ABSTRACT

Title of dissertation: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY OF THE PHENOMENA:
                         GLOBALIZATION AND SCHOOL VIOLENCE, AND
                         THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THEM AS
                         PERCEIVED BY VARIOUS STAKEHOLDERS FROM A
                         SUBURBAN COMMUNITY IN TRINIDAD AND
                         TOBAGO

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The present study is an exploratory one which investigates the perceptions of the

members of a suburban community, Sanaata, in Trinidad and Tobago, regarding the

phenomena, school violence, globalization, and the relationship between them. It seeks to

answer the questions: 1. How does the community of Sanaata in Trinidad and Tobago

perceive the phenomenon of school violence in the country? 2. How does the community

of Sanaata perceive the phenomenon of globalization? 3. How does the community of

Sanaata view the relationship between the two phenomena, globalization, and school

violence? 4. What other factors (besides globalization) do various stakeholders in Sanaata

perceive as contributing to school violence?

 Apart from the theoretical concepts of the local and global, colonialism and

postcolonialism, and dominance and subordination, the study is also based on discourses

and theories of macro-social development, ecological perspectives, and developmental

behavior. I used qualitative methodology inquiry for the study, employing methods of open-ended interviews, questionnaires, (limited) participant observation and document analysis to collect data for the study. Students, teachers, parents, and community members living or working in the vicinity of School S and School U communicated their perspectives via interviews or self-administered questionnaires.

The findings of the study reveal that the respondents of Sanaata perceive that globalization can influence children to engage in school violence. In addition to globalization, it was found that other factors can also act as triggers for school violence. These include home socialization of children, teasing and rough playing in school, verbal abuse, abuse in the home, drugs and crime in the community, lack of good role models and lack of social services in the neighborhoods.

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by

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Dedication

Praise and thanks to Jehovah, who is continuing to grasp my right hand.

To my late parents, Clifford and Doris Jones.

To my patient husband, Hutchinson; my reliable daughter, Sela; and my wise son, Kemi.

Their unconditional love and support have given me strength.

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My sincerest gratitude to all my sisters, Merle, Sylvia, Gloria, Beulah, Denyse and Lucille; my late brother, Arthur; and my siblings' respective families, as well as other extended family members and dear friends, who have kept in touch and who continue to be a source of comfort throughout my journey.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Background to the Problem

This exploratory study of community perceptions of globalization and school violence in Trinidad and Tobago sought to investigate the complex interrelationships among internal and external actors and institutions involved in the country's educational system. It examined the political and socio-economic contexts of globalization and community factors which are perceived to influence young people to participate in school violence in the secondary schools of Trinidad and Tobago.

Recent reports (Baldeosingh, 2015, Douglas, 2019, & Taylor-Ryan, 2016,) show that violent incidents involving students have resulted in severe physical harm to other students, teachers, and school administrators in secondary schools in Trinidad and Tobago. In addition, a recent study by the United Nations Development Programme which included Trinidad and Tobago, found that "increased youth involvement in violence has contributed to popular perceptions of growing insecurity in the Caribbean" (United Nations Development Programme, 2012, p. 45). Also, a desk review report carried out for United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) on Violence against Children in the Caribbean stated that "violence against children is both a serious and growing problem in the region" (Gardner et al., 2008, p. 3). In another study on youth violence in the Caribbean (Gentle-Genitty, Kim, Yi, Slater, Reynolds, & Bragg, 2017, p. 4), reference is made to the high escalation of violence in a number of schools in the Caribbean region, including Trinidad and Tobago. Finally, Moser & van Bronkhorst (1999, p. 1), refer to "the increase and severity of school violence in the Caribbean."

Despite the aforementioned affirmation about the increase and severity of school violence in Trinidad and Tobago, little research has been done to investigate why the schools have become so violent in the country. Thus, this study focuses on how various stakeholders (students, teachers, parents, and other community members) perceive the influence of globalization and local contextual factors on school violence. The study seeks to contribute meaningfully on the topic, to inspire further investigations of school violence, and, hopefully, to lead to eventual formulation and implementation of policy and actions to reduce the severity and high incidence of school violence in Trinidad and Tobago.

School violence is a global phenomenon which poses serious challenges to school systems as well as to students, educators, and government officials in developed and developing countries (Ohsako, 1997). For example, in the United States, the statistics on school violence describe a grave scenario for stakeholders in education. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (2017, pp. 1-5):

- There were 38 school-associated violent deaths from July 1, 2015, through June 30, 2016. In 2017, among students aged 12-18, there were about 827,000 total victimizations (theft and non-fatal violent victimizations) at school. In 2017, about 20% of students aged 12-18 reported being bullied at school during the school year. Also, in 2017, about 16 percent of students in grades 9-12 reported that they had carried a weapon on school property at least 1 day during the previous 30 days.

- From 2000 to 2017 there were 37 active shooter incidents at elementary and secondary schools and 15 active-shooter incidents at postsecondary institutions.

- Each of the active-shooter incidents at education settings from 2000 to 2017 involved a single shooter. All 37 active-shooters at elementary and secondary schools were male.

- In 2015-2016, about 12 percent of public schools reported that cyberbullying had occurred among students at least once a week at school or away from school. Seven percent of public schools also reported that the school environment was affected by cyberbullying, and six percent of schools reported that staff resources were used to deal with school violence.

- In 2017, a higher percentage of female students ages 12-18 (5 percent), compared to male students ages 12-18 (3 percent) reported being afraid of attack or harm at school and away from school during the school year.

- During the 2015-2016 school year, 79 percent of public schools recorded that one or more incidents of violence, theft, or other crimes had taken place, amounting to 1.4 million crimes. During the same school year, 47 percent of schools reported one or more crime incidents to the police, amounting to 449,000 crimes.

In another report on developed countries, the Timeline of Worldwide School Shootings (Infoplease, 1996-2019, pp.1-25) indicated that there were multiple shootings in 58 high schools and 26 colleges in the United States. There were also 26 school or

college shootings in 15 other countries, including Scotland, Germany, Canada, France, and Finland.

Ohsako looked at case studies of school violence in eight developing countries, including Jordan, Ethiopia, Malaysia, and Colombia. He observed that school violence is "occurring at a high rate in developing countries and its impact on schooling, learning and living is certainly serious" (p. 8). He concluded that school violence is not only economically costly to developing countries, but it can also affect the growth and development of young people as potential contributors to the development of these countries.

Alarming statistics of school shootings in the United States and other countries testify that school violence is a serious global, societal problem (Infoplease). UNICEF (2019, p. 1) also reports that "about half of 13-15-year-old students worldwide – or 150 million of them – have said they experience violence, such as physical fights or forms of bullying from their peers in or around schools." The annual estimated cost of all violence against children, according to UNICEF is $7 trillion.

The phenomenon of school violence is also rampant among youth in secondary schools in many Caribbean countries, including Jamaica and Barbados. Researchers (Gardner, Powell, Thomas, & Millard, 2003; Martinez, 2014; Parry, 2000; Riddell, Bailey, & Valentine, 2013) have indicated that various forms of crime, including acts of school violence, are prevalent in schools in their countries.

Trinidad and Tobago similarly experiences violence in the schools (Phillips, 2008; Williams, 2013; Williams, 2014). In fact, at a 2011 meeting of the Bureau of

International Regional Committee for the Regional Education Project for Latin America and the Caribbean (PRELAC), hosted in Trinidad, Jorge Sequeira, Director of United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organizations (UNESCO) Santiago, stated that Trinidad and Tobago was one of many countries in the region facing the dilemma of school violence. He recommended that a regional study be implemented by UNESCO to determine the root cause of this phenomenon (John, 2011).

Additionally, Esther Le Gendre, a former Minister of Education of Trinidad and Tobago, who hosted the PRELAC meeting at the time, observed that there was the need to create a "proper learning environment for all our students," as part of the strategy to reduce violence in schools. She explained that the male children in the country were disengaged and were underperforming, thus highlighting a need to make the curriculum more relevant and to develop new teaching strategies and teacher professional development to manage the differently-abled students (John, p. 1).

On a separate occasion, Mrs. Le Gendre's successor as Minister of Education, Tim Gopeesingh, concurred that "violence is on the rise in public schools" (Allaham, 2011, p. 3). The news report stated that there were 11,000 cases of students who were suspended from school over a six-year period and 3,300 students who were suspended during the academic school year, 2009-2010. The education ministry informed that it had established "a national task force on school violence which had met at least five times with various stakeholders including the National Parent Teacher Association, the Trinidad and Tobago Unified Teachers Association, and the Ministry of National Security" (p. 1).

It is clear that school violence is a serious problem in Trinidad and Tobago as well as in many countries in the Caribbean region and around the world. However, not only is school violence a global problem, but also certain features of globalization may be perceived to promote youth to engage in acts of school violence. Antonowicz (2010, p. 4), for example, argues that "violence against [and by] children in school is linked to socio-cultural traditions, political agendas, the weakness of education systems, community practices and to global macroeconomics." Also, global macroeconomic influences on countries like Trinidad and Tobago have both a longer-term history, rooted in colonialism as well as more recent developments, such as the imposition of structural adjustment and other neoliberal policy reforms.

In the context of Trinidad and Tobago, upon its attainment of independence on August 31, 1962, one founding father reflected that "…a country with a 'colonial past' cannot wipe out its history and start afresh when it becomes independent. It cannot shed completely the effects of several years of 'foreign rule' and start out as a brand, new country" (Lewis, 1986, p. 10). Moreover, as Lewis observes, "Britain did not provide any help." A decade later, the oil crisis of the 1970s caused a boon to the economy because of oil reserves in Trinidad and Tobago during this period. Subsequently, the country experienced severe economic problems when there was a bust on global oil prices. At that point, Trinidad and Tobago was subjected to structural adjustment programs similar to what had been experienced by other developing countries during the 1970s. Responding to the austere measures of the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank, the government of Trinidad and Tobago had to devalue its currency, lay off government workers, cut the wages of workers, privatize state-owned entities, and cut back on social

service programs, weakening the health and education sectors. Those measures led to social instability, with a subsequent attempted revolution in 1970, a failed coup d'état in 1990, and an increase in both severe crime in the society and violence in the schools. Hence it is reasonable for The Caribbean Human Development Report (2012, p. 15) to ascertain that:

> [T]he legacy of deep social problems such as high levels of income inequality, and inequality of opportunity, including gender inequality, high rates of unemployment, high rates of rural and urban poverty, and communities with histories of social exclusion has continued to exert an influence until today.

In addition to political and economic dimensions, the influence of globalization on school violence can also be seen to have a cultural dimension. As will be discussed in more detail in the next chapter, globalization has increased the frequency of cultural messages and images that are communicated internationally. Also, for developing countries such as Trinidad and Tobago, this means that its younger and older citizens are exposed, via mass media and social media, to the values, lifestyles, consumer items, and behaviors of the richer countries (Barbules & Torres, eds. 2000, p. 10; Held, McGrew, Goldblatt & Perraton, 2002, pp. 346-363). These messages and images may portray or otherwise encourage violent actions directly. Linley (2007, p. 2) & Rotman (2000) show that the culture of violence is spread through popular culture, and affects local crime (i.e., through the availability of guns, and so on) or may shape the local culture (e.g., the importance of possessing certain consumer items) in ways that lead to conflict, including violent conflict and crime in school. McGregor (2013, p. 2) shows that "living in a consumer society, shaped by the ideology of consumerism is a form of violence and exploitation."

Study's Purpose and Research Questions

The purpose of my study is to examine the phenomena of globalization and school violence as well as the relationship between them as perceived by various stakeholders from a suburban community in Trinidad and Tobago. My research will focus on collecting data from the stakeholders (students, teachers, parents, and other community members) in Trinidad and Tobago to discover how they view each phenomenon (globalization and school violence) as well as how they perceive the relationship between them.

My research specifically explored the following questions:

1. How do various stakeholders (students, teachers, parents, and other community members) in Sanaata[1] in Trinidad and Tobago perceive the phenomenon of school violence in the country?

2. How do various stakeholders in Sanaata perceive the phenomenon of globalization?

3. How do various stakeholders in Sanaata view the relationship between the two phenomena (globalization and school violence)?

4. What other factors (besides globalization) do various stakeholders in Sanaata perceive as contributing to school violence?

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[1] The town of Sanaata is a fictitious one allocated to a real town in Trinidad and Tobago and the names Schools "S" and "U" are fictitious as well. The designations are intentionally intended for confidentiality of the study.

Chapter 2:   Review of Literature

A social scientist from Trinidad observed that "[g]lobalization is as old as [c]olonialism" (Tyehimba, 2006, p. 1). He explained that despite its present relationship with technology and rapidly expanding economic and political interdependence, globalization is a process that can be traced back to Christopher Columbus' foray into the "New World" in the late 15th century. Also, critical cultural theorists Cvetkovitch & Kellner (1997, p. 1) observed that globalization "continues to confront local communities and traditions throughout the world influencing all levels of social life" (see also Hickling-Hudson, 2004; Irogbe, 2005; Klees, 2012; Lipman, 2007; Okafor, 2006; Schuerkens, 2010; Stromquist & Monkman, 2000; and Zajda & Gaudelli, 2008).

Undoubtedly, the phenomenon of globalization has been perceived as complex. There is also a certain mystique associated with globalization. Some researchers believe that "it lacks precise definition" and has the predilection to become a "cliché" (Held, 2002). However, Sherif-Trask's (2010) definition of modern-day globalization captures some of its basic identifiable characteristics:

> [On] the one hand, it has brought about a restructuring of economies that has opened different venues for work and social relationships. However, on the other hand, a vital aspect of globalization centers on the proliferation and spread of new images and ideologies to the farthest reaches of the world. Moreover, globalization occurs on multiple levels simultaneously. It is realized on local, national, and transnational levels, and is accompanied by a compression of time. As information

spreads ever more quickly, the impact of globalization can be felt immediately. (p. vi)

Moreover, Cvetkovitch & Kellner (1997) explain that:

Both modern and post-modern theorists argue that the world is organized by increasing globalization which is strengthening the dominance of a world capitalistic system supplanting the primacy of the nation state by transnational corporations and organizations, and eroding local cultures and traditions through a global culture ... Yet an equally wide range of theorists have argued that the proliferation of difference and the shift to more local discourses and practices define the contemporary scene and that theory and politics should shift from the level of globalization and its totalizing and reductive macro-theories to focus on the local, the specific, the particular, the heterogeneous and the micro-level of everyday experience. (p. 1)

Cvetkovitch & Kellner make two particularly important points in deconstructing the contemporary globalization process on world systems. On one hand, the authors reveal that globalization is transforming societies, culturally, politically, economically, and socially. On the other hand, they indicate that the discourses of globalization should include local agents and local cultural forms that are challenging globalization's transformative processes within their post-modern spaces.

In this chapter I review literature on globalization, initially discussing the economic as well as the political and cultural dimensions of globalization and then focusing the concept of cosmopolitanism in relation to globalization. I then explore the

impact of globalization on education and youth. Finally, after defining and addressing the causes and consequences of school violence, I discuss the impact of globalization on school violence.

Globalization: Economic Dimension

Undoubtedly, the core element of economic capitalist dominance today, sustained by conservative, dominant ideologies, also gives globalization its identity and focus. The "restructuring of economies" due to globalization has been accomplished through neoliberal dogmas set in the late 20th century, circa the 1980s and 1990s, by elite, conservative, shrewd, global actors. These include former British Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher and her administration's "There Is No Alternative" (TINA) ideology as well as former US President Ronald Reagan and his privatized, "Washington Consensus"-type initiatives – all coined, developed and implemented by economists like Milton Friedman and John Williamson. The focus of those actors had been to maintain the status quo in their affluent nations and in the world more generally. Furthermore, Scholte (2005) has pointed out that neoliberalism, an important, conservative arm of globalization, "has thrived in an environment dominated by rationalist constructions of knowledge" (p. 8). He argued that neoliberalism has been furthered through the consolidation of a global managerial class, establishing "trans-border elite bonds that have interlinked powerful, official, corporate and intellectual circles" (p. 8).

Some critics of globalization (George, 2000; Heron, 2008; Shah, 2013) acknowledge that its neoliberal policies, including liberalization, deregulation and privatization, are critically and strategically devised to uphold the existing state of affairs in the global political economy and that they have introduced – or exacerbated –

economic, social and cultural inequalities in diverse societies. They point out, for example, that most loans for development given to developing countries, explicitly or implicitly, have been tied to Structural Adjustment Programs (SAPs) imposed by lending agencies like the IMF and the World Bank. As Scholte (2005) explains, these programs "impose wage and price controls, subsidies, fixed exchange rates, a number of taxes and fees on business, and progressive taxation of personal income," leading to the exacerbation of poverty in struggling economies (p. 8).

Globalization: Political and Cultural Dimensions

In addition to the economic dimension of globalization, attention has also focused on its political and cultural dimensions. Globalization poses threats to the power and sovereignty of nation states, given the emergence of new sites of transnational politics centered in global cities as well as international organizations such as non-governmental organizations (NGOs), the United Nations agencies, and transnational corporations (Hoogvelt, 1997).

Marsella (2005) also concluded that in "today's world, the major sources or drivers of globalization are transcultural communication media, capital flow, transportation, tourism, and military and security alliances, all of which are generating new and unpredictable levels of interdependency" (p. 15). He indicated that although the "emergence of increased Chinese and Indian political, economic, and military power have changed the chemistry of events and forces shaping globalization, Western governmental, commercial, military and religious interests are still controlling international markets, capital flow, commercial ownership and cultural identities" (p. 16). He identified this process as "hegemonic" because it "constitutes a serious challenge to

developing nations and traditional cultures since it locates the power for molding national policies and decisions in the hands of 'foreign' interests. It also pressures minority populations in developed nations to assimilate and conform to the dominant culture" (p. 2). He revealed the major actors in "hegemonic" globalization to be the "Davos" faction, that is, those who are involved in the annual meeting of the World Economic Forum which takes place in Davos, Switzerland. They include leaders of North American and Western European nations and their satellite nation partners, media, national and international financial institutions (e.g., World Bank, the IMF, World Trade Organization [WTO]), and multinational corporations which hold no national loyalty (p.16).

Consequently, Marsella (2005) has voiced a serious concern that "hegemonic" globalization imposes values associated with the United States and other Western countries, which are immensely powerful and are eagerly appropriated by youth around the world. Some of these values include fast food, personal electronics, clothing styles, entertainment, and languages which encapsulate "potent cultural communications about morality, identity and life priorities" (p. 17). From a positive perspective, the author stated that "hegemonic" globalization has led to "increases in [gross national product (GNP)], national wealth, social mobility, job opportunities, and choices and improvements in health care, levels of living and the imposition of human rights policies in developing countries" (p. 4). However, on the contrary, Marsella argued that the "increases" inevitably led to the co-option of a Western cultural worldview, income, and social inequalities, break-down in family structure and "peer socialization" in many developing countries (p. 19).

Globalization and Cosmopolitanism

As discussed, above, globalization is a phenomenon that incorporates economic, social, cultural, technological, and educational dimensions. The negative side of globalization depicts the domination of systems of developing countries by rich countries, cultural homogenization, additional and perpetuation of inequalities and inequities within and among countries.

Cosmopolitanism, derived from the Greek word *cosmopolis*, is a school of thought that identifies a natural order of the universe (the cosmos), which is reflected in human society, particularly in the *polis* or city-state. It presents a political/moral philosophy that positions people as citizens of the world, rather than of a political nation-state (Benning, 2014). Human beings now live in a globalized world, which impacts relations among nations, as well as political, economic, and educational dimensions. In addition to being nationalistic, citizens of the world are involved or affected by what is happening in the world. They may see themselves as cosmopolitan citizens being able to affect changes globally. Modern technology and shrinking borders have, in spite of different cultures, made humans more aware of and concerned for the plight of others in the world (do Rosario Mendes Silva, 2008).

For some, contemporary cosmopolitanism promotes a positive side or an alternative world view of globalization. For example, this occurs when migrants openly assimilate into the new cultures of the new locality without surrendering their former local cultures. Consequently, the cosmopolitan would have bonded to the new community with a hybrid culture, and a transnational identity (Bordoni, 2014). Cosmopolitanism also serves to challenge the hegemony of globalization which focuses

on cultural homogenization. Nussbaum & Cohen (2002) argue that "cosmopolitan global citizens, [who] cross borders and give allegiance to the worldwide community of human beings… will ensure good relations, care, and responsibility, equally amongst all, regardless of geographic barriers and borders." Also, Brian (2017) mentions that Appiah (2010) views cosmopolitanism as a moral good which allows people to strive for what is best for humankind as a whole while accepting the different ways of life of different peoples.

Historically speaking, due primarily to colonialism, Caribbean countries have been accustomed to the accommodation of widescale immigration, emigration, and cosmopolitanism. Today, the region is subject to internal as well as external movements of persons who migrate due to various reasons, including economic and human rights. It has been reported (IMF, 2017) that 22% of the Caribbean population lives abroad. Furthermore, while half of the Caribbean expatriates migrated to the U.S., Canada and the United Kingdom, the other half moved to other Caribbean countries, such as the Bahamas, the British Virgin Islands as well as the Turks and Caicos. According to Docquier & Marfouk (2005), between 1965 and 2000, about 12% of the labor force of the Caribbean region emigrated to Organization for Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries, such as England, Canada and the United States. All of the Caribbean countries are mostly affected by highly skilled emigration and by the departure of the most effective workforce, the 20-25-year old demographic, which impacts a brain drain in the region. Furthermore, since the 1990s, the main emigrating countries are Haiti, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, and Jamaica (Faure, 2018).

Thus, because of historical and contemporary migrations – as well as the flow of information through mass and social media – the culture of the Caribbean reflects European, West African, East Indian.

Impact of Globalization on Education and Youth

Other policies that "manage contemporary globalization" relate to the perpetuation of social and cultural inequalities in societies, through the provision of private, elite education, which helps to maintain the privileged position of the upper-class. Studies show that high-level quality, exclusive, technologically oriented, and advanced education is well beyond the reach of poor students in both developed and developing countries (Hillman & Jenkner, 2004; Marcus & Hacker, 2015; Provost, 2014; Walton Radford, 2013).

Additionally, Hill (2003) has suggested that the "restructuring of the schooling and education systems across the world is part of the ideological and policy offensive of neo-liberal capital" (p. 2). Hill further expounds that some of the imperatives of globalization, based on neoliberal ideology, include "the commodification of humanity and … global imperatives of the agencies of international capital, including the destabilization of non-conforming governments, changing public and welfare services, like education, into competitive markets which introduce inequalities in education in developed and developing countries" (p. 3). Accordingly, he maintains that these inequalities provide the advantaged upper social class with superior schools, and social, cultural, and economic capital. Hill (2003) follows the theory of the late French sociologist and philosopher Pierre Bourdieu (see Blunden, 2004) that education sustains social inequalities in society by endorsing certain powerful cultural heritages through

pedagogy and curricula while disregarding others. Hill (2003) reasons further that

through the "marketization of education," rich parents have many choices in different

types of schools, a situation "which sets up or exacerbates racialized school hierarchies"

which promote social exclusion of disadvantaged, poor children (p. 7).

Moreover, McDonald (2010) maintains that inequalities in education may

influence many young people in a globalizing world to face "a delicately balanced

struggle for independence and success that is as much about constraints and limitations as

it is about freedom and opportunity" (p. 293). As McDonald (2010) puts it: "Young

people are in the process of establishing a sense of identity in what is essentially an

insecure world and this underlying instability may serve to magnify the tensions and lack

of control they experience on a daily basis" (p. 293).

