

THE CARIBBEAN COMMUNITY SECRETARIAT



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ECONOMIC ACTIVITY, EDUCATION AND TRAINING

Submitted by:

Barbara Bailey, PhD
University Director, IGDS

Technical Assistance from Suzanne M. Charles (Junior Research Fellow)
Research Assistance from Grace Christie (Research Assistant)

The University of the West Indies
The Institute of Gender and Development Studies (IGDS)

**CARICOM CAPACITY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME
(CCDP)**

**In collaboration with the
CANADIAN INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT AGENCY
(CIDA)**

**2000 ROUND OF POPULATION AND HOUSING CENSUS DATA
ANALYSIS SUB-PROJECT**

**REGIONAL SPECIAL TOPIC MONOGRAPH
ECONOMIC ACTIVITY, EDUCATION
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Author of Publication:

Consultant:
Dr. Barbara Bailey,
University Director, The Institute of Gender
and Development Studies (IGDS), The
University of the West Indies, Jamaica

Reviewer of First and Final Drafts:

Prof. Chukwudum Uche,
Dr. Godfrey St. Bernard,
Census Data Analysis Consultants

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The Regional Statistics Sub-Programme
Information and Communication Technologies
Caribbean Community (CARICOM) Secretariat
Turkeyen,
P.O. Box 10827
Greater Georgetown
Guyana

Telephone: (592) 222-0001-75
Fax: (592) 222-0098
E-mail: stats1@caricom.org
Web site: www.caricomstats.org

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FOREWORD

The Caribbean Community Council of Ministers, acting on the advice and recommendations of the Standing Committee of Caribbean Statisticians (SCCS), in February 2000, approved the use of a regionally coordinated approach for the 2000 Round of Population and Housing Censuses. The strategy included an activity on the **Analysis and Dissemination of Census Data and Results**, which comprised the preparation of National Census Reports (NCRs) and Regional Special Topic Monographs (RSTMs).

Fourteen Member States and four Associate Members participated in the programme. The participation of these countries in the Regional Census programme was in recognition of the value and economy of regional co-operation and coordination in executing the Censuses and for the production of comparable, high quality socio-economic data, useful in planning, and improving the quality of life and in achieving overall progress of the peoples of the Region.

The topics for the RSTM were: Gender and Development Issues; The Elderly; Children and Youth; Economic Activity, Education and Training; and International Migration. The RSTMs were undertaken by writers from within and outside of the region.

The RSTM publication, “**2000 Round of Population and Housing Census of the Caribbean Community: Economic Activity, Education and Training**” was written by Dr. Barbara Bailey, University Director, The Institute of Gender and Development Studies (IGDS), The University of West Indies, Jamaica and was reviewed by two reviewers: Prof. Chukwudum Uche, Professor of Sociology, Psychology and Social Work, UWI, Mona, Jamaica and Dr. Godfrey St. Bernard of the Sir Arthur Lewis Institute for Social and Economic Studies (SALISES), UWI, St. Augustine, Trinidad and Tobago. The tables for the Report were generated by Mr. Wendell Thomas, Data Processing Consultant of Trinidad and Tobago as well as by the staff of the CARICOM Secretariat. The final draft of the publication was reviewed by the CARICOM Secretariat.

The analysis of the Census was funded by the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) through the CARICOM Capacity Development Programme (CCDP). **The CCDP was designed as a strategic response to key trends and emerging priorities in the CARICOM environment with the objective of promoting the economic and social development of CARICOM through the deepening of the regional integration process. The overall aim of the CCDP was the strengthening of the institutional capacity of CARICOM to provide leadership in the regional integration process, and the enhancing of the implementation capacity of the CARICOM Secretariat to achieve clear results in core programme areas.**

Specifically, the outputs of the Census Statistics Sub-Project under the CCDP were to lead to improved development planning in Member Countries and in the Region through the use of the census data and information. The deliverables comprised eighteen (18) National Census Reports; five (5) Regional Special Topic Monographs; a volume of Basic Tables; training of personnel in demographic analysis through a seven-week workshop facilitated by UWI; and the establishment of an online facility to enable access to census data by users for analysis, research, policy formulation and decision-making.

The Census Data Analysis project was aimed at filling the gap existing in the Region and specifically within the national statistical systems in the area of demographic and population analysis, thereby enabling its use in policy and decision-making. Statisticians are in short supply in the Region and the area of demography is even more severely affected. The Census Data Analysis project provided a *common framework* for enabling comparability of the demographic transition and population characteristics across Member States based on the elements outlined in the content of the National Census Report. The process of preparing the reports also allowed for quality checks on data, with the support of the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) and the United Nations Economic Commission for Latin American and the Caribbean (UNECLAC).

A major challenge that persists is that of having clean data sets for analysis. To mitigate these data challenges, a series of four training courses is being undertaken to train personnel in the Region, with the first one funded out of the CCDP and the remaining three from a multi-programme technical assistance project, with funds received from the Caribbean Development Bank (CDB). In addition, a short course for senior officials from statistical officers was also undertaken with CDB funding.

It is hoped that this Monograph on Economic Activity, Education and Training will benefit the countries through providing analysis with regard to the population, working age population, type of occupation which trained, vocational training, enrolment at primary and secondary levels and other critical characteristics that are important to aid the formulation of policy and decision-making, both public and private, such as government officials, researchers, academics, members of the business community and civil society. Furthermore, the experience gained, together with the efforts to strengthen capacity, will equip the Region to analyse the results of the 2010 Census.

The CARICOM Secretariat takes this opportunity to thank all persons and organisations who have been associated with this Statistics project.

original signed by

**LOLITA APPLEWHAITE
SECRETARY-GENERAL (ag)
CARIBBEAN COMMUNITY (CARICOM)**

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The CARICOM Secretariat also wishes to acknowledge the following contributors: the Consultant writer, Dr. Barbara Bailey who was responsible for preparing the Monograph for CARICOM; Prof. Chukwudum Uche and Dr. Godfrey St. Bernard who were the Census Data Analysis Consultants (CDAC) responsible for reviewing the first and final drafts, preparing guidelines for writers; Mr. Wendell Thomas, Consultant, who was the main data processing resource used in the production of the tabulations. All four Consultants gave of their valuable time in the production of this publication.

The CARICOM Secretariat acknowledges the hard work and commitment displayed by the Staff of the Regional Statistics, Programme, past and present as well as by other staff of the Secretariat, throughout the preparation of this publication.

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ACRONYMS

AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
CARICOM	Caribbean Community
CSME	CARICOM Single Market and Economy
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women
CKLN	Caribbean Knowledge and Learning Network
ECLAC	Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
HEART	Human Employment and Resource Training
HIV	Human Imuno Deficiency Virus
HRD	Human Resource Development
IESALC	The International Institute for Higher Education in Latin America and the Caribbean
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
IDB	Industrial Development Board
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IMF	International Monetary Fund
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
NTA	National Training Agency
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
OECS	Organisation of Eastern Caribbean States
RCMTVET	Regional Coordinating Committee for TVET
TVET	Technical Vocational Education and Training
UNESCO	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization
UK	United Kingdom
US	United States

CHAPTER 1

OVERVIEW OF ECONOMIC ACTIVITY IN THE REGION & HRD POLICY

Since inception, Caribbean economies have been structured to meet the needs of economic systems, most often, located outside the region. The development of plantation economies meant that in the face of a well diversified natural resource base, Caribbean economies have been traditionally dependent on the various metropolitan colonizing countries in terms of trade, transport, communications, technology and foreign direct investment. (Demas 1978)¹

Efforts towards independence in the late 1950's and early 1960's witnessed attempts to reorganize economies around national goals and movements towards the nationalization of the economy with the state-owned bodies accounting for much of states' economic activity.

However, the oil and debt crises of the 1970's and 1980's respectively wrecked havoc on the burgeoning and already fragile economies of the Caribbean, resulting in massive debt and the need to seek assistance from international money lending agencies, such as the IMF and World Bank.

The emergence of Globalisation based on neo-liberal policies, and facilitated in large part by the rapid development and expansion of information and communication technologies, (Elvenkind, 2007)² resulted in shifts in the global economy and changes to traditional trading arrangements for the Caribbean. Such arrangements were either threatened or completely negated, resulting in loss of export and trade privileges for some of the region's main products; including bananas, garments & textiles and sugar. At the same time, the region experienced a reduction in

¹ Retrived from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/165459> on March 23, 2009: The Caribbean and the New International Economic Order. Demas. William G. In: Journal of Inter-American Studies and World Affairs. Vol 20 No.3 (Aug 1978) pp.229-263.

² Elvenkind (2007) Retrieved from <http://www.planetpapers.com/Assets/5604.php> on February 24, 2009: *Globalization and Its Effect On The Caribbean*.

concessional aid and external grants, with the loss of geo-political significance to the US at the end of the Cold War.

On the one hand, traditional economic activities—such as agriculture and extraction of natural resources—that underpinned Caribbean economies underwent serious decline, faced with new global trading regimes that focused on economies of scale and comparative advantage. On the other hand, a liberalized global economy has meant the increase in options for both access to and provision of goods and services. Faced with a reduction of traditional opportunities, the region has explored new services, particularly tourism. (Stotsky, Suss & Tokarick, 2000).³

The impact of globalization on the Caribbean has been mixed. While the region has benefited by expanding its exports of goods and services, which has boosted economic growth, new economic arrangements have meant loss to sectors traditionally employing large numbers of persons. (Stotsky, Suss & Tokarick, 2000).

By the late 1990's the Anglophone islands of the Caribbean region had a total population in excess of 6 million and a combined GDP of \$24 billion, resulting in an income per capita of about \$3,700 (Stotsky, Suss & Tokarick, 2000). However, despite classification in the middle income or upper middle income categories based on GDP per capita, as many as 10 Caribbean countries had more than 20% of their population living below the poverty line. Additionally, the economies of the Caribbean remained highly responsive to external economic shocks which easily affected economic activity adversely. (Bourne, 2008)⁴

To manage the socio-economic fallout of globalization, the Caribbean Community established the Revised Treaty of Chaguaramas in 2001,⁵ which provided - inter alia - an economic framework for regional development in the Caribbean as well as the legal basis for the operation

³ Stotsky, J, Suss, E & Tokarick, S (2000) *Trade Liberalization in the Caribbean* (IMF document – Finance and Development / June 2000). Retrieved from <http://www.imf.org/External/Pubs/Ft/Fandd/2000/06/pdf/stotsky.pdf>

⁴ Bourne, C (2008) Lecture entitled: *Quality Education and the Caribbean Single Market and Economy (CSME) in an Increasingly Competitive and Rapidly Changing Global Environment*. (Caribbean Development Bank document.)

⁵ Retrieved from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Treaty_of_Chaguaramas on February 26, 2009: *Treaty of Chaguaramas*.

of the CARICOM Single Market and Economy (CSME). The CSME was designed to create a single economic space where people, goods, services and capital could move freely, based on the harmonization and coordination of social, economic and trade policies of participating Member States.⁶

Currently, the CSME is comprised of 13 Member States that have a combined population of approximately 6 million people. The Member States are: Antigua and Barbuda, Barbados, Belize, Dominica, Grenada, Guyana, Jamaica, Monsterrat, St. Kitts and Nevis, St. Lucia, St. Vincent and the Grenadines, Suriname and Trinidad and Tobago.⁷

It is anticipated that the CSME will enable CARICOM countries to adjust to more liberal international trade and investment arrangements by operating in an integrated market with countries with which it shares geographical proximity and deep cultural and historical linkages. Moreover, the CSME gives the body of small states, the benefit of greater critical mass, pooled resources, improved ability to recruit skilled workers, source inputs from resource-rich locations and achieve greater economies of scale for enhanced external competitiveness. There is more economic and political strength to be gained from a grouping of 13 countries as against the strength of a single country. The small states of the Caribbean therefore face better prospects within the CARICOM grouping than they do if they face large trading blocs and superpowers across the negotiating tables individually.⁸

It is now commonly accepted that the Caribbean's ability to achieve and sustain economic competitiveness within the global political economy, depends heavily on the quality of its human capital. Powell (2003)⁹ suggests that before an effective regional HRD policy can be

⁶ Retrieved from http://www.jis.gov.jm/special_sections/CARICOMNew/CSME1.html on February 24, 2009: *CARICOM Single Market and Economy*

⁷ Retrieved from <http://www.tradeind.gov.tt/projects%20and%20programs/CSME.htm> on February 24, 2009: *CARICOM Single Market and Economy (CSME)*

⁸ Retrieved from <http://www.tradeind.gov.tt/projects%20and%20programs/CSME.htm> on February 24, 2009: *CARICOM Single Market and Economy (CSME)*

⁹ Powell, M (2003) *Economic Restructuring and Human Resource Development*, Retrieved from http://books.google.com.jm/books?id=z1-ChjGfeuoC&pg=PA113&lpg=PA113&dq=HRD+Policy+in+the+Caribbean&source=bl&ots=f2saVzh6Zb&sig=iyADKH0s8m8t3K563IrvnFDm2W8&hl=en&ei=XL2mSdKNBo-ctweh7PT7Dw&sa=X&oi=book_result&resnum=2&ct=result#PPPI,M1

formulated, there has to be an identification and understanding of national, sectoral and regional trends in terms of the future directions the economy is likely to follow. He further suggests that by identifying and understanding such trends, it is then possible to translate skills needs into education and training policies.

However, Powell (2003) purports that economic trends is not the only factor to be used to develop an effective HRD policy. He also considers it vital for a government to get support and commitment to their industrial and trade policies from stakeholders and other social partners. His research shows that within Jamaica and Barbados, unions were actively represented on national training bodies and played an active role in the policy process. He also points out that the World Bank recommends that one of the ways in which developing countries can improve implementation is by ensuring that both employers and workers participate on boards of training bodies. (Powell, 2003)

Since 1991 common trends have emerged in the Caribbean with respect to the definition of training frameworks in the context of Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET). Apart from national initiatives, regional standardisation efforts of training frameworks and skills qualifications have been pursued by organisations such as the Caribbean Community (CARICOM) or the Organisation of Eastern Caribbean States (OECS). So although there is not currently a regional HRD policy governing the entire Caribbean, some individual countries in the region have instituted national training policies, while others are in the process of formulating theirs. (ILO/OECS Workshop, 2002)

The Caribbean region recognizes that for the sustainable training and development of the Caribbean workforce, a coordinated approach with respect to the establishment of TVET-bodies, the formulation of skill standards and establishment of competency-based frameworks is required. The generally accepted view in the region is that it is crucial that a national council/agency be established in each country to act as coordinator in the process of creating a Caribbean workforce. The lack of such an agency at the national level is reported to hamper co-ordination and resource allocation activities (ILO/OECS Workshop, 2002).

Within the CARICOM region, three national councils/agencies have been established since the 1990s. Under the Human Employment and Resource Training (HEART) Act of 1982, Jamaica set up its National Training Agency (NTA) in 1991. Barbados implemented a TVET-Council in 1994 and Trinidad and Tobago launched their National Training Agency in 1998. (ILO/OECS Workshop, 2002)

According to Powell (2003), attempts were made within the Caribbean, to ensure that a close alignment between economic and training policies was maintained, especially with regard to school leavers and/or young people. However, he noted that in most cases the strategies employed were in reaction to an external influence, as opposed to the government anticipating what future changes may occur in the economy. As a case in point, in his report, Powell (2003) referred to the case of Jamaica, where the supply side strategy was implemented to attract foreign investment. He continued to observe that other Caribbean countries attempted to make their education system more responsive to the needs of industry by “vocationalizing” the school curriculum. He claimed however, that this strategy was not successful as it was only responsive to the aspirations of those leaving the school system, as opposed to the needs of the economy or employers. (Powell, 2003)

One criticism of “vocationalizing” is that it offers lower economic rates of return than traditional primary and secondary level education. In this regard, the World Bank also argues that “developing countries are better able to expand their cognitive and theoretical knowledge through investing in primary and secondary general education, all of which provides a more cost effective way of developing a labour force that can enter traditional craft type occupations, as well as the dynamic modern sector”. (Powell, 2003)

Powell (2003) goes on to use Barbados as the best example he found in his research with regard to linkages between industrial strategy and HRD policies. In the example cited, he reported that the government of Barbados had established an Industrial Development Board (IDB) to identify those sectors of the economy that it intended to develop. The IDB was concerned with implementing longer term development goals, including support for those sectors viewed as strategic to the country’s long term development and what incentives were required to achieve this. The IDB then worked in conjunction with the country’s TVET council to translate

identified skill needs into policy. The lessons learned from the Barbados initiative, illustrate the benefits to be gained from ensuring a close synergy of fit between a country's industrial policies and their human resource development strategies. (Powell, 2003)

In view of the global environment in which all countries now exist, it is therefore imperative that in developing their national and regional HRD policies, the countries in the Caribbean region, concentrate on providing appropriate training programmes that are informed, based on national, regional and international human resource needs. Regular, periodic reviews therefore need to be made with regard to the types of human resource skills that are in demand in all arenas.

CHAPTER 2

ECONOMY ACTIVITY OF THE 15+ POPULATION

2.1 Introduction

Census data on the proportion of working-age persons in a population that are available for engagement in productive activities and, the extent to which they are so engaged, provide vital information for guiding policy decisions in countries with developing economies such as is the case in the Caribbean Community. Further, when these data are disaggregated on the basis of age and sex they provide additional information on points of difference in the supply of human resources and their positioning and activity in the labour market. Policy areas on which such information has direct relevance and can shape decisions include:

1. the ability of an economy to create employment for both sexes and all age groups;
2. the capacity of an economy to supply remunerative and productive employment and thereby promote sustainable development and reduce poverty;
3. the extent to which a country is complying with international conventions and agreements and meeting international targets and standards as with, *inter alia*, International Labour Organisation (ILO), the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) and the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) obligations;

In addition, when considered in conjunction with other indicators such as earnings, hours of work, informal sector employment, underemployment and working conditions, labour market statistics can also give an indication of the characteristics of the working population and progress made towards the goal of decent work.¹⁰

The International Labour Organisation (ILO) provides and defines 20 key indicators of the labour market, some of which will be considered in this chapter.

2.2 The Working-Age Population

Article 2 of the ILO Minimum Age Convention (No. 138 of 1973) states that ‘each Member which ratifies the Convention shall specify, in a declaration appended to its ratification, a minimum age for admission to employment or work within its territory and on means of

¹⁰http://www.un.org/esa/sustdev/natlinfo/indicators/methodology_sheets/econ_development/employment_pop_ratio.pdf

transport registered in its territory; and, subject to Articles 4 to 8 of the Convention, no one under that age shall be admitted to employment or work in any occupation.

