regionalization in South to South Collaborations

Internationalization has increased intra-regional and inter-regional cooperation between governments and among institutions of higher education across the globe. As discussed in chapters six and seven, the UWI has a significant number of partnerships with countries and institutions in Central, South/ Latin America. Additionally, fifteen of the twenty Member and
Associate Member States of CARICOM are part of the Caribbean Examination’s Council, which regionalized curricula and credential granting in the secondary and postsecondary systems. At the same time, some of the non-English speaking Caribbean islands have begun to participate in CXC. That is, the islands of St Maarten and Saba from the Netherlands Antilles are participating members of CXC (Caribbean Community (CARICOM) Secretariat-CXC, 2011, retrieved from www.caricom.org/jsp/community/cxc.jsp). Together, these activities and initiatives confirmed that the regionalization of higher education was very much present in the South. This finding therefore challenged J. Knight, (2013 and 2014) assertions that the regionalization of higher education in South and Central America and the Caribbean, was mostly non-existent.

As part of its outreach into the Non-English-speaking Caribbean, the UWI developed a tuition incentive program for the ACS (Association of Caribbean States). Study respondents noted that this was done with the expressed intention of recruiting fee-paying students and creating on-campus diversity with the goal of intercultural development (MC11 and MC15 Interviews, 2013-2014). During the interviews respondents also pointed to other regional strategies that were put in place to improve the flow of students from CARICOM countries such as Belize, for example (MC15, MC2, MC9, MC5, MC11 and MC15 Interviews, 2013-2014). As one interviewee stated,

the number of Belizean students travelling between Jamaica, Trinidad and Barbados, yes, we found that it was very small and we used to have large numbers from Belize at one time. So we had to look at why, and so when we looked at why, we realised that for some of them, the University of Belize was now established, and in addition to the new university being established, you had North American recruiters going down to Belize. So what did we have to do? We had to ‘up’ our game and go to Belize and any bridges that were broken we had to mend them. And any word that needed to get out, we had to send it (MC2 Interviews, 2013-2014).

Like some of its counterparts in the other contributing territories, Belize has expanded its higher education options for its nationals with the creation of universities and community colleges. In the above example, to some extent, the UWI administrator admitted to some neglect by the UWI for the higher education needs of Belize. In turn, Belize has now created institutions that directly compete with the UWI both for economic resources and students. This pursuit of the national interest over the regional is an ongoing problem for the UWI.

Yet the benefits of intercultural skills development and innovations that could be harnessed from outreach into the Non-English-speaking Caribbean (regionalization), and the neoliberal realities of student recruitment for profit-making, was very much present among the UWI administrators interviewed for the research. This was because among other things, internationalization, which included student recruitment (including in the South), was part of the
Institution’s strategic priorities. Therefore, the growing economic influence of Brazil with its large population; its membership in the BRICS (Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa) group; and its rivaling of the OECD countries, were also seen by respondents as potential sources for students. As one interviewee observed,

so internationalization has brought with it recognition that we now look not only at the English Speaking world, North as is our want, because of language and culture and history, but also South, where there are other opportunities and knowledge. The construction of knowledge takes place in these other countries also. So we have embraced that fact…especially in a country like Brazil, which has created a middle class of about 30-40 million people… So that’s another impact on the University, in that it has moved beyond the Anglophone world, in terms of how it connects in the circles of learning, research and teaching (MC9 Interviews, 2013-2014).

However, here again we see the pursuit of bilateral relations at the expense of the regional. That is, the forging of connections between Brazil and a specific campus of the UWI. Furthermore, Brazil's presence as part of the BRICS may perhaps have been instigated by its relationship with North American and European governments and academic institutions. Their pre-emption may have precipitated action on the part of the UWI, to seek out a similar relationship. Yet the forging of these South to South collaborations was also part of the resistance to Euro-American hegemony in higher education, by the UWI. Furthermore, these associations by the academic institutions of Small Island Developing States and the Association of Caribbean and Pacific States have led to joint degrees, mobility programs and collaborative research in the South. Added to that, the existence of the Latin American and Caribbean Centres (LACC) at the UWI, have institutionalized the importance of these Southern connections. Moreover, the onslaught of academic mobility programs with Latin America, have further entrenched these relationships.

The UWI has a long history of mobility programs with Central and South America. There were student exchange programs with Colombia and Chile for example, discussed in chapters six and seven. These programs provided language skills development in English and Spanish to students in both sub-regions. As well, they are part of the internationalization initiatives at the UWI and so are coordinated by the LACC (Latin American and Caribbean Centre), the international offices located on each campus, and the Central Office for Regional and International Affairs, located in University Centre – the regional headquarters of the UWI. The continued existence of these programs were made possible through supports received from embassies, consulates, high commission offices of the main campus countries located overseas, and from the receiving country representatives residing in the main campus countries. They coordinated with these departments at the UWI to make these programs a reality.
Furthermore, many of the linkages with partner institutions internationally and interregionally were brokered through existing government to government bilateral relationships, particularly in the main campus countries (MC5 MC9 and MC15 Interview, 2013-2014).