Recent perceptions and discourse regarding young people reveal the dire

circumstances they encounter in a globalized world. The following excerpt from the

United Nations Development Program (UNDP) Human Development Report discusses

the circumstances of vulnerable youth in both local and global contexts:

> The constraints, opportunity, and the means by which youth negotiate transitions
>
> into greater responsibility and adulthood have much to tell us about the conditions
>
> of the local and global communities in which they live. Youth are vulnerable not
>
> just because they are young or rapidly undergoing rapid developmental
>
> transitions. Perhaps more fundamentally, they are vulnerable because they are
>
> people who live in an unequal world where the social values and institutions that
>
> permit opportunities and possibilities of all kinds are not available to

everyone…Addressing risks and vulnerabilities associated with youth means

addressing the more systematic disparities and disadvantages that diminish their

life chances on local and global scales. (Hardgrove, 2014, p. 2)

Based on the aforementioned statement, "vulnerable youth" in global and local

communities are increasingly exposed to negative, sometimes violent educational

experiences because of the inequalities that globalization is causing throughout the world.

School Violence: Definitions, Causes and Consequences

School violence is of concern to stakeholders in the Caribbean region, including

Trinidad and Tobago. It is purported that many students in Caribbean schools have

witnessed at least one physically violent act at some point in their school lives and that

many students do not feel safe in their schools (UNICEF, 2006). Eliminating violence in

Caribbean schools can become problematic. Corporal punishment which can be

considered a violent act in the school is written in the law as an antidote or disciplinary

measure for deviant school behavior in many Caribbean countries. It is also ingrained in

the Caribbean culture (in part because of the history of struggle, summarized in Chapter

3). However, under Article 4 (7) of the Children Act of 2012, corporal punishment was

abolished in the schools of Trinidad and Tobago (Trinidad and Tobago Global Initiative

to End All Corporal Punishment of Children, 2018). As a result, many parents, teachers

and even children in Trinidad and Tobago perceive that the lack of corporal punishment

in the schools has led to the escalation of school violence and that it should be reinstated,

on the assumption that corporal punishment will better control students and limit their

engagement in violent or other deviant behavior (www.corpun.com, 2001). The incidents

of homicides, wounding, as well as sexual and physical assaults in schools have risen

sharply over the last ten years and most Caribbean governments have decided to focus attention and resources toward amelioration of those problems in the schools.

School violence is a multifaceted, complex, global phenomenon. The definition of school violence includes the categories of verbal, physical, sexual, and psychological violence; social exclusion; violence relating to property; violence relating to theft; threats; insults; and rumor-spreading (Ortega, 2003). However, many concur that the definition of school violence is problematic and elusive since its characteristics are still evolving and tend to vary across different contexts in diverse countries. Debarbieux (2003) points out that the "ideological and historical" circumstances within countries determine the relevant definitions of school violence.

Thus, European countries, including France, England, Sweden, and Germany, demonstrate subtle differences in their conceptualization of school violence. For example, French researchers believe that the physical aspects of school violence are pertinent, but verbal and non-verbal acts of "incivilities" are important aspects of school violence as well. In England, Hayden (2001) argues that the definition of school violence should be based mainly on the dictionary definition of the word, "violence," which refers to physical violence. Thus, the preferred definition centers on "aggression or aggressive [physical] behavior." In Sweden and other Scandinavian countries, school violence is mainly related to "bullying behavior" or "aggressive behavior, [in which] the actor or perpetrator uses his or her own body or an object (including a weapon) to inflict (relatively serious) injury or discomfort upon another individual" (Olweus, 1999, pp. 340-355). In Germany, there is a lack of consensus on a definition of school violence, although many relate it to bullying behavior (Fuchs Marek, 2009). Furthermore, some

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German researchers are of the opinion that violence among youth in their country is related to anxiety and insecurity initiated by the process of unification within the country (Bergmann & Erb, 1997).

The definition of school violence in the United States is historically associated with theories and terminologies such as juvenile delinquency, misconduct, and anti-social behavior. Some US researchers are concerned about the interpersonal forms of physical violence, including homicide, aggravated assault, armed robbery, shoving, punching, hitting, and throwing objects with the intent to harm or intimidate another human being. They pay less attention to verbal and psychological abuse that may occur in schools (Elliott et al., 1998 and 2002). Additionally, the Centers for Disease Control defines school violence as a sub-set of youth violence and a broader public health problem (CDC, 2008).

Moreover, the World Health Organization (WHO) presents the following definition of school violence: "The intentional use of physical force or power, threatened or actual, against oneself, or another person, or against a group or community, that either results in or has a high likelihood or resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, mal-development or deprivation" (Denmark et al., 2005, p. 14). This definition is noted to be quite complex since it includes a notion of "intent," which may complicate the issue of whether an act of violence is voluntary or involuntary. The definition also includes "threats, neglect, and all types of physical, sexual and psychological abuse, as well as suicide and other self -abusive acts" (Krug et al., 2002, p. 5; quoted in Denmark et al., 2005, p. 14). It has been suggested that it might not be accurate to associate words like

"neglect" and "self- abusive acts" with school violence, since they do not necessarily occur within the context of the school setting (Krauss, 2005).

On the other hand, the United Nations' Special Representative of the Secretary General on Violence against Children, Marta Santos Pais (2018), clearly defines school violence as follows:

Intentional and aggressive behavior occurring repeatedly against a victim where there is real or perceived power-imbalance and where the victim feels vulnerable and powerless to defend himself, or herself. The unwanted behavior is hurtful: it can be physical, including hitting, kicking or destruction of property; verbal such as teasing, insulting, and threatening; or relational, through the spreading of rumors or exclusion from a group. Bullying usually occurs without provocation and it constitutes a form of peer violence … Cyber bullying involves the posting or sending of electronic messages including pictures or videos, aimed at harassing, threatening, or targeting another person. A whole gamut of social platforms, including chat rooms, blogs and instant messaging are used in cyberbullying. (UNESCO, 2018, p. 1)

With regard to school violence in Trinidad and Tobago, Phillips's study (2008), titled "The Political Economy of School Violence in Trinidad: Towards a Caribbean Theory of Youth Crime," she focused on a population of 358 students from 14 junior secondary schools in Trinidad. The purpose of the study was to investigate the perspectives/experiences of the students from junior secondary schools where the highest

incidents of school violence had been reported. The students' perceptions of school violence included, specifically:

bullying or physical abuse to and by other children; stealing money, possessions and school lunch from their peers; gambling to buy material possessions or to buy food; selling and using drugs to earn money, and from peer pressure; involvement in gangs for money, status, protection, rebellion against parents, and a sense of belonging; sexual activity for material possessions, money, appreciation and social possession; pornographic videos with cell phones for money; alcohol use to relieve stress and frustration.

Officially, Trinidad and Tobago's Ministry of Education defined school violence under more general terms and categories. For example, bullying was defined as the use of force, coercion, or threat in order to abuse, or intimidate others. It was also defined as written, verbal, or non-verbal expressions, electronic means and vandalism or willful damage to the personal property of others. Other types of bullying include cyber, physical, social, and verbal. The Ministry defines them further:

Verbal bullying which incorporates the use of words to carry out an act of bullying. This includes name-calling, insults, teasing, intimidation, homophobic or racist remarks, or verbal abuse. The verbal assault may also focus on an individual's appearance, lifestyle choices, intellect, skin color or ethnicity.

Cyberbullying is defined as overt or covert bullying behaviors using digital technologies, including hardware such as computers, and smartphones, and

software such as social media, instant messaging, texts, websites, and other online platforms.

Physical bullying involves the use of physical force which includes hitting, kicking, tripping, pinching, and pushing or damaging property. It can cause both long-term and short-term damage.

Social bullying or covert bullying is designed to harm someone's social reputation and/or cause humiliation. This includes, lying or spreading rumors, negative facial or physical gestures, menacing or contemptuous looks, playing nasty jokes to embarrass and humiliate, mimicking unkindly, encouraging others to socially exclude others and damaging someone's reputation or social acceptance. (Ministry of Education National School Code of Conduct, introduction, 2018)

With regard to school violence in Brazil, UNESCO, which has been involved in research on school violence in Brazil since 1997, found that schools in Brazil have become very unsafe. It has become a challenge for them to remain safe havens for students while struggling to promote social mobility among the disadvantaged youth. Educator Jorge Werthein informs that several studies have been conducted by Brazilians and personnel from UNESCO with the intention that the grave situation in the schools can be better understood and, thus, improved. The research literature in Brazil identifies acts of violence as resulting from both external and internal factors. The external (exogenous) factors include aggravation of social, racial, and gender exclusion; an increase in groups and gangs in addition to drug trafficking; a breakdown in family

structure; and a lack or loss of space for socializing. Internal (endogenous) factors include rules and regulations systems in the schools as well as political-pedagogical projects; a breakdown in agreements on internal coexistence among students; and a lack of respect on the part of the teachers for students and vice versa. It is believed that these variables may be responsible for actions, difficulties and tensions relating to mal behaviors in school and the communities (Werthein, 2003, pp. 4-7).

Swedish-Norwegian psychologist Dan Olweus (1996) was one of the first to investigate and designate incidents of peer harassment in schools as "bullying," after great "tension and uneasiness" from mass media and the public over the suicides of three teenaged boys in Norway in 1982. Olweus (1996) defined bullying as a "sub-category of aggression or aggressive behavior intended to inflict injury or discomfort upon another individual" (p. 334). He identified the three main characteristics of bullying to be the following: the intention to inflict harm on a victim, the perpetuation of the act, and the abuse of power on the victim. He also indicated that there are two types of bullying: direct and indirect. The first, "direct bullying," relates to one-on-one, open confrontation on a victim; and the latter, "indirect bullying," refers to "social isolation and intentional exclusion from a group" (Olweus, p. 334).

Furthermore, Olweus's seminal study revealed that boys were more exposed to direct bullying than girls, especially in the secondary/ junior high classes. Girls, however, were the subjects of indirect and more subtle forms of bullying (although the study disclosed that the percentage of boys who were bullied indirectly was approximately the same for girls). He also found that "boys carried out a large part of the bullying to which girls were subjected," pointing out that "more than 60% of bullied girls in grades 5-7

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reported being mainly bullied by boys" (p. 342). Olweus explained that physical bullying was more commonly employed by boys, while girls used more subtle and indirect means like slandering, spreading rumors and manipulation of friendship to bully other girls. Olweus (1996) theorized the following:

> Typical bullies are aggressive towards their peers and adults including teachers and parents; they have a more positive attitude towards violence than students in general; they are impulsive; [they] have a strong need to dominate others; they have little empathy with victims of bullying and, if they are boys, they are most likely to be physically stronger than boys in general and the victims in particular. (p. 346)

Olweus also employed a developmental model to analyze the etiology of aggressive behavior of children in his society, too, describing the following as the main factors responsible for the development of the negative orientation of a bully:

> 1. The basic emotional attitude of the primary caregiver (usually the mother) toward the child during early years is important. A negative emotional attitude which lacks warmth and involvement predisposes the child to develop aggressive, hostile behavior later in life.

> 2. If the primary caretaker is permissive and tolerant toward aggressive behavior of the child without setting clear limits on that behavior towards peers, siblings and adults, the child becomes increasingly aggressive.

3. Power-assertive child-rearing practices involving physical punishment and violent emotional outbursts by parents may condition the child to become more aggressive, since "violence begets violence."

4. The temperament of a child may predict her/his proclivity to use violence. Thus, a child with an active and hot-headed temperament is more likely to develop aggression later in life than a child with a quieter temperament. (p. 348)

Furthermore, Olweus contended that the aggressiveness of the boys, who were analyzed using his developmental theory, was not influenced by their socio-economic status. His theoretical lens focused on the characteristics of the aggressive child interacting mainly with his peers and relating with his mother and siblings at home. No mention was made of the father. His study did not exceed those parameters to include the neighborhood or the wider community, whether local, national, or global. Although Olweus's lens did not span beyond the adolescent's home and school environments, other research literature on adolescent risk behavior supports the premise for the inclusion of the variable of community in the study of school violence.

As a pioneer in the field, Olweus has contributed significant empirical data and information about school violence. Subsequently, many researchers on the subject, such as Fortin (2003), Loeber & Hay (1997), & Morita (1996), have paid homage to Olweus by using his methods. His research findings offer a model for bullying prevention and intervention which has been implemented by practitioners all over the world. However, Olweus' pioneering study is a quantitative one. He employed a correlational design, using fixed-response questionnaires to collect data from a large population of Norwegian

youths in the 1980s. His study may still be relevant for scientific inquiry of large

homogenized groups of youth. However, in contrast, I maintain that most contemporary

youth populations throughout the world comprise more ethnically, racially, and

economically diverse students. Therefore, I believe that the demographic reality of such

populations may require an adjustment or change from a quantitative, methodological

design, to an alternative qualitative design, to accommodate relevant research of

contemporary populations.

Moreover, qualitative researchers like Debarbieux (2003), as well as Stromquist

& Vigil (1996), indicate that empirical studies on bullying in the schools, based on data

collected only through questionnaires, may not be reliable, since many incidents of

bullying, involving students and school staff, are frequently unreported by the victims.

Thus, empirical studies, which are wholly dependent on self-reports, may be considered

biased and unreliable. It has been suggested that a qualitative methodological study that

employs interviews of the subjects on their lived experiences is an alternative way to

garner rich, relevant, and credible data for knowledge building (Hesse-Biber & Leavy,

2007). Additionally, Mishna (2004) advises that "[s]ince we know surprisingly little

about the dynamics of school bullying relationships, it is vital to have children's

perspectives when trying to identify the processes involved in problematic peer

relationship" (p. 235).

Suitably using Urie Bronfenbrenner's model (1979)[2], other developmental

theorists, such as Richard Jessor (1991), and Rami Benbenishty & Ron Avi Astor (2008),

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[2] Bronfenbrenner's ecological model organizes contexts of development into five levels of external influence. These levels are categorized from the most intimate level to the broadest.

have adopted a new paradigm for research on adolescence that has been emerging in developmental psychology. Jessor (1993) explained that the field has been evolving as developmental behavioral science since it reaches beyond the traditional boundaries of psychology to encompass the concerns that neighboring disciplines have with the social environment of human action. He believed that it holds promise for a more comprehensive, more differentiated, and more situated understanding of adolescent behavior and development than has been achieved so far.

Further, Jessor (1993) divulged that "neither research nor theory in the adolescent field has much to say about young people growing up in poverty" (p. 118). He asserted that this evolving field (developmental behavioral science), which is multidisciplinary in orientation, will now be able to "articulate" the social, cultural, and economic contexts of ethnicity and poverty among adolescent youth. Previously, studies on adolescent behavior focused on white, rich, or middle-class youth, mainly in the United States and Europe. Jessor recommends the multidisciplinary orientation of developmental behavioral science because it favors research on social problems, and the utilization of proximal and distal contexts, such as home, church, school, and neighborhood. Accordingly, he maintains that these contexts all play important roles in understanding the adolescent's total experience which reflects "a community-wide ecological perspective" (p. 3).

Other ecological developmental theorists, such as Karcher (2004), have introduced an additional concept which encapsulates "a model of connectedness," showing that, "each social world of the adolescent—school, friends, family, and neighborhoods—can be characterized along a continuum of conventionality" (p. 7). This model includes contexts, relationships and activities which are structured, sanctioned, and

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supervised by adults in society. The proposed model demonstrates that when adolescents are actively involved with other people, activities, and objects in their total environments, along with a connection that produces a sense of comfort, well-being and anxiety-reduction, then they would most likely not indulge in deviant behavior. (Karcher, cited in Gerler, ed., 2004, p. 7). Critics suggest that the model should be tested by ethnographic or longitudinal, developmental research on adolescent youth transitioning into adulthood.

Francis Cullen's social support theory (cited in Regoli, 2010) also posits that "the perceived and actual amount of instrumental and expressive or emotional support that one receives from primary relationships, social networks, and communities can insulate youths from delinquency" (p. 245). His theory incorporates the wider lens of ecological development espoused by theorists such as Bronfenbrenner and Jessor as well as Benbenishty and Astor. Their theories explain that adolescent connectedness includes four significant systems that young people experience in their everyday lives. The ecosystem contains roles, norms and rules that shape development, and it includes a *microsystem, mesosystem, ecosystem* and *macrosystem*. The microsystem is the family, the classroom, or systems in the immediate environment in which the child is operating. The mesosystem is the interaction between two microsystems, such as the connection between a child's home and school. The ecosystem is the environment in which the child is indirectly involved and is external to the child's experience (e.g., parent's workplaces), yet it affects the child anyway. The macrosystem represents the society and culture in which the child is raised. The systems do or do not embed the child into a bonding process of attachment, social support, relatedness and belonging which are essential tools for successful development to adulthood. Thus, the ecological development theory looks

at the child's environment in terms of quality and context, noting that as the child develops the interaction within these environments become more complex.

Researchers (Benbenishty & Astor, 2008; Hoffman, 1996; Sternberg, Allensworth & Johnson, 2011; Stromquist & Vigil, 1996) have linked violence in the community to violence in schools. These studies also maintain that the ecological theoretical perspective of human behavior is best examined and understood in the context of the holistic environment, including the home, school, and the community. Their perspective is that a violent community influences violence in adolescents in and out of school.

The Impact of Globalization (and other Contextual Factors) on School Violence

Debarbieux suggests that there is a possible link between social inequalities associated with economic globalization and school violence. His study examined these issues in France. He theorized that economic globalization could aggravate social and economic inequities in countries, including the global North and South, and, consequently, impact school violence in some communities. He maintained that in the suburbs of France, where "unemployment combines with ethnic segregation," there is a higher percentage of incidents of school violence (41.6%) in those deprived areas than in middle-class neighborhoods (30.7%) and affluent neighborhoods (4%). He concludes that "[i]nequality in the face of risks of violence at school is one of the forms of social inequality with the gravest consequences" (p. 593).

Lipman (2007) also examined the impact of globalization in urban metropolises, especially that of the midwestern American megacity of Chicago, Illinois (population: 2.7 million). She argued that neoliberalism, the economic restructuring policies of

globalization, demand greater efficiency, gentrification, and high-level job creation in the technologically driven service industries. This phenomenon takes place in urban centers termed "Global Cities." She also maintained that while some elites may benefit from social inclusion in the Global City, many low-skilled, low-income minorities, immigrants and women may be socially excluded if they lack access to the labor market, experience inadequate housing and receive poor quality education for their children. While Debarbieux hypothesized that social inequality associated with globalization impacted school violence in the suburbs of France, Lipman's study suggests that social exclusion associated with globalization in the "Global City" can also impact school violence in urban spaces.

While studies, such as those discussed above, were based on suburban and urban centers in the global North, studies from the global South have also contributed research with a corresponding theoretical perspective. For example, in Brazil, school violence is influenced by external factors, that is, "macro-social forces" which could promote aggressive behaviors in students, culminating in acts of violence in schools. Guimaraes (1996) and Werthein (2003) observed that due to globalization and lack of socio-economic resources in the country, poor socio-economic investments in school communities have created environments vulnerable to gangs and criminal activity, creating a lack of security and safety for parents, students and teachers. Furthermore, Guimaraes revealed that "vandalism, occupying premises, damage to and theft of school equipment are often committed by groups outside the schools" (p. 208). Abramovy and Das Gracias (2002) also noted that in Brazil, outside groups have caused an "increase in the … difficulties that put management to the test and involve problems of internal

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tensions and … effective disorganization of the social order expressed through

phenomena outside school …" (p. 6).

In the Caribbean country of Jamaica, Gardner et al.'s (2003) and Riddell &

Valentine's (2013) quantitative studies have identified environmental factors and external

influences, such as the school, family, community and culture, as "antecedents" of school

violence. Consequently, both studies have endorsed Bronfenbrenner's (1979) and

Jessor's (1993) ecological models of development in their investigations to understand

the underlying factors that may lead to violence in the schools. Gardner et al. found that

students reported high levels of violence in the schools and neighborhoods, including

among their friends and neighbors. They studied the "[p]erceptions and experiences of

violence among secondary school students in urban Jamaica … based on 1710 students,

from grades 7 or 9, and aged, 9-17 years old" (p. 97). The results in the study revealed the

following:

> Seventy-five percent of the students thought that someone who was reluctant to
>
> fight would be "picked on" more, 89% thought it generally wrong to hit other
>
> people and 91% thought it was wrong to insult other people. Eighty-four [percent]
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> knew of students who carried knives or blades from such items as a scalpel or a
>
> utility knife to school, and 89% were worried about violence at school. Thirty-
>
> three [percent] had been victims of violence, and 60% had a family member who
>
> had been a victim of school violence. Eighty percent thought that violent
>
> television shows could increase aggressive behavior. Among the ninety percent of
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> children who watched television sometimes or often, seventy-five percent of them
>
> believed that violent television shows were bad for children to watch. Eighty-two

percent thought such shows make children/youth more violent. Forty-seven percent of the children thought that music could encourage people to be more violent, and seventy-five percent thought that the lyrics were responsible for provoking violence. Factor analysis of selected responses was carried out, yielding five factors: neighborhood violence, school violence, perceptions of acceptable behaviors, level of concern about violence, and general experiences and perceptions of violence. The factors varied with gender, age, grade level, socio-economic status, and school type. (p. 97)

In their research in Jamaica, Riddell and Valentine (2013) found that violence in the schools mirrors the violence in communities and the interactions between students and their contexts. They argued that the school and the community are key social contexts, which shape the identities of students through a variety of intersecting relationships. They noted that school violence results from familial, social, and educational factors, as well as dysfunctional social interactions among community members. The researchers argued that criminal activity in the community is linked to survival as it is sometimes the only avenue for one to provide a meal for themselves and their family. Finally, one of the participants in an online group, Anthea Edalere-Henderson, suggested that "the media, including television and movies, play a crucial role in providing entertainment that is marred with violence" (p. 5).

Conclusively, both Riddell and Valentine, as well as Gardner et al., revealed that school violence in Jamaica is impacted by national, community and individual intersecting relationships, but they did not investigate the influence of the phenomenon of globalization on school violence. However, Phillips and Williams (2012) focused on the

relationship between globalization and school violence in Trinidad and Tobago, examining the experiences and perceptions of secondary school children.

Phillips studied students in the junior secondary schools (which no longer exist in the country), where the highest incidents of school violence were deemed to be prevalent. Her mixed-methods study sought to investigate the students' perceptions of the root causes and outcomes of youth engagement with violence. First, she administered quantitative survey instruments to a randomly selected sample of 358 form three students from a total of 14 of the 33 junior secondary schools in the country (as listed in the directory of schools). Then, she employed qualitative methods, using focus group discussions and other participatory approaches and methods, involving local people in data collection and analysis. Her study revealed that most of the students in the junior secondary schools were victims of the "poverty complex" phenomenon, meaning that they experienced material deprivation as well as physical, emotional, and sexual abuse in the home. She concluded that stress from mental and physical abuse, and material deprivation associated with poverty, drove the students to attain physical, material, and mental comforts through gang associations and violent acts in the schools.

Phillips also maintained that both economic inequality and social inequality in Trinidad are compounding variables for school violence. She identified globalization as a significant factor contributing to increased unemployment and poverty among workers in the country, which have led to stressful and abusive relationships among families, and aggressive behavior of children in schools. In her study, Phillips mentioned that the main structures of globalization – for example, various international agencies, such as the WTO, IMF, and the World Bank – "consciously work to maintain the rule, control and

benefit of international capital" (p.45). More specifically, she pointed out that Structural

Adjustment Policies and the increase in an efficient use of technologies have contributed

to unemployment, poverty and inequality in Trinidad and Tobago. She indicated that the

concomitant economic, social, and political consequences of globalization contribute to

"growing unemployment, lowering standards of living, creating higher costs of

consumption, represent an intensification or exacerbation of pre-existing conditions under

colonialism and neo-colonialism" (p. 48).