It further states that the minimum age specified shall not be less than the age of completion of compulsory schooling and, in any case, shall not be less than 15 years.¹¹ In the CARICOM census persons above the age of 15 are included in statistics related to work and the economy suggesting that age 15 rather than the age of completion of compulsory schooling which varies from country to country is used as the minimum working age.

2.2.1 Working-Age Population as a Proportion of the Total Population

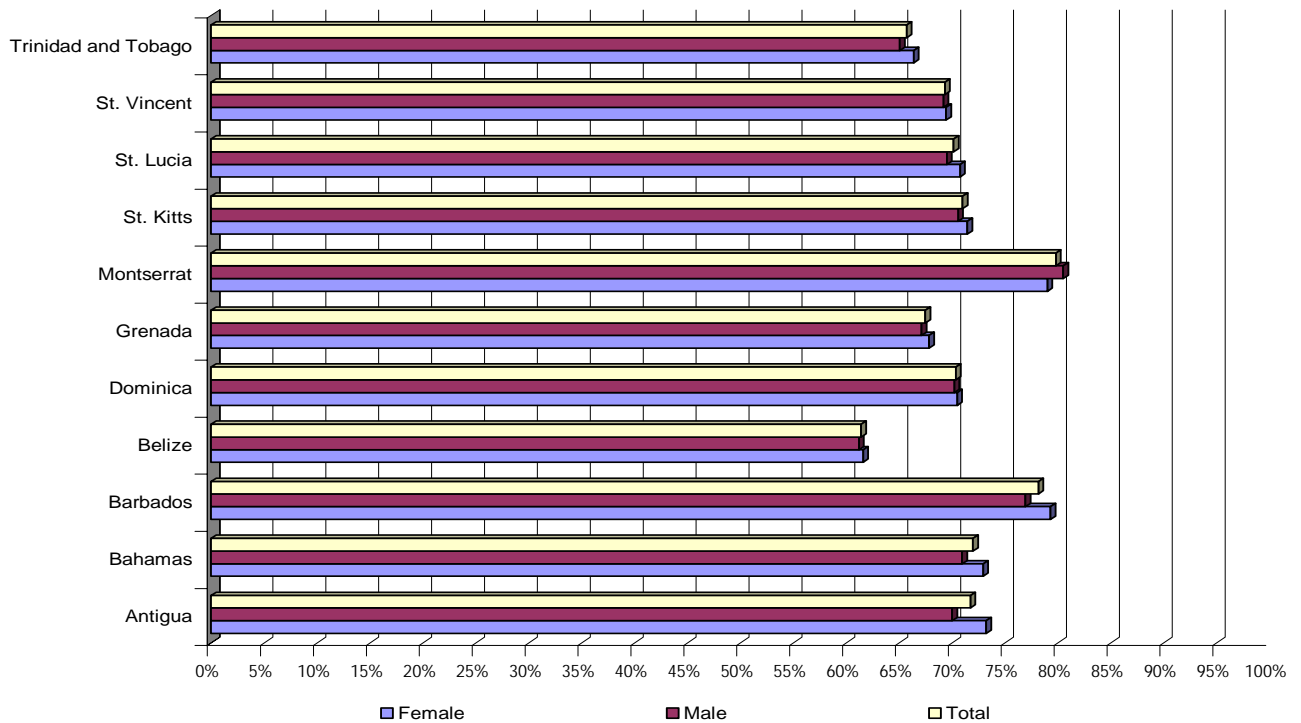
Data presented in Table 2.1 and Figure 2.1 for eleven countries for which data were available indicate that in all cases over 60% of the populations were of working-age and therefore were a potential resource for productive activities. Actual proportions of such persons ranged from a high of 79.82% of the total population in Montserrat to a low of 61.41% in Belize suggesting that, in the latter case, a sizeable proportion of the population is less than 15 years old. The unusually high proportion of working-age individuals in Montserrat may, no doubt, be due to the reduced size of that country's population and the exodus of younger persons due to volcanic activity at the time of the census. Barbados had the next highest proportion of working-age individuals in their population (78.16%) while in all other cases the proportion ranged from approximately 66% in Trinidad and Tobago to 70% in St. Lucia (See Table 2.1 and Figure 2.1).

Table 2.1 Potential Work Force (15+) as Percentage of Total Population, Overall and by Sex and Country 2000/01

Country	Female	Male	Total
Antigua	73.24%	70.01%	71.73%
Bahamas	72.93	70.95	71.97
Barbados	79.30	76.93	78.16
Belize	61.61	61.21	61.41
Dominica	70.49	70.22	70.35
Grenada	67.84	67.11	67.48
Montserrat	79.01	80.50	79.82
St. Kitts	71.44	70.57	71.01
St. Lucia	70.75	69.50	70.14
St. Vincent	69.44	69.19	69.32
Trinidad and Tobago	66.37	65.07	65.72

¹¹ http://www.ilocarib.org.tt/projects/cariblex/conventions_6.shtml

Figure 2.1: Potential Work Force as Percentage of Total Population by Country and Sex



When these data were examined on the basis of sex, in six (Antigua and Barbuda, Bahamas, Barbados, St. Kitts, St. Lucia and Trinidad and Tobago) of the eleven countries working-age females constituted a slightly higher proportion of the total female population than did males. The margin of difference was widest in Antigua (3 points) with a one to two point difference in the other instances. In only the case of Montserrat was there a one point difference in favour of males. In the remaining four countries (Belize, Dominica, Grenada and St. Vincent and the Grenadines), there were almost equal proportions of working-age persons in the two populations (See Table 2.1 and Figure 2.1). These data indicate that overall, females are the greater potential resource for engagement in productive activities which runs counter to entrenched gender ideologies of a sexual division of labour which positions men primarily in the public, productive sphere and women in the private sphere.¹²

¹² See 'sexual division of labour' In: David Jary & Julia Jary. *Collins Dictionary: Sociology*. 3rd Edition. Harper Collins Publishers. 2000

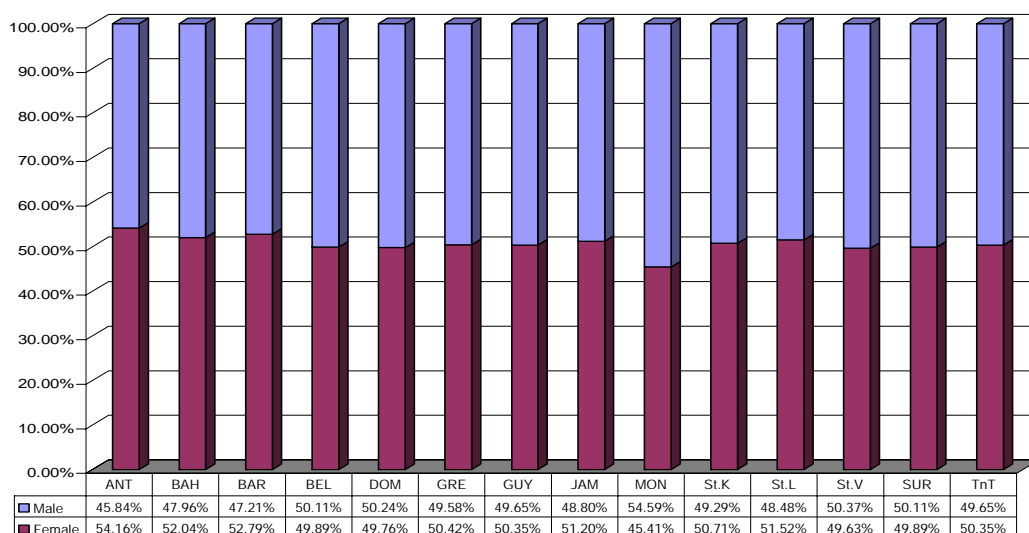
2.2.2 Sex Distribution of Total Working-Age Populations

Consistent with the above trends, when data on the sex distribution of males and females in the working-age population were examined, for the most part, differences were marginal with distributions very close to parity in eight of fourteen countries for which data were obtained. Only in five instances was there a one to four point margin of difference in favour of females [Antigua (54.16%), Bahamas (52.04%), Barbados (52.79%), (Jamaica (51.2%) and St. Lucia (51.52%)] while as before in the case of Montserrat the distribution favoured males (54.58%) [See Table 2.2 and Figure 2.2].

Table 2.2 Sex Distribution of Total Working-Age Populations (15+) by Country 2000/01

Country	TOTAL WORKING-AGE POPULATION				
	Female	Female	Male	Male	TOTAL
Antigua	24,810	54.16%	21,000	45.84%	45,811
Bahamas	113,700	52.04%	104,800	47.96%	218,501
Barbados	103,150	52.79%	92,259	47.21%	195,410
Belize	71,105	49.89%	71,431	50.11%	142,536
Dominica	24,027	49.76%	24,260	50.24%	48,287
Grenada	29,412	50.42%	28,918	49.58%	58,331
Guyana	243,696	50.35%	240,341	49.65%	484,038
Jamaica	894,450	51.20%	852,650	48.80%	1,747,101
Montserrat	1,560	45.41%	1,875	54.58%	3,435
St. Kitts	16,682	50.71%	16,213	49.29%	32,896
St. Lucia	56,637	51.52%	53,295	48.48%	109,933
St. Vincent	36,569	49.63%	37,109	50.37%	73,678
Suriname	154,179	49.89%	154,836	50.11%	309,015
Trinidad and Tobago	417,699	50.35%	411,957	49.65%	829,657

Figure 2.2: Sex Distribution of Total Working-Age Populations (15+)



2.3 The Economically Active and Inactive Populations

Working-age individuals can either be economically active or inactive. The *economically active population* or the labour force is comprised of all persons of either sex who furnish the supply of labour or the human resource for the production of goods and services and is measured in relation to a given reference period. As noted previously, this population includes persons who are age fifteen or older who can be either employed (employees or self-employed) or unemployed. On the other hand, the *economically inactive population* comprises all persons who were neither employed nor unemployed during the reference period¹³ including students, persons occupied solely in domestic duties in their own households, members of collective households, inmates of institutions, retired persons, persons living entirely on their own means, and persons wholly dependent upon others.¹⁴ Such persons are therefore not included in the economically active population.

An examination of the countries under consideration show, that in each case, larger proportions of males than females were economically active. The disparity was most pronounced in Guyana, where 78.49% of males were economically active, compared to only 34.09% of females.

¹³ <http://stats.oecd.org/glossary/detail.asp?ID=6252>

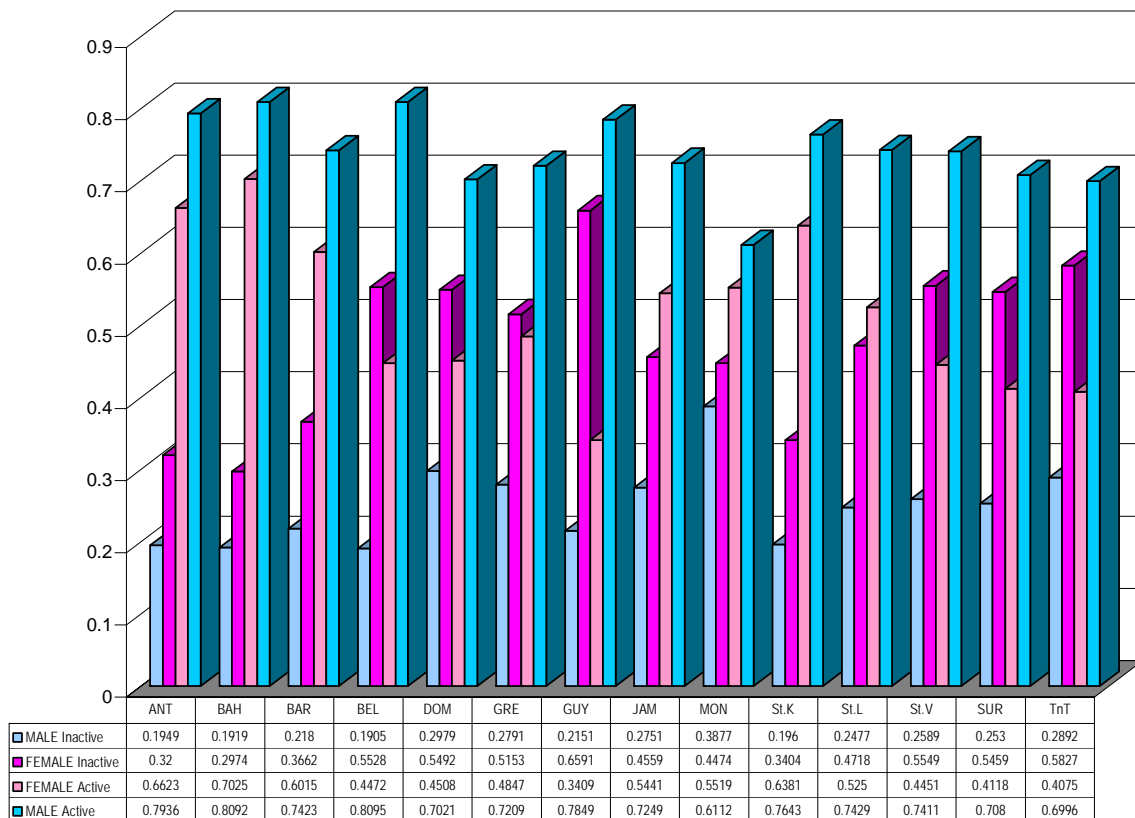
¹⁴ <http://laborsta.ilo.org/applv8/data/c1e.html>

Similarly, in Belize while 80.95% of males indicated that they were economically active, this was only the case for 44.72% of females. A similar pattern was also observed in Suriname where 70.80% of males were economically active, as opposed to only 41.18% of females (See Figure 2.3).

Conversely, in each country, much higher proportions of females than males indicated being economically inactive. In this regard, Guyana, Belize and Suriname showed the largest disparities. In the case of Guyana, 65.91% of women indicated that they were economically inactive, while only 21.51% of men indicated a similar status. In Belize only 19.05% of men were economically inactive, compared to 55.28% of women and in Suriname while 25.3% of males were inactive, this was the case of 54.59% of females.

Given the substantial indigenous populations in each of these countries, ethnicity needs to be more closely examined as a possible contributing factor accounting for these patterns.

Figure 2.3: The Economically Active and Inactive Populations, by Sex and Country



2.3.1 The Economically Active Populations

Information on the labour force or economically active population is important for:

*'making projections of potential labour availability and requirements as well as labour force participation of the population in the future and is therefore a key factor in the pursuance and achievement of economic growth of a country. The data gathered under this theme can be used in formulating policies relating to employment and training needs as well as social security systems.....This indicator is useful in assessing job creation and for the identification of employment opportunities... (p.1)*¹⁵

In all countries for which data were available with the exception of Dominica, Montserrat, St. Lucia and St. Vincent and the Grenadines, a higher percentage of economically active men were employed compared to the corresponding proportion among women. The widest margin of sex difference in employment was observed in Belize (F:66.7/M86.9%), Guyana (F:84.9/M:89.8%), Jamaica (F:79.5/M89.7%) and Suriname (F:86.3/M93.0%) [See Table 2.3 and Figure 2.3]. The cultural mores of East Indians, a significant segment of the Belize, Guyana and Suriname populations, emphasize the gender division of labour which includes the domestic responsibility of women [See Bailey and Ricketts (2003)¹⁶ and Chipman-Johnson and Vanderpool (2003)¹⁷]. It is likely, therefore, that in keeping with these cultural norms, women in the economically active population may only work intermittently and were outside of the formal work force at the time census data were collected. In the case of Jamaica the wide disparity may be due to the large number of women involved in informal activities and who therefore are not counted as being employed.

Conversely, in most instances larger proportions of economically active females were unemployed except for Dominica (F:9.5/M11.9%), Montserrat (F:7.9/M:15.2%), St. Lucia (F:11.66/M:15.9%) and St. Vincent and the Grenadines (F:18.6/M:22.7%) where larger proportions of men were unemployed. Thee widest margin of difference was observed in Belize

¹⁵ Women and men in the Caribbean Community: Facts and Figures, 1998-2005. Chapter 4 – Work and Economy. Revised version. <http://www.caricomstats.org/Files/Publications/Socialpub98-05/CHAP4-WORK.pdf>

¹⁶ Bailey, B. & Ricketts, H. 2003. Gender Vulnerabilities in Caribbean Labour Markets and Descent Work Provisions. *Social and Economic Studies*. Vol. 52 No. 4. pp.49-82.

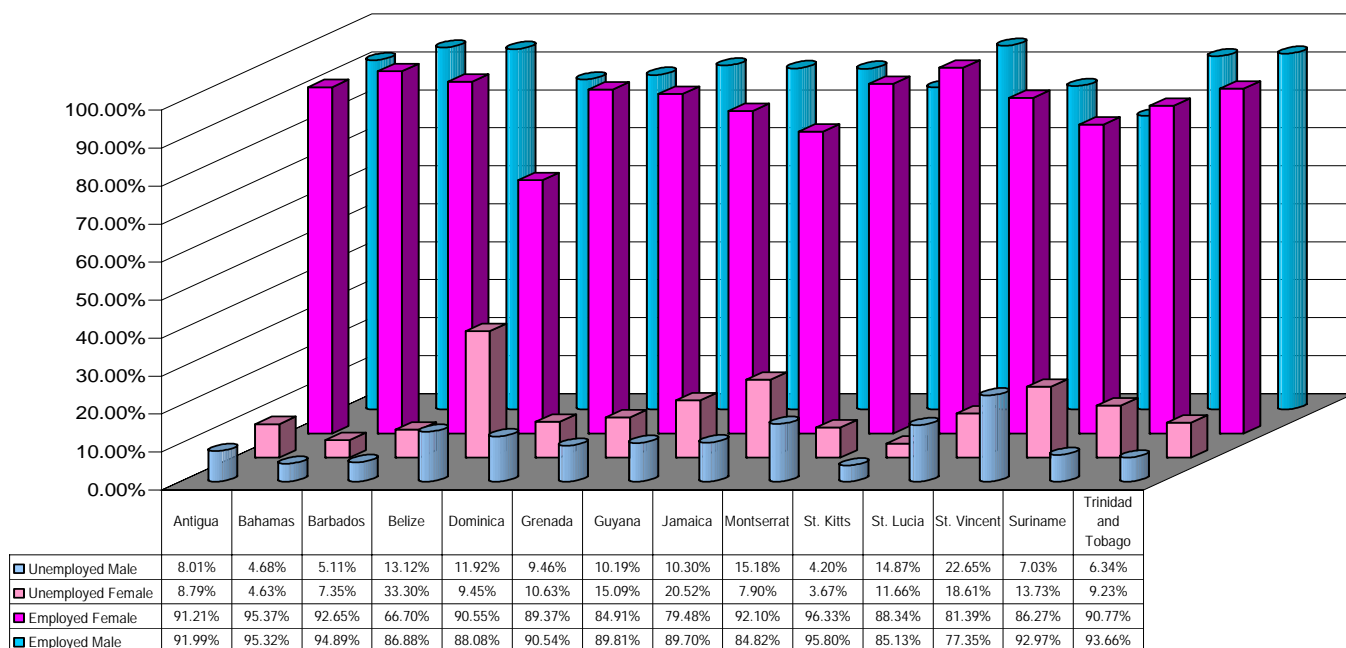
¹⁷ Chipman-Johnson & Vanterpool. 2003. Higher Education Attainment by Gender, Enrolment and Employment in the Anglophone Caribbean. Paper prepared for IESALC/UNESCO. <http://www.isealc.unesco.org.ve/programas/genero>

(F:33.3/M:13.1%), Guyana (F:15.1/M:10.2%), Jamaica (F:20.5/M:10.3%) and Suriname (F:13.7/M:7.0%) possibly for the same reasons outlined above (See Table 2.3 and Figure 2.3).