The mobility programs for regional teachers and students at the UWI have also helped to broaden the regionalization agenda, inclusive of the other linguistic and ethnocultural groups within the region. Additionally, while there were economic gains to be had from these arrangements, the greater motivation within the UWI seemed to be towards intercultural skills development, regional understanding and regional development. As well, through exchange programs that involved research collaborations, there were opportunities to internationalize curricula at the UWI. Furthermore, the potential to turn these international students into Caribbean citizens was also mentioned. The Caribbean with its creolization of races was cited an ideal environment to nurture this experience (MC15, MC9 and MC8 Interviews, 2013-2014). Thus the pursuit of south to south relationships was encouraged by both the financial gains it brought – the neoliberal imperatives, and/ or had the potential to bring, as well as for its intercultural value.

As was discussed in the chapters The Caribbean and the History of Higher Education in the Anglophone Sub-Region (chapter three) and Epitomizing Regionality – The UWI’s Open Campus (chapter five), the secondary and postsecondary systems of the CARICOM countries provided the credentials for students to pathway into the tertiary level of the system, which are the universities. Accordingly, some respondents felt that if these institutions could be rationalized within the region, there would be a transferability of credits that would eliminate some of the duplication within the education system (MC9 Interview, 2013-2014). In short, a differentiated education system would help to advance higher education regionalization and regional development. Furthermore, programs that were duplicated or were differently structured posed problems for student mobility within the UWI. So students wanting to move around the campuses were obstructed by the fact that the system did not cohere (OC5 Interview, 2013-2014; MC4, MC9, MC7 and MC12 Interviews, 2013-2014).

8.6.3.1 Benefits and Challenges of South to South Collaboration

The regionalization of higher education brought students from throughout the Caribbean to congregate and learn together, about each other, in both the physical and virtual campuses of the UWI. However, it was noted that some of the viewpoints of teaching faculty towards regionalism have had a profound effect on students. Study respondents pointed to examples where there were some disparaging remarks made about students from the other contributing
territories, and some about students from outside of the Region at the main campuses. In other cases, some students were mistreated by staff with xenophobic views about them and their places of origin. These incidents have affected intercultural relations on the campuses and, to a small extent, have had a negative impact on the regionalization objectives of the institution (OC2, OC8, MC7, MC8 and MC12, Interviews, 2013-2014). Interviewees who raised these issues viewed them as solvable, but also indicated that these concerns had implications for internationalization, as emphasized in the quotation below.

And sometimes as we pursue agendas, international or regional, we pursue them with vigor because we see the competitive advantage that is [available] to us. But we still have not mastered our own little communities. We have not mastered developing our society. We have not brought a significant distinctive advantage to our nation-state. Before we can say, let’s move regional and do things regionally and impact our region… For us to go global we have to get it right. There are still quality issues with respect to how we’re treating our own students nationally and regionally. So what happens if we bring students from overseas if we’re doing this student mobility scheme… we need to really master our relations with our students and our staff in our own national contexts and borders first. We need to get it right before we can be a testimony to the world (MC12 Interview, 2013-2014).

This is therefore an important project for the regional higher education institution - the UWI. That is, the promotion of intercultural understanding through education. There were insularities created when the national was advanced at the expense of the regional. Part of the objective of the UWI should be research and knowledge production about the various racialized and ethnic communities that constitute the Caribbean. As well, opportunities for academic mobility at the regional level would help to build appreciation for the diversity of cultures that exist in the region and potentially alleviate these types of intolerances.

However, lack of funding was cited as an inhibitor to faculty mobility between campuses. Research respondents observed that this was only occurring, at the time of the interviews, on a very small scale across the campuses. They noted for example, that ideally, if there were renowned professors in particular disciplines, it would be beneficial particularly for students, to have them move around the campuses from time to time. Yet another concern raised by study respondents was the myopic viewpoints about the regional economic integration potential, so much so that it inhibited the advances by national entrepreneurs into the region. As one interviewee noted,

I have encountered [situations] where people here are going to start-up a company in Barbados and are very successful here. However, they would never think, they’d say there’s no way we could be successful in St. Vincent. There is no way we could go to St. Lucia and do that, it wouldn’t work. So regionally the Caribbean has huge challenges in terms of true regionalization (MC8 Interview, 2013-2014).
From the above example, it seemed that regional integration had not yet permeated the psyche of individual Caribbean people. This was also confirmed by Boxill’s (1997) study, hence the call for an ‘ideology of regionalism.’ Here again, we see the need for important work to be done by the UWI, in helping to change this mindset within the population. Infusing the importance of the regional project into all levels of the education system is a good first step.

The need for continued collaboration - ‘knowledge sharing’ - among Small Island Developing States (SIDS) was also cited as important for continued capacity building. Therefore, ensuring that the region had a sense of unity and cooperation by facilitating access through initiatives like CSME was cited as important. The UWI’s continued provision of higher education services for the citizens of the Region, regardless of where they lived, was seen as creating opportunities for this engagement in civil society. Furthermore, respondents drew a number of inferences to illustrate the UWI’s connections to and involvement with CARICOM and regional integration. They noted that by participating in the UWI, students learned more about the Region; were able to engage in social change; and become employed in their countries of origin, or anywhere else in the Region (MC15 and MC8 Interviews, 2013-2014).

Another benefit of regionalization mentioned by study respondents were the mobility of UWI graduates. Since their educational qualifications were recognized by CARICOM member countries, they could begin to move across the Caribbean in an attempt to solve some of the Region’s larger issues. This would help to breakdown some of the insularity and friction described above, as people moved between the nation-states and territories, according to their skills and capacities, in search of employment. For as Small Island Developing States in the Caribbean, they would be stronger because of this collaboration (MC9 and MC12 Interviews, 2013-2014; OC4 Interview, 2013-2014).