Williams (2012) reported that adolescents within a "marginalized school

community" in Trinidad and Tobago were able to articulate their own lived experiences

with school violence, regarding its causes and solutions. His exploratory case study used

qualitative research methods, which included in-school interviews of school personnel,

focus groups discussions with students, and participant observation. At the school, he was

able to witness "practices, policies and discourses with globalized, nationalized, and

localized threads," which constituted "the thickness that is a hallmark of qualitative

research" (p. 209). In this study the students perceived school violence to be "youth-

centric," regardless of direct global macro-social influences. Williams also noticed that

although adult members of the school community were included in the study, neither the

adults nor the student-respondents acknowledged the evidence of adult-to-student

violence, which he had witnessed in the school.

Further, in Mr. Williams' 2012 study, regarding the influences of school violence,

the responses of adults and youths differed. On one hand, the students' responses

included factors such as home, community, media and peer association as exogenous

influences on violence in their school, and they consistently identified "issues related to

male gendered performance and jealousy/materialism" (p. 49) as major influences on school violence. On the other hand, the adult respondents in the school identified the personal environments of the children, including their development and socialization, as the major influences on school violence. The teachers and other school personnel did not assume any responsibility for the problem of violence in the school.

Subsequently, Williams had conducted two studies (2013, 2014), both following up on a major qualitative study on school violence in Trinidad and Tobago in 2012. In the two subsequent studies he focused on school violence from the neocolonial and post-colonial contexts in Trinidad. The two studies are "Postcolonial structural violence: A study of school violence in Trinidad and Tobago" (Williams, 2013), and "Pullin' rank: School violence and neocolonial hegemonic masculinity" (Williams, 2014).

In his 2013 study on postcolonial structural violence, Williams indicated that the main analytic in the discourse around school violence was the structural role of the school as well as the lingering impact of a "contemporaneously bifurcated educational system that was created during the colonial era" (p. 1). He theorized that the structural violence was a hegemonic neocolonial product which served to reinforce or perpetuate Trinidad and Tobago's class-stratified society and to maintain educational inequity in Trinidad and Tobago. In his other study, Williams (2014) found that students and school personnel spoke often of "pullin rank." According to him, "pullin rank" is an emic term that refers to a hyper-exertion of authority and power. It refers to a social hierarchy" (p. 1). Williams employed this term as an explanatory framework for the various configurations of hegemonic masculinity that he documented during his initial qualitative research project. He explained how masculinities intersect with school violence, not only among students

and school personnel, but also on a structural level with the country's Ministry of Education. His analysis revealed that "masculinist posturing, is in itself violent and perhaps contributory to school violence which is influenced by structural violence that has a neocolonial structure" (p. 1).

Chapter 3: Political, Economic, and Educational Developments in Trinidad and Tobago

In this chapter I focus on the context for my dissertation research, Trinidad and Tobago, giving attention to the political, economic, and educational developments. I then discuss the nature of school violence and government actions to address school violence.

Political Developments

The early global involvement of the Europeans in the West Indies began with the discovery of the larger islands in 1492 by Christopher Columbus. The violent process of colonization began with steel, swords, and gunpowder. Later on, foreign diseases and subjugation led to the demise of the native population, as European adventurers sought to make their fortunes in the "New World."

In 1498, when Christopher Columbus reached Trinidad on his third voyage, the island was inhabited by Arawakan-speaking tribal groups of people originally from the Orinoco River delta region as well as a smaller number of Cariban speakers. In the 16th century, many of these Trinidadian indigenous peoples whom Columbus called "Indians" (because they were mistaken for people living in the Asian subcontinent), were captured by Spanish slave traders and sent to work in other Spanish possessions. However, there was no effective Spanish presence on the island of Trinidad until 1592. In that year, conquistador Antonio de Berrio came in search of "Eldorado," the mythical land of gold. He took official possession of the island and founded San Jose (now known as St. Joseph), which served as the capital until 1784.

Eurocentric discourses, relations of power, and systematic violence served to define the pattern of development of Trinidad and Tobago. Even before the country gained its independence, the citizens of Trinidad and Tobago had agitated for social justice through several political and social movements. Even though the Emancipation Bill to free the slaves was presented in the British parliament in 1833, it finally came into effect on August 1, 1834. However, the slaves were not granted their freedom immediately. After a period of apprenticeship, for a minimum of four years depending on the masters' requirements, the slaves were finally able to celebrate their freedom in 1845. Thus, after the slaves were freed, three significant acts of social unrest and civil disobedience occurred in the country, under the British colonial government.

In 1845, the freed blacks took to the streets "to ritualize, reenact and share news of their newfound collective power" (Guzda, 2012, p. 2). The carnivalesque celebrations of the free slaves took place in public on the night before the white planter aristocrats would traditionally celebrate their own versions of Carnival in their homes and on their properties. Tensions arose between the upper classes and free slaves in the society, as the lower-class partygoers masqueraded, imitated and "lampooned" the prominent elites in the society. They were accompanied by drumming, stick-fighting, torches and burning sugar-cane fronds (cannes brulée in the French parlance, or in the Anglicized translation of "burning sugar canes"). Claiming that the celebrations represented a threat to public order, the British government tried to restrict the emancipated slaves from the public festivities by passing laws in 1846 and 1849, forbidding the wearing of masks and dancing in the streets at specific times. In challenging the restrictive laws, the freed slaves defied the authorities and engaged in two subsequent collective acts of civil disturbance,

known as the Canboulay (a corruption of "cannes brulée") riots. Those riots first occurred in 1881, in the capital town, Port of Spain; and three years later (1884) in another main town, San Fernando. During the riots, the masquerading ex-slaves clashed with the police and a few masqueraders were killed.

The Hosay riots also occurred in 1884. The indentured Indian laborers, initially recruited by the British government to supplant the ex-slaves' labor on the plantations, were prohibited from entering the towns with their processions to commemorate the religious festival of Hosay. The Indians viewed the prohibition to be unjust and defied the order. The British police shot into the crowd and killed 22 unarmed participants of the procession.

The three aforementioned early acts of social unrest were among the first instances of resistance against the British imperial government's edicts, which the freed slaves and other residents considered racist and unjust. The unpopular edicts caused deep resentment towards the colonial government's misuse of power in the emerging Trinidadian society.

Later, other riots and acts of civil disorder became more prominent and widespread among the British Caribbean colonies, including British Honduras (later known as Belize), Trinidad, Jamaica, and Barbados. From 1934 to 1939, the British West Indian labor unrest, comprised a series of strikes and riots, and lasted from the Great Depression to the eve of World War II. The unrest served to emphasize problems of economic and social inequality in the British Caribbean territories. The Moyne Commission (1938-39) was instituted by the British to investigate conditions in the

colonies. The report eventually led the British government to encourage "the development of indigenous party politics that would lead to self-government and independence" (Augier, Gordon, Hall and Reckford, 1975 p. 284) for some Caribbean territories.

The early episodes of unrest and push back for human rights and social justice enabled the newly emancipated slaves to adjust to their new statuses as free members of an evolving society. Economically, they had to chart their own economic enterprises since many of them did not wish to return to the brutal conditions on the estates. Politically, they realized that they had to unite and form new alliances with new leaders for national progress. Socially, they felt that they should also be able to participate freely, as well as to contribute their own cultural expressions, to the recreational, holiday celebrations of the country. Eventually, through many upheavals and adjustments in Trinidad and Tobago, the freed slaves added their unique memes to the overall development of the country.

Tobago was amalgamated with Trinidad, while retaining a subordinate legislature and separate taxes. In this way the united colony of Trinidad and Tobago was created. In 1899 Tobago became a ward (administrative district) of Trinidad and Tobago.

Unlike most of the other British West Indian colonies, Trinidad was never granted a bicameral legislature with an elected assembly. Instead, it was governed as a crown colony, with a governor and, from 1831, a legislative council consisting of top officials and so-called unofficial members nominated by the governor. After Tobago became a ward of Trinidad in 1889, the combined territories, Trinidad and Tobago, was governed

as a crown colony, with a governor and a legislative council with top officials and unofficial members nominated by the governor. The constitution of the crown colony underwent no significant modification until 1925. Decades later, during the pre-independence era in 1956, the People's National Movement (PNM) won a victory at the polls and formed the first party-based cabinet government, under the PNM's founder and leader, Dr. Eric Williams. The country attained its independence in 1962 and became a republic within the Commonwealth in 1976 (Brereton, Robinson & Watts, 1999).

After Trinidad and Tobago gained its independence, the first prime minister of the country, Dr. Eric Williams, retained his political power for thirty consecutive years. Eventually, some young Black Power advocates, who were partly influenced by the Black Power movement in the United States, gave him his first serious political challenge. Several events led to the civil Black Power insurrection in 1970. Growth in import substitution manufacturing and the economy waned in the late 1960s, exacerbating the social unrest at the end of the decade.

At a time of severe worker unrest, the Trinidad and Tobago parliament had passed the Industrial Stabilization Act of 1965. This act was the first piece of anti-worker legislation that the government had implemented. It created a schism between the government and the members of the organized labor movement. The act also severely restricted worker's rights to protest and to settle grievances. At the same time, unemployment was growing, especially among young people, many of whom had benefitted from increased access to education provided by the government since 1962. Additionally, the Transport Workers strike in 1969, which gained much support from "crucial elements on the left, including trade unionists, students and members of grass-

roots organizations" (Paisley, 2001, p. 25), was severely suppressed by the police. This further galvanized opposition to the government.

The massive demonstrations by the Black Power movement in Trinidad and Tobago came close to overthrowing the government. The imprisonment of the leaders of the movement and the government's imposition of a state of emergency eventually suppressed the movement. The political atmosphere in Trinidad and Tobago also became unstable after the death of the first Prime Minister, Dr. Eric Williams, in 1981. His successor, George Chambers, served as a one-term Prime Minister of Trinidad and Tobago (1981-1986). He was faced with the difficult task of diversifying the economy following the oil boom and bust of the 1970s. His policies were unpopular, and the newly formed National Alliance for Reconstruction (NAR) coalition won the election in 1986 and inherited a treasury that was largely depleted. Foreign reserves were dwindling, and there was a large debt burden of US$7.4 billion. To stabilize the economy, then-Prime Minister A.N.R. Robinson initiated several "belt-tightening" measures on members of the society. The restrictions resulted in increasing yearly rates of unemployment "topping off" at 25 percent, an increase of cost of living, and a 10 percent cut in salaries for all members of the public service. In 1988, to reduce spending and initiate recovery, the government had little choice but to formally enter a program with the IMF. Prime Minister Robinson also introduced the Value Added Tax (VAT) Act in January 1990.

These governmental actions promoted discontent from all sectors of the society, including the opposition party and the labor and business communities. Since the government did not communicate effectively and empathetically with the people about the need for austerity, there was a pervasive atmosphere of mass public frustration and

economic uncertainty among the citizens. The government appeared to be disconnected from the people. Marked by strikes and mass demonstrations, as well as animosity among political leaders of the two main ethnic groups in the country, the African and Indian Trinidadians, the situation in the country became dire.

The Jamaat al Muslimeen (JAM), a fundamentalist religious and politically disgruntled faction in the country, led by Yasin Abu Bakr, sought to capitalize on the exasperation of the citizens, by attempting a coup against the government in 1990. The discontent of the people with having to face much financial hardship for so long was blamed on the government leaders. The JAM saw this as an opportunity to get public support behind their plan to overthrow Prime Minister Robinson and his cabinet, who were perceived as ineffectual leaders. The JAM stormed the parliament and a local TV station. Inside both locations everyone, including the prime minister, was held hostage for several days. Looting and violence erupted in Port of Spain. Twenty-four people died during the civil unrest including a Member of Parliament. Contrary to the belief and expectation of the JAM, members of the public did not support the insurgency. The JAM surrendered after six days of negotiations, which resulted in the Court of Appeal promising them amnesty upon surrender. Thus, the coup attempt failed in its early stages (Ministry of Community Development, Culture, and the Arts, 2015).

After the attempted coup, a Commission of Enquiry (COE) was appointed to make a report on the changes in the type of crime that followed the coup. It revealed that the JAM had recruited young boys (aged 13-15) and had armed them with weapons. The COE also revealed that the JAM had "targeted the idle youth in Laventille, a suburban town of Port of Spain, under a religious veneer" (Simmons, Cheltenham, Mahabir-Wyatt,

McKenzie, & Mohammed, 2014, p. 204). The JAM had encouraged them to gravitate

towards their compounds, along with other criminal elements in the society. Once there,

many of these young people were indoctrinated and committed to Imam Abu Bakr and

the JAM and became involved in the insurrection.

Moreover, the Commission found that the criminals, who emerged from the post-

1990 coup, became hardened criminals in the society. Firearm offenses and drug offenses

proliferated after the acquittal of the JAM. After 1993, substantial increases were seen in

gun crimes, drug crimes, kidnapping, and murder. The COE believed that there was

"cogent evidence" that the JAM militants were involved in kidnapping, extortion and

murder after their release.

Additionally, the PNM government had instituted the Unemployed Relief

Programme (URP), which provided short-term employment to citizens of Trinidad and

Tobago. It was also designed to enhance the entrepreneurial skills of individuals and

community groups and to assist in the delivery of small-scale projects in various

communities. The COE found that the URP became a breeding ground for the

development of gangs in the country engaged in international trading in guns and drugs

with some South American countries. Consequently, international organized crime

became firmly entrenched in Trinidad and Tobago and created social disequilibrium. The

results were disaffection and a sense of alienation and hopelessness in the society. The

COE concluded that the bourgeoning and changing nature of crime in Trinidad and

Tobago has its origins in the events of 1990 and the aftermath, contributing to the biggest

social problems of youth crime and violence in the country. They recommended research

by social scientists to study the biggest social problems in the country which relate to

youth crime and violence in the society. The COE argued that that there was an apparent breakdown in the intrinsic value system of many young people, thus leading to widespread indiscipline among youth, including those in the secondary schools in Trinidad and Tobago.

Economic Developments

Historically, the European colonists and the 'creole' land-owning class enlisted some indigenous Indians, African slaves, Chinese and East Indians to do the work of growing, producing, and exporting to Europe. They traded valuable commodities, such as tobacco, cotton, sugar, cacao, and coffee. Sugar became the most successful crop in the "New World." There was a lucrative market for sugar in Europe, especially Holland. use Due to its large production of sugar, Barbados became the most prosperous English Caribbean island in the second half of the seventeenth century. However, sugar production declined, and slavery was abolished when it became unprofitable to produce sugar. The production of other subsequent crops, including cacao, coconuts, and citrus, also declined and the Caribbean experienced economic, social, and political instability (Augier, Gordon, Hall & Reckford, 1975).

In the 17th and the early 18th centuries, tobacco and, later, cacao were cultivated using Indo-Trinidadian labor. After a disastrous failure of the cacao crop in the 1720s the industry declined. The island remained undeveloped until the late 18th century (Brereton et al 1999).

From 1776, the Spanish government encouraged Roman Catholic European settlers who had inhabited other Caribbean islands to settle in Trinidad and Tobago with

their slaves. This immigration became significant after the Cedula of Population (decree) of 1783, which offered generous land and tax incentives and transformed Trinidad's population, economy, and society. Most of the settlers were French and, thus, the French influence became dominant. The French many of whom were planters migrated from Grenada in search of the richness of the land. By 1797, when Britain seized the island from Spain, Trinidad had begun its development as a plantation economy and a slave society (Brereton et al.,).

Trinidad, formally ceded to Britain in 1802, developed into a sugar colony until 1806-1807. When slavery was completely abolished in 1834, the sugar cane planters were unable to secure the steady, tractable, and cheap labor they needed. In 1845, the immigration of Indian indentured workers from the Indian sub-continent began. It continued until 1917. Other immigrants from the United Kingdom, countries in Africa, the Middle East, and South America also settled in Trinidad around the same time. Trinidad's population became one of the most heterogeneous in the Caribbean (Brereton et al.,).

Tobago was also discovered by Columbus in 1498. Its development as a sugar colony began when it was ceded to Britain in 1763, and continued until 1814, although its possession changed hands between Britain and France several times during these years. Tobago's sugar production peaked in the 1790s but began to wane in 1814. In 1889, when the production of sugar ended, Tobago became a ward of Trinidad while retaining a subordinate legislature and separate taxes.

Trinidad and Tobago's oilfields have been the country's greatest economic asset. Commercial production of petroleum began in 1909 and rose rapidly during subsequent years. By the time the country gained its independence in 1962, the industrial economy was mainly based on petroleum and petrochemicals.

Eric Williams, Trinidad and Tobago's first Prime Minister, was a charismatic leader who practiced "pragmatic socialism," which stressed social services, improved education, and economic development through the cautious attraction of foreign investment capital (Encyclopedia Britannica, 2019). Because of his oversight in the energy industry of Trinidad and Tobago, and the sudden rise of global oil prices in 1973, Trinidad and Tobago's economy benefitted during the period 1974-1981 and the country became the wealthiest Commonwealth Caribbean nation (Paisley, 2001).

The economic "boom" of the 1970s was followed by a "bust" in the 1980s. The 1980s oil glut created a serious surplus of crude oil caused by falling demand following the 1970s energy crisis. The world price of oil had peaked in 1980 at over $35US per barrel. In 1986 it fell from $27 to below $10 a barrel. Production in the country declined, and Trinidad and Tobago's petroleum income plunged. The country had failed to diversify its economy and was not prepared to adjust to the sharp decline in oil prices. The government had to restructure the economy, adopt IMF's severe austerity measures, and devalue its currency by 50 percent to TT $3.60 per US dollar, in December 1985. By January 1987, the government adjusted the prices of food and medicine to the new rate (Weissman, 1990). The cost of living increased significantly. Government workers, who comprise the largest sector of workers in the country, had their wages reduced and their fringe benefits, including their Cost of Living Allowances (COLA), restricted (Ramsaran,

1993). In 1988-1989, the government implemented more drastic austerity measures. It devalued the currency by a further 15 percent, placed an excise tax on gasoline, raised interest rates, slashed government workers' wages, and fired some workers. It also privatized some state enterprises, while charging higher prices for public sector goods (Downes, 1988, p. 10).

The government's austerity measures triggered social unrest. In March 1989, the country's two leading labor union groups, the Council of Progressive Trade unions and the Trinidad and Tobago Labour Congress, led a one-day strike to protest the government's austerity programs. It shut down the entire transport system, kept schools and most public offices closed and attracted the support of 40 to 50 percent of the workers in manufacturing and oil workers. During the austerity period, 1987 to 1989, unemployment among early school leavers (aged 19-24) was over 45 percent and that for older youth (aged 20-24) was over 35 percent, mainly concentrated in the capital city of Port of Spain and highly industrialized areas of Trinidad and Tobago (Downes, 1998).

Trinidad and Tobago has been facing an economic downturn since 2008, when the global financial market crashed, and the price of oil fell from $150 US to 30 US dollars a barrel. By 2010 the price was back up to $100 US. In March 2020, the price of a barrel of oil was $26.87 US. The fluctuations and decline in the global price of oil within recent times are alarming and Trinidad and Tobago may be facing a more prolonged economic crisis than experienced in the 1980s. In the meantime, the economy is in decline and the government is trying to make significant adjustments for sustainability in other sectors, such as manufacturing, agriculture, tourism, and other creative industries (Sagewan-Alli, 2016).

Educational Developments

After the abolition of slavery in 1834, ex-slaves In Trinidad were afforded the opportunity to be educated. During this period, the Church of England and the Roman Catholic Church were responsible for the education of the ex-slaves. Formal education within the English-speaking Caribbean may be traced back to the establishment of the Codrington Grammar school for boys in Barbados 1743.

After more than two centuries of British colonial rule, the educational systems within Caribbean nations continue to reflect some of the academic traditions of their former colonizer. The systems are based on the British model of formal education dating back to the 1834 Emancipation Act, which provided the first opportunity for mass schooling for ex-slaves within the British colonies. It was backed by the financial support by the Imperial Government through the Negro Education Grant, partially funded by the Mico Charity, which opened four normal schools for the training of native teachers in the British Caribbean islands, including Jamaica, Trinidad and Barbados. These schools also accommodated the less-wealthy creole planters who could not afford to send their children to England to be educated. Since the richer expatriates were able to do so, the creole planters demanded a grammar school education for their children in the colonies. Planters and merchants provided funding for such schools, especially in Barbados and Jamaica (Coates, 2012).

At the start of the 19th century, the British Government issued new subsidies or imperial grants for West Indian education (Coates). There were rapid increases in education enrollment. There was also an increase in the number of elementary and, subsequently, secondary schools. By 1841, there were approximately 186- day schools,

100 Sabbath schools, and 25 evening schools for the education of adults. Between 1836 and 1858, approximately 278 teachers were trained at the Mico Normal School. Since there was a significant shortage of trained teachers to meet the growing demand for education, in 1867 the Commissioners of Education mandated that individuals should obtain a professional certification of competency in order to be appointed as a schoolteacher. The demand for classical secondary and higher education during and after the mid-1800s was driven by the decline in sugar revenue, growth of the middle class and the increased availability of white-collar jobs to non-whites. During the latter half of the 19th century, a vast number of secondary schools were established across the British West Indies. For example, the Jamaica High School was established in 1882 in Jamaica and the Catholic College of St. Mary's was established in Trinidad in 1863 (Coates).

As secondary school enrollment increased, several proposals were put forward for the creation of tertiary education in the region. Beginning in the late 1960s through the 1990s, there was a rise in the number of higher education institutions in the Caribbean region. By the mid-970s, there was a diverse mix of over 150 higher education institutions in the region, with approximately 60% publicly or nationally funded, 30% completely private and 10 percent privately run but receive some government funding (Hunte, 1976).

The Caribbean Examinations Council (CXC) was established by the Caribbean Community (CARICOM) in 1973 to introduce and administer a regional curriculum and structure in the English-speaking Caribbean. For example, the structure of the secondary schools in Trinidad and Tobago provides three levels. First, there is the lower secondary level comprising forms one to three. At the end of form three, children sit for the National

Certificate of Secondary Education (NCSE) examination. The next level includes forms

four and five. At the end of this level children sit for examinations leading to the

Caribbean Secondary Education Certificate (CSEC) or the Caribbean vocational

qualifications. Some schools only offer education up to the second level (i.e., forms 4 and

5). More advanced schools include another two years of education for upper and lower

form six, respectively. Children in these forms are further prepared for tertiary education.

They have the option to study and sit for the Caribbean Advanced Proficiency

Examination (CAPE) and the CSEC exam. Both the CSEC and CAPE examinations are

related to the traditional British examinations, GCE, "O" and "A" Levels, respectively

(Trinidad and Tobago Ministry of Education, 2010).

In Trinidad and Tobago, post-secondary/tertiary education is available from four

major institutions of higher learning. One of them is the University of the West Indies

(UWI), established in 1948. It is an autonomous regional institution with one campus

based in St. Augustine, Trinidad. The two other main campuses are located in Jamaica

and Barbados. The other institutions are: The University of Trinidad and Tobago (UTT);

The College of Science, Technology and Applied Arts (COSTAAT); and the University

of the South Caribbean. All citizens of Trinidad and Tobago pursuing tertiary education

in approved local and regional institutions can benefit from the Government Assistance

for Tuition Expenses (GATE) program. Undergraduate students receive free tuition and

postgraduate students can access grants to cover up to 50% of their tuition fees (Trinidad

and Tobago Ministry of Education, 2010).