Table 2.3: Percentage Distribution of the Economically Active Population, Employed and Unemployed by Country and Sex

Country	Employed		Unemployed	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
Antigua & Barbuda	91.21%	91.99%	8.79%	8.01%
Bahamas	95.37%	95.32%	4.63%	4.68%
Barbados	92.65%	94.89%	7.35%	5.11%
Belize	66.70%	86.88%	33.30%	13.12%
Dominica	90.55%	88.08%	9.45%	11.92%
Grenada	89.37%	90.54%	10.63%	9.46%
Guyana	84.91%	89.81%	15.09%	10.19%
Jamaica	79.48%	89.70%	20.52%	10.30%
Montserrat	92.10%	84.82%	7.90%	15.18%
St. Kitts & Nevis	96.33%	95.80%	3.67%	4.20%
St. Lucia	88.34%	85.13%	11.66%	14.87%
St. Vincent & the Grenadines	81.39%	77.35%	18.61%	22.65%
Suriname	86.27%	92.97%	13.73%	7.03%
Trinidad and Tobago	90.77%	93.66%	9.23%	6.34%

Figure 2.4: The Economically Active Population, Employed and Unemployed by Country and Sex



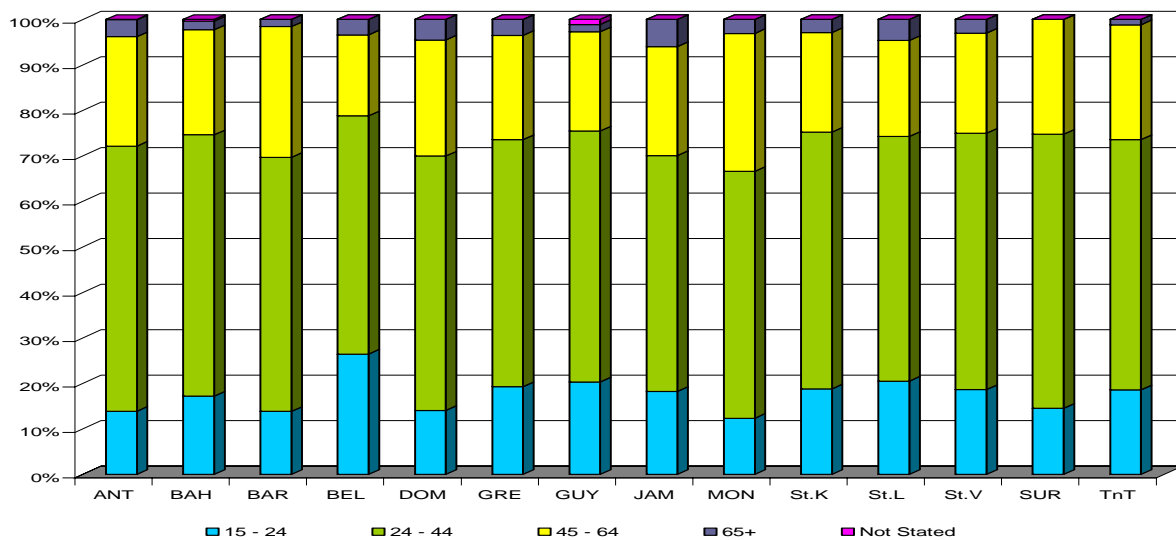
2.3.1.1 The Employed Population

Consistently across countries under consideration, the highest proportion of employed persons was between the ages of 15 and 64. It was persons within the 25 – 44 age band however, who represented the highest proportion of the employed population, as in each country more than fifty percent of the employed population were within this age range. This ranged from a low of 51.9% in Jamaica to a high of 60.3% in Suriname (See table 2.4 and Figure 2.5).

Table 2.4 Employed Population by Broad Age Groups as Percentage of Total Employed Population

Country	15 - 24	25 - 44	45 - 64	65+
Antigua & Barbuda	13.9%	58.3%	24.1%	3.7%
Bahamas	17.2	57.5	23.1	1.9
Barbados	13.8	55.9	28.7	1.6
Belize	26.4	52.4	17.8	3.4
Dominica	14.1	55.9	25.5	4.5
Grenada	19.3	54.3	22.9	3.5
Guyana	20.3	55.2	21.8	1.6
Jamaica	18.2	51.9	24.0	6.0
Montserrat	12.4	54.3	30.3	3.1
St. Kitts & Nevis	18.8	56.4	21.9	2.9
St. Lucia	20.5	53.8	21.1	4.6
St. Vincent & the Grenadines	18.7	56.3	22.0	3.0
Suriname	14.5	60.3	25.2	0.0
Trinidad & Tobago	18.6	55.0	25.3	1.2

Figure 2.5: Employed Population by Broad Age Groups as Percentage of Total Employed Population by Country

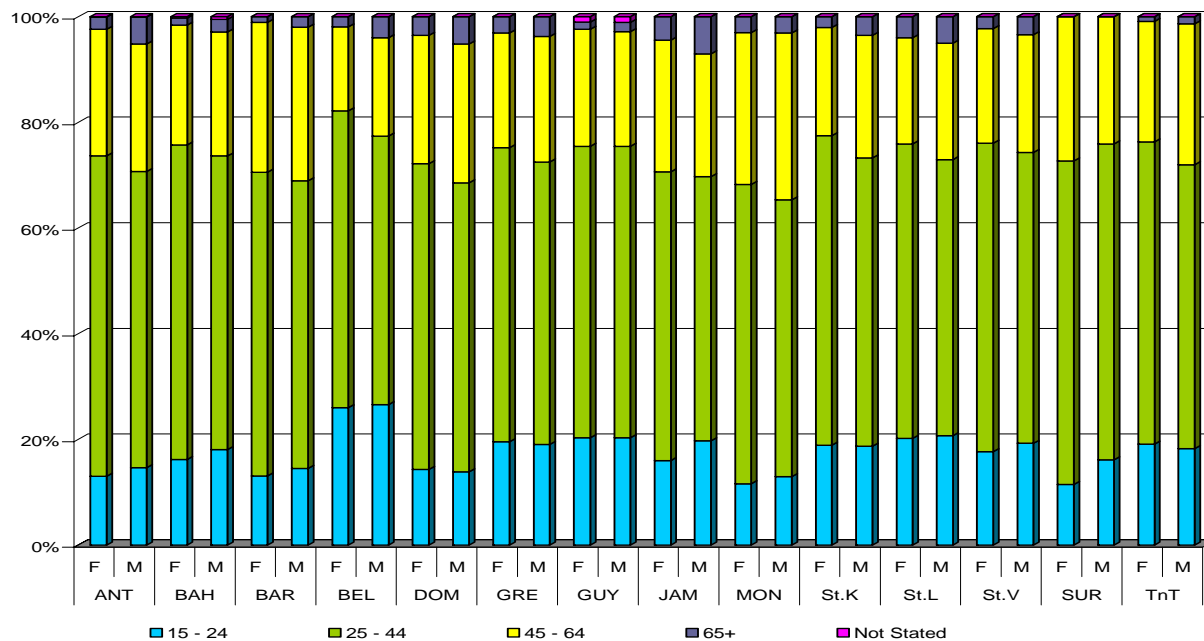


When examined on the basis of sex and age cohort, in each country under consideration males within every age cohort represented larger proportions of the employed population than females. The only exception was seen in Antigua and Barbuda in the 25-44 age group where males accounted for 28.3% of the employed population, in comparison to females in the 25-44 age group who accounted for 30% of the employed population.

Table 2.5: Employed Population by Broad Age-groups as a Percentage of the Employed Population, By Country and Sex

Country	15 - 24		25 - 44		45 - 64		64+	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Antigua	6.5%	7.4%	30.0%	28.3%	11.8%	12.2%	1.2%	2.6%
Bahamas	7.7	9.5	28.3	29.1	10.8	12.3	0.6	1.3
Barbados	6.1	7.7	27.0	28.9	13.3	15.4	0.5	1.1
Belize	7.7	18.7	16.7	35.7	4.7	13.1	0.6	2.8
Dominica	5.7	8.4	22.9	33.0	9.6	15.9	1.4	3.1
Grenada	7.9	11.4	22.4	31.9	8.7	14.2	1.3	2.2
Guyana	6.0	14.3	16.2	39.0	6.5	15.3	0.4	1.2
Jamaica	6.6	11.7	22.3	29.5	10.2	13.8	1.8	4.1
Montserrat	5.2	7.1	25.4	28.8	12.9	17.4	1.4	1.7
St. Kitts & Nevis	8.8	10.0	27.1	29.3	9.5	12.4	0.9	1.9
St. Lucia	8.9	11.6	24.4	29.4	8.8	12.3	1.7	2.8
St. Vincent & the Grenadines	6.8	11.9	22.4	33.9	8.3	13.7	0.9	2.1
Suriname	4.0	10.5	21.4	38.9	9.5	15.7	0.0	0.0
Trinidad & Tobago	6.9	11.6	20.8	34.2	8.3	17.0	0.3	0.8

Figure 2.6: Employed Population by Broad Age-groups as a Percentage of the Employed Population, By Country and Sex



2.3.1.1.1 The Employed Population, by Occupational Grouping

Data are presented for ten occupation groups across eleven countries (See Tables 2.6, 2.7 and Figure 2.7). Craft represented the largest proportion of the Labour Force in St. Kitts, where 16.31% of the employed population worked in this sector. In three countries, activities within the Services and Sales sector accounted for the largest proportion of the employed Labour Force: Antigua [19.89%], Bahamas [19.28%] and Grenada [18.56%]. However, the Labour force of the majority of countries (six of eleven) was centred on elementary occupations: Barbados [18.62%], Belize [32.85%], Guyana [28.43%], Montserrat [16.05%], St. Vincent [17.7%] and Trinidad & Tobago [20.44%].

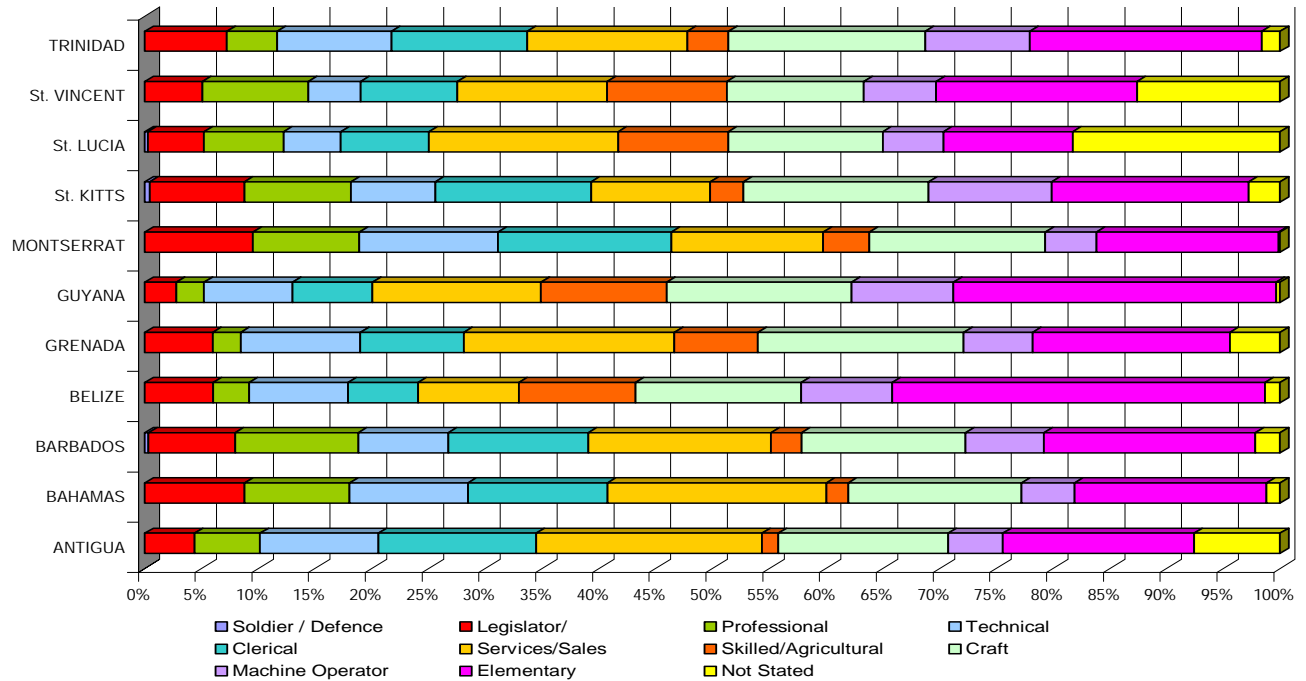
Table 2.6 Employment by Occupational Grouping and Country

OCCUPATION	ANTIGUA & BARBUDA	BAHAMAS	BELIZE	GRENADA	GUYANA	MONTSEERRAT	ST. KITTS & NEVIS	St. LUCIA	St. VINCENT & THE GRENADINES	TRINIDAD & TOBAGO
Clerical	1,314	13,683	4,395	2,618	16,268	251	2,907	4,659	3,061	50,714
Craft	1,741	14,362	10,400	5,214	37,570	255	3,453	8,152	4,329	73,543
Defence Force							91	168		
Elementary	3,127	16,184	23,398	5,004	65,640	264	3,678	6,833	6,354	86,735
Legislator/	4,183	19,107	4,291	1,726	6,422	157	1,766	2,966	1,822	30,689
Machine Operator	5,982	3,009	5,709	1,749	20,714	74	2,293	3,209	2,288	39,033
Not Stated	5,982	29,964	949	1,269	794	2	582	10,960	4,518	6,858
Professional	4,497	23,718	2,258	708	5,626	154	1,990	4,204	3,349	18,818
Services/Sales	1,455	7,256	6,320	5,343	34,229	220	2,223	9,993	4,738	59,887
Skilled/Agricultural	5,062	26,285	7,313	2,119	25,579	67	619	5,826	3,781	15,429
Technical	2,278	1,862	6,201	3,031	18,012	201	1,568	3,017	1,651	42,722

Table 2.7 Percentage Distribution of Occupational Grouping by Country

OCCUPATION	ANTIGUA	BAHAMAS	BELIZE	GRENADA	GUYANA	MONTSEERRAT	St. KITTS & NEVIS	St. LUCIA	St. VINCENT & the GRENADINES	TRINIDAD & TOBAGO
Soldier / Defence							0.43%	0.28%		
Legislator/	4.37%	8.80%	6.02%	6.00%	2.78%	9.54%	8.34%	4.94%	5.08%	7.23%
Professional	5.79%	9.24%	3.17%	2.46%	2.44%	9.36%	9.40%	7.01%	9.33%	4.43%
Technical	10.40%	10.41%	8.71%	10.53%	7.80%	12.22%	7.41%	5.03%	4.60%	10.07%
Clerical	13.91%	12.29%	6.17%	9.10%	7.05%	15.26%	13.73%	7.77%	8.53%	11.95%
Services/Sales	19.89%	19.28%	8.87%	18.56%	14.83%	13.37%	10.50%	16.66%	13.20%	14.11%
Skilled/Agricultural	1.43%	1.94%	10.27%	7.36%	11.08%	4.07%	2.92%	9.71%	10.53%	3.64%
Craft	14.96%	15.26%	14.60%	18.12%	16.27%	15.50%	16.31%	13.59%	12.06%	17.33%
Machine Operator	4.84%	4.67%	8.01%	6.08%	8.97%	4.50%	10.83%	5.35%	6.37%	9.20%
Elementary	16.83%	16.91%	32.85%	17.39%	28.43%	16.05%	17.37%	11.39%	17.70%	20.44%
Not Stated	7.58%	1.20%	1.33%	4.41%	0.34%	0.12%	2.75%	18.27%	12.59%	1.62%

Figure 2.7: Employment by Occupational Grouping and Country



When examined on the basis of sex, occupational groupings seemed determined by sex.

In each country (with the exceptions of Belize and Guyana) the largest percentage of males was employed within the Craft sector. In both Belize and Guyana, the largest percentage of males, were employed in Elementary occupations; 32.76% and 28.79% respectively. Conversely, in six of the eleven countries (Antigua [25.34%], Anguilla [33.97%], Bahamas [24.52%], Barbados [21.79%], Grenada [25.83%], St. Lucia [22.57%]) the largest percentage of females was employed in the Services / Sales Sector. Females were also predominately employed in Clerical occupations (Montserrat [28.82%] and St. Kitts and Nevis [22.26%]) as well as in Elementary occupations (Belize [33.06%], Guyana [27.59%] and St. Vincent and the Grenadines [17.72%]). (See Tables 2.8 and 2.9 and Figure 2.8).