Previous researchers such as Girvan (2001), Hillman (2009), and F.W. Knight, (2012) have pointed to the dominance of the Anglo-Caribbean in presentations of the Caribbean, even when the intent was to be inclusive of its Spanish, French and Dutch-speaking islands, territories and peoples. This hegemonic practice, particularly among the Anglophone Caribbean population was reminiscent of its own hierarchical colonial relationships. To be fair, this research study specifically looked at the Anglophone Caribbean and its regional institution, in that of the University of the West Indies. However, as was previously discussed, despite increasing south to south collaborations, there seemed to be a preference for relationships between the Anglophone Caribbean and Anglo-Saxon countries located in Europe and North America and more recently, India and China. Added to that, there was a tendency to seek comparators with North American and European institutions, instead of with those located in the
South. The seemingly higher intrinsic value, including available financing from Northern institutions in the global arena may be to blame, given the neoliberal context of educational under-funding.

Respondents also noted that historically, the tendency has been for the UWI to attempt the regionalization of higher education unilaterally, and or to impose its will on its secondary and postsecondary counterparts. As such, its relationship with many of its regional colleagues has been tense and in some cases, appalling (OC5, Interviews, 2013-2014). As was discussed previously in the chapter *Epitomizing Regionality – The UWI’s Open Campus*, the Board of Non-Campus Countries and Distance Education, executive arm, the TLIU (Tertiary Level Institutions Unity) and its various iterations; the External Relations and Intra/Inter-Institutional Collaborations (ERIIC) unit, and more recently the Central Office for Regional and International Affairs (CORIA), were established to manage the relationship between the UWI and other institutions regionally and internationally. However, the UWI has positioned itself as the apex of achievement in higher education in the Anglophone Caribbean. Being the oldest university in the Anglophone Caribbean with prestigious ties to Britain historically, and in more recent times, internationally; and having survived as a regional institution with support from CARICOM, it has asserted its dominance over other institutions in the sub-region.

Admittedly, since the creation of CORIA (the Central Office for Regional and International Affairs), and the dismantling of the Tertiary Level Institutions Unit (TLIU), which was initially subsumed under another iteration as the External Relations and Intra/Inter-Institutional Collaborations (ERIIC) unit, a number of challenges have emerged, including, but not limited to a breakdown in communication between the different levels of the region’s education systems. Yet the UWI must ensure that it does not recreate imperial relationships with its tertiary and postsecondary institutional colleagues across the region. As previously noted, these postsecondary institutions provided the preparation for students to pathway into the University, through their provision of advanced level credentials and associate degrees. However, the UWI must be mindful that it does not undervalue the role of these community colleges, polytechnics and other institutions, who have also contributed to nation-building and to the educational and economic development of the region’s populations.

As of 2008 for example, only two community colleges in the region had the authority to grant some aspects of undergraduate education that would be recognized towards degree completion at the UWI. This was also occurring at a time when the Open Campus, as was previously discussed, was not positioned to offer full degrees in a variety of areas across the Anglophone Caribbean. Added to that, to minimize the contributions of these institutions would
only seek to weaken the intellectual capital available to the UWI. Instead, the UWI must ensure that these institutions maintain their quality and robustness. This will guarantee that students entering the UWI are well prepared for their academic journeys. The UWI must therefore work with these institutions to support the establishment of degree granting solutions, while maintaining a high quality education. In short, the UWI must work collaboratively with these institutions for the overall good of education and strengthen the regionalization of higher education.

8.7 Future Scholarship

This study only looked at a sampling of the UWI’s intra-regional and inter-regional academic mobility schemes, research and other collaborative projects. However, many other regional institutions had similar inter-institutional arrangements, within and external to the sub-region. Future scholars could build on this knowledge, by documenting the many other collaborative relationships in the existence across the Caribbean, to add to the higher education regionalization literature.

Within the Anglophone Caribbean, there were also varying levels of success in higher education attainment. Some islands such as Trinidad had higher levels participation and diversification in its education systems. However, Jamaica for example, had more regional institutions of higher learning than Trinidad (Howe, 2005). Yet participation rates in higher education and population literacy levels were lower in Jamaica. Future scholars could explore the reason for such disparities. According to Forrest (1995), in some jurisdictions, social equity and equality policies have been replaced with institutional differentiation. This was because an education system by itself could not achieve equity in wealth distribution. Other factors were also of importance in the political and economic realm, such as capital and the ability of states to manage this equitably, by creating equal access to opportunities for employment (Forest, 1995, p. 20). Future researchers could explore whether educational differentiation holds the key for equity in educational opportunity/attainment.