Despite these advances in education, there are troubling signs of a region whose

social gains are being seriously threatened by a conflict-prone and uncertain global

environment. One problem or difficulty facing the Caribbean region is the disaffection and low academic achievement among young, black males. On this topic, Miller (1986) proposed a controversial "Marginality of the Black Male" thesis, which he associates with the "marginality of place." He ascribes the feminization of the teaching profession and of the Jamaican society with the consequences of the problem of educational underperformance of young males in Jamaica. Caribbean feminists and other scholars, including Barriteau (2003), Downes (2003), Parry (2000), and have severely critiqued and disavowed the 'flawed' premise of his theory. Nevertheless, Figueroa (1997) and others (Chevannes, 2002; Parry, 2000; Plummer & Geofroy, 2010) have identified male socialization issues with the increased influence of peer groups. Those peer groups tend to have a strong, sometimes violent impact upon the codes of masculinity which play a central role in policing which masculinities are considered acceptable among adolescents.

Notwithstanding the aforementioned issues with hegemonic masculinity in the Caribbean, the problem of school violence among Caribbean youth has been recently appraised by other Caribbean scholars. Their research has identified some serious consequences that the most vulnerable and valuable citizens of the region face (Pinheiro, 2006). These consequences have been characterized as not only to include physical harm, but, as they insist,

> Long term psychological consequences may occur; whether the children are direct
> victims, observers of violence or its aftermath, or have family or friends who are
> victims. Younger children may show regression to more immature behavior. Long
> term effects may include the children themselves demonstrating antisocial
> behavior and aggression and poor school achievement with the resultant reduced

employability of earning potential. (Meeks-Gardner, Chevannes, Baker-

Henningham, & Coore, 2007, p. 4)

Critical discourse on postcolonial education argues that "the intellectual and material violence of the traditional Western model of education is still with us in the twenty-first century, part of the benev(i)olent 'gift' inherited from empire" (Hickling Hudson, 2011 p. 462).

Consequently, in a comprehensive study on the evolution of educational reform in Trinidad and Tobago, Alleyne (1996) points out that before Trinidad and Tobago gained its independence the islands existed essentially as an extension of England. "This condition determined the character of the earliest provisions for secondary education in the island" (p. 33). The colony had an educational system that had been instituted by the English for its benefits. Primary education was free for all children, but secondary education was limited and provided for a fee to children of the elites in the society. A few local high school graduates from that system obtained employment as low-level administrators, teachers, and civil servants in the colonial government offices in Trinidad and Tobago.

Alleyne also explains that the character of the early secondary schools catered to European and Creole children of the rich proprietors in the islands. These children were sent abroad to England to further their education upon graduation from the local secondary schools. The teachers in some of these secondary schools were English nationals who were sent from England to "externalize" the curriculum of their metropolis. All schools in Trinidad and Tobago fell under the jurisdiction of England.

The secondary school's curriculum focused on the classics, and included subjects like mathematics, Latin, Greek, French, German, English language and literature, English history and geography.

Despite criticisms from the Roman Catholic private school educators who initially followed the French model of education, the classical character of the curriculum in the English schools in the islands followed the English model of education of that period. This arrangement of early high school education introduced many inequalities in the society since many Trinidad and Tobago's youth were too poor to afford the tuition to attend the few prestigious British and other private secondary schools. Alleyne maintains that the existing character of secondary schools provided some upward mobility for a few local citizens who, as he described, "continued to vegetate in their 'classical' isolation from the realities of the society they were supposed to serve" (p. 46).

He also reports that the secondary schools were isolated from the primary schools, which were free and were beginning to focus on a local Trinidadian educational arrangement more relevant to the needs of the local society. However, the school fees that were charged for admittance into the secondary schools were exorbitant and catered to the elites in the society. This situation introduced a hierarchical structure in the school system in the islands, whereby the children of wealthier parents had access to secondary education and the masses of poor children received only a basic elementary education. By the middle of the twentieth century, under a system of internal self-government, school dropouts and mass unemployment even for the graduates from the elite high schools created serious problems and unrest in the society.

Prior to independence proceedings under a new constitution, a newly appointed local Minister of Education formed a committee that "proposed the establishment of Central Schools with diversified and realistic curricula" (Alleyne, p. 49). This proposal was not to be realized until the country became independent from England in 1962.

Since its independence from England in 1962, Trinidad and Tobago has pursued a strong record for human rights innovation in education in accordance with the tenets of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO, 2015), which declares that: "Education transforms lives, and is at the heart of its mission to build peace, eradicate poverty and drive sustainable development" (p. 7). UNESCO also proposes that, "education is a human right for all throughout life and that access to education should be matched by quality" (p. 27).

The new status of independence dictated a departure from the colonial government's dominant ideals regarding the English-oriented education in Trinidad and Tobago. The new national government looked forward to the creation of an education system that would focus on nation building, local identity, and formation of new knowledge, relevant to the needs of the post-independent society. The secondary school was identified as the "nexus" for shaping the new society and the basis for restructuring the educational system in Trinidad and Tobago (Alleyne).

The provision of secondary education for the masses was challenging. The national government decided to evaluate the relationship between secondary school curricula and the developmental needs of Trinidad and Tobago, by employing "the techniques of the manpower approach to educational planning to ensure that education

would fulfil its role in the social and economic development of the country" (p. 7).
UNESCO, the World Bank, and the Inter-American Development Bank were identified
as the external funding agencies for this development.

The British colonial government had given no reparations for development after
independence, and Trinidad and Tobago needed financial assistance from other
international sources to support its new, proposed educational projects. The Trinidad and
Tobago government approached the World Bank and procured three successive
allotments of funds for the purpose of building and equipping new schools. During the
1968-1983 implementation period, the Inter-American Development Bank also loaned
the government money for the construction of vocational and farm schools (Alleyne).

The World Bank stressed the need for planning in all sectors of development as a
prerequisite for loans or any technical assistance. Since the loans were obtained a couple
of decades before the Bank's institution of the Structural Adjustment policies, the Bank
conducted much of the "early sector work in education" through its cooperative
arrangement with UNESCO, with the Bank assuming the role as an over-all supervisor
(Jones, 2007). It is to be noted that during that time, there was not always a comfortable
relationship between UNESCO and the World Bank. As Jones (2007) puts it:
"Maintaining an articulation between its broader economic surveys, and sector work
undertaken in this manner, was an early and ongoing difficulty for the Bank" (p. 56).
Additionally, the Bank expected the borrowers to safeguard their own interests, by
establishing a Project Implementation Unit (PIU) in the Ministry of Education, to ensure
the borrower's knowledge and expertise of the education project. Because of its expertise,

UNESCO played a major role in this tripartite arrangement along with the World Bank and Trinidad and Tobago.

The first locally elected government officials, who had projected access to free secondary education for all in Trinidad and Tobago, conceded to an UNESCO Educational Planning Mission to the country. This mission proposed the establishment of a small but well-trained planning unit within the Ministry of Education and Culture to ensure "a relevant and balanced educational advance" (Alleyne, p. 85). With the assistance of UNESCO, the local planning unit formulated the 15-Year Educational Development Plan (1968-1983). The plan proposed the expansion of the secondary education system and the introduction of a two-tier arrangement: the junior secondary school (for ages, 11 to14) and senior secondary levels for students (aged 15-16), who had successfully progressed through the junior secondary schools. The Ministry of Education hoped that this system would give many children leaving the primary schools an opportunity to obtain "a first cycle secondary education" (pp.88-89) at the junior secondary schools.

To facilitate access, the government introduced a two-way shift system in the junior secondary school. The public junior secondary school mainly served the children who scored lower than their peers in a national entrance examination, and whose parents could not afford to pay for private education at the few elite government and religious secondary schools in the country. The two-shift system made it possible to provide access to an expanded population of students without having to increase the number of school facilities. The government also established other free government five–year secondary schools, as well as assisted secondary schools and composite schools to accommodate a

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quota of students with higher academic abilities based on their success in the rigorous, Common Entrance Examination. A few scholarships to the prevailing "elite schools" were also granted to some of the abler students who had performed exceptionally well in the examinations which allowed them to attend those schools free of charge.

Among all the opportunities for access to free education, the two-shift system in the junior secondary schools for the mass of children with lower scores proved to be the *bête noir* of the new secondary schools enterprise, because parents were upset that their children were assigned to the junior high schools due to their low academic status. They were also alarmed that their children either had to attend school very early for the first shift of classes (7:15 a.m. to 12:15 p.m.), or when they were leaving school very late from the second shift of classes (12:30 p.m. to 5:30 p.m.,) until after sunset). Another critique of the new educational arrangement was that only the junior secondary schools taught students for half of the school day. Initially, some parents supported the arrangements because they were assured by the government that this would be a temporary situation and an expedient means of obtaining free, modern, secondary education for their children.

The new curriculum and pedagogy in the junior and senior secondary schools were based on "how to learn" by "enquiry" or "industry," a qualitative change from the previous colonial government's pedagogical method of rote learning. The new schools were built to accommodate the new curriculum and introduced school libraries, science laboratories, and facilities for arts and crafts, music, agriculture, physical education, and social studies. After three years, and success through a qualifying examination, students

from these schools were admitted to the new senior secondary schools to study for the General Certificate of Education.

Some changes were also made in the curricula and structure of the older elite secondary schools to facilitate the new changes in education. The classical subjects, Latin and Greek, which were previously an important part of the English elite curriculum, were phased out, and the sixth form, the highest level at the more established senior secondary schools, prepared the brightest students for the Advanced Certificate Level examinations, which could qualify students for acceptance into tertiary education institutions.

Unfortunately, the attempts to achieve universal access to secondary schools resulted in glaring inequalities in the education structure in Trinidad and Tobago. Although the government followed its policy of Free Secondary Education for All by building many junior secondary and senior secondary schools, these schools did not carry the same reputation for academic excellence of their older elite counterparts (i.e., "prestige schools"), which have been in existence since the colonial era. According to Alleyne, the phenomenon of the "prestige school" in secondary education in Trinidad and Tobago grew out "of the peculiarities of the early provisions of secondary education and the secondary school selection procedure that was later created to preserve the fundamentals of a dual system" (p. 167).

However, the dual system perpetuates inequalities in the education system in Trinidad and Tobago. For example, by a special provision, the principals in some of the "prestige schools" could personally admit 20% of the yearly acceptance of children from rich families, regardless of the children's lower scores on the Common Entrance

Examination. This entrance examination to the secondary schools is a diagnostic tool that has been critiqued for upholding an unequal, hierarchical system. Critics maintain that along with the brightest students, some rich students who may not be as intellectually endowed (or academically prepared), but who have the means, are placed in the "prestige schools" with the best teachers and best facilities.

An outstanding reason why the government failed to change the hierarchical structure of education in the country hinged on the final stages of the implementation of the 15-Year Educational Plan, in addition to the alarming debt crisis in Trinidad and Tobago in 1968-1983. Unlike the early period of implementation, the latter years were marked by a severely shrinking budget for education due to a downturn in the economy based on falling oil prices. The government was not in a financial position to build more schools nor to improve – let alone replace – the two-shift system that was continuing to be problematic for the society. The Structural Adjustment and Austerity programs of the World Bank implemented in 1989-1991 then imposed stringent conditionalities on the government to repay its loans. With reduced expenditure, the government could not fix the deficiencies in the educational system and the problems regarding access and quality of secondary education for all became pervasive in the country. During this period (1986-1991), unemployment, poverty, crime, and violence escalated in the country. The latter, (violence), spilled over from the community into the school system and has continued to be a major problem despite advances toward economic and social development of the Government of Trinidad and Tobago.

Apart from the attainment of universal primary education in the 1950s, the realization of universal secondary education for all by 2020 was a recent initiative undertaken by the government of Trinidad and Tobago.

By 1994, economic growth in Trinidad and Tobago averaged 6% per year, fueled by high oil prices. This created substantial fiscal and balance of payment surpluses. The government pursued an expansionary fiscal policy to invest in infrastructure, education, some social programs, and national security with the aim of steering Trinidad and Tobago towards a developed country status by 2020. One of the government's medium–term priorities was to expand educational opportunities at all levels (Human Resources Operations Division, 1995).

Under the World Bank-funded Secondary Education Modernization Programme (SEMP), which commenced in 1999, the government of Trinidad and Tobago embarked on one of the largest restructuring and modernization programs of the education sector (National Report on the Development of Education in Trinidad and Tobago, 2004). Under SEMP the government proposed to seek and achieve the following objectives: 1) the reform and expansion of the secondary school system that would result in five years of high quality secondary education for all of the nation's children regardless of the social and economic status; 2) the creation of a curriculum that is relevant to the very demanding and dynamic world of work; and 3) the development of teaching technologies that will produce graduates who can adapt to the rapid changes being brought about through technological advances and globalization.

With these new proposals, the government hoped to address the issues of social class and gender inequity and inequality, inadequate technology, and violence in secondary education, all of which were outstanding problems under previous education administrations. In focusing on globalization and technological education in the secondary schools, the government began to shift the economy from dependence on the energy sector to IT, tourism and banking.

The aspirations of the government to become a developed nation by 2020 focused on the secondary schools as the developmental conduit for future prosperity of the country. Patrick Manning, who served as Trinidad and Tobago's Prime Minister in separate terms, 1991-1995 and 2001-2010, theorized that as the national economy became richer due to petroleum production, employment should move from an original agricultural base to an industrialized one and eventually to include service industries. With the prospect of movement to manufacturing and services, Prime Minister Manning envisioned the secondary schools as an effective source for skills development and abstract thinking. He also theorized that proficiency in information technology, problem-solving skills, inter-personal skills, foreign languages and coordination and management of complex tasks should be inculcated in the high school curriculum, to initiate the basis of preparation for the working environment (Manning, 2004). The Prime Minister believed that his vision for the secondary schools was "holistic." He proposed the "continuous identification and remediation work with added focus on personal/social and career development to ensure that all students stay in school, that they do not fall out of the system or that they do not get expelled because of dysfunctional behavior" (p. 41). Concerned about school violence, he instructed the Ministry of Education to employ

guidance officers to provide counseling for "at risk" youth and training in parenting skills for parents and later expanded into a fully operational student support service.

Despite its ambitious undertaking, SEMP has been critiqued by several educators and groups in Trinidad and Tobago who believe that it was not a realistic venture. One educator from the School of Education at the University of the West Indies, Saint Augustine. indicated that "our educational system and social infrastructure lack the transformational power to achieve it. [Thus,] commitment to the educational system and school, commitment to student learning, and commitment to professional development" have to be attained before real changes are accomplished in the schools (Hackett, 2005, p. 2).

Other researchers (Adoyike, DeLisle, & Seecharan, 2006) argued that the government should reduce the magnitude of inequality and limit the influence of extraneous variables such as "gender, rurality and socioeconomic circumstance associated with international assessment tests" (p. 15) in the country. This would require the establishment of sound compensatory education programs as well as radical restructuring to eliminate early tracking and streaming. Additionally, extensive retraining for teachers and other personnel in the areas of children-at-risk and special-needs education were necessary if the goal of the educational system is to help all students learn.

The discourse on the colonial origins of the education system in the nation shows that the imposition of the colonial educational structure in Trinidad and Tobago catered to the "imperialistic needs" of the metropole. I argue that the present structure of the

education system has evolved to represent a contemporary Caribbean-based curriculum and examination body. Undoubtedly, the modernization of the education system in Trinidad and Tobago now reflects the "hegemonic wants" of globalization. For example, one of the goals of the National Development Strategy 2016-2030 (Vision 2030) for the Ministry of Education in Trinidad and Tobago is: "To be the premier institution leading and transforming education through Information and Communications Technology (ICT)" (Ministry of Education, 2005 p. 11). Additionally, the Mission of the Ministry of Education states that it wishes to "establish a technology-centered infrastructure focused on enabling the education system to be responsive to the dynamic, social and, economic environment" (p. 11).

Education in Trinidad and Tobago is free and compulsory between the ages of 5 and 16. Today, the country is considered one of the most educated countries in the world, with an overall literacy rate exceeding 98%. In 1999, the adult literacy rate for Trinidad and Tobago was 94% to 95.5% for males, 15 years of age and older; and 91.7% for females, 15 years and older. This exceptionally high literacy rate can be attributed, in part, to free tuition from primary to tertiary education (kindergarten to university).

Trinidad and Tobago's education system consists of five levels: pre-primary (ages, 3-4), primary (ages, 5-11), secondary (ages, 12-18), post-secondary (including technical or vocational training) and tertiary. The Ministry of Education oversees pre-primary to secondary education. In Tobago, education at these levels is the responsibility of the Tobago House of Assembly, with which the Ministry of Education in Trinidad collaborates to ensure standards across the country. The other two highest levels are overseen by the Ministry of Tertiary Education and Skills Training (MTEST). The

Ministry of Education and MTEST have joint responsibility for the professional development of teachers.

According to UNESCO, 21 percent of Trinidad and Tobago's youth was aged 14 years or younger in 2012. Nearly 39,000 children were enrolled at the pre-primary age; primary and secondary school-aged children numbered 128,000 and 86,000, respectively; and there were slightly over 96,000 people of tertiary education age. As of early 2015, there were 126,000 primary school students. The Ministry of Education's "Education Sector Strategic Plan 2011-2015" indicates that Trinidad and Tobago has a total of 895 primary schools, secondary schools and early childhood care and education (ECCE) centers. Just over half of these (51 percent) are operated by religious denominations and receive financial assistance from the state, while 37 percent are owned by the government and funded through the national budget. The remaining 12 percent – 71 primary and 29 secondary schools – are run privately, usually for profit receiving little or no subsidy from the state. Additionally, many ECCE centers are run as public-private partnerships.

Education is quite a high priority in the country, and Trinidad and Tobago enjoys a good reputation in this regard. Nonmandatory pre-school education, which is sometimes provided by private institutions, may begin as early as age three. Primary schooling starts at age five. Children progress through five standards (grades). In standard five, children sit for the Secondary Entrance Assessment (SEA) annual examination in literacy, numeracy, reasoning and comprehension skills, and essay writing. It is a serious, competitive, sometimes stressful undertaking for families in the country, because students select first, second and third choices of all the secondary schools in the country, and the children are afforded only two chances at this exam. The public and government–assisted

schools are generally considered to offer a higher quality of education than the private schools, which are few.

School Violence and Government's Actions

Very few researchers have conducted studies on the incidence, the causes, and the effects of school violence in Trinidad and Tobago. The phenomenon has raised significant concerns in the society. School officials, teachers, community and religious leaders, parents, and students have become involved in public discussions on the matter. An article issued by the Inter Press Service Agency (Richards, 2001), entitled, "Trinidad and Tobago Vexed by School Violence," highlighted an incident between two high-school teenage girls that resulted in the murder of a seventeen-year old girl. Other incidents such as murders, rape, larceny, and bullying, have sparked discussions and debates among many stakeholders in the country (Baldeosingh, 2015; Douglas, 2019; Nantambu, 2008).

The Ministry of Education stated that the government of Trinidad and Tobago had committed "just over one million dollars to improve school safety" (Richards, p. 1). The money was used to assign security guards to 193 of the 235 state-supported, private, and church-run schools that requested protection. The government of Trinidad and Tobago was also prepared to install metal detectors which had been recommended by the government's School Intervention Strategies Initiative. However, some stakeholders (Connelly, 2014; Dottin, 2015) have suggested alternatives, like "anger management" and "peace education" to be taught in the schools. Those contributions to the debate on school violence indicate that not only do many leaders in the society have a new

awareness of the severity of the problem of school violence in Trinidad and Tobago, they are also involved in diverse activities to prevent – or at least reduce – it.

In the face of growing alarm about school violence, the Ministry of Education of Trinidad and Tobago (Thomas, 2004) reported that it was "painfully aware of the tension, indiscipline and violence in the school system and the national community" (p. 1). Guided by the recommendations of the National Consultation and Implementation Committees of Trinidad and Tobago, the Ministry of Education invited representatives from the Arizona State University's School of Criminology to train school-based officers and administrators in developing comprehensive integrated and evidence-based violence prevention plans tailored to the needs of the specific schools.

During that time, a coalition body established by the country's Ministry of Education, called the Trinidad and Tobago Violence Prevention Academy (TTVPA), initiated a survey which substantiated claims that school violence and associated crime had increased in the country. The survey showed that in one year's time, 35% of students reported that they did not feel safe in school, 21% had been threatened or injured with a weapon on school property, and 12% had not gone to school in the prior 30 days of feeling unsafe at school (Trinidad and Tobago Youth Survey Report, 2006, p. 1).

Moreover, the TTVPA launched a program at the end of which the major findings showed that there was a drop in crime in the schools that participated in the study and 96% of the participants indicated that the program was helpful in managing the problems of school violence in the schools. Physical security measures were adopted, whereby security officers and security guards were placed in the secondary schools. In addition,

community-based organizations began an experiment under the auspices of a culture of peace and the exploration of conflict resolution; measures empowering school administrators to use school management skills and leadership skills; and initiatives to address student illiteracy. Former education minister Le Gendre concluded then that the TTVPA proved that "in the midst of all these reforms and initiatives, there have been serious enough incidents of violence and indiscipline to warrant concern" (Singh, 2008 p. 1). Despite TTVPA's initiatives, school violence continues to surge in Trinidad and Tobago.

The Ministry of Education has begun to engage parents through consultation as well as to strengthen the existing School-Based Management System. The system involves deans of discipline, principals, supervisors, the student councils, and the National Parent Teacher Association (NPTA) and the Trinidad and Tobago Unified Teachers Association (TTUTA). Additionally, the Inter-American Development Bank, (IDB) has loaned $2 million US to Trinidad and Tobago's government's Citizens Security Programme (CSP) for the implementation of a school violence prevention program (Seepersad, 2016). The pilot phase was planned to start in 2015 with four schools located in crime "hot spots" in Trinidad and Tobago. By 2016-2017, the CSP was to move to 18 other crime-ridden areas. Workshops were to be held to encourage violence reduction and prevention in the schools. Some of the concerns that were to be addressed in the CSP workshops include girl gangs, bullying, parental absenteeism, lack of parental guidance, and stealing electronic gadgets belonging to their peers. The plan was for CSP to introduce clinical psychologists in the schools, improve the infrastructure

in the schools, reform the curriculum reform, and promote literacy and numeracy (Baal, 2011).

Outside of government initiatives, then-TTUTA president also stated that parents and teachers have a responsibility to report all violence taking place at their schools, even though the teachers and other school personnel may be frustrated with the additional duties arising from school violence (Felmine, 2014).

Despite all the efforts expended, problems continued to persist in school violence throughout the country. For instance, in February 2014, in a "prestige" high school in the south of the country, a male student stabbed a fellow student and slashed his own wrist because the boy had played a prank on him (Felmine, 2014). Undoubtedly, the reports of violent school behavior for minor infractions like jokes and pranks indicate that students have low tolerance for pranks, carry weapons to schools and are prepared to use them on their peers.

In 2015, Trinidad and Tobago's then-Minister of Education, Mr. Gopeesingh, convened a press conference and spoke on the matter of school bullying. He indicated that the "meeting was called specifically to address, some of the extremely worrying issues of school bullying among our student body nationally" (Gopeesingh, 2015, p. 1). He explained that "this has been evident in the past few years and with examples as recent as only last week, by the numbers of viral videos on social media platforms, depicting instances of school bullying and children fighting in truly alarming and even brutal ways. The issue of school bullying and violence in schools has been ongoing and increasing for over two decades, now" (Gopeesingh, p. 2). Gopeesingh intimated that the

Ministry has recognized when it comes to child-on-child violence, the perpetrators themselves are victims of larger problems which may stem from issues in the home or community or mental and psychological problems. He presented a list of "preventative methods" to combat school bullying among students in the schools. They included putting a full complement of security officers with hand-held scanners; student services, which constitute guidance counsellors; guidance officers, and school social workers with educational, social and clinical psychologists; as well as the installation of CCTV cameras for each school and the formation of a Parenting Academy (p. 2).