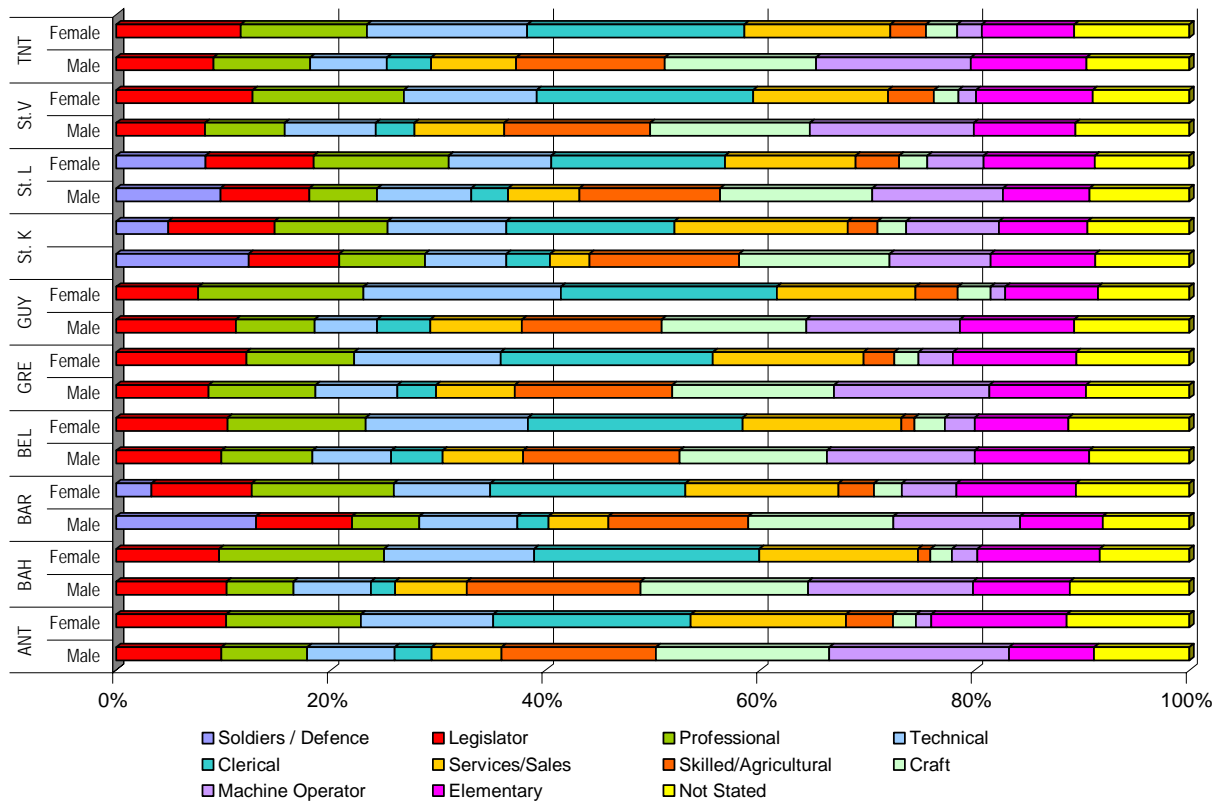
Table 2.8 Employment by Occupational Grouping, Country and Sex

Occupational Group	ANTIGUA		BAHAMAS		BELIZE		GRENADA		GUYANA		MONTserrat		St. KITTS & NEVIS		St. LUCIA		St. VINCENT & THE GRENADINES		Trinidad and Tobago	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F		Female
Clerical	721	593	8,262	5,421	1,379	3,016	568	2,050	5,396	10,872	36	215	735	2,172	988	3,671	673	2,388	13,298	37,416
Craft	783	958	5,262	9,100	9,383	1,017	4,747	467	33,754	3,816	237	18	3,015	438	7,096	1,056	3,948	381	65,657	7,886
Soldiers / Defence													70	21	100	68				
Elementary	1,430	1,697	6,857	9,327	16,388	7,010	2,731	2,273	46,810	18,830	131	133	2,231	1,447	3,378	3,455	3,687	2,667	59,477	27,258
Legislator/ Manager	798	3,385	2,555	16,552	2,762	1,529	897	829	4,789	1,633	95	62	928	838	1,508	1,458	924	898	17,704	12,985
Machine Operator	2,185	3,797	11,701	18,263	5,166	543	1,527	222	19,774	940	71	3	1,343	950	2,395	814	2,143	145	35,763	3,270
Professional	4,073	424	21,777	1,941	1,261	997	427	281	2,747	2,879	67	87	989	1,001	1,631	2,573	1,525	1,824	10,732	8,086
Services/ Sales	1,364	91	6,542	714	3,114	3,206	2,373	2,970	19,504	14,725	90	130	508	1,715	4,062	5,931	2,434	2,304	30,111	29,776
Skilled/ Agricultural	2,252	2,810	13,921	12,364	7,005	308	1,880	239	22,240	3,339	60	7	537	82	4,679	1,147	3,152	629	13,573	1,856
Technical	1,134	1,144	1,220	642	2,991	3,210	1,395	1,636	7,013	10,999	111	90	740	828	1,615	1,402	859	792	19,435	23,287
Not Stated	2,185	3,797	2,863	146	582	367	739	530	569	225	1	1	318	264	6,257	4,703	2,937	1,581	4,173	2,685
Total	16,925	18,696	80,960	74,470	50,031	21,203	17,284	11,497	162,596	68,258	899	746	11,414	9,756	33,709	26,278	22,282	13,609	269,923	154,505

Table 2.9 Percentage Distribution of Occupational Grouping by Country and Within Sex

OCCUPATION	ANTIGUA		BAHAMAS		BELIZE		GRENADA		GUYANA		MONTserrat		St. KITTS & NEVIS		St. LUCIA		St. VINCENT & THE GRENADINES		TRINIDAD & TOBAGO	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female			Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Clerical	5.29%	22.59%	3.16%	22.23%	2.76%	14.22%	3.29%	17.83%	3.32%	15.93%	4.00%	28.82%	6.44%	22.26%	2.93%	13.97%	3.02%	17.55%	4.93%	24.22%
Craft	27.00%	2.83%	26.90%	2.61%	18.75%	4.80%	27.46%	4.06%	20.76%	5.59%	26.36%	2.41%	26.41%	4.49%	21.05%	4.02%	17.72%	2.80%	24.32%	5.10%
Elementary	14.93%	18.76%	17.19%	16.60%	32.76%	33.06%	15.80%	19.77%	28.79%	27.59%	14.57%	17.83%	19.55%	14.83%	10.02%	13.15%	16.55%	19.60%	22.03%	17.64%
Legislator	4.78%	3.96%	10.21%	7.28%	5.52%	7.21%	5.19%	7.21%	2.95%	2.39%	10.57%	8.31%	8.13%	8.59%	4.47%	5.55%	4.15%	6.60%	6.56%	8.40%
Machine Operator	9.04%	0.61%	8.08%	0.96%	10.33%	2.56%	8.83%	1.93%	12.16%	1.38%	7.90%	0.40%	11.77%	9.74%	7.10%	3.10%	9.62%	1.07%	13.25%	2.12%
Not Stated	7.52%	7.64%	1.51%	0.86%	1.16%	1.73%	4.28%	4.61%	0.35%	0.33%	0.11%	0.13%	2.79%	2.71%	18.56%	17.90%	13.18%	11.62%	1.55%	1.74%
Professional	5.19%	6.39%	6.50%	12.22%	2.52%	4.70%	2.47%	2.44%	1.69%	4.22%	7.45%	11.66%	8.66%	10.26%	4.84%	9.79%	6.84%	13.40%	3.98%	5.23%
Services/Sales	14.48%	25.34%	14.45%	24.52%	6.22%	15.12%	13.73%	25.83%	12.00%	21.57%	10.01%	17.43%	4.45%	17.58%	12.05%	22.57%	10.92%	16.93%	11.16%	19.27%
Skilled/Agricultural	2.30%	0.55%	3.54%	0.20%	14.00%	1.45%	10.88%	2.08%	13.68%	4.89%	6.67%	0.94%	4.70%	0.84%	13.88%	4.36%	14.15%	4.62%	5.03%	1.20%
Soldiers / Defence	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.61%	0.22%	0.30%	0.26%	0.00%	0.00%		
Technical	9.48%	11.33%	8.47%	12.52%	5.98%	15.14%	8.07%	14.23%	4.31%	16.11%	12.35%	12.06%	6.48%	8.49%	4.79%	5.34%	3.86%	5.82%	7.20%	15.07%

Figure 2.8: Employment by Occupational Grouping, Within Sex and Country



When disaggregated by sex, it is of note as well that in six of the ten countries the highest occupational category, professionals, was female dominated (Antigua and Barbuda 55%; Bahamas 63.4%; Barbados 59%; Guyana 51%; St. Lucia 61%; St. Vincent and the Grenadines 54%). What needs to be noted, however, is that this occupational category includes the highly feminised nursing and teaching professions, which no doubt, accounts for the high female subscription in this category (See Table 2.10).

On the other hand, the professional category was dominated by males in Grenada (60%) and Trinidad and Tobago (59%) while there was parity in St. Kitts and Guyana. Further disaggregation of this occupational group would be necessary to determine what accounts for the reverse pattern in these countries.

Table 2.10 Percentage Distribution of Occupational Grouping by Country and Between Sex

OCCUPATION	ANTIGUA		BAHAMAS		BARBADOS		BELIZE		GRENADA		GUYANA		MONTSERRAT		St. KITTS		St. LUCIA		St. VINCENT		TRINIDAD	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female			Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Soldiers / Defence					85.21%	14.79%									76.92%	23.08%	59.52%	40.48%				
Legislator	54.87%	45.13%	60.38%	39.62%	58.37%	41.63%	64.37%	35.63%	51.97%	48.03%	74.57%	25.43%	60.51%	39.49%	52.55%	47.45%	50.84%	49.16%	50.71%	49.29%	57.69%	42.31%
Professional	44.97%	55.03%	36.64%	63.36%	40.98%	59.02%	55.85%	44.15%	60.31%	39.69%	48.83%	51.17%	43.51%	56.49%	49.70%	50.30%	38.80%	61.20%	45.54%	54.46%	57.03%	42.97%
Technical	45.73%	54.27%	42.37%	57.63%	59.88%	40.12%	48.23%	51.77%	46.02%	53.98%	38.94%	61.06%	55.22%	44.78%	47.19%	52.81%	53.53%	46.47%	52.03%	47.97%	45.49%	54.51%
Clerical	19.08%	80.92%	13.37%	86.63%	18.93%	81.07%	31.38%	68.62%	21.70%	78.30%	33.17%	66.83%	14.34%	85.66%	25.28%	74.72%	21.21%	78.79%	21.99%	78.01%	26.22%	73.78%
Services/Sales	36.53%	63.47%	39.05%	60.95%	36.40%	63.60%	49.27%	50.73%	44.41%	55.59%	56.98%	43.02%	40.91%	59.09%	22.85%	77.15%	40.65%	59.35%	51.37%	48.63%	50.28%	49.72%
Skilled/Agricultural	80.70%	19.30%	95.15%	4.85%	85.17%	14.83%	95.79%	4.21%	88.72%	11.28%	86.95%	13.05%	89.55%	10.45%	86.75%	13.25%	80.31%	19.69%	83.36%	16.64%	87.97%	12.03%
Craft	90.57%	9.43%	91.82%	8.18%	88.50%	11.50%	90.22%	9.78%	91.04%	8.96%	89.84%	10.16%	92.94%	7.06%	87.32%	12.68%	87.05%	12.95%	91.20%	8.80%	89.28%	10.72%
Machine Operator	93.75%	6.25%	90.16%	9.84%	77.20%	22.80%	90.49%	9.51%	87.31%	12.69%	95.46%	4.54%	95.95%	4.05%	58.57%	41.43%	74.63%	25.37%	93.66%	6.34%	91.62%	8.38%
Elementary	44.49%	55.51%	52.96%	47.04%	50.40%	49.60%	70.04%	29.96%	54.58%	45.42%	71.31%	28.69%	49.62%	50.38%	60.66%	39.34%	49.44%	50.56%	58.03%	41.97%	68.57%	31.43%
Not Stated	49.78%	50.22%	65.52%	34.48%	52.76%	47.24%	61.33%	38.67%	58.23%	41.77%	71.66%	28.34%	50.00%	50.00%	54.64%	45.36%	57.09%	42.91%	65.01%	34.99%	60.85%	39.15%

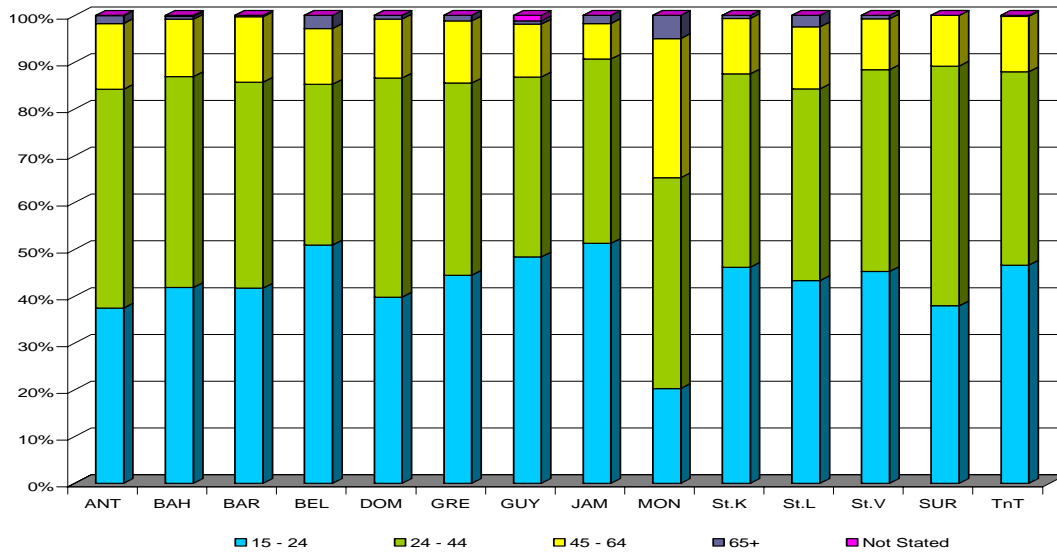
2.3.1.2 *The Unemployed Population*

In eight of the fourteen countries under consideration, persons aged 15 to 24 represented the largest proportion of the unemployed segment of the economy, including Belize [50.9%], Grenada [44.5%], Guyana [48.3%], Jamaica [51.3%], St. Kitts and Nevis [46.2%], St. Lucia [43.3%], St. Vincent and the Grenadines [45.3%] and Trinidad & Tobago [46.6%]. This obviously is indicative of difficulties associated with securing employment by this segment of the population many of whom represent school-leavers and new entrants to the labour market (See Table 2.11 and Figure 2.9).

Table 2.11: Unemployed Population by Broad Age Groups as Percentage of Total Unemployed Population by Country

COUNTRY	15 - 24	24 - 44	45 - 64	65+
ANTIGUA	37.4%	46.8%	14.1%	1.7%
BAHAMAS	41.8	45.1	12.3	0.5
BARBADOS	41.7	44.0	14.0	0.3
BELIZE	50.9	34.4	11.9	2.8
DOMINICA	39.8	46.8	12.6	0.8
GRENADA	44.5	41.1	13.3	1.2
GUYANA	48.3	38.5	11.3	0.7
JAMAICA	51.3	39.4	7.6	1.7
MONSRTERAT	20.2	45.0	29.8	5.0
St. KITTS & NEVIS	46.2	41.3	11.8	0.7
St. LUCIA	43.3	41.0	13.2	2.4
St. VINCENT & the GRENADINES	45.3	43.1	10.9	0.7
SURINAME	37.9	51.2	10.8	0.0
TRINIDAD & TOBAGO	46.6	41.3	11.8	0.2

Figure 2.9: Unemployed Population by Broad Age Groups as Percentage of Total Unemployed Population by Country

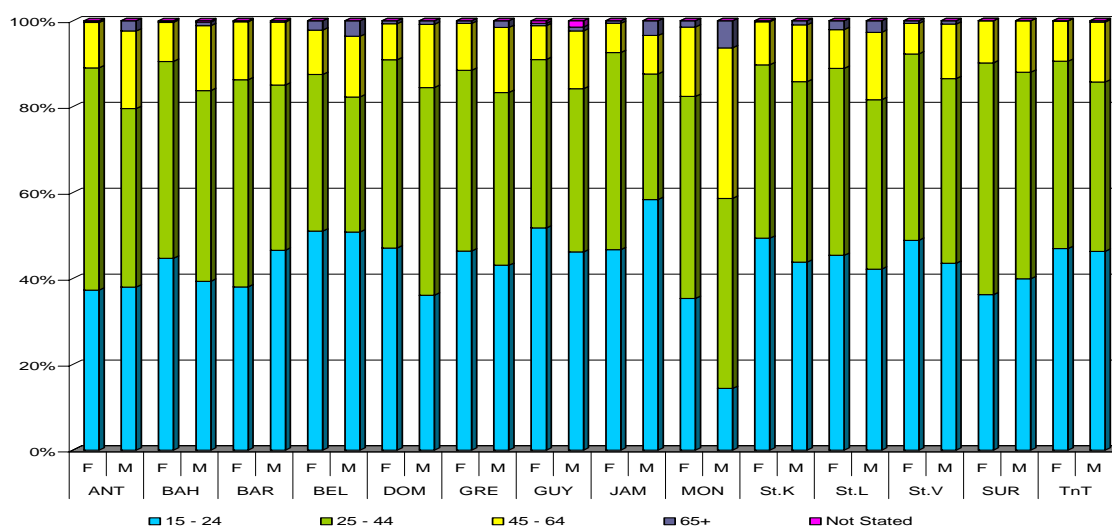


Of note is the fact that in nine of the fourteen countries being examined (Bahamas [23.44%], Dominica [32.12%], Grenada [24.33%], Guyana [27.92%], Montserrat [31.82%], St. Kitts and Nevis [25%], St. Lucia [26.53%], St. Vincent and the Grenadines [29.28%] and Trinidad & Tobago [24.9%]) the largest proportion of the unemployed population was between 25 and 44 years of age and male (See Table 2.12 and Figure 2.10). Given employment trends observed with regards to sex, the fact that higher percentages of the unemployed are males as opposed to females seems to substantiate higher male involvement in economic activity, from which to become unemployed.