8.8 Conclusions

Regionalization would certainly facilitate the growing demand for education across the Caribbean. As well, the regionalization of higher education would also support the CSME objectives toward the economic integration of the Caribbean. However, what would be required are a transfer credit system; a system for evaluation of degrees and credential recognition; and a regional accreditation body for higher education. These would certainly lead to the creation of
a more seamless system of qualifications, skills assessment and recognition, which could be applied regionally, across the Caribbean’s multilingual sub-regions. It would facilitate the ease of movement across the region for its peoples. Added to that, barring the linguistic challenges, educational resources from across the various sub-regions could be pooled and shared among the member states. In the Caribbean, regional integration of higher education would also allow member states to compete globally, in the current economic and political environments. The UWI and its collaborators must however cautiously thread between creating standards, and not standardization. The objectives must be to retain the uniqueness of each collaborating institution. The lure of replicating repressive superstructures that would anglicize and ostracize the non-Anglophone constituents, who comprise the Caribbean, must be avoided at all costs. As such, the UWI must involve its regional counterparts by not imposing its will, but by working together in equal partnership.

Colonial and imperial relations have also created a dynamic that suggests what is local, is never of the highest quality. These discourses mask themselves in the resistance to genuinely collaborative relationships that could be created between the UWI and its regional counterparts. Through decolonization in education, what must be dispensed with are the quality assumptions about other national institutions that have since developed in the region, largely in response to what some governments saw as the UWI’s lack of interest. Furthermore, these institutions potentially offer employment to UWI graduates who staff their institutions. As well, many members of staff at other national institutions were educated by overseas institutions, some of which are held in high regard by the University of the West Indies. Therefore, assumptions about the quality of national institutions by the UWI must be carefully evaluated and where there are valid questions, attempts must be made to help regional governments bring about improvements to their standards. The emergence of national higher education institutions was particularly prevalent in the smaller Non-Campus Countries, who wanted a tertiary level institution to support their national development. The UWI has worked assiduously to promote regionalization, however, a regionalized higher education system whose foundation has been established, has not been fully realized in the Anglophone Caribbean, nor has regionalism been full implanted within the institution itself.

As the Anglophone Caribbean’s oldest and most globally recognized institution, the regionalization of higher education within the UWI is also required. A dedicated unit within CORIA to forge greater collaborations in national jurisdictions is paramount. As we have seen, these CARICOM member states have created a number of national institutions of higher learning for the expressed purpose of national development. However, they need ongoing
support from the UWI. Its research output must also be used to support their continued relevance in the region. The goal should be to create institutions with the education systems that are independent, strong and supportive of the regional development (MC6 Interviews, 2013-2014). However, the “CARICOM CSME concept is a political agenda that has not touched the hearts and minds of the people of the region” (MC12 Interviews, 2013-2014). Therefore, there is much to be done to realize the full integration of the broader Caribbean. Higher education would continue to have a role here.

A differentiated higher education system made up of polytechnics, community colleges, universities, training institutes and other postsecondary institutions is also needed. Together, they must work to build the regional education strategy needed to fulfill the region’s labour market needs and improve its literacy levels. Working in tandem with industry, a needs assessment of current and future labour requirements should be done to support priority industries in the region. As the regional institution of higher learning, the UWI must be a continued source for the development of the cultural and intellectual capital needed to advance Caribbean societies.

Traditionally, the rationale for internationalization at the UWI included the enhancement of its international profile and reputation; quality assurance; increased revenues from international activities; research collaborations and the creation of strategic alliances, among others. Together, these form the concept of ‘comprehensive internationalization’ that entailed the embedding of international perspectives in all aspects of an institution’s mission and activities. They have shaped the ethos of the institution and have enabled it to respond effectively to some of the many challenges of the changing external environment (The University of the West Indies-Central Office for Regional and International Affairs (CORIA), 2012, retrieved from http://uwi.edu/coria/). However, the institution must continue to guard itself against undue influences and external pressures. It must remain vigilant in the global chess game of international higher education.

Conversely, this case study was not intended as an institutional evaluation. As such, there are limitations on the depth of the exploration, leaving many areas for future researchers to examine. However, as the researcher I must admit that some of the findings in the study were surprising to me. For example, the relationship between internationalization and regionalization at the UWI differed from my initial expectations. This research project has also helped me to further develop my knowledge of the UWI. By interrogating its purpose in Caribbean society, I have also gained an appreciation for its many struggles.
Since conducting the interviews there have been many significant changes at the University. The Vice Chancellor remitted his role in April 2015 and has been replaced by Sir Hilary Beckles, the former Principal and Pro-Vice Chancellor of the Cave Hill Campus. There have also been changes at the Open Campus, where that Campus’ Principal has since retired and has been replaced, first by the former Deputy Principal of the Cave Hill Campus. However, another change took place and the former Deputy Principal of the Cave Hill Campus is now the Pro-Vice Chancellor and Principal at Cave Hill, whiles the Head of the Open Campus in Grenada, has also been replaced. As well, an administrator from the Western Jamaican Campus is now the Principal and Pro-Vice Chancellor of the Open Campus.

There are a myriad of advantages to regionalizing higher education in the Caribbean, notwithstanding, giving voice and clout to the Caribbean when it comes to having agency in international relations. Furthermore, the reputation and ranking of institutions would certainly be enhanced with transparent processes that are regionally supported, and that could withstand the quality tests internationally. These points have already been explored throughout the thesis. The challenge however would be to turn these expected outcomes into realized advantages, with regards to use of higher education, in facilitating regional economic growth and competitiveness, on the global scale (Greene, 2010, retrieved March 11, 2012 from http://www.caricom.org/jsp/pressreleases/press_releases_2010/pres172_10.jsp). As individual nation-states, that would be a mostly impossible feat, but with regionalization there would certainly be hope.