Apart from the staggering financial cost to the government during 2011-2015, government authorities have been "grappling with the problem of indiscipline and school violence in school for decades," without any significant solution (Trinidad and Tobago Guardian, 2016, p. 1). This state of affairs indicates that in Trinidad and Tobago, school violence has indeed evolved into a difficult, complex, phenomenon. School violence in the secondary schools has continued to be a major source of concern to many stakeholders in the country. Contemporary youth from some secondary schools in the country continue to challenge the authorities by their indiscipline.

Nonetheless, the new government that was elected in 2015 started to engage in discussions with the public about rampant school violence in the country. For example, the current Minister of Education, Anthony Garcia, publicized his intention to hold national consultations to discuss a range of school-related issues. The issues included curricula changes as well as the Concordat. The government of Trinidad and Tobago signed the 1960 Concordat, which was an agreement between the state and religious bodies that gives the latter the right to determine their own curricula in denominational

schools; as well as the right to select 20 per cent of new students entering denominational schools, regardless of their performance on the annual secondary school entrance exams (Mendes-Franco, 2019, p. 1). In his statement to the press, he explained that:

> [T]here are many issues plaguing schools in [the country] – bullying, sexual misconduct, peer pressure, physical violence. The issue of indiscipline and violence has become a runaway horse, videos of children fighting … have gone viral … the mayhem continues in spite of the $400 to $500 million spent annually in the last four years to curb indiscipline and school violence. (The Trinidad and Tobago Guardian, 2016 p. 1)

Despite the implementation of "modern progressive initiatives" in the school system in Trinidad and Tobago, the vexing problems associated with school violence have continued and seemingly escalated. They present serious challenges to many stakeholders in the country who are involved in the education of children.

Mr. Gopeesingh's preventative initiatives (2015) have also been endorsed and continued by Minister Garcia. Minister Garcia (2016) admitted that there are still many issues plaguing the schools and identified them as bullying, sexual misconduct, peer pressure and physical violence. He proceeded to institute a ban on the use of cellphones with cameras in all the schools in the country. He has called on principals to enforce the ban. "The only cell phones which will be allowed into the schools will be those without cameras," he instructed (Trinidad Express, 2017, p. 2). However, Mr. Garcia's proposal was challenged by Mr. Gopeesingh, his predecessor. who accused Mr. Garcia of "seeking to block photographic evidence of school violence" (Kissoon, 2017, p. 2).

Other stakeholders, including then-president of TTUTA, Mr. Sinanan, complained that the indiscipline and violence continue in the schools. In 2016, he stated:

> The education of parents was crucial to the eradication of violence and indiscipline in the schools and by extension the wider society…Educators remain convinced that parental guidance is critical to dealing with the problem…Education is dynamic, and society is always changing, the needs of learners will also be changing and schools have to be able to respond. (Trinidad Guardian, 2016, p. 2)

Mr. Sinanan's above-stated concerns indicated that there is no quick fix or easy method to mitigate the complex phenomenon of school violence in the country. Indeed, his concerns should also reflect the roles that some educators may play in modeling the use of violence in the classroom, and the lack of strategies for conflict resolution among dissenting students. It should be noted that conflict resolution has recently been implemented as one of the initiatives to address community conflict among adults and young people in Trinidad and Tobago, a country of disparate cultures and ethnicities—thus, considered cosmopolitan.

Compellingly, the country has been deemed a cosmopolitan one because of the majority of different races and ethnic groups that populate the islands, reflecting an ancestry of migrants from all over the world. As discussed before, after the decimation of the native peoples, the Spanish arrived in Trinidad with their enslaved Africans. Again, the Cedula of Population, a 1783 decree from Spain, granted land to French settlers who also brought along their African slaves from Martinique, Grenada, St. Lucia, and

Guadeloupe to work on the estates. Other migrants followed, comprising Chinese, Indian, Portuguese, Lebanese, Syrian, Jewish and Venezuelan ancestry. Additionally, because of the lucrative petroleum industry from the late 19th century, migrants, mainly from other English-speaking Caribbean countries, flowed into Trinidad and Tobago for employment and became cosmopolites in the country.

Alternatively, during periods of economic downturn in Trinidad and Tobago, Trinidadian and Tobagonian citizens emigrated to other Caribbean countries and to North American countries for employment as well. For example, voluntary migration from Trinidad and Tobago to the United States began in the early 20th century. The migrants consisted mostly of laborers who worked in agriculture in the United States and helped in the construction of the Panama Canal. In 1948, the British Nationality Act had enabled free citizens of the United Kingdom colonies to enter Britain legally. After 1955, migration from Trinidad and Tobago and other English-speaking Caribbean islands to Britain increased as the country openly recruited workers for their nationalized industries, including the National Coal Board and The Iron and Steel Corporation. However, the 1962 Commonwealth Act of Immigration created chaos in the lives of Caribbean migrants and their families, as frequent and biased changes in the laws restricted the return of immigrants to the Caribbean, thus threatening the loss of legal status for those who wished to return to their original destinations for various reasons. That created a "hostile environment" for the Caribbean immigrants in Britain (Wardle and Obermuller, 2019). The previous narratives illustrate some of the historical, political, social, and economic complexities that were involved in the migratory push and pull of peoples associated with migration to and from Trinidad and Tobago.

The economic, social and educational inequalities that were introduced into the society by the elite European imperialists persist today in the form of underlying tensions associated with race and class (Hutchinson and Krase, 2007). Prior to independence, labor disputes and many other forms of discord promoted acts of resistance and aggression among the citizenry, erupting into strikes and riots in the society. An astute politician, Dr. Eric Williams (1962), was cognizant of the disunity among the various factions in Trinidad and Tobago, and he reflected:

> The task facing the people of Trinidad and Tobago after their independence is to create a nation out of the discordant elements and antagonistic principles and competing faiths and rival colours which have produced the amalgam that it is today the approximately 875, 000 people of Trinidad and Tobago…The fact of the matter is however, that in Trinidad the Negro, the Indian, French and Spaniard, English and Portuguese, Syrian and Lebanese, Chinese and Jew all have messed out of the same pot, all are victims of the same subordination, all have been tarred with the same brush of political inferiority. Divergent customs and antipathetic attitudes have all been submerged in the common subordinate status of colonialism. (p. 280)

Determined to attain and maintain equanimity and patriotism in the country, Williams further declared:

> Together the various groups in Trinidad and Tobago have suffered, together they have aspired, together they have achieved and only together can they succeed… [therefore], there can be no Mother India…no Mother Africa…no Mother

England… A nation like an individual can only have one Mother. The only Mother we recognize is Mother Trinidad and Tobago and Mother cannot discriminate between her children. All must be equal in her eyes (Williams, p. 281).

Williams finally proposed that students and parents in the society should adhere to the significance of the watchwords for the nation: "Discipline, Production and Tolerance."

Cosmopolitanism of Trinidad and Tobago became more defined in the early to mid-20th century. That can also be touted as an experiment in multiculturism, transnationalism, and governmental stability, although alternately, globalization has exposed or added cracks or conflicts in the country. As a result, various dissensions, crime and other forms of violence are still perpetrated by different members of the society, including adolescents without serious conflict transformation. In 2011, Trinidad and Tobago's Ministry of Community Development introduced mediation programs in the schools and the neighborhoods. The programs are designed to encourage conflict resolution throughout the society, one that has been considered richly cosmopolitan with descendants of many different races and ethnicities.

Apart from the historical and contemporary challenges to cosmopolitanism in Trinidad and Tobago, contemporary migration flows have also presented economic and social challenges to the country. The country is one of the most prosperous in the Caribbean, because of oil and gas resources, high levels of direct foreign investment and an expanding tourist industry. Therefore the "pull" factor of migration to the

country is strong. Available data show that one-third of intra-Caribbean migrants reside in Trinidad and Tobago (Anatol, Kirton and Nanan, 2013).

Moreover, the country faces security risks to transnational crime, such as human trafficking, because of its porous borders. There is a great need to use technology to upgrade and manage border security systems. Also, the "push" of skilled workers has created problems for the country since it has not developed a strong policy to entice its educated and trained personnel to remain and contribute to the development of the country. For example, in recent years there has been a "massive exodus of nurses from the government health services" (Anatol et al., 2014, p. 2) to international countries. To compensate for the loss of these essential workers the government was compelled to recruit nurses and doctors from Cuba, Nigeria, and the Philippines (Anatol et al.).

Another problem for the country regarding migration is that some mothers emigrate to developed countries, resulting in leaving their children in care of surrogate parents in Trinidad and Tobago. It has been reported that such arrangements do not always bode well for the children's welfare (sometimes for the mothers' emotional health as well), since many children who are left behind may be under-protected, inadequately supervised, and emotionally and physically abused. (Crawford-Brown and Rattray, 2002). Other reports (Pottinger & Brown, 2005) indicate that because of emotional stress and turmoil that the children may undergo, the children may also experience poor self-esteem, depression, and deviant "acting-out" behavior in the schools. These children may also be stigmatized by others in the school and the community as "barrel children," because, besides sending remittances, the migrant mother would ship goods in barrels back to the country for maintenance of the children. Since these remittances may be

unregulated and sporadic to the surrogate parents or to the child, the country may not

benefit greatly (Pottinger & Brown).

Chapter 4: Methodology

Introduction

After teaching at the primary and secondary school levels in Trinidad and Jamaica, I subsequently immigrated into the United States to further my studies in higher education. Because of my orientation in the field of education, I am keenly aware of the potential of a good education to open the doors of opportunity to a rewarding life. I believe that all children should be afforded the best opportunities through public schooling to provide agency for future success in life. Further, I believe that it is a moral imperative for countries to ensure that education occurs in a safe and nurturing environment and that this is a human right that should be extended to all children. Thus, I was driven to find out why some of the schools in Trinidad were challenged by violence.

When I left for the United States in 1976, there were very few known reports of serious incidents of school violence in the school system in Trinidad and Tobago. Although I have been residing in the United States for many years, I have kept in close contact with many relatives and friends. I have been concerned about the conditions and safety for all because of the recent accelerating spate of crime which, unfortunately, has spilled over into many schools from various communities in the country.

With regard to my research study, prior to my departure from the United States, I contacted the Ministry of Education in Trinidad and Tobago and inquired about the requisite protocol to conduct the study in the country. I was advised that I first had to visit the schools where I wanted to conduct my study to obtain on-site approval from the principals before my study would be approved. I subsequently visited the country and the

Ministry of Education where I obtained the names and addresses of the three secondary schools, and the principals in the area where I wanted to conduct my research. When I visited the schools, I received the appropriate approval from one the principals. I was not fortunate to meet the other two principals for the other schools. I met with two vice-principals who informed me that the principals were on vacation and I would have to contact them directly to discuss my proposed study with them. I was given their email addresses and phone numbers. I was able to reach one of the other principals by email and he agreed that I could conduct the study at his school. The other principal did not respond to my email nor phone calls.

I then made a formal request to the Ministry of Education to conduct the research in the two schools where the principals were favorable to my request. Since I was not familiar with the schools, I was not aware about the cultures of either school. After some bureaucratic delays, I received permission to begin the study at an appointed time, and, I was subsequently required to sign a formal declaration of confidentiality from the Ministry of Education in Trinidad and Tobago. I also obtained approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of the University of Maryland. The two documents established the parameters of confidentiality to which I have adhered during my study (see Appendices 1 and 2). I applied the confidentiality regulation to names of people, schools, neighborhoods, and organizations mentioned in my study. Therefore, the names of the schools and community are fictitious.

 Research Methods

My qualitative interview and questionnaire study focused on the perceptions of sub-sections of residents in the suburban community of Sanaata in Trinidad and Tobago,

West Indies: students, teachers, parents, and other community members. The participants included students from two secondary schools, parents and teachers of students in these schools, as well as adults from the communities surrounding the two secondary schools. I employed open-ended questions as part of individual interviews and self- administered questionnaires. Data were collected from fifty-seven school children, twenty-three teachers, nine parents, and seventy-seven adult community members.

I chose the qualitative method rather than the quantitative method of inquiry to investigate how globalization and local community influences are perceived to impact school violence in the community of Sanaata in Trinidad. Quantitative research can be defined as "the means for testing objective theories by examining the relationship among variables, which can be measured, typically on instruments so that numbered data can be analyzed using statistical procedures (Cresswell, 2008, p. 4). Alternatively, a qualitative study is a means for exploring the meaning that individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem. The process of research involves emerging questions and procedures, and data are typically collected in the participant's setting (Cresswell, 2007). Furthermore, qualitative research seeks to clarify the thoughts and feelings of study participants and to interpret participants' experiences of the phenomena of interest, in order to find explanations for human behavior in a given context (Hesse-Biber and Leavy, 2004).

I also sought to provide a "holistic cultural portrait of the group" incorporating an emic perspective (i.e., the views of the participants) and an etic perspective (i.e., the views of the researcher) (Cresswell, 2007, p. 72). As a researcher, I decided what was

important, but attempted to be culturally unbiased by reporting the statements of the participants in the study.

I am aware, however, that my own critical worldview is reflected through the prisms of my diverse multi-cultural, genealogical, and educational orientations and perspectives. They have been informed by cultural, feminist, postmodern, critical, alternative development, postcolonial, oral historical and phenomenological frameworks. Recognizing those influences, I intended to present an unbiased, analytic, and critical account of my respondents regarding globalization and school violence in Trinidad and Tobago. My responsibility to my research participants is to present their voices as a narrative text showing how they understand and navigate their lives under complex systems of institutions and power (Foucault, 1975). Nonetheless, I recognize that the text may be seen as a limitation. As Shiela Trahar (2009) explains, "the telling and retelling of their experiences may detract and distract from their real stories" (p. 3).

My study employs an exploratory research design. I am investigating interviewees' understanding of globalization, school violence, the relationship between these phenomena, as well as other factors (besides globalization) that may influence school violence. This study has given me the opportunity to explore, derive, and contribute new meanings and knowledge(s) on the research topic from a population that is experiencing the phenomena first-hand. It has been noted that exploratory research is the initial research which forms the basis of more conclusive research. "It can even help in determining the research design, sampling methodology and data collection method" (Singh, 2007, p. 64). Exploratory research "tends to tackle new problems on which little or no previous research has been done" (Brown, 2006, p. 43). Exploratory research is also

used "to investigate little-understood phenomena, and to generate hypotheses for further research" (Marshall and Rossman, 2006, p. 34). Hopefully, the results of this study will influence further explorations of phenomena that may inform other efforts to challenge the problem of school violence in a global context.

As noted in the previous chapter, Trinidad and Tobago has a grave problem with school violence in some urban and suburban schools. This is certainly the case in the suburban town of Sanaata, Trinidad, where I chose to conduct my research. Violence is prevalent disproportionately throughout the area. There are small pockets of comparatively safe neighborhoods in the environment. However, according to Numbeo (2019), the general crime rate in Sanaata was 75.0 during 2014-2017, based on perceptions of visitors to this website and ranging from the value of 0 (extremely low) to the value of 100 (extremely high). Some incidents of high crime in the area include breaking, entering and stealing of property; mugging and (sometimes armed) robbing of persons; stealing vehicles; using or dealing drugs; and engaging in vandalism. The safety index regarding walking alone during the day is considered moderate (40.0) and at night it is considered low (25.0).

During the years 2014-2017, in some of the communities, including Sanaata, crime began to spill over into the schools. The schools, including School S and School U, which are the focus of this study, have recently reported some serious incidents of violence, including students fighting with teachers and students fighting and bullying other students. The "hot spot" areas in the community are just a street or block away from the schools and the students of Sanaata often have to walk through neighborhoods that are rife with serious incidents of violent crime.

Impact of Environmental Conditions on the Research

As a tropical country, Trinidad and Tobago is subject to the capriciousness of tropical weather conditions. Because of its geographical location, Trinidad, and Tobago experiences two seasons, a dry and a wet season, annually. The dry season occurs during the months of January to May and symbolizes what is described as "a tropical maritime climate that is characterized by moderate to strong low level winds, warm days and cool nights, with rainfall mostly in the form of showers due to daytime convection" (Trinidad and Tobago Meteorological Service, 2019). The wet season is distinguished by "low wind speeds and hot humid nights, a marked increase in rainfall which results mostly from migrating and latitudinal shifting equatorial weather systems, during June to December" (Trinidad and Tobago Meteorological Service, 2019).

My research in Trinidad and Tobago occurred during the wet season. I paid a short visit to one of the schools in late June, conducted field work interviewing members of the community in July and August, and returned to the schools from September to late November 2018. During that period, my assistants and I experienced varied extreme weather conditions. One of those is a fairly "new climatic condition," possibly associated with global warming, called the "Sahara Dust," which can blanket the atmosphere with thick plumes of dust directly from Africa. Another extreme event took place in August 2018. An earthquake, measured at a 6.9 Richter-scale magnitude, caused some structural damage to buildings and infrastructure as well as panic among the citizens in Trinidad. Neither school that I visited suffered any damage. In addition, intense flooding occurred across a large cross-section of the country during most of the entire month of October 2018.

Indeed, the weather presented a few challenges at different phases of data collection during my research in the country. For example, after the earthquake, some schools were closed for a week to accommodate the work of safety inspectors who inspected the schools to determine whether there was need for repairs to the buildings. The flooding also impacted some areas in which students and teachers at the schools resided. Unfortunately, I was affected by a situation in one of the schools where I was conducting research. One of the deans, who had kindly agreed to assist me in arrangements with the data collection in the school, experienced severe flooding in his residential area and, subsequently, fell ill. After a two-week delay, however, I was able to benefit from his assistance until the end of the study.

Context for the Study

I selected the community of Sanaata to conduct my study. One practical consideration was that my daughter (one of my research assistants) had resided there while she was matriculating at the University of the West Indies. She had become familiar with the area; thus, she was able to provide valuable assistance and support with respect to accommodation, directions, and transportation for the study. Another member of my family joined me later and became an invaluable research assistant as well. My study was a comprehensive one, involving many respondents from on-site interviews, which were sometimes scheduled at nighttime. My assistants accompanied me on these interviews, helping with data collection as well as providing some safety as a group.

An in-depth study by Williams (2012) had been conducted on bullying in a school located in a violent urban environment of Port of Spain, the capital of the country. I decided to choose the alternate location of the suburban residential community of Sanaata

(for detailed information, see Appendix 2), where the secondary schools have begun to experience some serious acts of school violence.

The community of Sanaata has been described as a relatively quiet residential area, home to retired and middle classes, with the usual mix of churches, shops, bars, and auto repair shops. It is not far from the main highway leading into Port of Spain. The area is currently undergoing some social and economic transition, despite the appearance of urban decay in some pockets of the community. There is a sense of unplanned revitalization of the community with the advent of gentrification in the area. Some elegant, well maintained family homes are interspersed among some abandoned and poorly maintained properties. Also, there are newly constructed multi-functional buildings catering to various businesses and government enterprises. Overall, the community is a vibrant, multi-ethnic, and multicultural one, which features many local diverse restaurants, offering Chinese, American, Indian, and Jamaican cuisines. The supermarkets offer local produce and imported fares from many different countries. Sanaata's open market sells fresh fruit, vegetables, meats, and fish. Another amenity is a large recreational park which hosts community games, like soccer and cricket, as well as other recreational events. The park is frequented by young and older members of the community who engage in walking, jogging, bicycle riding and other modes of exercise. There are several public and religious, primary, and secondary schools. Many houses of worship of diverse denominations, including, mainly, Roman Catholic, Pentecostal, Muslim, and Hindu, cater to an ecumenical community. Port of Spain, the capital of the country, is the epicenter for government and corporate businesses. These entities employ a large contingent of workers from all over the country. The community of Sanaata is

approximately 7 miles, or 11 kilometers, from Port of Spain and is included under a geographical region of the country that is generally described as a "hotspot for crime."

Within Sanaata there are three public secondary schools, including students in forms 1-6. With the permission of the principals I focused my research on two of these (School S and School U). I was not aware of the differences or similarities of the two schools until I did some research on them from the US. Both schools were built after the country gained its independence from Britain and since they were in the Sanaata neighborhood, they catered mainly to the African and East Indian ethnic groups in the country. Each school had its own political history and identity with which the citizens of Sanaata were familiar. Each school had the great potential to benefit the children of the area, if the circumstances in the schools were safe and equitable

"School S"

School S is located in a more modest neighborhood, surrounded by diverse family homes. The school is fenced. There is a booth at the entrance of the school with security personnel who ask visitors for official identification and purpose of visit before being directed to the Administration Office. The personnel at School S include a principal, a vice-principal, deans, teachers and other support clerical staff, cleaners, and grounds maintenance crews. The school grounds are well kept, and the surroundings are clean and tidy. The school adheres to strict rules pertaining to discipline, comportment, and courtesy to visitors, teachers, and students. School S's policy is inclusive and admits students with various physical challenges. It was a welcome sight to see other students assisting their handicapped peers to navigate their wheelchairs around the campus.

Overall, the facilities of the school seem compact, but the students and teachers were industriously involved in various school activities throughout the entire school day during my visits. On the second day that I visited School S, I was granted permission to attend a school assembly that featured a presentation by a guest speaker, a former student of the school. He is a professional living in the United States. On his return to Trinidad, he visited his alma mater (School S) to address and interact with the students. Although there was one dean at the time to supervise a packed auditorium of approximately 100 teenagers, the children were well-behaved. Most of them listened attentively to the speaker, while he reminisced about his experiences as a former student of the school. He described how he benefitted from those experiences, which he said had helped him to adjust to his adopted home in the United States. On another occasion at School S, my assistants and I attended a Christmas musical production a few days prior to the holidays. The teachers and pupils jointly participated and showcased their amazing singing and instrumental musical talents as well as acting abilities. It was a great experience to witness the camaraderie and unity of the entire school.

"School U"

School U is located in a quiet neighborhood with a mix of residential and commercial buildings. School U boasts a large campus with impressive, modern buildings and facilities. On a tour of the school, however, the principal of the school explained that the outward appearance belies many structural problems which limit the maximum use of the facilities by the teachers and students. The school design features special modern facilities, including science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) labs, home economics and dress design, music, and dance studios.

Unfortunately, many of the facilities are underutilized while we were there, because of the neglect and deterioration of some basic amenities to the building. For example, the water pumps that regulate water flow from tanks are not reliable to provide a sufficient flow throughout the school on many days. Consequently, the administration of the school has no other recourse but to curtail the school day, at noon, instead of 3 p.m., which is standard time of dismissal for all schools in the country. During my visits to the school, the school administration was actively involved in negotiations with the Ministry of Education over the many issues regarding the maintenance of school facilities.

School U is fenced and has a booth at the entrance of the building containing security staff. All visitors have to stop at the booth, show official identification, explain the purpose of their visit to the school and, then, are escorted to the administration office. There are also security guards posted on the third floor of the school building. The grounds-maintenance staff perform a commendable job of keeping the school premises clean and tidy.

I observed that School U, however, is unable to implement full teaching responsibilities to the children, since the school is sometimes closed at noon. It was obvious that a sense of frustration permeates among the administrators, staff, and students at the school. During my first week at the school, while I was becoming acclimatized, I engaged in informal dialogue with the teachers, students, and other staff in the schools. My overall first impressions were that School U was trying to function as productively as possible under the aforementioned adverse conditions. I could sense that the problems associated with the school facilities were contributing some stress and frustration to the school culture.

During my six-week visit to School U, I attended the school-opening assemblies at 8 a.m. Every morning, approximately 200 students assembled in a huge auditorium without the help of an electronic microphone and speaker system. The students were generally well-behaved, although some of them seemed distracted and uninterested in the proceedings conducted at the beginning of the school day. On one occasion I had the opportunity to attend a late-evening Parent Teacher Association (PTA) meeting where I met and chatted with some of the parents. Many of the parents were upset that their children had half-day dismissals because of ongoing problems with the school, including complaints about the teachers, safety of the children and the structural problems in the school. During the meeting they spent considerable time in spirited discussions, while brain-storming solutions for the problems of the school with the principal and the head of the PTA.