Table 2.12 Unemployed Population by Broad Age Groups as Percentage of Total Unemployed Population by Country and Sex

COUNTRY	15 - 24		25 - 44		45 - 64		64+	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Antigua	19.4%	18.1%	26.9%	19.8%	5.5%	8.6%	0.2%	1.5%
Bahamas	21.1	20.8	21.6	23.4	4.3	8.0	0.1	0.4
Barbados	21.5	20.2	27.3	16.7	7.6	6.4	0.1	0.1
Belize	29.7	21.2	21.3	13.1	6.0	5.9	1.3	1.5
Dominica	15.8	24.0	14.7	32.1	2.8	9.8	0.2	0.6
Grenada	20.1	24.3	18.3	22.8	4.7	8.5	0.3	0.9
Guyana	20.4	27.9	15.5	23.0	3.1	8.2	0.2	0.5
Jamaica	28.4	22.8	28.0	11.4	4.2	3.5	0.4	1.3
Montserrat	9.9	10.3	13.2	31.8	4.5	25.2	0.4	4.5
St. Kitts	21.2	25.0	17.3	24.0	4.3	7.6	0.1	0.5
St. Lucia	16.8	26.5	16.1	24.8	3.4	9.9	0.8	1.7
St. Vincent & the Grenadines	16.0	29.3	14.2	28.9	2.3	8.5	0.2	0.5
Suriname	19.2	18.7	28.7	22.6	5.2	5.6	0.0	0.0
Trinidad & Trinidad	21.7	24.9	20.1	21.2	4.3	7.5	0.0	0.2

Figure 2.10: Unemployed Population by Broad Age Groups as Percentage of Total Unemployed Population by Country and Sex



2.3.2 The Economically Inactive Populations

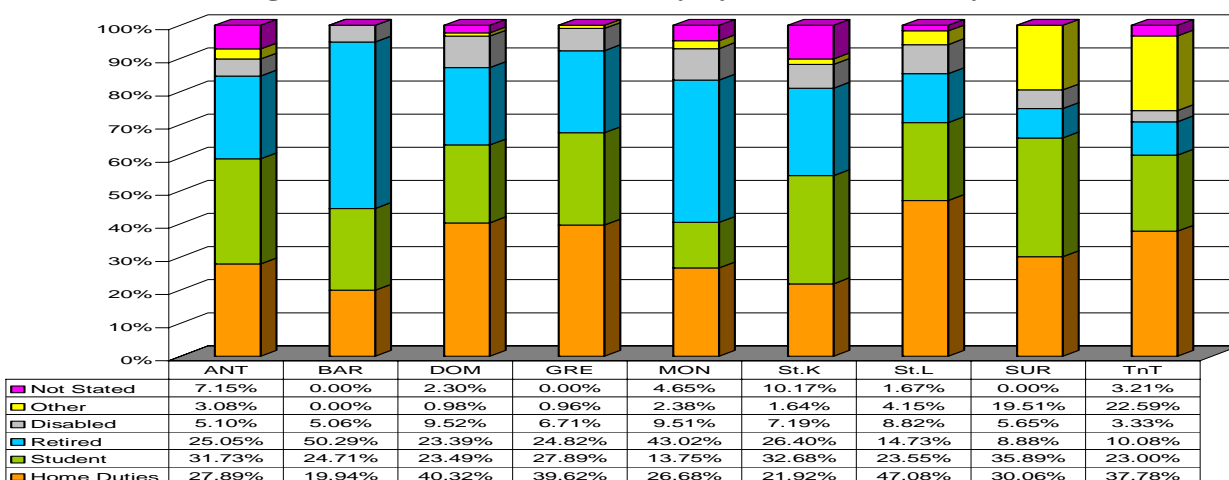
Data are presented for nine countries on economic inactivity by status (See Table 2.13 and Figure 2.11). In four of these countries (Dominica [40.32%], Grenada [39.62%], St. Lucia [47.08%] and Trinidad & Tobago [37.78%]) the largest proportion of persons economically inactive were occupied within the Care Economy, with home duties. In three countries (Antigua and Barbuda [31.73%], St. Kitts and Nevis [32.68%] and Suriname [35.89%]) the largest

proportion of economically inactive persons, were students. In Barbados [50.29%] and Montserrat [43.02%], the largest proportion of persons listed as economically inactive were retired from the labour force.

Table 2.13 Number of Economically Inactive Persons by Status & Country

Country	Home Duties		Student		Retired		Disabled		Other		Not Stated	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
Antigua	3,247	367	2,274	1,838	1,839	1,407	389	272	191	208	438	488
Barbados	11,124	419	7,824	6,482	17,306	11,805	1,520	1,409
Dominica	6,852	1,382	2,494	2,303	2,636	2,140	986	959	72	128	155	315
Grenada	7,720	1,482	3,451	3,028	3,059	2,706	856	702	70	154
Montserrat	207	51	65	68	195	221	38	54	12	11	18	27
St. Kitts	1,917	244	1,778	1,444	1,508	1,095	416	293	60	102	359	644
St. Lucia	15,847	3,311	5,447	4,136	3,008	2,987	1,860	1,730	650	1,038	178	501
Suriname	36,508	568	23,780	20,491	5,894	5,059	3,349	3,621	14,635	9,431
Trinidad & Tobago	132,901	5,285	45,550	38,590	13,124	23,755	5,096	7,095	43,187	39,438	5,396	6,357

Figure 2.11: Economic Inactivity by Status & Country



Disaggregating the data on the basis of sex reveals illuminating gender dimensions of the economically inactive populations. It is instructive that in eight of the nine countries for which data are presented, the activity in which the majority of economically inactive females participate is home duties, or the Care economy. Conversely, in seven of the nine countries, the majority of inactive males are students (See Table 2.14).

Table 2.14: Economic Inactivity by Status, by Country and Within Sex

Country	Home Duties		Student		Retired		Disables		Other		Not Stated	
	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
Antigua	38.76	8.01	27.14	40.13	21.95	30.72	4.64	5.94	2.28	4.54	5.23	10.66
Barbados	29.45	2.08	20.71	32.22	45.81	58.69	4.02	7.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Dominica	51.93	19.12	18.90	31.87	19.98	29.61	7.47	13.27	0.55	1.77	1.17	4.36
Grenada	50.94	18.36	22.77	37.51	20.18	33.52	5.65	8.70	0.46	1.91	0.00	0.00
Montserrat	38.69	11.81	12.15	15.74	36.45	51.16	7.10	12.50	2.24	2.55	3.36	6.25
St. Kitts & Nevis	31.75	6.38	29.45	37.78	24.98	28.65	6.89	7.67	0.99	2.67	5.95	16.85
St. Lucia	58.71	24.16	20.18	30.18	11.14	21.80	6.89	12.62	2.41	7.57	0.66	3.66
Suriname	43.38	1.45	28.25	52.32	7.00	12.92	3.98	9.24	17.39	24.08	0.00	0.00
Trinidad & Tobago	54.19	4.39	18.57	32.02	5.35	19.71	2.08	5.89	17.61	32.72	2.20	5.27

This is one reason for lower participation rates of females in the capital sector. Compared with males, household responsibilities, including the care and nurture of children and elderly relatives, largely constrain women from engaging in paid employment. These patterns of involvement in the private / public sphere, no doubt, involve gender ideologies that limit the sexes to one domain or the other.

2.4 Employment to Working Population Ratio

The International Labour Organization suggests that the *Employment to Population Ratio*, is indicative of the ability of an economy to create employment, and when examined on the basis of sex is a useful tool to determine gender differences in labour market participation and activity.

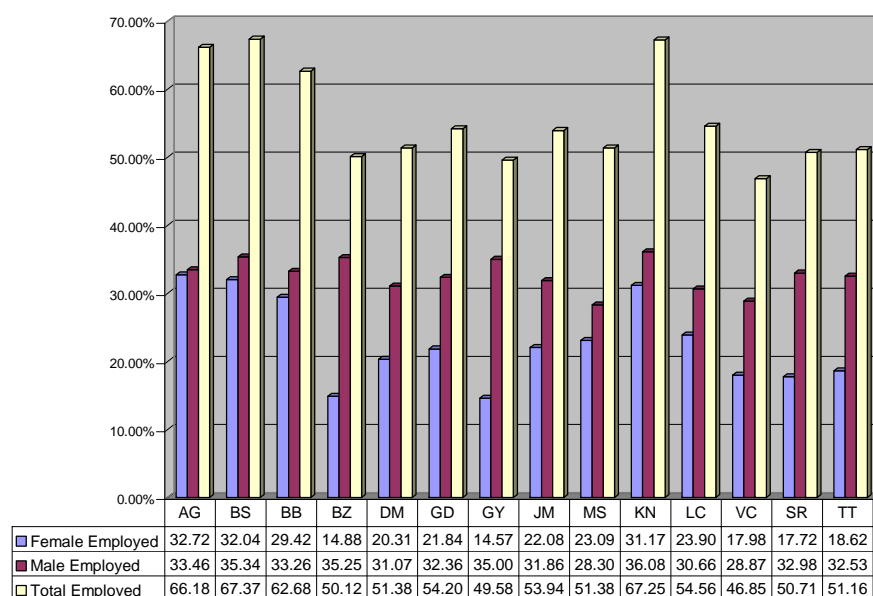
In each of the fourteen countries (save Guyana; and just marginally so) total employment figures were above fifty percent, with Belize on the lower end at 50.12% and Bahamas at the higher end with 67.37%. It is noteworthy that in every instance, employment ratios favoured males, with ratios of more than 2:1 in Belize and Guyana. The smallest disparity between the sexes was seen in Antigua and Barbuda, where there was near parity between the sexes (See Table 2.15 and Figure 2.12).

These ratios suggest the ability of the labour force market of these countries to more easily absorb the skills of males than females, which may have long term repercussions on the livelihoods of females and their families.

Table 2.15: Total Working Age and Employed Population by Country and Sex

Country	TOTAL POPULATION (Working Age)			Employed Population		
	Female	Male	TOTAL	Female	Male	TOTAL
Antigua & Barbuda	24,810	21,000	45,810	14,987	15,330	30,317
Bahamas	113,700	104,800	218,500	69,997	77,209	147,206
Barbados	103,150	92,259	195,409	57,488	64,987	122,475
Belize	71,105	71,431	142,536	21,209	50,237	71,446
Dominica	24,027	24,260	48,287	9,808	15,003	24,811
Grenada	29,412	28,918	58,330	12,741	18,875	31,616
Guyana	243,696	240,341	484,037	70,538	169,426	239,964
Jamaica	894,450	852,650	1,747,100	385,700	556,600	942,300
Montserrat	1,560	1,875	3,435	793	972	1,765
St. Kitts & Nevis	16,682	16,213	32,895	10,253	11,870	22,123
St. Lucia	56,637	53,295	109,932	26,269	33,706	59,975
St. Vincent & the Grenadines	36,569	37,109	73,678	13,247	21,274	34,521
Suriname	154,179	154,836	309,015	54,768	101,919	156,687
Trinidad and Tobago	417,699	411,957	829,656	154,505	269,923	424,428

Figure 2.12: Employment to Population Ratio, by Country and Sex



2.5 The Wage Gap

The wage gap is a statistical indicator often used as an index of the status of women's earnings relative to men's. The wage gap is expressed as a percentage (e.g., in 2006, women earned 76.6% as much as men) and is calculated by dividing the median annual earnings for women by the median annual earnings for men.¹⁸

Data for various Caribbean countries indicate the prevalence of a wage gap. Bailey and Ricketts (2003)¹⁹ report that 2001 data on average income by sex and economic activity for Trinidad and Tobago supplied by the International Labour Organisation (ILO) showed an average income of females lower than males in every economic activity except for Electricity and Water and Transportation, Storage and Communication. Overall average monthly income of males was TT\$2, 600 compared with \$2,100 for females. Similar differentials were evident in St. Lucia where the 1998 Labour Force Survey data showed 9.0 per cent of women compared with 16.0 per cent of males earning in excess of EC\$2,000 per month. Based on data from the 2001 Housing and Population census Ricketts shows that in Jamaica the wage gap favours males at all levels of education save in the case of the category 'none'. For all categories of education except 'none' the earnings gap ranges between 65.8 and 96.5 per cent (See Table 2.16).

Table 2.16 Mean Yearly Earnings of Employed Males and Females by Highest Level of Education

Highest Level of Education	Mean Yearly Earnings (\$) Male	Mean Yearly Earnings (\$) Female	Earnings Gap (%)
None	107,583.8	133,181.9	123.79
Pre-Primary	203,702.1	133,971.2	65.77
Primary	184,211.0	152,845.8	82.97
Secondary	254,860.9	212,629.6	83.43
University	1,181,826	876,580.2	74.17
Other Tertiary	579,656.9	423,464.3	73.05
Special School	340,001.9	229,583.3	67.52
Other	263,445.2	254,219.7	96.59

¹⁸ Information Please® Database, © 2007 Pearson Education, Inc. <http://www.infoplease.com/ipa/A0763170.html>

¹⁹ Bailey, B. & Ricketts, H. Gender Vulnerabilities in Caribbean Labour Markets. Social and Economic Studies. 52:4, 2003. pp.49-82.

2.6 Emigration and movement of skilled labour: The Brain Drain

2.6.1 Extra-regional emigration

The inability of the labour force to absorb all skilled professionals, particularly female professionals, has resulted in the emigration of such persons to more developed countries in search of gainful employment and economic viability. Data from sources other than the 2001 censuses indicate that this is particularly the case for health workers, particularly nurses, and teachers

A report coming out of the Institute of Population Health at the University of Ottawa²⁰ points to the fact that in the Caribbean, the brain drain of health workers has become a significant concern. The report points to the fact that at a Commonwealth Secretariat-sponsored Caribbean conference on the “managed migration” of nurses, participants estimated that the Caribbean is losing a minimum of 400 nurses annually through migration to the US, Canada and the UK. It is further estimated that in Trinidad and Tobago that, annually, about one-third of nursing graduates resign from their duties in the public sector to take up positions abroad. It is further estimated that across the region approximately 35 per cent of posts for registered nurses are vacant with Jamaica having the highest vacancy rate at 58.4 per cent. It is posited that as a result, some countries in the region (in particular Barbados and Trinidad and Tobago) are now actively recruiting nurses, pharmacists and physicians from the Philippines, Cuba, Nigeria and Guyana in order to satisfy severe staff shortages.

Caribbean countries are not only losing nurses they are also losing teachers. Wyss (2004)²¹ reports that the United States and British schoolteacher work programs recruit Jamaican teachers for inner city schools in New York City and London. In 2001 alone, 3% of Jamaica’s teachers (almost 500 educators) left the island to accept temporary assignments abroad. Jamaica’s Ministry of Education estimates the country lost 2,000 teachers between 2000 and 2002.

²⁰ WHO Commission on Social Determinants of Health. Globalisation and Health Worker Crisis. Globalisation Knowledge Network. Corinne Packer, Ronald Labonte & Denise Spitzer. Institute of Population Health. UOttawa. http://www.who.int/social_determinants/resources/gkn_packer_al.pdf

²¹ *Econ-Atrocity: Global poaching – Jamaica’s Brain Drain*. Brenda Wyss 2004. Staff Economist, Centre for Population Economics. <http://www.fguide.org/?p=118>

Further the brain drain in the Caribbean is not limited to nurses and teachers. In 2006 IMF Working Paper Mishra²² states that about 12% of the labour force from the Caribbean region has emigrated to member countries of the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) over the period 1965 to 2000 with the Caribbean region having the highest rates of migration into these countries compared with the rest of the world.

Mishra points to the fact that:

The average of 12 percent for the Caribbean as a whole is largely due to the low migration rates of five countries—Haiti, Dominican Republic, The Bahamas, St. Lucia, and Trinidad and Tobago. the majority of the other Caribbean countries have lost more than a quarter of their labor force due to emigration to OECD member countries. (p.13)

The outward movement of Caribbean persons is not only extra-regional but also intra-regional.

Schmid²³ notes that:

This trend towards greater willingness to accept and even to promote the free movement of qualified professionals can also be observed in the Caribbean, where the Caribbean Community (CARICOM) has launched the Caribbean Single Market and Economy (CSME) in early 2005. This agreement provides for the free movement of a certain group of highly qualified nationals within the CARICOM region.

Bailey & Ricketts (2007)²⁴ claim that, given the asymmetrical gender structure of Caribbean labour markets illustrated by data presented in earlier sections of this paper, these arrangements are likely to reinforce rather than challenge such inequalities and use the movement of graduates to build their case.

Using data from the 2001 Population and Housing Census these authors show that in the overall population 10 years or older up to age 99, in five of the nine countries for which data were available a slightly higher proportion of males reported having University qualifications

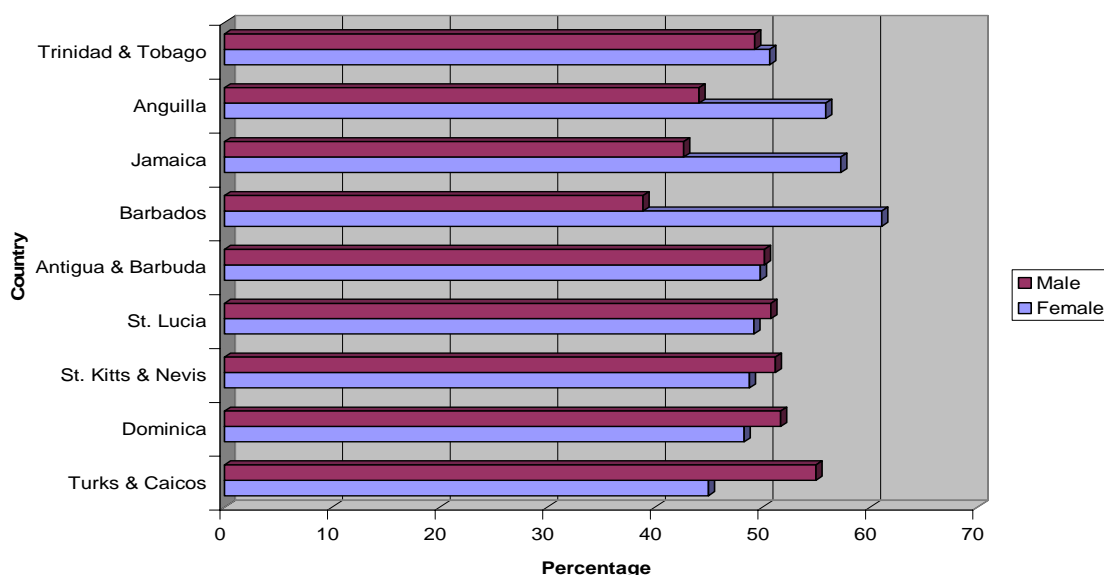
²² WP/06/25 IMF Working Paper. *Emigration and Brain Drain: Evidence from the Caribbean*. Peachi Mishra. <http://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/wp/2006/wp0625.pdf>

²³ Karoline Schmid. Migration in the Caribbean: Brain-Drain – Remittances – Diaspora. ECLAC Subregional Headquarters for the Caribbean. <http://www.ilocarib.org.tt/portal/images/stories/contenido/pdf/Migration/Migration%20in%20the%20Caribbean%20-%20Dr.%20Karoline%20Schmid.pdf>

²⁴ Bailey, B. & Ricketts, H. 2007. Caribbean Labour Markets: Potential of the CSME for Reducing Gender Disparities. in: (eds.) Hall, K. & Chuck-A-Sang, M. *CARICOM Single Market and Economy: Genesis and Prognosis*. Kingston, Jamaica. Ian Randle Publishers.