This research study is well positioned to add to the literature on regionalization and internationalization in Caribbean higher education, and more specifically, the work of the University of the West Indies. It is hoped that the research will add to the literature on international policies, treaties and agreements that are being adopted by CARICOM in its pursuit of higher education reform, as well as the scrutiny and counter-proposals being produced, in response to the globalization’s impact on higher education in the region. The study also revealed some of the counter-narratives at play in the attempt to control and monitor the globalization of higher education in the region. There were many discoveries achieved as part of this research, including but not limited to research collaborations, student and faculty exchanges, aimed at economic and academic capacity building in the region.

In looking at the evidence gathered for the research, it has become apparent that there are growing external global pressures on the English-speaking Caribbean region. As such, the UWI must attempt to obtain standards but not standardization, as part of it regionalization approach. Accordingly, the mandate to serve the tertiary education needs of the region’s
population must be balanced with the need for quality standards, sustainability and profitability, as the Caribbean engages with the international arena of higher education. Additionally, the region must ensure that new and existing tertiary education institutions meet regional economic, social, cultural, and other objectives. Furthermore, what is critical is the ongoing need for equilibrium between national, regional and international priorities. Central to this is perseverance in the regional integration project to ensure that the region is better able to navigate the international arena. This is because, after the failure of political federation, CARICOM was created to secure foreign policy coordination; economic cooperation and better terms of trade in the international arena, as well as functional and non-functional cooperation in the areas of health, air and sea transportation and education (Boxill, 1997). Therefore the UWI and CXC have been institutionalized as the vehicles for cementing the regionalization project through education.

To reiterate, globalization and neoliberalism were simultaneously advancing and inhibiting the regional integration in the English-Speaking Caribbean. On the one hand, a more regional approach is the only real solution for the challenges being faced by the Anglophone Caribbean. At the same time, there have been many benefits for the UWI, including technological improvements brought on by globalization, in the area of online education, the introduction of ICT platforms or Learning Management Systems and research funding, to name a few. However, in the face of economic challenges and structural adjustment policies, by reverting to the national, it makes it difficult for the region to interface internationally, on the world stage. This pursuit of nationalists agendas are also leading to high levels of fragmentation and inequity. As well, the bilateral arrangements pursued by the various main campuses, were at the expense of the regional project. Like many other institutions of higher learning, the pursuit of bilateral and multilateral cooperation were intended as remedies to the challenges of globalization, and for building capacity within institutions. However, these ad hoc and reactionary approaches run counter to the regionalization objectives, and if left unchecked, threaten the regional viability of the University of the West Indies.
REFERENCES


Harris, N. (2009, November 11). *CARICOM Secretariat*. Retrieved 2012, from Remarks by Professor E. Nigel Harris, Vice Chancellor, University of the West Indies, on the ocassion of the inaugural symposium: Current developments in Caribbean Community law, 9-11 November 2009, Port of Spain Trinidad and Tobago: http://www.caricom.org/jsp/pressreleases/pres429_09.jsp


Medicine, R. U. (2015). *About Ross University School of Veterinary Medicine.* Retrieved from Ross University chool of Veterinary Medicine: About Ross University School of Medicine, retrieved from http://www.rossu.edu/veterinary-school/About-Ross-University-School-of-Veterinary-Medicine.cfm


Meeks, B. (2011, April 11). *Taskforce on achieving a more regional Univeristy of the West Indies - executive summary.* Kingston, Jamaica: University of the West Indies.


Roberts, V. (2013, September 8-12). Distance education at The University of the West Indies - its evolution, achievements and challenges. *International Distance Education Conference*, (pp. 1-13). Brazil.


The Univeristy of the West Indies. (2012). *The University of the West Indies Cave Hill Campus statistics; 50 Years, 1963-2013*. Bridgetown, Barbados: The University of the West Indies.

The Univeristy of the West Indies. (2013-2014). *The University of the West Indies student statistics*. St. Augustine, Port of Spain: The University of the West Indies.

The University of the West Indies - Board for Non-Campus Countries and Distance Education. (2007, August 28). *Report for 2006/2007 from the Office of the Board for Non-Campus Countries and Distance Education*. Retrieved January 2015, from Archive for the Board for Non-Campus Countries and Distance Education: http://www.open.uwi.edu/sites/default/files/bnccde/BoardMeetings/index.htm


http://www.open.uwi.edu/academics/academics-research-libraries

http://www.mona.uwi.edu/library/hon-sir-philip-sherlock-om

The University of the West Indies. (2004-2015). *Undergrad admissions*. Retrieved August 2015, from The University of the West Indies - St. Augustine Campus:
https://sta.uwi.edu/admissions/undergrad/matriculation.asp

The University of the West Indies. (2004-2015). *Women and Development Unit*. Retrieved from The University of the West Indies-Open Campus:
http://www.open.uwi.edu/wand/welcome


The University of the West Indies. (2008). *University of the West Indies organizational chart*. Retrieved March 2013, from University of the West Indies:
http://www.uwi.edu/aboutuwi/overview.aspx


http://www.uwi.edu/unica/about.aspx

The University of the West Indies. (2012). *Central Office for Regional and International Affairs*. Retrieved from The University of the West Indies: http://uwi.edu/coria/


The University of the West Indies. (2012-2013). *The University of the West Indies Mona: Annual report*. Kingston: University of the West Indies.