Sampling: Students, Teachers, Parents and Community Members

With reference to a qualitative study, Mishna (2004) makes a strong case for using interviews with children and parents to capture context, personal interpretation, and experience. She suggests that qualitative data, which privilege individuals' lived experiences and increase our understanding of the views of children and adults, are keys to developing effective interventions. I incorporated her suggestions in my research by including interviews and questionnaires of children and adult respondents from the community of Sanaata.

Students

My samples of students were obtained from two secondary schools in Sanaata, School S and School U. At School S, one of the deans of the school agreed to assist with the coordination of the students and the accommodations for the study. I was happy with the offer because the school had a strict academic curriculum and standards. I needed the dean's assistance to facilitate the execution of the study. The dean kindly helped by handing out the 90 prepared envelopes containing consent forms to be taken home by the students for their parents' signatures. I decided to interview students in forms 1-3, because the administration informed me that the students in higher forms 4-6 would be involved in various exams. This would make it difficult to schedule research interviews during the school day for the higher grades.

I had initially proposed to interview 90 students (thirty from each of the three forms, 1-3) from School S. The children were instructed that each envelope contained my letter of introduction to the parent/guardian. The envelope also contained a consent form for the parents to sign and return to the school the following day. The returned signed letters from the parents indicated that the parents agreed to having their children participate in the research study. Further, those students were required to sign a minor's assent form before they could participate in the study. The ages of the students ranged from 10-13 years of age. Overall, School S had 623 students (307 males and 316 females). Based on their returning their parents' consent form, I was able to include in my study 31 students, 15 boys and 16 girls, from School S (see Table 1).

When I first arrived at School U the principal invited me to the school assembly, and he asked me to address the students to explain my research study to the teachers and

students. After the assembly, the principal and teachers assisted me in distributing 90 prepared envelopes with letters and consent forms for students in forms 1-3 to take home to their parents. Some of the forms were returned the following day. Overall, School U had 366 students (182 males and 184 females). I was able to recruit 57 students, including 28 boys and 29 girls, from School U to participate in the study (see Table 1).

Table 1.
Number of Students Receiving Consent Forms and Being Interviewed

School S			School U		
Proposed number of students: 90			Proposed number of students: 90		
Returned consent forms / Interviewed: 31			Returned consent forms / Interviewed: 57		
	Boys	Girls		Boys	Girls
	15	16		28	29
Form 1	6	6	Form 1	15	22
Form 2	5	5	Form 2	8	6
Form 3	4	5	Form 3	5	1

Teachers

My purposive sample included teachers from both Schools S and U. I distributed my research participant recruitment materials to 60 teachers, 30 in each school. The next day, I collected the returned questionnaires with the signed consent forms. I distributed in prepared envelopes containing the following materials to the teachers in School S: a brief introduction and explanation of my research; a letter of consent, which was to be signed and returned the following day; and a questionnaire, which the teacher was asked to fill

out and return the following day. At the time of my study, School S had a total of 50 teachers (11male and 39 female), on the staff. While I had planned on obtaining consent forms and questionnaires from 30 of them, I was only able to obtain them from 10 of the teachers (the responses of the teachers were anonymous, and thus the gender breakdown is unavailable).

In School U, I had the opportunity to visit the teachers in the teachers' lounge. My assistants and I introduced ourselves to the teachers. Then I explained the study to the teachers and distributed the consent forms to them asking them for their participation in the study. If they desired to participate in the study, we (my assistants and I) asked them to sign two forms to be returned the following day. We then handed out envelopes containing the questionnaires to 30 teachers. The following day we collected the questionnaires from the teachers, kept one signed form and returned the other form to the teacher. At the time of the study School U had 51 teachers (28 male and 33 female) on the staff. While I planned to obtain responses from 30 teachers, I was only able to do so from 13 teachers (the respondents were anonymous, and thus the gender breakdown is unavailable) from School U.

Parents

I also included parents of students from Schools S and U in the study. I used questionnaires to gather data from them. I recruited the parents of School S by sending an additional envelope to them through the students (their children) from the schools. In the parents' envelope I enclosed a letter of introduction, describing my study, and a consent form. I mentioned that I would be appreciative if the parent would also participate in the study, along with their children. I had proposed to recruit 30 parents from School S.

However, I was able to recruit only two parents from School S. I believe that since I had sent two separate envelopes with instructions to recruit both parents and students of the school, the parents were probably overwhelmed by the number of forms they had to fill out and return for themselves and their children.

I also attended a Parent Teacher Association meeting at School U, where I addressed about thirty-five parents requesting their participation in the study. Since the meeting ended late at night, I decided to distribute prepared envelopes, including consent forms, to as many parents that my assistants and I could reach before they left the compounds. I asked the parents to return the signed consent forms and the completed questionnaires by their children the following day. From a proposed 30 parents, I recruited nine parents for the study from School U. I believe that the parents from School U were also overwhelmed by the amount of information they were asked to fill out and return to school the following day, especially since they had been at the Parents' Teacher meeting which lasted late into the evening.

Community Members

At the start of the research I identified several community members who worked in various businesses or places of worship, or who resided in homes located in the two schools' immediate surroundings. To make a purposive sampling of community members, I initially consulted the phone book and identified workplaces in the community where my assistant and I felt safe to interview respondents. I chose public places (e.g., bookstores, medical and dental offices, the local marketplace, public libraries, community centers, police stations, and malls). I also selected and telephoned

community stakeholders, including officials of NGOs, managers of international businesses, members of the clergy, police, office managers, members of the Parent Teacher Association, parents and other citizens from different walks of life, including medical professionals, store clerks, office workers and market vendors. I received referrals to residents in the area, and also from relatives and friends with whom I felt safe enough to exchange telephone numbers.

In addition, I planned with some of the residents for interviews in their homes, after working hours. Overall, I interviewed 77 adult members of the community of Sanaata, including 45 members from the vicinity of School S and 32 from the vicinity of School U.

Data Collection Procedures and Instruments
Interviews of Students and Community Members

As a female international investigator, I was mindful to take safety precautions during the research process in the town of Sanaata. I trained an assistant who knew the area well to accompany me on interviews. In advance of site visits for interviews (with community members) I organized materials to handle the data. I used three reliable digital recorders, note-books, pens and pencils. I also planned to secure quiet areas to conduct interviews in buildings, such as classrooms, spaces in a public building, and libraries. I made a daily review and organization of data, transcribing interviews at the end of the day, for subsequent coding of information. When I conducted semi-structured interviews, I also used the opportunity to observe participants' surroundings, general demeanor, and hospitality. With the respondents' approval, I tape-recorded interviews so

that I could capture their intonations and expressions to enable the accurate reproductions in the transcription. My assistant took notes during the interviews. This served as a backup to address any flaws in the audio recording process. During the interviews, I was prepared to "[l]isten carefully and to follow up with questions to have the respondent elaborate on their responses if necessary; to allow time for the interview; and to summarize the points made with them to ensure accuracy" (Albright et al., 1998, p. 9). During the interviews, I allowed the participants to do most of the talking. I wanted them to explain as much as possible when they related their perceptions.

Interviews are the foundation since they are the path to understanding people's views and perceptions of their experiences (Albright, Howard-Pitney, Roberts and Zacarelli, 1998). From this point-of-view, my semi-structured interview protocols included open-ended questions to the students and community adult respondents. The main focus of the interviews was on respondents' experiences and perceptions of globalization and school violence (see Appendix 2 for interview protocols used with students and community members).

Interviews of Students: In order to establish a personal relationship with the students, I began the interview by asking them a few personal questions about what form (grade) they were in, how old they were and what plans they had after they leave high school. I also asked them what neighborhood they lived in and whether they felt safe in their neighborhoods. Additionally, I asked them whether they felt safe in the school, why or why not; what were their parents' perceptions about school violence, and how they, the students, perceived school violence.

With the assistance of the Dean of School S, I developed a schedule for the semi-structured interviews to occur on my daily visits to the school. Since my assistant and I did not want to disturb the functioning of the school, we worked with the dean to coordinate the timing and place of the interviews around the class periods of the students. The sessions for semi-structured interviews lasted for approximately 30 to 45 minutes, per student.

In a preliminary interview with students from a higher form (5) in School S, I realized that the students from forms 1-3 may not be familiar with the concept of globalization (see Appendix 3 for pilot testing of student interview protocol). I knew that I would have to adjust the questions relating to the concept of globalization with my student respondents. I decided to engage the younger children in an experiential learning activity by structuring the interview questions in such a way that would allow them to explore and understand the phenomenon of globalization from their perspectives. I did this at the beginning of the interviews with students in School S as well as School U.

Proponents of experiential education concur that effective learning is seen when an individual progresses through a four-stage cycle: (1) having a concrete experience; followed by (2) observation of and reflection on that experience; which leads to (3) the formation of abstract concepts (analysis) and generalizations (conclusions); which are then (4) used to test hypothesis in future situations, resulting in new experiences (McLeod, 2017). In applying Kolb's (1984) model of experiential learning, I first asked the students to think about a globe and what it represents. Most of them were familiar with the object. I then asked them to reflect on the countries and peoples represented on the globe, to explain how people lived and interacted on an international scale, and

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especially how this occurred for people in Trinidad and Tobago. I finally asked the students to think about how those interactions could influence violence in their school.

Interviews of Community Members: For the community members, the interviews were semi-structured and lasted 30 to 45 minutes. I conducted the interviews in quiet environments. I briefly explained my research study, asking the respondents to sign a consent form before they could participate in the study. According to IRB's instructions, (see appendix #4) I reassured them that their responses would be kept confidential, which meant that their responses would be stored in a protected environment and would be destroyed in a safe manner at the end of the study. At the end of the interview, I gave them a signed copy of the consent form.

During the interview I asked community members how they perceived globalization and what impact they believed it had on children, youth, and adults in Trinidad and Tobago. In addition, I queried them about their perceptions of school violence and the factors (including globalization and other factors) that might affect it. I also elicited their views on the national government's policies regarding school violence. Finally, I asked for their recommendations to ameliorate the problem of violence in the schools.

Questionnaires for Teachers

I chose to use the questionnaire method to collect data from the teachers because their tight schedules in the schools did not allow me the time to interview both teachers and students. I also wanted to introduce another investigative design to the study, besides interviews. The questionnaire included questions about school violence, the teacher's concern about security in the school and the teacher's perceptions about the influence of

globalization (and other factors) on school violence (see Appendix 3 for teachers'
questionnaire).

Questionnaires for Parents

I also used questionnaires to collect data from parents regarding their children's
and their own experiences with school violence. The questionnaire asked parents about
their perception of globalization and the influence of globalization on (and other factors)
on school violence (see Appendix 4 for parents' questionnaire).

Management and Analysis of Data

It has been stated that data analysis in qualitative studies is an ongoing process
with continual reflections about the data, asking analytical questions and writing memos
throughout the process of data collection. Cresswell, (2009) also recommends a
hierarchical approach of building from the bottom to the top that entails the four
following steps, which I adapted for my study:

(1) Organize and prepare the data for analysis, that is, transcribing interviews,
optically scanning material and typing up field notes.

(2) Read through all the data to obtain a general sense of the information and to
reflect on its general meaning.

(3) Begin detailed analysis with a coding process by organizing the material into
chunks of segments of texts before bringing meaning to the information.

(4) Use the coding process to generate a description of the people as well as
categories or themes for analysis. (pp. 185-189)

Initially, I organized and prepared the data for analysis, which involved transcribing interviews, visually scanning materials, typing up field notes, or sorting and arranging data into different types according to the sources of information.[3] Since transcription is notoriously taxing, I made sure to transcribe the data each night after the audio recordings (of interviews). This was done to ensure the accuracy and nuances of conversations during the interviews. I gave priority to my research questions and noted themes from the data that related to the questions.

Next, I read through all data (interview transcripts, questionnaire responses, and field notes) to get a general sense of the material and to reflect on the overall meanings, for example, the nuance and complexity of the ideas presented by the respondents. At the same time, reflexively, I made notes in the margins consulting the theoretical concepts of the study. I also wrote down any information that I needed to clarify in follow-up sessions with the respondents. (After reviewing transcripts and notes, I followed up one respondent, a teacher at School U to clarify the meaning of "taxing.")

Then, using Jessor's Conceptual Framework of Adolescent Behavior as a guide, I examined the data, separated sentences, phrases, and paragraphs of responses into themes. I labelled them each under a heading from the framework. Since the data were copious and complex, I initially thought that I should employ a computer software program relevant to qualitative data processing. However, I finally decided that since that was my first experience with field work, I should have an exclusively personal experience with the data without the reliance on computer software.

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[3] According to the instructions of IRB, the data gathered during my study are stored in a retrievable format on my computer to be destroyed in a safe manner at the end of the study.

Based on Jessor's model, I devised a flowchart in which I inscribed five headings: (A) Changing Global Context, (B) Changing National Context, (C) Changing Community Context, (D) Changing Adolescents' Context, and (E) Adolescents' Risky Behavior.   I arranged the responses or perceptions of the respondents into themes that were relevant to each of the five contexts of influences. For example, I made notations of responses that generally referred to 'globalization' or 'global influences' that would impact school violence in Trinidad and Tobago. Some respondents pointedly referenced: "Guns and drugs from abroad are responsible for gangs and crime in the country." Some also mentioned that "criminal deportees [have] returned to the country from America, and they are introducing more serious crime in the society." Another respondent said, "Social media and foreign television shows are spreading bad influences on the youth." Another perception was that "foreign laws, especially about how to discipline children, are impacting the schools and households in Trinidad and Tobago." These, and similar references were placed under Global Context (A).

Next, under the heading, National Context (B), I placed the actual references that the respondents made about the country. For example, many respondents made comments such as "Trinidadians are becoming copycats of other cultures; we are now a copycat country" and "Gangs are now being glamorized in the country; the government needs to do more about the crime that is stifling the country."

Under Changing Community Context (C) I placed responses, such as the following:

- "Neighborhoods in Trinidad and Tobago are changing because there is more violence than before."

- "The community of Sanaata is changing because of new, expensive, housing developments and businesses."

- "There is a breakdown in family life in the community; parents are not handling their responsibilities as parents."

- "We should have more activities in the community for the children."

Under Changing Adolescent Context (D), I included comments such as:

- "Children today have no behavior, or manners."

- "Social media and foreign imports are changing the country especially children's tastes for expensive electronics, clothing and shoes from America."

- "Children now know their rights. They know that they can no longer be punished in schools, so they behave badly."

- "They are now doing drugs and gambling in the schools."

Finally, under Adolescent Risky Behavior (E), I included comments such as the following:

- "Children are bullying others in school for their possessions [called taxing in the schools in Trinidad]."

- "They are being bullied in school and cyberbullied on their phones."

- "Girls are fighting in schools and in the public."

- "Children are with fighting their teachers."

After organizing all of the responses under the five appropriate context headings, I designed another flowchart and placed the themes under sub-categories from listed

factors of Jessor's (1993) modified model. He had highlighted two main contexts which may influence adolescents' risky behaviors in different countries: 1. The distal context (represented by (A) changing global context which indirectly influences young people), and 2. the proximal contexts (represented by (B) changing national context, (C) changing local community context, and (D) changing adolescent context).

Chapter 5: Findings

Introduction

This study examined the perceptions of students, teachers, parents, and other adults in the community of Sanaata, Trinidad. The focus was on their perceptions of globalization, school violence, and the global, national, and local contexts of influence on school violence. The methodology included the following: semi-structured interviews of members of the community; semi-structured interviews of children from two secondary schools; and self-administered questionnaires for the teachers and some parents in both schools. I also used direct observation of the community of Sanaata, and of the schools. After interviewing the principals of the schools, I realized that their schools differed in terms of school culture and student populations. This led me to believe that the collection of data from the two diverse schools (School S and School U) should yield rich important information pertinent to my research.

Observations of the Schools

The two schools that I chose for my study, School S and School U, are both located within the general region of Sanaata where it is purported that there are pockets of serious criminal activity. At the beginning and during my study in the community, I made direct observations of the environment, taking mental notes, and later recording them in my notebook. I observed the general activities of the members in the neighborhood and noticed that both adults and children were engaged in activities associated with work or school during the week. The traffic was congested from early morning. The older students either walked briskly to high schools in their neighborhoods

or were hustling to take public transportation to travel to school in other locations, including, the capital city, Port of Spain.

I observed a buzz of activity in the community as parents tried to drop off their young children on time for school, which begins at 8:00 a.m. in all schools in the country. Tardiness is a violation of the school rules, and children arriving late to school are required to sign the late book in the security guard's booth before they are allowed to attend classes. In addition, teachers may administer punishment to the students (in the form of verbal reprimand, community service or some prescribed written assignment, detention for repeat offenses, and noncompliance report to the dean). Some parents may be called in for a conference according to the severity of the violation.

Another rule of the centralized system of education in Trinidad and Tobago is that all students, from preschool to secondary school, should wear school uniforms. That regulation about school uniforms primarily serves to identify the children with the particular school that they attend. There are strict rules regarding the uniforms and other aspects of the dress code as well. Violations of the dress code include wearing jewelry, make-up, and nail polish. Dress and grooming are the responsibilities of students as well as parents or guardians. Violations of the dress code rules can result in some form of punishment from the authorities at the schools, which include verbal reprimand and confiscation of items; report to parents; and non-compliance report to the dean; and parental conference. Additionally, parents have to issue a written excuse for problems that cannot be resolved immediately. Students are given one week to comply.

Serious acts of violence, intentionally or recklessly, are categorized as follows: causing physical injury to another; fighting with a student or a teacher; other acts such as sale of, giving or receiving, use of, or being under the influence of cigarettes, alcohol, illegal or controlled substances, or intoxicants; possessing any drug paraphernalia; gambling of any kind for the purpose of exchanging money or other items of value. These offenses are categorized as "zero tolerance" and will be entered in the administration's logbook. Acts, such as unauthorized use of cell phones, threat of violence, extortion, cyberbullying, carrying weapons, lewdness, technology misuse, and loitering during class time also would be considered as breeches of school rules by the students. The students would be subjected to a process of recommended disciplinary procedures from the National School Conduct (NSC) policies officially provided by the Ministry of Education. The disciplinary procedures include up to six steps of protocol to guide teachers in meting out the appropriate punishment to the offending student(s), depending on the severity of the act.

For example, regarding acts of violence, which include a) intentionally or recklessly causing physical injury to another and b) fighting, a hostile encounter between two or more individuals, the recommended procedures are: (step 1) report to Dean; (step 2) investigation, student's report; (step 3) report to principal, school safety officer; (step 4) suspension with assignments; (step 5) involve law enforcement officers. Such offences are considered "Zero Tolerance" and are considered "a matter to be entered in the "Logbook"." The NSC' guidelines definition of "school violence" includes a wide range of student misconduct from violent assaults, to non-compliance with dress codes and even littering.

Observations of School S

School S is located in a modest, quiet neighborhood surrounded by diverse, residential areas. The campus is not modern, built in the mid-20th century. It is compact, with some classrooms that are not air-conditioned, but are ventilated to allow circulation throughout the building. The classrooms are not crowded, nor are the students boisterous. The campus needs cosmetic repair. The administration office is small and open to visitors, parents, teachers, and students during the school day.

I observed that the school had a strict academic and social culture. There was no loitering by the students when school was in or out of session; and the children are polite to visitors to the school. The school is inclusive, and I observed schoolmates willingly assisting their disabled peers in their wheelchairs around campus. Most of the students were in their classrooms on time, being taught by various teachers. The deans of the school kept strict surveillance on students. I often overheard those deans reprimanding certain students for comportment and improper wear of the school uniform. One dean explained to me that he focused especially on the students from the lower forms who had just left the primary (elementary) schools and were attending the secondary school for the first time. He believed that he could employ a "nip-it-in-the-bud" philosophy to preempt later problems.

I learned from two reports, to which I was made privy, about two separate serious incidents involving students at School S. Two students had broken the rules and had committed the following acts of school violence: a) physical violence against a fellow student and the use of profanity and b) the inappropriate use of technology on

school compounds (i.e., the explicit text messaging from a male student to a female student). The punishment for the first offense which was considered "zero tolerance," included community service for five days, suspension with assignments, referral to the guidance counsellor, and "logging" of the incident by the principal. The punishments for the second offense included, an interview with the child's parents, community service for two weeks, referral to a guidance officer, and revocation of the privilege of playing school football for a month.

One day when I was conducting research at School S, I was informed that a student had assaulted a teacher who had confiscated the student's cell phone. The teacher believed that the student was using the cell phone in an unauthorized manner. That act of school violence by the student was considered "zero tolerance" and "a matter to be entered in the logbook." The NSC official protocol recommends in that case to "report to the Dean, Principal, school safety officer and all the teachers; investigation, incident report from all parties involved; apology to teacher and school population; suspension with assignments; intervention by student support services; and notification of law enforcement."

Observations of School U

School U is located in a quiet neighborhood surrounded by some residential and commercial buildings. Similar to School S, School U is fenced and there is a security booth at the entrance of the compound, with security personnel on duty. Visitors to the school must show official identification and should be dressed appropriately, according to the official dress code. The code stipulates that the visitor's attire should not be

sleeveless, such as a tank top, nor military-type wear. The students must also conform to the dress code, which is described as the "FULL" and "CORRECT" school uniform.

While I was there, I did not observe any loitering outside or inside the school campus. School started officially at 8 a.m., with an assembly in the school auditorium. I did observe that children who arrived late for the school assembly had to wait outside the auditorium until the national anthem was sung and the school prayer was recited. The students were then allowed to join the assembly for announcements by the dean and the principal. While waiting, the students were quiet and respectful. On one occasion during the school assembly, I noticed a young woman, whom I suspected to be a police officer "in mufti" (ordinarily dressed; not in official uniform). She had joined the assembly and discretely frisked a male student. It appeared that she did not find anything, and she quickly exited the building.

Most of the classrooms in School U were located on two upper floors, while the administrative staff and the vice-principal's and principal's offices were on the first floor. A few classrooms, as well as the auditorium, were also on the first floor. There was a non-functional elevator that reputedly had been vandalized by students. I was also informed by the principal that other electrical facilities in the building had also been vandalized by students. Some security personnel were posted on a section of the upper floors. I did not notice any interactions between the students and the security officers.

On one occasion, I observed that some male students were furtively smoking in one of the empty classrooms upstairs. I was also informed by the principal that there were more than 50 infractions recorded for "school violence" in School U, and there was the

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same number of suspensions—more male offenders than female, roughly a three-to-one ratio. Approximately 35-40 of the infractions occurred during class time and the most serious incidents of school violence included vandalism of school property, extortion (called "taxing"), drug and alcohol possession/use, assault without weapons, and sexual misconduct. Other offenses included gambling on school premises, disrespect to authority, and class truancy. Apart from the mention of suspensions, there was no reference to the Ministry's National School Conduct (NSC) policies. I believe that document would have been consulted to mete out the appropriate disciplinary measures to the deviant students.

Findings from Interviews and Questionnaires

The findings of the study have been categorized under four sections: a) Conceptions and Perceptions of Globalization, b) Conceptions and Perceptions of School Violence, c) Perceptions of the Relationship Between Globalization and School Violence, and d) Perceptions of Other Factors that Influence School Violence.

Conceptions and Perceptions of Globalization

The respondents from Sanaata's School S and School U neighborhoods, including students, teachers, parents, and community members, shared similar and different perceptions about globalization. For instance, the students believed that globalization represents the economic dimension whereby the government imports expensive brands of shoes, clothing, and technology, such as cell phones into the country which are desirable to young people. Teachers did not focus on the economics, but on the technology, the use of social media, Internet, foreign shows on television and the possible cultural changes

among the youth in the society. Parents also focused only the technological and cultural aspects of globalization. Community members perceived that globalization represents technology, including social media, the Internet, and television programming from industrialized countries which are pervasive and may introduce different cultural mores into the country.