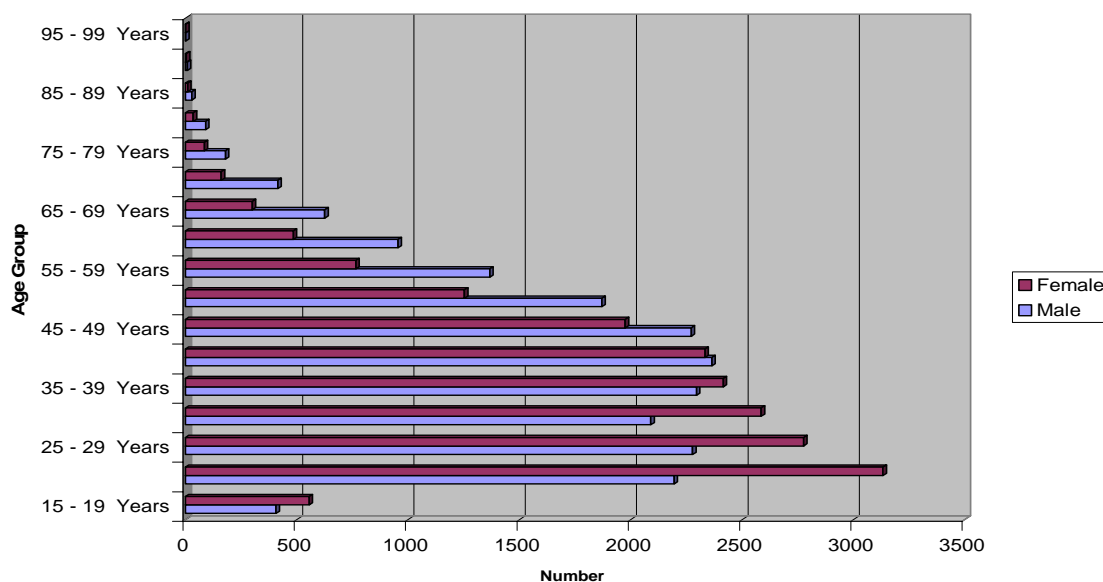
indicating that in spite of increasing numbers of females seizing opportunities for education at the UWI and other tertiary level institutions over the last two and a half decades, the overall gender gap in these countries has not yet closed. Conversely, in four of the countries there was a female advantage (See Figure 2.13).

Figure 2.13: Sex Composition of Overall Population 10 years or older with University Qualification by Country and Sex²⁵



²⁵ *Women and Men in CARICOM Member States: Labour Market Statistics*. Volume 1 Data Series for 1980, 1990 and 2000. Caribbean Community (CARICOM) Secretariat. Georgetown, Guyana. February 2006.

Figure 2.14: Number of persons 15-64 having University Qualifications by Sex and Age, Trinidad & Tobago²⁶



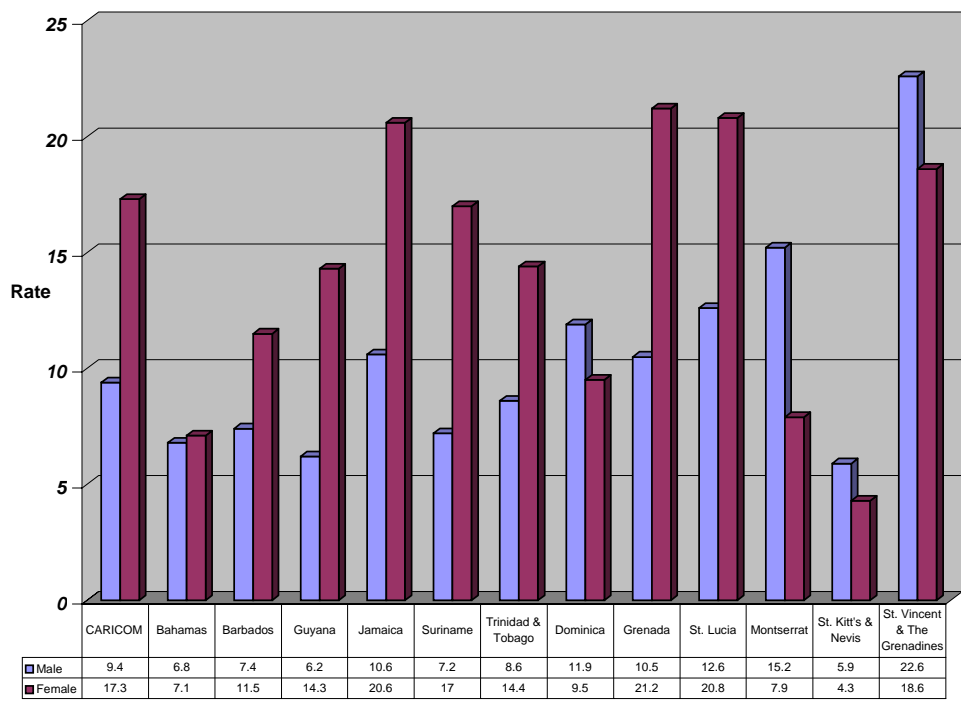
However, when these data are disaggregated as with Trinidad and Tobago²⁷ where the gender parity index was close to parity (1.03) it was clear that, in keeping with the shift towards the feminisation of higher education over the last two decades, in the younger age ranges, that is, 15 to 39 years old, more females than males report having a University education while the gender gap favoured males in the older age bands, 45 years and older (See Figure 2.14).

Bailey and Ricketts argue that the potential for movement by either sex has to be pitted against the likelihood of persons holding university degrees readily finding employment in the receiving country. They contend that, in this regard, the cards are heavily stacked against females on two counts. In the first instance, with the exception of Dominica, Montserrat, St. Kitts and Nevis and St. Vincent and the Grenadines, unemployment rates for the 15 or over age group in remaining CARICOM member states (no data were available for Antigua and Barbuda) are higher for females than males (See Figure 2.15); and in many instances the gap approximated a 2:1 ratio.

²⁶ *Women and Men in CARICOM Member States: Labour Market Statistics. op. cit.*

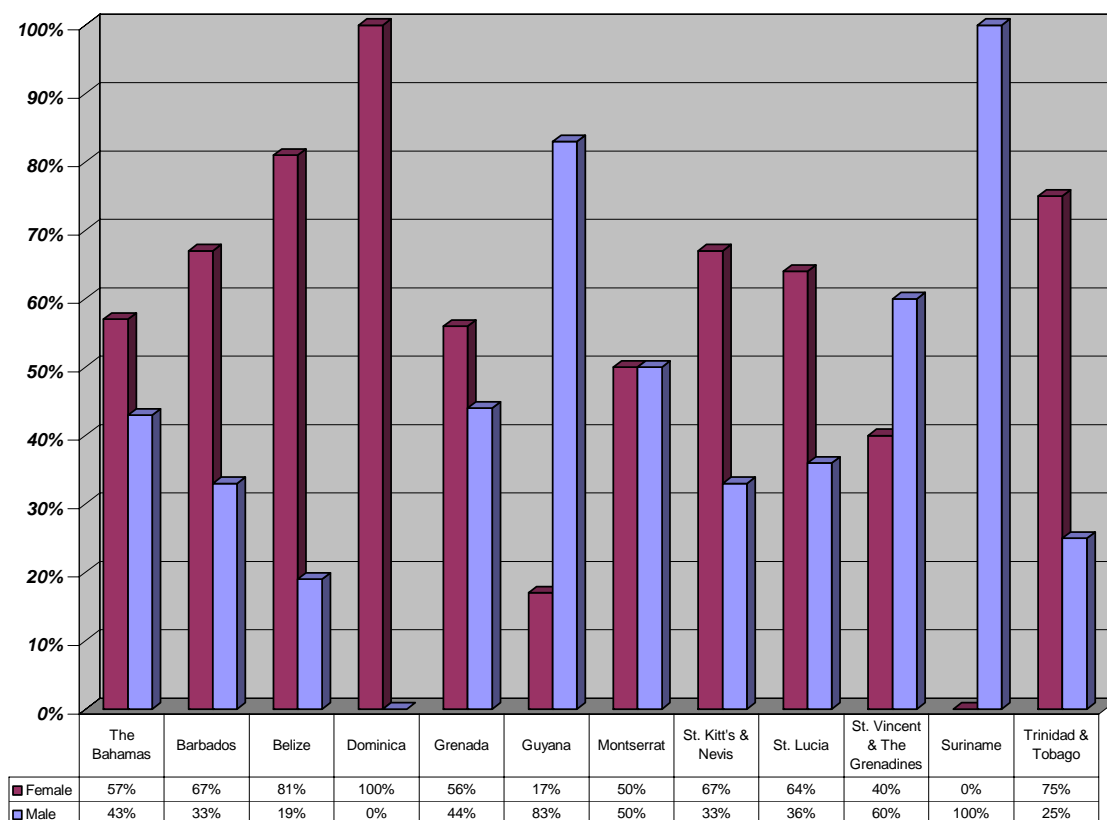
²⁷ Source: 2001 Population and Housing Census

Figure 2.15: Unemployment rates 15 years or over in CARICOM Member States by Sex and Country: Latest Year Available



Added to this, Bailey and Ricketts provide data which show that for eight of twelve CARICOM countries, of persons in the unemployed labour force holding university degrees, the majority were female (See Figure 2.16). They therefore assume that these countries are unable to absorb their own nationals who hold university degrees into paid work in the formal labour market; and, although depending on the areas of certification, would be unlikely to have openings to receive graduates from other CARICOM countries. In this regard, women, more so than men would be affected.

Figure 2.16: Sex Composition of Unemployed Labour Force with University Level Education



In eight of the twelve countries there were more unemployed females with university level education than there were males. Two factors probably account for these patterns. Firstly, in many Anglophone Caribbean countries, tertiary level education is dominated by females. Secondly, these patterns substantiate the claim made by Bailey (2009)²⁸ that education does not carry the same social currency for males and females. Across the CARICOM region, males, regardless of level of education, are more readily absorbed into formal labour markets, hence higher unemployment rates for women than for men in many countries (See Figure 2.4).

²⁸ Bailey. B. 2009. *Caribbean Education Systems Then & Now: Different Wrapping, Same Package*. Paper presented at Conference on 'Commonwealth Cooperation in Education: Looking Ahead at 50' to mark the 50th Anniversary of the hosting of Commonwealth education Conferences. Oxford University, United Kingdom.

CHAPTER 3

THE ROLE OF THE EDUCATION AND TRAINING SECTOR IN PREPARING THE WORKFORCE

3.1 Structure of the Education and Training Sector

A public system of education was established in the Commonwealth Caribbean countries as part and parcel of post-emancipation political-economic arrangements. At the turn of the 19th century popular education for the ex-slave population was established with the explicit intent of retaining the ex-slave population as a compliant labouring class. This objective was effectively achieved through the establishment of a two-tiered, dual system of education differing in structure, administration and financing, intended to maintain social separation of two populations: grammar schools, modeled on those of the metropole for children of the colonizers and an inferior elementary system for children of the colonized ex-slave population.

During the second half of the 20th century, a number of English-speaking Caribbean countries embarked on successive educational reforms aimed at dismantling its elitist nature, democratizing the system and thereby making for more inclusive provisions. In many countries this was achieved through expanding capacity at the primary and secondary level and increasing opportunity for tertiary level education primarily through the establishment of the regional University of the West Indies in 1948, then as an outreach college of the University of London. The overall intention was to increase opportunities for working class students and produce a skilled workforce that could sustain initiatives geared at accelerating development of Caribbean nation states.

It is now widely accepted that a country's or region's economy is only as strong and as competitive as the level of knowledge and skill of its population and that with the restructuring of economies globally the knowledge required to run the economy is more complex than in the past. Caribbean education systems are therefore expected to supply the skills required for the effective functioning of the economy in a competitive global marketplace. Data from the 2001 Population and Housing census are presented in an effort to assess the coverage and efficiency of Caribbean education systems in terms of supplying the skills and knowledge required to drive the engine of economic growth in the region.

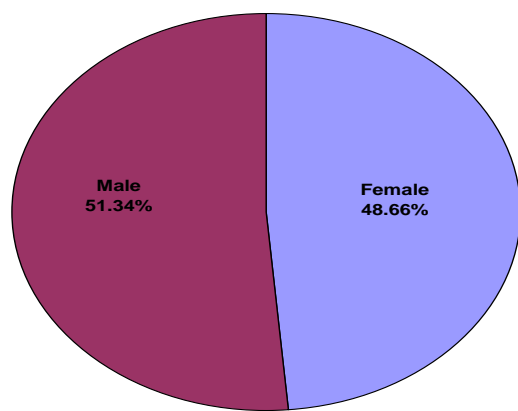
3.2 Participation in the education sector: internal efficiency

When census data for enrolment at the primary and secondary levels of Caribbean education systems were examined, the following trends were evident.

3.2.1 Primary level

Figure 3.1.

Primary School Enrolment (All Countries)



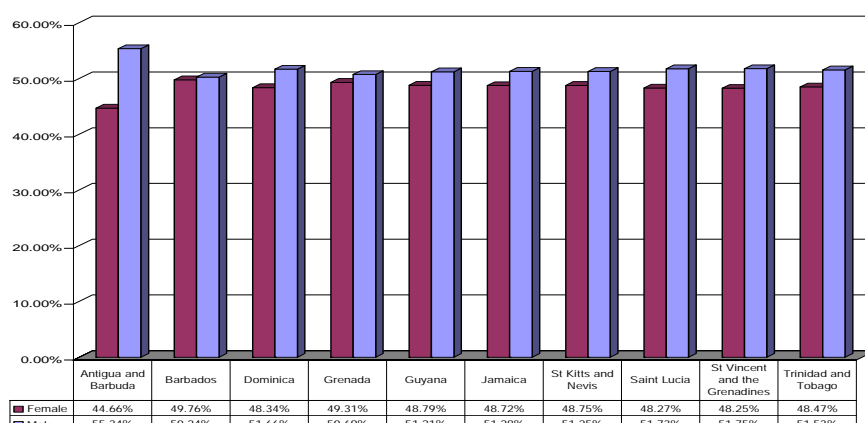
At the primary level of Caribbean education systems there is universal access and overall there was higher enrolment of males (51.34%) at the primary level of the system (Infants – Standard five) though only marginally so as detailed in Figure 3.1.

When examined on the basis of country, the gender gap was most pronounced in Antigua and Barbuda, where male enrolment (55.34%) was 10.68 percentage points higher more than that of females (44.66%). The narrowest margin was observed in Barbados, where enrolment favoured males by only 0.48% (See Table 3.1 and Figure 3.2).

Table 3.1 Overall Enrolment at the Primary Level by Sex and Country

COUNTRY	ALL GRADES		
	Female	Male	Total
Antigua and Barbuda	4,110	5,092	9,202
Barbados	17,915	18,089	36,004
Dominica	5,711	6,103	11,814
Grenada	9,518	9,784	19,302
Guyana	72,740	76,339	149,079
Jamaica	200,206	210,737	410,943
St Kitts and Nevis	3,657	3,845	7,502
Saint Lucia	13,794	14,784	28,578
St Vincent and the Grenadines	11,141	11,949	23,090
Trinidad and Tobago	94,795	100,760	195,555
TOTALS	433,587	457,482	891,069

Figure 3.2: Primary School Enrolment by Sex and Country



When examined on the basis of grade, sex and country, the pattern remained the same regardless of the grade under consideration. In only one instance did female enrolment surpass that of males, which occurred in St. Kitts and Nevis within standards 1 and 2, where female enrolment (50.31%) was very marginally higher than that of male enrolment (49.69%) [See Table 3.2 and 3.3 and Figure 3.3].

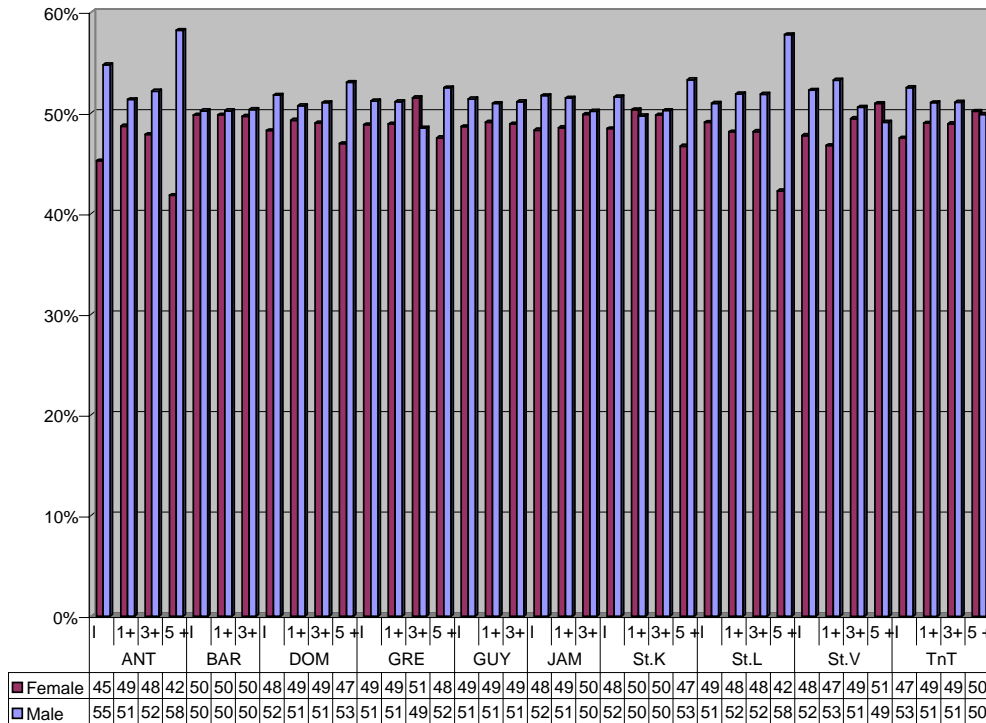
Table 3.2 Enrolment at the Primary Level by Grade, Sex and Country

COUNTRY	INFANTS		STANDARD 1 - 2		STANDARD 3 - 4		STANDARD 5 AND OVER		ALL CLASSES	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Antigua and Barbuda	768	930	718	757	822	896	1,802	2,509	4,110	5,092
Barbados	8,788	8,864	4,447	4,483	4,680	4,742	0	0	17,915	18,089
Dominica	1,346	1,444	1,402	1,443	1,483	1,544	1,480	1,672	5,711	6,103
Grenada	3,840	4,026	2,164	2,261	2,371	2,234	1,143	1,263	9,518	9,784
Guyana	39,648	41,888	17,645	18,310	15,447	16,141	0	0	72,740	76,339
Jamaica	98,836	105,854	52,737	55,934	48,633	48,949	0	0	200,206	210,737
St Kitts and Nevis	952	1,014	891	880	902	910	912	1,041	3,657	3,845
Saint Lucia	6,536	6,788	3,276	3,533	3,381	3,641	601	822	13,794	14,784
St Vincent and the Grenadines	4,736	5,184	2,511	2,860	2,578	2,637	1,316	1,268	11,141	11,949
Trinidad and Tobago	39,106	43,230	21,671	22,569	22,941	23,948	11,077	11,013	94,795	100,760