The University of the West Indies. (2012-2013). *The University of the West Indies student statistics*. St. Augustine, Port of Spain: The University of the West Indies.


The University of the West Indies. (2012-2017). *University of the West Indies Strategic Plan*. Cavehill, Barbados: University of the West Indies.


The University of the West Indies. (2013-2014). *The University of the West Indies Cave Hill Campus statistics*. Bridgetown: The University of the West Indies.

The University of the West Indies. (2014, September 11). *Sir Hilary Beckles to serve as next Vice-Chancellor of The UWI.* Retrieved from The University of the West Indies, at Mona Jamaica. Marketing, Recruitment and Communications Office: http://www.mona.uwi.edu/marcom/newsroom/entry/5832

The University of the West Indies. (2014, May 14). *UWI Vice-Chancellor demits office in 2015.* Retrieved from The University of the West Indies Mona, Marketing, Recruitment and Communications Office: http://www.mona.uwi.edu/marcom/newsroom/entry/5699

The University of the West Indies. (2015, February 23). *Changing faces of leadership at The UWI.* Retrieved March 2015, from University of the West Indies: http://www.mona.uwi.edu/marcom/newsroom/entry/6023


The University of the West Indies Open Campus. (2007-2008). *Annual report: online; on site; on demand.* Jamaica: UWI Open Campus-University of the West Indies.

The University of the West Indies Open Campus. (2009-2010). *Annual report: online; on site; on demand.* Jamaica: UWI Open Campus- University of the West Indies.

The University of the West Indies Open Campus. (2010-2011). *Annual report: a campus for the times; a campus for the future.* Trinidad: Open Campus-University of the West Indies.

The University of the West Indies Open Campus. (2011-2012). *Annual report: Student-centred; agile; accessible; enabling.* Jamaica: Open Campus-University of the West Indies.

The University of the West Indies Open Campus. (2012-2013). *Annual Report- A campus for the times; a campus for the future.* Jamaica: UWI Open Campus - The University of the West Indies.


The University of the West Indies, St Augustine, Trinidad & Tobago. (2014, December 18). *News Releases - UWI's bridge to China.* Retrieved May 2015, from The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine, campus news: http://sta.uwi.edu/news/releases/release.asp?id=1343
The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine Campus. (2015). *International office - MOUs.* Retrieved April 2015, from University of the West Indies, St. Augustine Campus, Trinidad and Tobago: https://sta.uwi.edu/internationaloffice/mousearch.asp


Williams, G., & Harvey, C. (1985). *Higher education in Trinidad and Tobago: A focus on organizational development and change*. Caracas: Regional Centre for Higher Education in Latin America & the Caribbean (CRESLAC)-UNESCO.


APPENDICES
APPENDIX 2 Interview Guide/ Schedule

Regionalization
1. What is your understanding of Caribbean higher education regionalization?
2. How can higher education promote regionness and regionalism?
3. Describe some of the undertakings by the UWI to promote the regionalization of higher education in the English-speaking Caribbean. What milestones have been achieved to-date?
4. How is the curriculum reflective of a regional agenda for higher education?
5. How are the agenda/curricula for teacher education being developed by/at UWI?
   (Describe what is being done in academia/academic programming to promote higher education regionalization)
6. How is the regional strategy being assured by UWI? What evidence can you provide?
7. What are some of the benefits and challenges of trying to achieve the regionalization of higher education in the English-speaking Caribbean?

Internationalization
8. How do you define the internationalization of higher education?
9. What has been the impact of internationalization on higher education in the Caribbean?
10. What are some of the international policies/practices that have been adopted by UWI?
11. What is the participation rate of international students at UWI?
12. Do you have any additional comments/information you would like to add?
13. In your opinion, is regionalization being hindered or advanced by internationalization?
14. In case study research it is important that the research seek other/additional sources of information as part of the process of triangulation. Can you recommend some additional sources that would add to my research on this topic (internationalization and regionalization)
### APPENDIX 3  Statistical Tables

#### Table 2  UWI Student Enrolment in 2006-2007 by Gender, by Campus

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2006 - 2007</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cave Hill</td>
<td>Mona</td>
<td>St. Augustine</td>
<td>Open Campus</td>
<td>Off-Site</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>2,011</td>
<td>3,270</td>
<td>4,834</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10,165</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>3,869</td>
<td>7,983</td>
<td>8,976</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>20,828</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>5,880</td>
<td>11,253</td>
<td>13,860</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>30,993</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Adapted from Table 12: Total on Campus Student Enrolment by Campus and by Country of Origin, 2007/2008: The University of the West Indies, Vice Chancellor Report to Council, 2006-2007, p. 200.

#### Table 3  UWI Student Enrolment in 2007-2008 by Gender, by Campus

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2007 - 2008</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cave Hill</td>
<td>Mona</td>
<td>St. Augustine</td>
<td>Open Campus</td>
<td>Off-Site</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>2,310</td>
<td>3,653</td>
<td>5,241</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11,204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>5,001</td>
<td>8,610</td>
<td>9,307</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>22,918</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7,311</td>
<td>12,263</td>
<td>14,548</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>34,122</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Adapted from Table 12: Total on Campus Student Enrolment by Campus and by Country of Origin, 2007/2008: The University of the West Indies, Annual Report, 2007-2008, p. 176.