Students: Before I interviewed the students in Schools S and U, I asked each student if he/she, knew what globalization meant. Since the students were not familiar with the concept, I used Kolb's (1984) model of experiential learning to explain the concept to them. I then asked them how they believed that globalization would affect the country.

All [but 7] of the students from both schools emphasized the economic aspects of globalization, especially focusing on the availability of high brands of items such as clothing, shoes, bookbags, and telephones which are imported in the country. The children were cognizant about the costs associated with the imported brands and [ten from School S and 11 School U] of the students, respectively were critical of such consumption.

For example, students from School S mentioned that "students are spending too much money on luxury items that we don't need"(13-year-old female); "If we continue spending money on brands, we will not have enough for emergencies" (12- year-old male); "Brands make different classes of people, those who can afford brands and those who cannot afford brands" (13-year-old male); "Brands are not necessary since the economy is in a recession." (13-year-old male).

Similarly, students from School U emphasized the economic factor of globalization. Some of them pointed out that teens are very attracted to high-end brands, despite the fact that they may not be affordable to some students: "globalization affects teenagers, particularly because they want certain brands of shoes and bags" (13-year-old female); "when they [merchants] buy things from away, they may pay $200 for the item, but they sell the same item in Trinidad for $800" (14-year-old male); "Brands are very expensive, and children should not desire them if their parents cannot afford them" (12-year-old female).

However, five students from School S and 14 School U students expressed positive views about high-end brands being available in the country. For example, the an 11-year-old female student from School S explained: "Although imported high-end brands are very expensive, Trinidad and Tobago citizens sell the high brands that come into the country and … if you cannot go away to buy brands, then another way is to buy it on-line or buy it in Trinidad." And School U students agreed that imported high-end brands are very desirable: "Some children are into it. They really want foreign brands" (11-year-old male); "Yes, it is a good thing. Foreign brands are different, and, quite cool! It can affect people who spend money to get brands" (14-year-old male).

Teachers: In contrast to students, none of the teachers at School S and School U discussed the economic/trade dimension of globalization. Instead, the majority of teachers in both schools emphasized the technological and cultural dimensions of globalization. For instance, seven out of 10 teachers from School S did so, calling attention to the children's engagement with social media, mainstream entertainment, and violent video games as representing a negative influence of globalization on youth:

"Unsupervised use of social media" (Teacher 1); " Mass media and major changes in social and generational ideologies" (Teacher 2). In the case of School U, 11 out of 13 teachers commented that they viewed the technological and cultural dimensions of globalization, which includes social media and the Internet, and entertainment through foreign shows on the television, to be negative influences in the lives of teenagers/ youth: "Children have ease of access to information, TV shows and movies that glamorize violence" (Teacher 1); "The Internet is creating exposure to certain negative influences too soon" (Teacher 2).

In addition, three teachers from School S and two teachers from School U specifically highlighted the cultural dimension of globalization more explicitly. The School S teachers indicated that they viewed changes in societal mores, which reflect the negative influences of globalization on youth. As one School S teacher stated: "The whole world or rather society is on a downward slope." A School U teacher noted similarly: "Social media is creating a lot of drama. Children are becoming sexually active too early. Their priorities are all mixed up."

Parents: Similar to the teachers, parents mentioned – and criticized – the technological and cultural dimensions of globalization. For example, two School S parents discussed this dimension. As one of these parents stated: "due to the imposition of American influence through violent shows broadcast on television and social media [as well as] societal pressures." With regard to School U parents, five of seven commented similarly, referencing negative mass media and social media influences of globalization. However, zero teachers from School S but three from School U echoed the attention given by students to the economic dimension of globalization. A parent from School U

offered the following opinion: "When children are exposed to social media, they then compare themselves to others and their material possessions."

Community Members: Ten of the community members who lived or worked in the neighborhood of School S and nine members of the community surrounding School U believed that globalization included technological, cultural, and economic/trade dimensions. They tended to articulate their views – and critique – of globalization by referencing two or three of these dimensions in the same response. As an example of a community member living and/or working near School S, one ordained minister who avowed to have spent many years "ministering to youth in some of the hot-spot areas in Trinidad," blamed social media, television programs from North America for influencing the youth in Trinidad, especially young black males. The minister believed that the black youth in Trinidad are imitating the urban, cultural lifestyle of "rappers" from the United States, who wear flashy jewelry (bling), designer labels, and engage in risky behaviors. A firefighter added: "Yes, we look to the United States for trade. We import everything from the U.S., clothing, music, and food, through the technology, kids can see everything that is happening in the world." And a retired teacher noted that "globalization is influencing the youth to acquire a lifestyle of materialism which has affected his value system and his relationships with his peers."

With regard to the community members who worked and/or lived in the vicinity of School U, a special educator observed that "children now want the latest brands of clothes, music and phones which can lead to problems in school." An additional point of view from a self-employed marketing consultant references that even young children are desirous of and own technological devices: "Well, because of globalization we are

exposed to more…I mean, even though we are not a first world country, we are more aware of what is going on in the world through technology, the Internet, TV … my young daughter has a tablet …" Also, a retired primary school teacher expressed similar sentiments: "Globalization influences people in the country from what is seen on TV … Children have been influenced."

Nonetheless, two community members who lived and/or worked in the vicinity of School S expressed positive views about globalization. One social worker from the environs of School S mentioned: "Because of globalization, the smallest child in Trinidad and Tobago has a cell phone. It can be good thing."

Similarly, two community members from the School U neighborhood expressed positive (as well as negative) sentiments about the technological dimension of globalization. One, a professional gas inspector, stated that technology "can be beneficial to the country but it can have a negative backlash because everybody cannot afford the new technology."

Conceptions and Perceptions of School Violence

The respondents of Sanaata, including students, teachers, parents, and community members who lived and/or worked in the vicinities of School S and School U, all agreed that school violence was a serious problem in the country. The students had similar and different conceptions and perceptions about school violence. Generally, the students from School S and School U responded that they had their first experience of school violence in their particular elementary schools. However, in their present secondary schools, the students from School S mentioned that there were very few incidents of school violence.

Similarly, the teachers from School S agreed with the students from School S that there were only a few incidents of school violence in the school. On the other hand, the students from School U revealed that they had experienced or witnessed many acts of school violence, both their time both in elementary and in secondary school. Similarly, the teachers also reported that there were many acts of school violence in School U. The parents from School S reported that they were aware of a few acts of school violence in the school. On the other hand, the parents from School U responded that school violence was increasing and becoming worse in the school. Community members, who worked and/or lived in the School S neighborhood, similarly believed like the students, teachers, and parents that there were not many incidents of school violence in School S. On the contrary, community members, who lived or worked in the environs of School U, perceived that there were many serious incidents of school violence in their school.

Students: All the students from School S and School U shared similar responses about their awareness and experiences of school violence in their elementary schools. They mentioned that the experiences included fighting, bullying, stealing, rough-playing, and "taxing" (older students bullying younger students for money). The students in School S and School U had different experiences with violence in their secondary schooling.

Even though the students from School S explained that they experienced school violence in their elementary schools, they did not believe that there was a significant number of incidents of school violence in their present school. A 12-year-old female student expressed her perceptions about the school: "It's like a big family and everybody cares for each other and no bullying, but there may be arguments." And a 13-year-old

male student commented: "Not really, only a little bit. Troubles from the outside community can cause problems." Most of the students in School S said that they felt safe in the school. According to a 14-year-old female student from School S, "Nothing like that [school violence] takes place in this school. It is so boring."

On the other hand, students from School U indicated that they were aware of several incidents of school violence in their elementary schools, which included bullying fighting, teasing, taxing, and stealing. They also mentioned that they did not feel safe in School U. About their present high school, a 14-year-old male student confessed: "Yes, I experience students fighting with teachers in class and disrespecting them." Another 14-year-old male student agreed: "Yes, a boy and his parents were fighting with students … I fought with a boy in Form 1." And a 13-year-old female student said, "Someone stole my expensive phone from school."

Teachers: Teachers in both schools noted the existence of violence in schools in Trinidad and Tobago, although School U teachers communicated that it was more of a problem in their school than did School S' teachers. Teachers in School S believed that acts of school violence include fighting, verbal abuse, threats, cyberbullying, extortion, and attacks on teachers. They conceptualized school violence to be; "saddening, a serious problem which affects staff and students, unacceptable and not applicable for School S." Teachers from School U, similarly responded that acts of school violence include: "fights, robbery, assaults (verbal and physical), bullying, possession of weapons, and cyberbullying." The teachers from School U conceptualized school violence to be "uncontrollable, unacceptable, deplorable … does not belong in school." Generally, the teachers from School S and School U believed that acts of school violence were serious

infractions. They expressed the view that those acts were not acceptable for any school setting. School S teachers insisted that serious acts of violence did not occur in their school. On the other hand, School U teachers made no such disclaimer about their school.

Teachers from School S generally agreed that school violence is a serious phenomenon that is affecting the school system today. One teacher declared that it is "a plague." Another mentioned that school violence is a "growing problem that is not being adequately addressed." However, most of the teachers did not believe that serious incidents were occurring at School S. Apart from referring to school violence as "a plague," another teacher from School S said it was, "heartbreaking but not in this present school."

Many of the teachers from School U agreed with the teachers from School S that school violence was a serious problem that was getting out of hand in the country. As a teacher from School U said: "School violence is too rampant and serious methods need to be implemented." However, unlike the teachers and students from School S, the teachers at School U believed that many serious incidents of school violence occurred at their school. One School U teacher commented, "any violence, especially at the school level is deplorable. Young people do not consider the ramifications of their actions. In this school the consequence of school violence is a seven-day suspension."

Parents: Similar to the students, the parents in the two schools also differed with respect to whether they believed violence was a problem in their children's school. One out of two parents of School S believed that school violence entailed "emotional and physical harassment, name calling and physical encounters." On the other hand, three out

of seven parents from School U described School violence to include "harassment, robbery and physical assault."

One of two parents at School S reported that her child had encountered emotional and physical harassment at a former high school. Further, she explained that since her daughter moved to School S, she did not encounter any problems from school violence. The other parent also did not mention any incidents of school violence.

With respect to School U, most of the parents echoed the remarks of teachers and students that there were serious incidents of school violence at their children's high school. Some of the incidents were described by the parents as "physical assaults, harassment, fighting and extortion."

Community Members: Community members who lived and/or worked near both schools noted the existence of violence in schools in Trinidad and Tobago. Moreover, the community members living near School U perceived that violence was more of a problem in their school than did School S' community members. School S community members believed that acts of school violence include fighting, verbal abuse, threats, cyberbullying, extortion, and attacks on teachers.

Many community members who worked and/or lived in the environs of School S perceived that there was some bullying as well as minor incidents of pushing and shoving and horseplay in School S, though, overall, they did not think that violence was a problem in their neighborhood's high school. However, one community member, a pharmacist, described that there were problems for the students when they got off campus in the area surrounding School S. She explained that her son "got beat up by some boys

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from another school" on his way either to or from School S. Another community member, an ordained minister, admitted that his "children were robbed at gunpoint at another school." More generally, the School S community members identified the following behaviors as constituting school violence: bullying and verbal abuse, pushing and shoving, playing that got serious and led to fighting.

In contrast, the community members from the environs of School U perceived that school violence was a serious problem in School U and in the area surrounding the school. The community members reported that children in the area got into fights. and were bullied. A community member of School U, a trades marketing manager by profession, reported: "My son was bullied. He got into a fight and he was suspended from school for a while." More generally, the School U community members identified the following behaviors as constituting school violence: fighting, bullying.

Perceptions of the Relationships Between Globalization and School Violence

The respondents of the study, including students, teachers, parents, and community members [who lived or worked in the environs] from School S and School U, shared their perceptions about the relationships between globalization and school violence. The responses included similar and different opinions about the relationships between globalization and school violence. The similar responses from School S and School U students focused on wearing expensive brands in school and the possible negative consequences of school violence. On the other hand, Students of School S and School U focused on social media and foreign violent shows as influences of negative, violent behavior in school.

Students: The students from School S and School U agreed that the economic dimension of globalization was represented by the importation of high-end foreign items into Trinidad and Tobago. They believed that those items, including shoes, bags, phones, and clothes were highly desired by some of their peers, even though some of them could not afford them.

When I asked the student respondents from School S about how globalization can affect school violence, the majority perceived that the unequal possession of high-end brands could have two different negative effects in the school. Some of them noted that the students who would wear the expensive brands could be flaunting their affluence over other poor students, which could lead to conflicts in the school. As a 13-year-old male noted: "If a certain student wear[s] a certain brand to school and is showing off with it, it can break out in a fight." And according to a 13-year-old female, "Students from families with more money can tease other children who do not have, and it may lead to fights." Additionally, other School S students also commented that high-end brands could influence students unable to purchase such high-end brands to engage in acts of violence, including fighting, stealing, bullying, and even cyber-bullying.

Similarly, when School U students were asked about the relationship between globalization and school violence, 14 out of 21 of them responded that unequal possession of high-end brands could lead to violence between students, including fighting, stealing, bullying, and cyberbullying. For instance, a 12-year-old female student mentioned the following: "Children who have brands, laugh at students who do not have brands and it can cause bacchanal [local word for trouble]." And a 13-year-old male student stated: "If you don't wear brands, people don't like you. Brands get attention and

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make you popular. If you don't wear brands, you get pushed to the side." Additionally, a 13-year-old male student observed: "Maybe, because if you do not have the latest shoes, they pick on you. That's how it starts."

Teachers: Similar to the students from Schools S and U, the teachers perceived that globalization influences school violence, but they did not focus on the unequal possession of high-end brands.

Eight of 11 School S teachers believed that the technological and cultural dimensions of globalization, such as "unsupervised use of social media, violent games and violent television shows," can influence youth to engage in acts of school violence especially, cyberbullying, fighting, bullying and using obscene language. For example, one teacher noted: "Yes, it has [influenced school violence], as social media and mainstream entertainment showcase it."

In the case of teachers from School U, 11 of 13 of them highlighted the technological and cultural dimension of globalization, emphasizing the images and promotion of violence available through mass media produced in other countries. For instance, one teacher from School U stated: "Children have ease of access to information, and television shows and movies [that] glamorize violence." Furthermore, 9 of 13 School U teachers stressed the negative cultural messages, including violence, to which students have access via international social media. To illustrate, one School U teacher stated that "the Internet … expos[es] certain negative influences to young students too soon." Another School U teacher expressed the following: "Children are exposed to too much

too soon. Social media is causing a lot of drama. Children are becoming sexually active too early. Their priorities are all mixed up."

Parents: School S and School U parents' responses about the influences of globalization on school violence focused on the technological and cultural dimensions, giving particular attention to messages and images conveyed through social media and the Internet.

Two School S parents shared similar perceptions with the students and teachers from School S and School U. They believed that the technological and cultural dimensions of globalization, including the Internet and social media, can influence acts of school violence by conveying images and messages that promote violence. As one of the two School S parents stated: "Yes, due to the imposition of American influence through violent shows broadcast on television and social media."

Similarly, four of the seven parents of School U students believed that the cultural messages and images conveyed through technology associated with globalization could influence school violence. One parent noted: "Some students like to imitate what they see on social media. We should educate children on the dangers and consequences of these actions." Additionally, another parent explained that when some children are exposed to social media, "they may compare themselves to others and their material possessions which may lead to hurt, anger and school violence."

Community Members: Similar to teachers and parents, adult community members who lived and/or worked in the vicinities of School S and School U expressed that technological and cultural dimensions of globalization – notably, social media, the Internet

and mass media – influenced school violence by communicating to youth violent subject matter.

Eight out of 12 members from the School S community perceived that globalization could influence youth to engage in school violence through the exposure to the lifestyles of people from industrialized countries, especially via mass media. For example, a firefighter mentioned: "Yes, if the children look at foreign television shows with school violence, these shows can influence children to copy violence." And a market vendor added: "It [mass media] will lead children to do wrong. Even the cartoon shows influence violence." In addition, a pharmacist stated: "Children are curious about violence on television shows and movies. They may try to take what they see to the schools."

Members of the community who lived and/or worked in the vicinity of School U similarly reported that they believed that globalization, via mass media, can promote or influence school violence in youth. For example, a trades marketing manager explained: "Mass media programs glorify negative elements in the society; some children are influenced by that." And a fashion designer argued that "even some foreign musical videos expose children to violent lyrics and lifestyles that can influence children's behavior in school."

Perceptions of Other Factors that Influence School Violence

The respondents from Sanaata, including students, teachers, parents and community members associated with School S and School U, generally agreed that there were other factors besides globalization which could influence school violence. Some of

the respondents pointed to improper socialization of children at home, while others

mentioned violence in the community associated with selling illegal products.

Students: Students from School S identified other factors besides globalization

that influence school violence, calling attention to the home environment and the poor

socialization of children. To illustrate, a 14-year-old female student mentioned:" If they

[youth] are raised in a particular way, they can either behave in a good way or a bad

way." Also, a 13-year-old male student opined: "It depends on what the children see and

what they see their parents doing. This might make them mad all the time and want to

lash out." Other School S students suggested other factors, besides globalization, that can

influence school violence, including: "Teasing by peers from the espousal of

identification with transgender sexuality" (13-year-old female) and the "guns and drugs

from gangs outside the community of the school" (14-year-old male student).

Three of the students from School U mentioned socialization at home as a key

factor influencing school violence. For example, a 14-year-old female student noted: "If

your parents abuse you, making you frustrated, then you may harass and bully other

children." And a 14-year-old male student said that "verbal abuse of youth [at home] may

lead to bullying."

Teachers: Teachers from School S and School U identified other factors besides

globalization that could contribute to school violence, including how children are reared

at home and problems in the community surrounding the schools.

Six out of eight School S teachers agreed with the students from Schools S and U

that a lack of proper home socialization of children can lead to school violence. For

instance, one teacher referenced "non-supervision of children by adults." Another teacher mentioned "lack of parenting and breakdown in discipline at home." Two other teachers responded that "lack of love in the home and parental negligence, and lack of spirituality in the home." Furthermore, two teachers identified other factors influencing school violence, including: the "availability of guns in the community and drugs" and "the influence of friends."

School U teachers reported that, besides globalization, other factors triggered acts of school violence. S six out of 13 mentioned inadequate home socialization of children. For example, one School U teacher suggested "problems at home" and another teacher identified "lack of parental care at home and lack of morals and values in the home." Other factors mentioned by School U included "social issues such as drugs in the community" and "gang activity."

Parents: Parents from both schools shared similar ideas about other factors that could influence school violence, pointing to socialization in the home, the influence of peers, and community/society violence.

The parents from School S identified "neglect of children growing up," peer influence," and "social unrest in the country" as other factors, besides globalization, that can influence school violence.

The parents from School U also suggested that lack of proper socialization in the home is a factor, besides globalization, which can influence school violence. Other factors that were mentioned included: "inequity in the schools demonstrated by teachers

and the government," "misunderstanding of youth," and "youth bullying younger children for money."

Community Members: School S as well as School U community members reported other factors, such as poor parenting skills in the socialization of children and the availability of illicit merchandise from the communities surrounding the schools, to be an influence on school violence.

Seven out of 15 community members who lived and/or worked in the neighborhood of School S expressed that some children are not being socialized properly at home and that this could lead them to engage in violence in school. For instance, a police officer commented: "Breakdown in stable families can make children depressed. They may lash out in the schools." However, some community members of School S indicated the influence of other factors, besides globalization and home socialization, on school violence. For example, a retired principal mentioned: "The illegal guns and drugs [coming] into the community filter into the schools." And a retired teacher responded: "Children from poor communities are vulnerable to the influences of negative leaders in the community who instigate violence in secondary school children."

Many community members from the neighborhood of School U said they believe that, apart from globalization, the lack of stable families and proper guidance and morals in the home may promote school violence. For example, an insurance researcher commented at some length:

Sometimes mothers who are looking for better opportunities for themselves and their children, may emigrate to an industrialized country, leaving their children

under the care of surrogates who may not have the best interest of the children.

These children are sometimes stigmatized as "barrel children," because the

mothers would ship goods back to the children in barrels. Sometimes, these

children develop emotional and psychological problems which promote acts of

school violence.

For other School U community members, they saw the need for community organizations

to fill the gap for families that were not able to provide needed socialization for their

children. To illustrate, a retired government worker noted that "the churches in the

communities should be more involved with the children," and a mechanic suggested that

"the Village Council body of the community should assist poor parents in raising their

children."

Chapter 6: Summary and Conclusion

After learning about the severe problems with school violence in Trinidad and Tobago, I decided to study how various citizens of the community of Sanaata in Trinidad perceived the phenomena of school violence, globalization, and the relationship between both phenomena. I also wanted to find out what other factors they perceived to influence school violence in that community. I focused the study on students in two secondary schools (School S and School U), their teachers, their parents, and other community members who worked and/or resided in the environs of these two schools in the suburban community of Sanaata.

Since the core population in the high schools is comprised of adolescents, I focused on the context of developmental theory, which explains that some adolescents who transition from childhood to adulthood are faced with many obstacles and challenges. Consequently, some adolescents are considered 'at risk populations' because they are growing up under conditions of "pervasive adversity, limited resources, and intense pressures toward the transgressions of conventional norms" (Jessor, 1991, p. 602). Adolescent students in Trinidad and Tobago, a developing postcolonial country, are also vulnerable due to the historical, macro-social heritage of imperialist colonization. The youth are also vulnerable to the contemporary underlying instability of socio-economic conditions imposed by hegemonic globalization.

Based on the aforementioned contexts, I sought to investigate the following research questions:

1. How does the community of Sanaata in Trinidad and Tobago – including students, their teachers, their parents, and other community members who reside or work in the environs of the schools – perceive the phenomenon of school violence?

2. How does the community of Sanaata perceive the phenomenon of globalization?

3. How does the community of Sanaata perceive the relationship between the two phenomena (school violence and globalization)?

4. What other factors (besides globalization) do various stakeholders in Sanaata perceive as contributing to school violence?

I employed qualitative methodology, using open-ended questions via interviews and questionnaires, to identify the thoughts, feelings and experiences of the participants of the study. I collected data from 57 students, 23 teachers, nine parents and 77 community members, who resided and/or worked in the vicinities of School S and School U.

Summary of Findings
School violence

My study revealed that there was general consensus among all respondents, including students, teachers, parents, and community members working or residing within the vicinity of School S and School U. They believed that school violence was problematic in the schools of Trinidad and Tobago. Many of the respondents also agreed that the problem of school violence was exacerbated by crime in the neighborhoods surrounding the schools. Most students reported that they had experienced school

violence in the elementary schools. However, the students, teachers, and one (of two) parent from School S perceived that school violence was not prevalent in their secondary school, and the students added that they generally felt safe in School S. In contrast, all the other respondents, including students, teachers, parents, and community members associated with School U, perceived that school violence was a serious problem in their secondary school, where the students did not feel safe. Some of the students from School U responded that they, themselves, were perpetrators of violence. Others disclosed that they had experienced or had witnessed violence in the school. The victims had experienced bullying, including fighting, theft, extortion, and cyberbullying by other students in the school – and these were forms of violence that many of the teachers, parents, and community members referenced.

The respondents of the community of Sanaata conceived of school violence as fighting, bullying, cyberbullying, theft, extortion [taxing], verbal abuse, fighting with teachers and administrators, cursing, gambling, smoking and illicit drug use, and illegal use of the cell phones to take and post pictures publicly.