Table 3.3: Percentage Distribution of Primary School Enrolment by Grade, Sex and Country

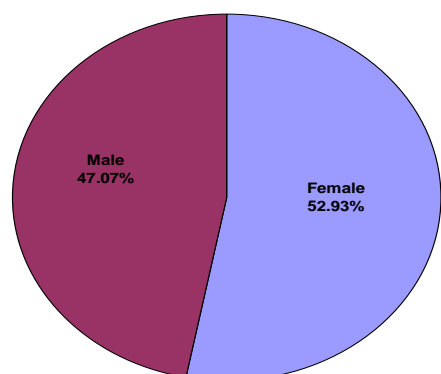
COUNTRY	INFANTS		STANDARD 1 - 2		STANDARD 3 - 4		STANDARD 5 AND OVER	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Antigua and Barbuda	45.23%	54.77%	48.68%	51.32%	47.85%	52.15%	41.80%	58.20%
Barbados	49.78%	50.22%	49.80%	50.20%	49.67%	50.33%	0.00%	0.00%
Dominica	48.24%	51.76%	49.28%	50.72%	48.99%	51.01%	46.95%	53.05%
Grenada	48.82%	51.18%	48.90%	51.10%	51.49%	48.51%	47.51%	52.49%
Guyana	48.63%	51.37%	49.08%	50.92%	48.90%	51.10%	0.00%	0.00%
Jamaica	48.29%	51.71%	48.53%	51.47%	49.84%	50.16%	0.00%	0.00%
St Kitts and Nevis	48.42%	51.58%	50.31%	49.69%	49.78%	50.22%	46.70%	53.30%
Saint Lucia	49.05%	50.95%	48.11%	51.89%	48.15%	51.85%	42.23%	57.77%
St Vincent and the Grenadines	47.74%	52.26%	46.75%	53.25%	49.43%	50.57%	50.93%	49.07%
Trinidad and Tobago	47.50%	52.50%	48.99%	51.01%	48.93%	51.07%	50.14%	49.86%

Figure 3.3: Percentage distribution of Primary School Enrolment by Grade, Sex and Country



3.2.2 Secondary level

Figure 3.4
Secondary School Enrolment (All Countries)



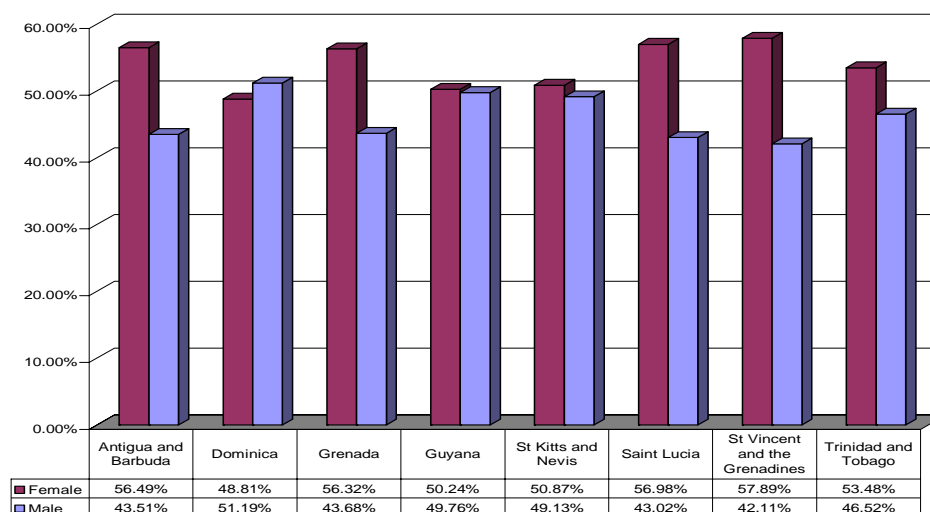
Despite higher male enrolment at the primary level of the education system (Infants – Standard five), enrolment at the secondary level favored females (See Figure 3.4).

This pattern was observed in seven of the eight countries under consideration, with the greatest disparities in favour of females in St. Vincent and the Grenadines (F: 53.48% / M: 46.52%), St. Lucia (F: 56.98% / M: 43.02%) and Antigua and Barbuda (F: 56.49% / M: 43.51%). In Dominica however, enrolment favoured males (51.19%) by 2.39% (See Table 3.4 and Figure 3.5).

Table 3.4 Overall Enrolment at the Secondary Level by Sex and Country

Country	GIRLS	BOYS	TOTALS
Antigua and Barbuda	1,458	1,123	2,581
Dominica	3,639	3,817	7,456
Grenada	5,821	4,514	10,335
Guyana	30,110	29,820	59,930
St Kitts and Nevis	2,367	2,286	4,653
Saint Lucia	7,304	5,514	12,818
St Vincent and the Grenadines	4,558	3,315	7,873
Trinidad and Tobago	65,025	56,567	121,592

Figure 3.5: Secondary School Enrolment by Sex and Country



When examined on the basis of grade, sex and country, there was generally an increasing shift to female dominance with the gap widening with progression to the higher forms. The only exceptions were in:

1. Dominica where the gender gap favoured males in Forms 3 through to 6;
2. Guyana where the gap favoured males at Forms 1-2 but with increasing female dominance at the higher levels;
3. St. Kitts and Nevis where there was parity in enrolment at Forms 1 through to 4 but a gap in favour of females at Forms 5-6 (See Table 3.5 and 3.6 and Figure 3.6).

Table 3.5 Enrolment at the Primary Level by Grade, Sex and Country

Country	FORM 1 - 2		FORM 3 - 4		FORM 5 - 6		TOTAL ALL FORMS		TOTAL
	GIRLS	BOYS	GIRLS	BOYS	GIRLS	BOYS	GIRLS	BOYS	
Antigua and Barbuda	560	514	656	475	242	134	1,458	1,123	2,581
Dominica	1,902	1,651	1,290	1,536	447	630	3,639	3,817	7,456
Grenada	2,532	2,012	2,341	1,717	948	785	5,821	4,514	10,335
Guyana	15,029	15,774	11,702	11,269	3,379	2,777	30,110	29,820	59,930
St Kitts and Nevis	1,027	1,032	972	1,006	368	248	2,367	2,286	4,653
Saint Lucia	2,913	2,247	2,898	2,169	1,493	1,098	7,304	5,514	12,818
St Vincent and the Grenadines	1,938	1,567	1,819	1,273	801	475	4,558	3,315	7,873
Trinidad and Tobago	28,126	23,779	21,087	19,785	15,812	13,003	65,025	56,567	121,592

Table 3.6 Percentage Distribution of Secondary Level Enrolment by Grade, Sex and Country

Country	FORM 1 - 2		FORM 3 - 4		FORM 5 - 6	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Antigua and Barbuda	52.14%	47.86%	58.00%	42.00%	64.36%	35.64%
Dominica	53.53%	46.47%	45.65%	54.35%	41.50%	58.50%
Grenada	55.72%	44.28%	57.69%	42.31%	54.70%	45.30%
Guyana	48.79%	51.21%	50.94%	49.06%	54.89%	45.11%
St Kitts and Nevis	49.88%	50.12%	49.14%	50.86%	59.74%	40.26%
Saint Lucia	56.45%	43.55%	57.19%	42.81%	57.62%	42.38%
St Vincent and the Grenadines	55.29%	44.71%	58.83%	41.17%	62.77%	37.23%
Trinidad and Tobago	54.19%	45.81%	51.59%	48.41%	54.87%	45.13%

Figure 3.6 Percentage Distribution of Secondary Level Enrolment by Grade, Sex and Country



This phenomenon of a shift from male advantage in enrolment at the primary level to female advantage at the secondary level has been well documented and several explanations have been advanced to account for this phenomenon. The sex differences in enrolment at the primary level is due to the sex ratio at birth, usually in favour of males in the majority of countries which impact the magnitude of the sex ratio of school attendees in the early levels of the education system favouring males. In a CARICOM publication it is also claimed that the differential enrolment of girls and boys at the primary level is also due to the fact that, at that level, fewer girls enroll.²⁹ On the other hand, female dominance at the secondary level is said to be due to:

1. sex differences in academic achievement reflected in differential rates of dropping out and repeating;
2. a later start of girls compared to boys in the primary system;
3. economic factors related to the cost of items of education which affect both boys and girls but to which the reaction is differential;

²⁹ *Women and Men in CARICOM Member States: Facts and figures, 1980-2001*. Caribbean Community (CARICOM) Secretariat. Georgetown, Guyana. February 2003.

Overall, girls therefore show a better performance in progressing to the final grade of primary school when compared to boys.³⁰

3.3 Output from the education system:

A major goal of education systems in any country is to produce a skilled and competent labour force. The education level of a population is therefore indicative of the extent to which a country can meet the demand for skilled workers and is therefore an indirect indicator of the internal efficiency of the education system.

3.3.1 Level of education of working age populations (15-64)

A review of census data for the working age populations (15 to 65 years) for eleven countries reveals that only in four instances (Antigua and Barbuda, Bahamas, Barbados and Trinidad and Tobago) did respondents indicate that they had been educated only at the infant level. However it was only in the case of Antigua and Barbuda that the figures were large enough for generating percentages and in that case two per cent (2%) of all males and one per cent (1%) of all females reported having only this level of education (See Figure 3.7).

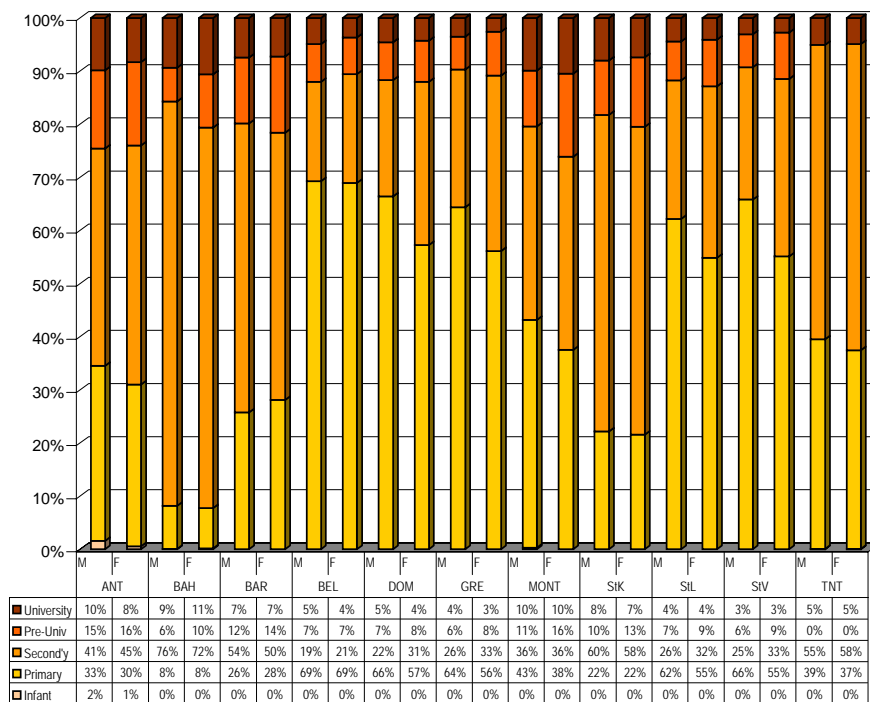
In the six of the eleven countries for which data were available (Belize, Dominica, Grenada, Montserrat, St. Lucia, St. Vincent), the majority of both males and females had only up to primary level education while in the remaining five countries (Antigua and Barbuda, Bahamas, Barbados, St. Kitts and Nevis and Trinidad and Tobago) the majority of both sexes had secondary level education irrespective of sex. In the distribution, the majority of all males and females in the working age population have primary or secondary level education. The latter group of countries therefore has a more highly educated workforce than do the former group (See Figure 3.7).

Data on attainment of pre-university level education was given for all countries save Trinidad and Tobago. Given capacity for tertiary level education in Caribbean countries, as would be expected, the percentage of males and females attaining this level of education was much smaller than was the case for the secondary level. In four of the ten countries there was just over 10% of

³⁰ *Women and Men in CARICOM Member States: Facts and figures, 1980-2001. op. cit.*

males and females who had this level of education with Antigua and Barbuda having the highest proportions (M: 15%, F:16%). The remaining three countries with similar proportions were Barbados (M:12%, F:14%), Montserrat (M:11%, F:16%) and St. Kitts and Nevis (M:10%, F:13%). The proportions of the populations having attained University level education were even smaller ranging from a high of 11% of females in the Bahamas and a low of 3% females in Grenada and males in St. Vincent and the Grenadines (See Figure 3.7).

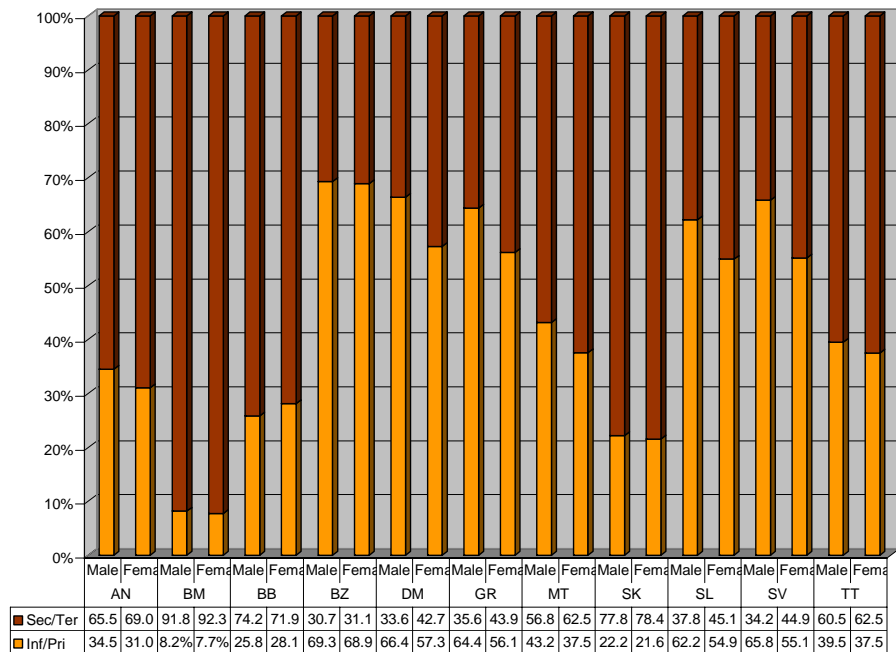
Figure 3.7 Percentage Distribution of Working Age Population (15-64) by Level of Education, Sex and Country



A further distribution was calculated by collapsing the infant and primary levels as well as secondary, pre-university and university levels in to two categories – low and high level of educational attainment (See Figure 3.8). This clearly illustrated, as noted before that in five of the eleven countries (Belize, Dominica, Grenada, St. Lucia and St. Vincent and the Grenadines) a disproportionately high percentage of both the males and female populations, that is more than 50%, had only primary level education and were therefore not well equipped for engagement in the paid workforce.

Further, it should be noted that educational attainment, per se, is not the only important consideration in assessing the extent to which a population is equipped to be productive and contribute to national development. An important consideration is the extent to which such persons have acquired skills required to support a modern economy which really is a determined not only by successful passage through the various levels of the education system but more so by the content and quality of existing school curricula.

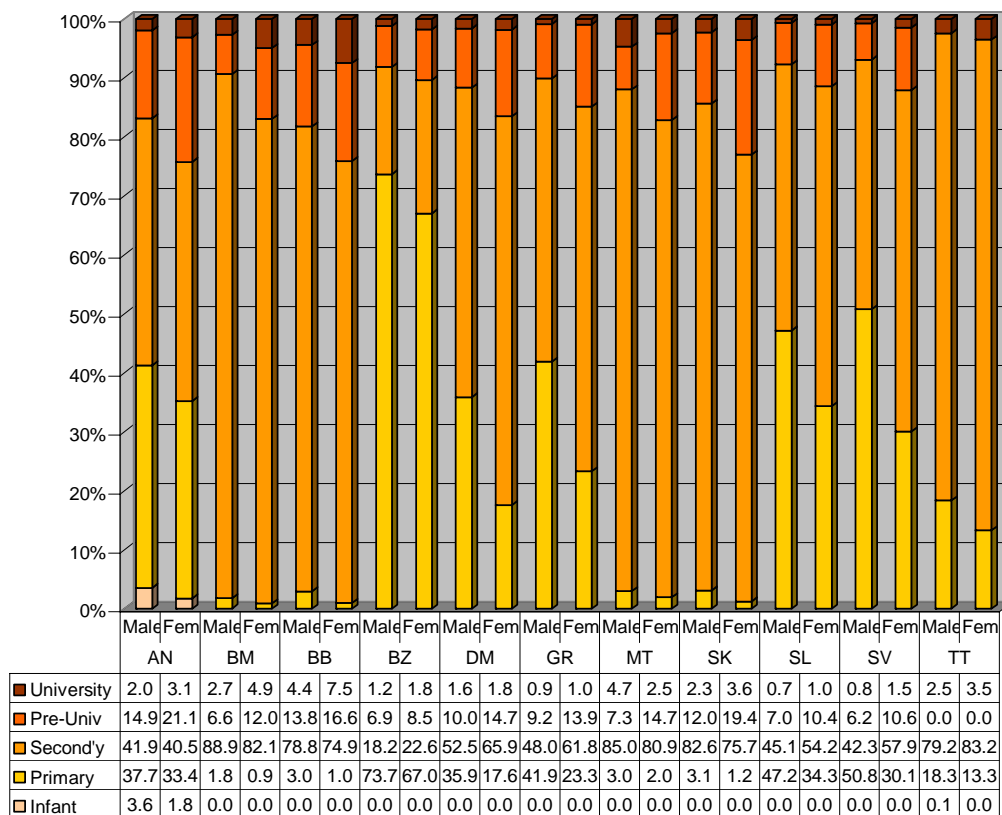
Figure 3.8: Working age population (15-64) by low/high level of education, sex and country



3.3.2 Level of education of 15-24 age cohorts

Data were further disaggregated on the basis of broad age groups and the 15 to 24 segment of the populations which represent potential entrants to the workforce as well as those already engaged in the labour market were selected for closer scrutiny (See Figure 3.9).