#### Table 4  UWI Student Enrolment in 2008-2009 by Gender, by Campus

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2008 - 2009</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cave Hill</td>
<td>Mona</td>
<td>St. Augustine</td>
<td>Open Campus</td>
<td>Off-Site</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>2,516</td>
<td>3,722</td>
<td>5,601</td>
<td>996</td>
<td>594</td>
<td>13,429</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>5,320</td>
<td>8,672</td>
<td>9,933</td>
<td>4,076</td>
<td>2,156</td>
<td>30,157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7,836</td>
<td>12,394</td>
<td>15,534</td>
<td>5,072</td>
<td>2,750</td>
<td>43,586</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Adapted from Table 12: Total on Campus Student Enrolment by Campus and by Country of Origin, 2007/2008: The University of the West Indies, Annual Report, 2009-2010, p. 111.
Table 5  UWI Student Enrolment in 2009-2010 by Gender, by Campus

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Cave Hill</th>
<th>Mona</th>
<th>St. Augustine</th>
<th>Open Campus</th>
<th>Off-Site</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>2,688</td>
<td>4,141</td>
<td>5,983</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>548</td>
<td>14,360</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>5,654</td>
<td>9,525</td>
<td>10,687</td>
<td>4,320</td>
<td>1,890</td>
<td>32,076</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>8,342</td>
<td>13,666</td>
<td>16,670</td>
<td>5,320</td>
<td>2,438</td>
<td>46,436</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Table 12: Total on Campus Student Enrolment by Campus and by Country of Origin, 2007/2008: The University of the West Indies, Annual Report, 2009-2010, p. 128.

Table 6  UWI Student Enrolment in 2010-2011 by Gender, by Campus

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Cave Hill</th>
<th>Mona</th>
<th>St. Augustine</th>
<th>Open Campus</th>
<th>Off-Site</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>2,778</td>
<td>4,357</td>
<td>6,295</td>
<td>1,173</td>
<td>469</td>
<td>15,072</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>5,896</td>
<td>9,632</td>
<td>11,268</td>
<td>4,974</td>
<td>1,733</td>
<td>33,503</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>8,674</td>
<td>13,989</td>
<td>17,563</td>
<td>6,147</td>
<td>2,202</td>
<td>48,575</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Table 12: Total on Campus Student Enrolment by Campus and by Country of Origin, 2007/2008: The University of the West Indies, Annual Report, 2010-2011, p. 120.

Table 7  UWI Student Enrolment in 2011-2012 by Gender, by Campus

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Cave Hill</th>
<th>Mona</th>
<th>St. Augustine</th>
<th>Open Campus</th>
<th>Off-Site</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>2,800</td>
<td>4,662</td>
<td>6,829</td>
<td>1,198</td>
<td>388</td>
<td>15,877</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>6,041</td>
<td>9,987</td>
<td>11,877</td>
<td>5,139</td>
<td>1,518</td>
<td>34,562</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>8,841</td>
<td>14,649</td>
<td>18,706</td>
<td>6,337</td>
<td>1,906</td>
<td>50,439</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Table 12: Total on Campus Student Enrolment by Campus and by Country of Origin, 2007/2008: The University of the West Indies, Annual Report, 2011-2012, p. 144.
Figure 4  Open Campus Enrolment, 2007-2012

Open Campus Enrolment
2007 - 2012

Figure 5  Student Enrolment by Campus, 2006-2012

Student Enrolment by Campus
2006-2012
Table 8  UWI Student Enrolment by Year, by Country, 2006 to 2012

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Barbados</td>
<td>5,880</td>
<td>6,299</td>
<td>7,219</td>
<td>7,360</td>
<td>7,720</td>
<td>7,921</td>
<td>36,519</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jamaica</td>
<td>11,253</td>
<td>11,457</td>
<td>14,380</td>
<td>15,410</td>
<td>15,760</td>
<td>16,538</td>
<td>73,545</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trinidad</td>
<td>13,860</td>
<td>14,136</td>
<td>16,696</td>
<td>18,162</td>
<td>19,438</td>
<td>20,077</td>
<td>88,509</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other/ Unknown</td>
<td>542</td>
<td>609</td>
<td>1,215</td>
<td>1,190</td>
<td>866</td>
<td>967</td>
<td>4,847</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC Countries</td>
<td>1,605</td>
<td>1,621</td>
<td>4,076</td>
<td>4,314</td>
<td>4,791</td>
<td>4,936</td>
<td>19,738</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>33,140</td>
<td>34,122</td>
<td>43,586</td>
<td>46,436</td>
<td>48,575</td>
<td>50,439</td>
<td>223,158</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9  Participation of Students from the Non-Campus Countries (2006 – 2012)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NON-CAMPUS COUNTRY STUDENT ENROLLMENT</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2006 - 2007</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007 - 2008</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008 - 2009</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009 - 2010</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010 - 2011</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011 - 2012</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: This above calculation excludes the student enrolment numbers from the other/unknown category.
### Table 10
Open Campus Student Enrolment – Main Campuses and underserved Countries Compared