Figure 3.9: Working age population (15-24) by level of education, sex and country

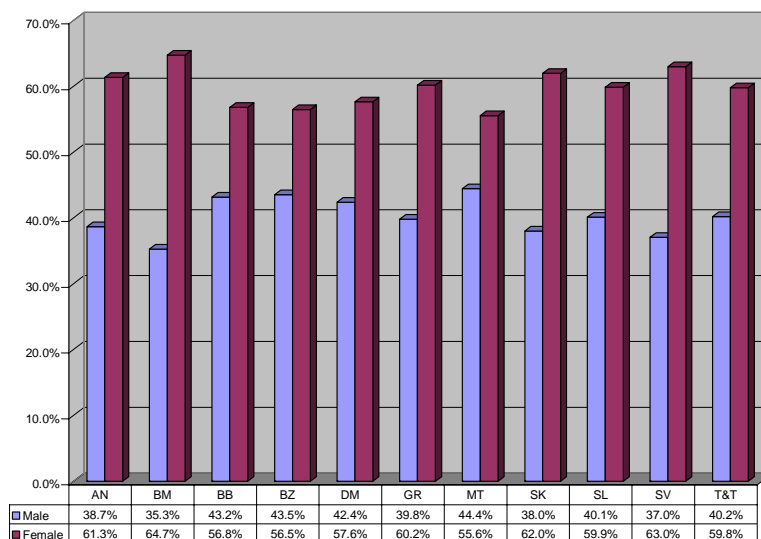


Compared with the overall working age population, generally the 15-24 age cohort was more highly educated. In contrast to the overall figures, much smaller proportions of males and females in Belize, Dominica, Grenada, St. Lucia and St. Vincent and the Grenadines reported having only primary level education. Conversely, compared with the overall working age populations, higher proportions of both males and females in those countries had secondary level education. In most instances more than fifty per cent of the populations had secondary level education with the exception of Antigua and Barbuda (M:42%, F:41%), Belize (M:18.2%, F:23%), Grenada (M:48%), St. Lucia (M:45%) and St. Vincent and the Grenadines (M:42%) [See Figure 3.10].

In the case of pre-university level education, proportions ranged from a high of 21% (females in Antigua and Barbuda) to a low of 6.2% (males in St. Vincent and the Grenadines). In keeping with the well documented trend of higher female participation in tertiary level education, in all instances, larger proportions of females than males reported having pre-university level

education and, except for Montserrat, this was also the case at the university level (See Figures 3.9 and 3.10).

Figure 3.10: Percentage Distribution of Working Age Population (15-24) with Tertiary Level Education by Sex and Country



When, as with the overall working age population, the distribution was calculated based on two broad categories, low/high level of education, as before it was evident that in Antigua and Barbuda, Belize, Dominica, Grenada, St. Lucia and St. Vincent and the Grenadines a disproportionately high percentage of these populations have only primary level education and therefore are not well equipped for engaging in the formal labour market. In every instance this was more marked in the male than in the female cohorts (See Figure 3.11).

3.4 Occupation for which trained (15-65+)

Besides providing a general level of attainment for a population the education system also needs to be responsive to the specific needs of a labour market. Available data only allowed for an examination of the occupations for which the working age population was trained rather than an analysis of the extent to which these were the skills in greatest demand.

Without exception, the largest proportion of males in the nine countries for which data were available indicated that they were trained for occupations in the 'craft and related trades'. The distribution ranged from a high of 51.4% in Belize to a low of 37.8% in St. Lucia. This response may, no doubt, be due to the fact that generally males had lower levels of formal education than did females. On the other hand, females were spread over a wider range of occupations. In keeping with the trend of higher educational attainment by females, in the Bahamas (29.6%), Montserrat (24.3%) St. Lucia (20.5%) and St. Vincent and the Grenadines (27.7%) the largest proportion of females indicated that they were trained for the 'Professional' category of work while in Belize (25.3%), Dominica (27.6%) and Grenada (25.6%) they indicated being trained for 'technical' jobs. In Antigua and Barbuda (26.3%) and Grenada (25.5%) the largest proportion of females were trained for service/sales occupations while in St. Kitts and Nevis (25.6%) this was the case for clerical workers (See Table 3.3 and Figure 3.12).

Figure 3.12: Percentage Distribution of Occupation for which trained by sex and country

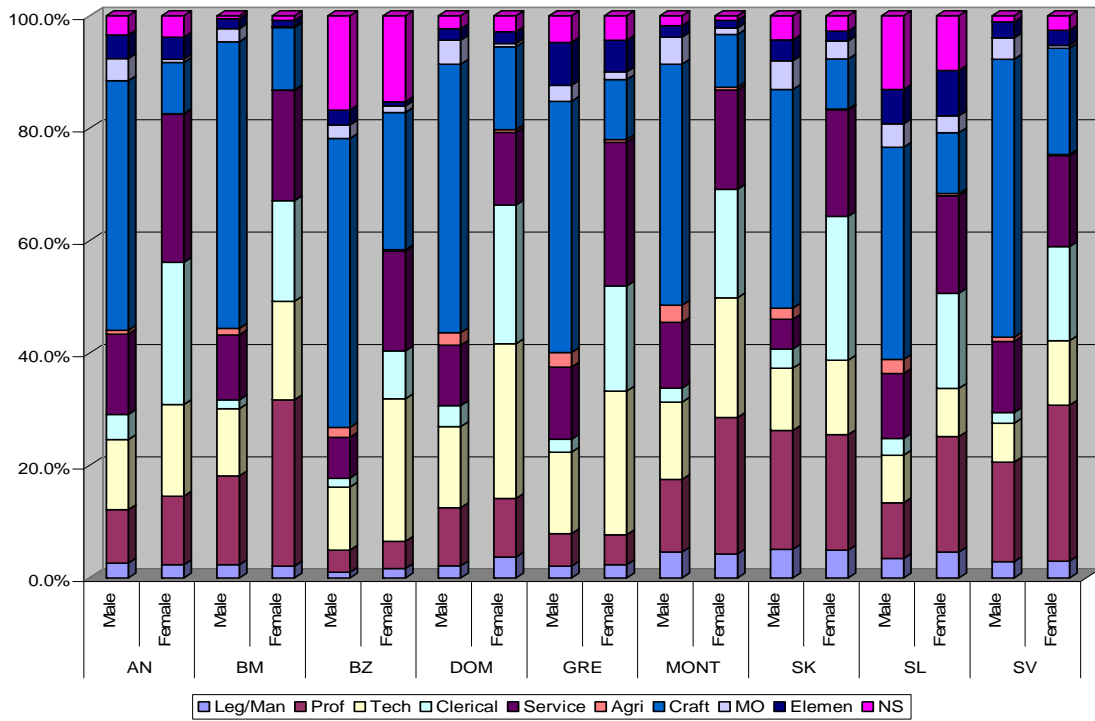


Table 3.7: Occupation for which trained by sex and country

	Antigua		Bahamas		Belize		Dominica		Grenada		Montserrat		St. Kitts & Nevis		St. Lucia		St. Vincent & the Grenadines	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Leg/Man	2.6%	2.4%	2.4%	2.1%	1.0%	1.7%	2.2%	3.7%	2.1%	2.3%	4.6%	4.3%	5.1%	4.9%	3.5%	4.6%	2.9%	3.0%
Prof	9.5%	12.2%	15.8%	29.6%	3.9%	4.9%	10.4%	10.4%	5.8%	5.3%	12.9%	24.3%	21.1%	20.5%	9.9%	20.5%	17.7%	27.7%
Tech	12.4%	16.4%	12.0%	17.5%	11.2%	25.3%	14.4%	27.6%	14.5%	25.6%	13.7%	21.3%	11.1%	13.3%	8.4%	8.5%	6.9%	11.5%
Clerical	4.5%	25.2%	1.6%	17.9%	1.6%	8.5%	3.7%	24.7%	2.3%	18.7%	2.5%	19.3%	3.4%	25.6%	3.0%	17.0%	1.9%	16.7%
Service	14.3%	26.3%	11.6%	19.6%	7.2%	17.7%	10.8%	12.9%	12.8%	25.5%	11.7%	17.7%	5.3%	19.0%	11.6%	17.4%	12.7%	16.1%
Agriculture	0.7%	0.2%	1.2%	0.1%	1.8%	0.2%	2.3%	0.5%	2.6%	0.5%	3.1%	0.5%	2.0%	0.2%	2.5%	0.4%	0.7%	0.2%
Craft	44.4%	9.1%	50.9%	11.0%	51.4%	24.5%	47.7%	14.7%	44.7%	10.7%	42.8%	9.4%	38.9%	8.9%	37.8%	10.8%	49.4%	18.9%
Machine Operator	3.9%	0.5%	2.4%	0.2%	2.4%	1.1%	4.2%	0.5%	2.8%	1.3%	4.8%	1.2%	5.1%	3.2%	4.1%	3.0%	3.8%	0.5%
Elementary	4.2%	4.0%	1.8%	1.1%	2.7%	0.8%	2.1%	2.2%	7.7%	5.7%	2.1%	1.3%	3.7%	1.8%	6.1%	8.1%	2.8%	2.7%
Not Stated	3.4%	3.8%	0.5%	0.8%	16.8%	15.3%	2.3%	2.8%	4.7%	4.3%	1.7%	0.8%	4.3%	2.7%	13.1%	9.7%	1.1%	2.6%

CHAPTER 4:

REGIONAL INITIATIVES TO ADDRESS EFFICIENCY OF THE EDUCATION/SECTOR & UNEMPLOYMENT

4.1 Caribbean economic outlook under CSME – implications for education/training and employment

Over the last two and a half decades the Caribbean has experienced several challenges to its sustainability and economic viability. The end of the Cold War signaled a loss of geo-political importance of the region and with it many Caribbean nations experienced economic decline. The loss of FDI and aid, and; more recently; the loss of preferential treatment in agricultural markets has seen the shrinkage of traditionally viable sectors of the economy. Coupled with increasing vulnerability of the tourism sector, once an economic mainstay, the region seems now beleaguered with high unemployment rates, spiralling crime, migration and its consequent depletion of intellectual and social capital. Debt service obligations, widely acknowledged weaknesses in education systems and persistent health challenges; particularly as it relates to HIV/AIDS; have all coalesced to create a situation in which our collective economic security is precarious at best.

In an effort to stem the tide of economic uncertainty, the Caribbean Community through the Declaration of Grand Anse in tandem with decisions of the CARICOM Conference of Heads of Government of 1989 as well as the 1992 *Time for Action* Report, developed the Revised Treaty of Chaguaramas as a means to “establish conditions which would facilitate access ...to the collective resources of the Region on a non-discriminatory basis.”³¹ The Treaty provided for the free movement of the labour of community members, through measures such as removing all obstacles to intra-regional movement of skills, labour and travel, the harmonization of social services (including education), the provision of transfer of social security benefits and establishing common standards and measures for accreditation and equivalency.

In this way, it was expected that combined skill and resources would foster “self-sustaining economic growth based on strong international competitiveness, innovation, productivity, and flexibility of resource use, and a full-employment economy that provides a decent standard of

³¹ Preamble to the Revised Treaty of Chaguaramas establishing the Caribbean Community, including the CARICOM Single Market and Economy

living and quality of life for all citizens; elimination of poverty; and provision of adequate opportunities for young people, constituting an alternative to emigration.”³²

Regrettably, the expected results of the arrangement are still yet to materialise and may remain thus, if assumptions and traditional customary practices and ways of thinking, which privileged certain groups over others, are not addressed and fundamentally changed.

4.2 Improving internal efficiency of the system – education/technical-vocational training reforms (including professional training and accreditation)

It is now generally accepted that in the pre and early post-independence era in the Caribbean, the provision of formal education was segregated along race and class lines with the system differing in structure, administration and financing and offering sex- segregated curricula to two distinct populations: children of the white plantocracy and those of the labouring ex-slave population.

At that time, opportunities within the labour market, though limited in scope, were largely available as positions within the public and civil service and private sector were expanding and were able to readily absorb the limited number of school leavers within the population, to whom systems of formal education catered. Then, still mainly agrarian economies, the labour market comprised mainly of semi and unskilled labour, who readily found places in the agricultural and mining sectors.

During the 1970s and 1980s, however, Caribbean nations experienced a sustained rate of population growth, which combined with educational reforms, aimed at dismantling its elitist nature in an effort to increase opportunities for working class students and produce a skilled workforce that could sustain initiatives geared at accelerating development within the agriculture and mining sectors, witnessed a record number of school leavers competing for space within a burgeoning job market. According to Thomasson,³³ the inability of the formal wage sector labour market to absorb the annual outflow of school leavers became a serious challenge facing the region. This was particularly the case for females, who - despite education reform – found themselves disadvantaged through the continued sex segregation of the curriculum at the high school level, which resulted in males being clustered in the science-based and technical /vocational areas and girls in the domestic crafts and “softer subjects” and facilitated boys’ access to decently-paid employment directly out of high school. Moreover, the fixed and rigidly defined essentialist ideas around gender identity and the roles and boys/men and girls/women

³² Girvan, Norman. *Towards a Single Development Vision and the Role of the Single Economy*

³³ Youth employment and enterprise development: OAS strategies to combat poverty in the Caribbean. Roy L. Thomasson. OAS, 1996

may legitimately assume in society, which was reflected in sex-segregated curricula, also saw males being able to better access opportunities for tertiary level training.

Given the preponderance of female-headed households, this systemic disadvantaging of women had long term implications for generational poverty and the general socio-economic development of Caribbean nations.

This inability of the labour market to absorb the potential labour force remains true, albeit for different reasons.

While the economic activity and demands of the labour market of the seventies, eighties and early 1990s were predominantly based on agriculture, mining and manufacturing, changes in the international political economy have irreversibly altered the socio-economic landscape of the Caribbean and the options and possibilities for much of the potential labour force. Globalization, with its focus on ICTs, has to a large extent displaced the jobs in agriculture, manufacturing and other industries, which were the traditional mainstay of Caribbean economies and which provided employment for large sectors of the population, particularly within the male working class. Quite possibly, the removal of these jobs that served as incentive to access education, has resulted in a diminishing valuation of schooling and the consequent decrease in male participation within the education system that is now observed regionally.

Salling-Olesen (2006) confirms the point that formal education in the Caribbean continues to be structured and perceived as a way to gain social elevation and maintain the status quo, particularly in the case of higher education, and does not necessarily impart skills related to the labour market. *“The relationship between education and business is disjointed³⁴”* as the education system remains abstract and alien to social and economic needs and structured to meet the demands of the economy decades ago, instead of creating the competencies within the potential labour force that will make it economically viable and sustainable both regionally and internationally, within the contemporary context. Additionally, the current structure of the education system within the Caribbean contributes to a perception of vocational skills as inferior.

However, as the international globalized economy continues to call for ICT and Tech/Voc skills, the importance of such skills in generating economic stability cannot be underestimated. Of equal importance is the need to ensure that the acquisition of these skills is not based on class and gender lines, which have traditionally marked the provision of education within the region, given the provision of free movement of skilled labour under the CSME and the implications to access resources and improve one’s life chances under the agreement.

³⁴ CKLN, 2006

4.3 ICTs in the knowledge society – regional initiatives

The CARICOM (Caribbean Community) Charter for Civil Society speaks to the development of an “ideal Caribbean person” with regards to the development of human capacity in general and ICT skills in particular³⁵.

One of the main pillars of the CSME is the free movement of skilled persons throughout the Region. The issues of skill development through Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) and the portability of qualifications have assumed renewed importance in positioning the Region for competitive participation in a changing global economy. It is recognised that in order to achieve this, there must be a common system and understanding of quality assurance issues at all levels of Education and Training, including TVET.

However, despite a commitment to the development of education through the efficient organisation of educational and training facilities, including elementary and advanced vocational training and technical facilities³⁶ and the establishment of the Regional Coordinating Committee for TVET, (RCMTVET), CARICOM member states have not yet collectively, as noted in the Revised Treaty of Chaguaramas, established common standards and measures for accreditation and equivalency in the field.

The lack of collective action remains ill-advised, given the rapid developments in the field and the creation of a global knowledge-based, information society, which has changed the way people live and work, the way governments govern and businesses compete and which offers new avenues for job creation and socio-economic stability.³⁷

The equivalency of ICT training and accreditation within the community is imperative in order to adequately prepare the potential labour market for the global economy.³⁸ This process, as recommended by the RCMTVET, must include:

1. Ensuring uniform provision of competency based training, assessment and certification
2. The establishment of a regional certification scheme / Caribbean Vocational Qualification
3. The promotion of career and vocational guidance throughout the CSME
4. The development of a regional labour market information system
5. The promotion of lifelong learning and the image and status of TVET in the region
6. Promoting the development of national training agencies or TVET apex bodies

35 Survey of ICT and Education in the Caribbean

36 Article 12 (Functions and Powers of the Conference) of the Revised Treaty of Chaguaramas

37 ECLAC - Youth, Unemployment And The Caribbean Information Society: A Challenge And An Opportunity

38 Introduction and Summary: The Eastern Caribbean Economy is Transforming and so should the Education System

In an effort to close the competencies gap between the provisions of the current system of education and the needs of the changing economy, a major thrust of integrating ICT must be to ensure that it is competency-based. Over the past two years, some progress has been made to focus the establishment of a harmonised system of training and certification based on the agreed competency-based principles.

The use of best-practice models is also valuable in the successful integration of ICT into the education systems. The most established system for Vocational Qualifications in the Region is that developed and operated by the HEART Trust/NTA of Jamaica, which has been very instrumental in building capacity for the establishment of other training agencies and has provided training for TVET personnel in other member states as well as certification services to workers in St Vincent and the Grenadines, Saint. Lucia, Montserrat, Grenada and the Cayman Islands

Additionally, efforts need to be made to address the barriers to the adoption of ICT, including the high cost of electrical power, the availability and prohibitive cost of internet connectivity and computer purchase and maintenance.

4.4 Improving external efficiency – development of a labour market information system

Member states of the Caribbean Community, must take immediate action with regards to ICT in an attempt to make the best use of available resources and to build competency in the area. In this regard, the streamlining of the CARICOM Skills Certificates arrangements is essential. Moreover, the establishment of standards in line with international requirements against which learners can be measured is paramount. In that vein, teaching methods and curricula should be developed to meet regional quality standards and provide training to meet demand.

These recommendations are consistent with the recommendations of the Caribbean Development Bank regarding TVET, which include suggestions to:

1. Broaden TVET and include certification;
2. Improve the prestige of TVET through higher relevance
3. Link TVET in secondary education to tertiary education to create learning pathways and career options
4. Involve post-secondary education institutions more in technical and vocational training in emerging sectors