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Barbados</td>
<td>850</td>
<td>789</td>
<td>660</td>
<td>809</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>706</td>
<td>3,981</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jamaica</td>
<td>3,636</td>
<td>3,900</td>
<td>5,331</td>
<td>4,974</td>
<td>1,646</td>
<td>4,490</td>
<td>23,977</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trinidad</td>
<td>12,349</td>
<td>14,972</td>
<td>11,800</td>
<td>11,369</td>
<td>2,035</td>
<td>8,405</td>
<td>60,930</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC Countries</td>
<td>984</td>
<td>1,283</td>
<td>1,855</td>
<td>2,004</td>
<td>2,651</td>
<td>2,050</td>
<td>10,827</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>17,819</td>
<td>20,944</td>
<td>19,646</td>
<td>19,156</td>
<td>6,499</td>
<td>15,651</td>
<td>99,715</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


**Note:** There are discrepancies between the statistics from the UWI Annual Reports and the Open Campus Reports with regards the enrolment of students. Enrolment in short duration programs in the Non-Campus Countries and associate degrees may not be accounted for in the UWI Annual Report.
Table 11  International Student Enrolment at the UWI Mona Campus 2013-2014

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OTHER STUDENTS</th>
<th>On-Campus</th>
<th>Off-Campus</th>
<th>OTHER STUDENTS</th>
<th>On-Campus</th>
<th>Off-Campus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Myanmar</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Botswana</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burma</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Panama</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cameroon</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Samoa</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Columbia</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Solomon Islands</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>South Korea</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gambia</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Sri Lanka</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Suriname</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghana</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haiti</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Venezuela</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total Number of On-Campus Students = 252
Total Number Off-Campus = 36

Source: Unofficial Statistics from the Office of Planning and Research, Mona Campus, Unpublished data, 2013
### Table 12  International Student Enrolment at the UWI Mona Campus, 2012-2013

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Other Students</th>
<th>On-Campus</th>
<th>Off-Campus</th>
<th>Other Students</th>
<th>On-Campus</th>
<th>Off-Campus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Albania</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Lesotho</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Malta</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Botswana</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Martinique</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Myanmar</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burma</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cameroon</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Panama</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Columbia</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cuba</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Samoa</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominican Republic</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Sierra Leone</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Solomon Islands</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gambia</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>South Korea</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Sri Lanka</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghana</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>St. Maarten</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guadeloupe</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Suriname</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haiti</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honduras</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Venezuela</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Zambia</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ivory Coast</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Total Number of On-Campus Students = 214**

**Total Number off-Campus = 17**

**Source:** Unofficial Statistics from the Office of Planning and Research, Mona Campus, Unpublished data, 2013
Table 13  International Student Enrolment at the UWI Cave Hill Campus by Country of Origin 2013-2014

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OTHER STUDENTS</th>
<th>Part-Time Undergraduate Students</th>
<th>Full-time Undergraduate Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bolivia</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guadeloupe</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherland Antilles</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States of America</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venezuela</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Sources:**
Table 22 - Full-time Undergraduate Registration by Country and Faculty
The University of the West Indies, Cave Hill Campus Statistics, 2013-2014, p. 25.
Table 23 - Part-time Undergraduate Registration by Country and Faculty
### Table 14  International Student Enrolment at the UWI Cave Hill Campus by Country of Origin 2012-2013

**2012-2013 International Student Enrolment at Cave Hill Campus**  
Part-time and Fulltime Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OTHER STUDENTS</th>
<th>Part-Time Undergraduate Students</th>
<th>Full-time Undergraduate Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bolivia</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guadeloupe</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherland Antilles</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States of America</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>13</strong></td>
<td><strong>57</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Sources:**  
Table 22 - Full-time Undergraduate Registration by Country and Faculty  
The University of the West Indies, Cave Hill Campus Statistics, 2013-2014, p. 25.  
Table 23 - Part-time Undergraduate Registration by Country and Faculty  
The University of the West Indies, Cave Hill Campus Statistics, 2012-2013, p. 26.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OTHER STUDENTS</th>
<th>Undergraduate Enrolment (Including Off Campus Students) 2012-2013</th>
<th>Undergraduate Enrolment (Including Off Campus Students) 2013-2014</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Botswana</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cameroon</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cuba</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fiji</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghana</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iraq</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solomon Islands</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Korea</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tonga</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tunisia</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tuvalu</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uruguay</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States of America</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vanuatu</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venezuela</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>254</strong></td>
<td><strong>246</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Sources:**
Table 2 – Total Enrolment by Faculty and Territory, Student Statistics
The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine Campus Statistics, 2013-2014, p. 6-7.
Table 2 – Total Enrolment by Faculty and Territory, Student Statistics
The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine Campus Statistics, 2012-2013, p. 6-7.
8.8.1 UNIVERSITY OF THE WEST INDIES MISSION STATEMENT

The enduring Mission of the UWI is:

“To advance education and create knowledge through excellence in teaching, research, innovation, public service, intellectual leadership and outreach in order to support the inclusive (social, economic, political, cultural, environmental) development of the Caribbean region and beyond” (UWI Strategic Plan, 2012-2017, p. 17).

8.8.2 UNIVERSITY OF THE WEST INDIES VISION STATEMENT

“So by 2017, the University will be globally recognized as a regionally integrated, innovative, internationally competitive university, deeply rooted in all aspects of Caribbean development and committed to serving the diverse people of the region and beyond” (UWI Strategic Plan, 2012-2017, p. 17).
Copyright Acknowledgements

University of Toronto