Globalization

Before I interviewed the students in both School S and School U about globalization, I asked each student if he/she knew what the word meant. None of them knew what it meant; thus, I used Kolb's (1984) model of experiential learning to introduce the concept to them. I used the globe as a concrete example. I questioned the students about the different countries represented on the globe. Then I asked them to locate Trinidad and Tobago on the globe. I also asked them to mention some of the ways that different people in the world would communicate with each other. After several

responses, I asked the students to think about people trading with each other. This created

an opportunity for the children to link their knowledge and experience of global trade and

the importation of high-end products, such as clothing, shoes, and electronics, into the

country. Thus, when the students discussed the concept of globalization, they tended to

focus on the economic dynamics of trade between Trinidad and Tobago and other

countries. Most of the students reflected that globalization could be a negative thing

because, instead of buying the local brands, some children would prefer to buy the

foreign brands, which were very expensive and beyond the financial means of many

youth in the society. However, some students mentioned what they viewed as positive

consequences of globalization, such as the use of computers and the Internet for school

assignments; the availability of social media for entertainment; and the opportunity to

socialize with their friends and to communicate (via Facebook, Instagram, and

WhatsApp) with friends and family members who reside abroad.

The findings also revealed that most of the other Sanaata respondents, including

teachers, parents and adult community members from the school environs, believed that

globalization could negatively impact adolescents through the country's importation of

high-end products, new technological devices, programming and platforms, foreign

shows and music to which adolescents would willingly gravitate. The aforementioned

respondents suggested that technological devices, with social media applications, may

contain foreign, violent-themed programming. Such mediated cultural messages and

images could influence Trinidadian adolescents to be involved in violence, such as

bullying and cyberbullying, in the schools. Nevertheless, some of the teacher, parent, and

community member respondents called attention to positive aspects of globalization, such

as upgraded home appliances, some aspects of social media, entertainment, and the use of computers and Internet.

The Effect of Globalization and Other Factors on School Violence

Similar perceptions of the Sanaata respondents, relating to the negative effect of globalization and other factors on school violence, included the importation of high-end products and the penetration of social media, mass media and the Internet. The respondents reported that they believed that other factors that could impact school violence, were poor socialization of youth by parents, parental abuse, infiltration of drugs and guns from the neighborhood and the poor influence of peers.

The findings show that students in both School S and School U perceived that some high-brand items, such as clothing and shoes, imported into the country could impact children's engagement in school violence through incidents of teasing, bragging, jealousy or theft of the items brought by the students to school, sometimes leading to physical violence in the schools.

In addition, the students from School S mentioned other factors besides globalization that they perceived could impact school violence. These were: lack of proper home socialization of children, the sexual identification of some children, teasing and rough playing, as well as social economic disparity in schools and communities. The students from School U mentioned other factors besides globalization that influenced school violence. Those factors were inadequate socialization; various forms of abuse in the home; verbal abuse by parents, teachers and peers; drugs and violence in the

community; violent movies; the poor examples in conduct of older peers; and technology, including phones and social media.

With regard to the School S teachers, they did not perceive that high-end imports through globalization impacted school violence in their school. In contrast, the School U teachers did believe that high-end products did influence school violence in their school. This is most likely due to the desirability of material products which some of the students could not afford to buy, which led to the conflicts that arose from unequal possessions. In addition, teachers in School S and School U perceived a range of other factors in the country that influenced school violence, including deterioration of values, breakdown in family life, lack of supervision of the children at school and at home, bad influence from peers, and crime/violence in the society.

As noted above, School U parents, as well as some students and teachers, were more likely than School S parents to report that they perceived violence to have occurred in their children's secondary school. Moreover, there were some differences between the two schools' parents in their identification of factors that influenced school violence. With reference to globalization, parents at both schools similarly explained that they perceived globalization to influence school violence, through social media, mass media and portrayal of violent shows. Other factors that School S parents identified as affecting school violence included crime in the neighborhood, social unrest, parental neglect of children and the negative influence of peers. In contrast, the parents from School U highlighted critically what they perceived as the perpetuation of social and economic inequality as contributing to school violence. They mentioned the deteriorating physical structures and reduced instructional time in their school. The critiques were based on the

premise that the model or elite schools received more government financial resources and trained school personnel with the potential to invest and participate in the safety and productivity of the school.

Finally, the findings of the study revealed that the members of the community, who lived and worked in the neighborhood of School S and School U, viewed globalization as influencing school violence through its technological and cultural dimensions, including social media, the Internet, mass media and violent themed foreign programs. Moreover, community members associated with both schools perceived the following factors, besides globalization, as contributing to school violence: poor socialization of children at home, lack of good role models in the communities and lack of social services, such as daycare and recreational facilities.

Conclusion

Implications for Theory and Research

Around the world, school violence is a phenomenon that is currently disrupting countries' human rights agendas with regard to the education of youth. From the last quarter of the 20th century and continuing into the earliest quarter of the 21st century, the implementation of Trinidad and Tobago's government's educational vision has been hampered by serious consequences of crime in the country and violence in the schools. Concurrently, globalization has had deleterious impacts on the sociopolitical and economic development of the country. These include unemployment and other economic and social problems from structural adjustment policies; tensions from cultural and ethnic diversity of a cosmopolitan country; brain drain involving educated migrants who want to

improve their lives abroad; and infiltration of crime, drugs, guns and refugees from other Caribbean and South American countries.

The findings of the study reveal that the perceptions of the respondents in Sanaata correspond with the discourses about globalization in the literature. For example, they are in concert with Jessor's (1991 and 1993) research that has advanced a conceptual framework to study human development of adolescence transitioning into adulthood (Lloyd, 2005, p. 15). The framework shows that young people in developing countries are encapsulated in a dynamic, transitioning environment of contexts and influences in their daily lives. Jessor (1993) mentions three analytic contexts which regulate the lives of adolescents. They comprise (a) the changing global context of globalization which encompasses factors such as the economy, technology, political systems, etc.; (b) the changing national context, which comprise, demographic structure, economy culture, etc.; and (c) the changing local context, representing, inter alia, peers, family and kin, social roles, and educational resources. Jessor's (1991) theory is based on Bronfenbrenner's (1979) model, which has been adopted by other development theorists, including Benbenishty & Astor (2008), Karcher (2004), and Cullen (1994). Those theorists explain that adolescents are situated within four important systems: the microsystem, the mesosystem, the exosystem and the macrosystem. These four systems constitute the ecosystem, which contains all the rules, norms and roles that shape the development of children, adolescents, and adults. I found this useful in exploring how the students – but also the teachers, parents, and community members – perceived the factors influencing school violence in Sanaata.

Additionally, my study's findings reinforced ideas articulated by Marsella (2005), who identified the macrosystem as "hegemonic globalization," since it challenges developing countries and local native, cultures and minority populations to conform to the dominant Western culture. According to the author, the processes of conformity are directed to vulnerable youths all over the world. Western capitalists and mass media introduce appealing, high-end products – such as fast foods, personal electronics, clothing style, entertainment and culture – through international trade. Marsella's (2005) theory/research thus identifies hegemonic globalization with global imperatives or factors which can influence the vulnerable youth to desire those high-end products, even though they may not be able to afford them.

In both School S and School U in Trinidad and Tobago, my study found that some youth expressed admiration for those high-end items that they considered "cool." On the other hand, many of the adolescent respondents perceived that the high-end products, including shoes, bags and phones that are brought to school, can incite youth to engage in school violence. These respondents have articulated the view that there could be a negative relationship between the phenomena of globalization and school violence, thus, establishing a link between hegemonic globalization and school violence. Since hegemonic globalization is represented by the macrosystem, more research is needed to investigate how the macrosystem, in fact, the entire ecosystem, could apply rules, norms and roles to influence the positive (or negative) development of youth in various societies. Thus, my study suggests that the ecological developmental model of connectedness and influence prescribes a "holistic framework" to study young people's experiences in their daily lives.

The findings of this study also suggest that there may be more incidents of bullying in the elementary schools than in the secondary schools in Trinidad and Tobago. They imbricate with the theoretical ideas and research presented by Olweus (1996), Chapell et al. (2006), and the National Education Association (NEA, 2012), that espouse that bullying starts in the elementary schools, and it drops as students proceed through the middle and high schools. On the other hand, the theoretical ideas/research presented by Miller and Chandler (2003) and (Costley (n.d.) show that, alternatively, children become more aggressive in secondary school than in elementary school. It is my belief that more children in elementary school exhibit egregiously aggressive behavior, which may be only considered as a minor infraction. However, the infractions have more severe or violent consequences in secondary school. The study indicates that acts of bullying and cyberbullying in School U were not only perpetrated on younger, vulnerable peers, but on teachers as well. It is my assumption that elementary school children rarely attack or confront adults in the schools. The implication is that more research in this area is necessary to contribute valuable information, especially with regard to aggressive behaviors in both elementary and secondary schools in Trinidad and Tobago and similar "developing" country contexts. Further research could also focus on the appropriate methods of intervention in both elementary and secondary schools.

Implications for Research Methods

My samples of students, parents and teachers were smaller than I had planned. While it is usual for some individuals to decide not to participate in a study, this problem was exacerbated because of the approaches I used to invite participation in the study.

The protocol involved sending two envelopes to the students to give to their respective parents (or guardians), requesting: a) the parents' approval for their children to participate in the study as well as b) the parents' consent to participate and the parents' questionnaire to complete and return. The envelopes enclosed instruction sheets along with the documents to be signed and/or completed, and then returned the following day by the students. However, many of the parents returned the informed consent forms for their children's participation in the study, but they did not return their consent form or their questionnaire. Repeated requests for the forms and questionnaires were not successful. Undoubtedly, the confusion – and the double burden – caused by sending the two envelopes at the same time and the instructions that the two consent forms and the parents' questionnaire should be returned the next day, given the parents' busy schedule, likely contributed to the low response rate by parents. There was a slightly better response from the parents at School U, perhaps because I had attended a parent-teacher meeting and had personally distributed the forms to those parents. Nevertheless, in the case of School U, I distributed the envelopes and expected them to be returned the next day, despite the meeting ending late at night. In hindsight, it is clear that I should have simplified, and separated, the process of recruitment of parents from seeking parental consent for students' participation. Also, instead of using questionnaires, it may have been more effective to arrange to interview the parents.

It also occurred to me that since the teachers were given the questionnaires to fill out to be returned the next day, in some instances, some of their responses were very brief. Again, it may have been better to interview the teachers to obtain more in-depth responses.

Another implication for research methods relates to the ages of the students involved in the research. My study was initially designed to include students from the higher grades (Forms 4-6), since I believed that the complex concept of globalization would be within the grasp of an older cohort of secondary students. However, the schools would not permit the students from the higher grades to participate in the study because they were preparing for school-leaving examinations. Consequently, I had to include students from the secondary schools' three lower grades (Forms 1-3) in my samples. I had to adjust my study to accommodate a younger cohort of students, who were not familiar with the concept of globalization, meaning that I had to introduce the concept to the students by using Kolb's (1984) experiential learning method. This additional procedure slowed down my presentation and interviews. I also had to adjust my interview questions to fit the younger students' comprehension. I decided to introduce the concept of globalization from the perspective of international trade with Trinidad and Tobago and other countries. I found that the students were already acquainted with the importation of high-end brands in the country. However, because I called the students' attention to the economic/international trade dimension of globalization in the experiential learning activity, that was the only dimension that the majority of students considered when I asked them about globalization and its impact on school violence.

Also, I learned that the climatic conditions of a country could greatly affect field work. Unwittingly, my research in Trinidad and Tobago was scheduled for the rainy season which occurs from June to December. This was an unfortunate period of time in the country because of the occurrences of both severe flooding as well as an earthquake

(Richter scale magnitude of 6.9). These natural disasters interrupted the timing of the project and, perhaps, the level of attention that respondents gave to the questions I posed.

Implications for Policy and Practice in School Systems

The respondents perceived that the phenomenon of school violence is indeed a serious problem in Trinidad and Tobago. Other reports show that school violence could exert deleterious psychological and physiological consequences on children which could last a lifetime. According to UNICEF, it is imperative to eradicate physical and psychological violence from all schools. It is important to point out as well that there is a symbiotic relationship between crime in the society and violence in the schools. Thus, since the findings of the study also indicated that some of the students experienced crime in the neighborhoods, government and school-level policies and actions need to focus on the situation of unsafe neighborhoods surrounding the schools. Consequently, school administrators and government officials should determine solutions to the specific problems of crime in the community. Some problems mentioned in the findings were that guns and drugs in the neighborhoods seriously affected some of the youths from School S and School U. For example, a student reported that he was held up at gunpoint for his phone in the area near his school. When I interviewed him, he was still traumatized about the experience. This implies that such acts of crime in the neighborhood can have lasting physical and psychological effects on students, as well as negatively impact their education.

State school officials in Colorado (Elliott et al., 2002) suggested some specific questions to consider when trying to establish safe schools' communities. The following

questions may serve as an example for the teachers, administrators, parents of Schools S and U, in addition to government officials, to initiate and address the policy of safe schools in their communities:

- What is the greatest violence- or safety-related problem in the community?

- What is the nature of the problem?

- What types of violence are occurring?

- What are the causes of the problem?

- What resources are already in place to address the problem?

The respondents in the town of Sanaata, including students, teachers, parents and other community members, also recognized the economic and social inequalities that exist in the society as well as in School S and School U. They identified and articulated perceptions about the phenomena of globalization and school violence and the negative relationship between the two. Thus, as a starting point, I would advise government officials and adult stakeholders to involve the youth in the dialogue about school violence, since their perceptions are "on site" and, thus, are relevant.

Other recommendations for school policy for School S and School U include:

- The school could partner with the parents and community members who work/reside in the school environs to address some of the problems associated with the disrepair or neglect in School U. This should engender among all, a sense of pride and affinity with the school.

- Viable, progressive parent-teacher associations should meet regularly to discuss different issues and to make policy decisions relating to school violence.

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Community leaders and other stakeholders could be invited to lead discussions about the phenomenon in the schools.

- There is a special need for more counselors and nurses in the schools. Although some schools may have a sick bay, there are no professionals to address students' health and psychological issues or to dispense medical care and psycho-social support.

- Administrators and teachers in the schools should try to develop a school climate embracing the tenets of "Discipline, Production and Tolerance" in keeping with the "Watch Words of the Nation." This climate was espoused by the country's first prime minister in order to improve students (and adults), social and personal well-being, academic performance, and human development.

- Teachers should model behavior that would earn the respect, trust, fairness and understanding of each other and of the students.

- Administrators and teachers should encourage and challenge children to improve themselves, even though they may have to implement alternative teaching methods to meet the needs of all children.

- Children could be taught to use mass media safely and responsibly through government regulations and adult supervision.

- Computers could be used for assignments, classroom presentations and distance education.

- Administrators, teachers, parents, and students should have discussions about their concerns about the role of technology in the Global Village and the

commitment of Trinidad and Tobago to increased information and communication technology (ICT) education in the schools.

Finally, flaws of inequality and elitism in the educational system that have been linked to hegemonic globalization continue to contribute to social, cultural, and educational tensions in the society. Furthermore, these inequalities promote social exclusion of disadvantaged poor children and encourage an elitist, hierarchical school system in the country. These findings should encourage efforts to overhaul and reform the current dual system of education in Trinidad and Tobago to meet the needs of all its citizens. Vulnerable youth in the society are affected by the introduction of high-end products and technological devices into the country which are some triggers of stress and tensions among the youth, leading to school violence. The government should standardize some items of school wear in the schools, especially footwear, to avoid conflicts over high-end products in the schools.

Despite the aforementioned constraints, Trinidad and Tobago has, in fact, made great strides in meeting the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) in education. Indeed, the country has surpassed the MDG requirements for access to education; that is, the country's goal for universal primary and secondary education has been achieved. Nonetheless, the country is striving to improve in other areas, such as achieving gender parity, increasing the use of ICT, and providing universal early childhood education. Apart from these areas, the country has earmarked several other challenges regarding its development goal agendas.

One of these challenges, deemed "harnessing creativity and imagination," has been appropriated as an innovative venture in an effort to reform the education in Trinidad and Tobago. It has been suggested that the concept should form the "bedrock of our formal and informal and structures for education and must be made to promote not just learning but creativity, entrepreneurship, innovation, and solution-finding and formulation" (Tewarie, 2013). Thus, in an effort to reform the traditional secondary education system and to make schooling more "enticing, palatable, and useful" to students, especially those from lower socioeconomic backgrounds, the government of Trinidad and Tobago should invest in a serious commitment to human rights for all children. The impact of educational expansion must be addressed by looking at factors, other than the numbers of schools and accessibility. Investment in equality, economic growth and the implementation of innovative measures must promote "consistency and balance between the educational outputs and the absorbing capacity of the economic structure" (Sylvester, 2002, p. 11). Additionally, the demise of school violence must become a reality in the society of Trinidad and Tobago.

Appendices

Appendix 1: IRB Informed Minor's Assent Participation Form

Institutional Review Board
1204 Marie Mount Hall ● 7814 Regents Drive ● College Park, MD 20742 ● 301-405-4212 ● irb@umd.edu

ASSENT TO PARTICIPATE

Project Title	An Exploratory Study of Globalization and Community Factors as They Impact School Violence in Trinidad and Tobago
Purpose of the Study	This research study is being conducted by Veronica James, Principal Investigator, from the University of Maryland, College Park, in the United States of America. I am inviting you to participate in this research study because you are a secondary school student in the xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx district of Trinidad and Tobago. The purpose of this research study is to better understand how the influences of other countries may affect the behaviour of secondary school children, leading to school violence in your community. The study may lead to government policies to the benefit of all students. This form will give you other information about the study. I would like to talk to you more about the study and answer any questions you may have. If you do not understand something, please ask me to explain it to you. I will ask you to sign this form to show that you understand the study and agree to take part in it.
Procedures	The procedures involved in this study are the following: • Since your parent/guardian has consented for you to do this study, please sign the assent form. • I will conduct a short interview with the student, lasting 20-30 minutes. • The interviews will be audio-recorded. • Examples of student interview questions: ○ Do you believe that other countries' policies can affect secondary school students in your country?

	o Do you know what school violence is? If yes, please explain.
Potential Risks and Discomforts	There are no more than minimal risks, but then you do not have to answer any question that makes you feel uncomfortable.
Potential Benefits	There are no direct benefits to you. However, possible benefits include better conditions in the schools in your community and other communities in Trinidad and Tobago. We hope that, in the future, other people might benefit from this study through improved understanding of how global issues can affect schools and communities in different ways.
Confidentiality	Any potential loss of confidentiality will be minimized by storing data in a password protected computer that is accessed only to the principal investigator. If I write a report or article about this research project, your identity will be protected to the maximum extent possible. Your information may be shared with representatives of the University of Maryland, College Park, USA, or governmental authorities if you or someone else is in danger or if we are required to do so by law. **Possible exceptions to confidentiality include cases of suspected child abuse or neglect. If there is reason to believe that a child has been abused or neglected. We are required by law to report this suspicion to the proper authorities.**
Right to Withdraw and Questions	Your participation in this research is completely voluntary. You may choose not to take part at all. If you decide to participate in this research, you may stop participating at any time. If you decide not to participate in this study or if you stop participating at any time, you will not be penalized or lose any benefits to which you otherwise qualify. If you decide to stop taking part in the study, if you have questions, concerns, or complaints, or if you need to report an injury related to the research, please contact the investigator: **Veronica James** **veronic_james@hotmail.com** **489-6232 (mobile)**
Participant Rights	If you have questions about your rights as a research

	participant or wish to report a research-related injury, please contact: University of Maryland College Park Institutional Review Board Office 1204 Marie Mount Hall College Park, Maryland, 20742 E-mail: irb@umd.edu Telephone: 301-405-0678 This research has been reviewed according to the University of Maryland, College Park IRB procedures for research involving human subjects.
Statement of Consent	Your signature indicates that you have read this consent form or have had it read to you; your questions have been answered to your satisfaction and you voluntarily agree to participate in this research study. You will receive a copy of this signed consent form. If you agree to participate, please sign your name below.
Signature and Date	**NAME OF SUBJECT** **[Please Print]**	
	SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT	
	DATE	

Appendix 2: Pilot-Testing of Student Interview Protocol

Before the commencement of the case studies, I decided to conduct a pilot-testing study at School S. I had made prior arrangements with the administrators to visit the Schools S and U as soon as I arrived in Trinidad the last week in June 2018. Coincidentally, it was the last week of school before the summer holidays and there were many planned activities, including school excursions for the students. On my arrival at School S, the principal kindly assisted in gathering some of the students, aged 11 to 13, from forms 1 to 3. I had initially targeted that age group for my research study and the pilot study. The children were overly excited about the fact that they were finished with their final examinations. They were chatting, having fun with their schoolmates, anticipating the various excursions that the school had planned for them. The excursions would culminate the school year and precede the long summer vacation. The principal was obviously remarkably busy. I apologized for visiting the school at that time of the school year. She was very understanding and helpful and tried to accommodate me. She assembled some of the students in a vacant classroom. She told them that I was doing a "survey" at the school and I wanted to speak with them about it. When she left the room, I instinctively knew that I had chosen the wrong time of the year to conduct a so-called "survey" with the students. Some of the students immediately voiced their dissent and left the classroom. The other students who had remained were waiting impatiently and skeptically. Somewhat challenged by the lack of interest of the few remaining students, I started to address them, but I sensed that I was facing a losing battle. Nonetheless, I informed them that I was doing a research study in the school, instead of a "survey" as the headmistress had inadvertently informed them. I introduced my assistant and myself

and started to describe the study to them in accordance with IRB regulations. I explained that they were to take a consent form home for their parents' signatures indicating that their parents agreed for the children to take part in the study. At that point, some of the remaining students informed me that they were not interested in taking the consent form to their parents, since they would not be returning to the school the following day. Others left the room before I could fully explain the study to them. Needless to say, I was disappointed and upset that I had not exercised better control over the situation, but I remained optimistic.

Collaborating with my assistant, we devised a plan on how we could recruit a few other students of the school for the pilot study. Since the lower form students (forms, one to three), were too distracted to participate in the study at the moment, we decided to approach a few older students from the higher forms who were curiously milling around the outside of the classroom. We approached them and a few students indicated that they were interested in doing the study. We explained our purpose to them and eventually recruited seven students (from forms three to six; aged 14 to 16) to assist us with the pilot study. They readily accepted the consent forms and promised they would return with the signed forms the following day to be interviewed.

The following day, my assistant and I returned to the school at the appointed time to meet with the students. To our surprise, four out of the seven students showed up for the interview. We requested the signed consent forms from their parents. Only three had complied and had returned them consent forms. We explained to the fourth student that we could not include him in the study because he did not return the consent form. He replied that he was sorry, but his mother had refused to sign the form. We were

determined to do the pilot-testing study because we knew that we would not be returning to the school until September, after the summer vacation. I was eager to get some perspective of how the students would respond to the interview questions before the formal research study in September. The pilot-testing study with the three students was quite an interesting and informative session. Even though there were three students, who did the study, I gained a lot of insight concerning the improvement of my research techniques to be used when I returned in September.

As stated earlier in the discussion about the pilot study in School S, I was not successful in recruiting the students from forms one to three to participate in the pilot study. Those younger students were distracted by end-of-school year activities. Instead, I recruited a few students in the higher grades to participate in the pilot study. I was concerned about how the students would respond to the concept of globalization in the study. I was not sure whether the group of students was of the appropriate age to introduce the concept. Fortunately, the older students were aware of the terminology. They dealt with the concept of globalization, very adeptly in the interview. I questioned the students about their facility with the concept. They informed me that they were familiar with the phenomenon of globalization which was introduced to them in form four Social Studies class.

Based on the information provided by the students from a higher form in School S, I decided that before I interviewed the students in forms 1-3 from School S and School U about globalization, I should revise my protocol by asking each student if she/he knew what the word meant. If the students were to respond in the negative, I would then

introduce a brief lesson via Kolb's (1984) experiential learning model by using the globe

as the concrete example.

Appendix 3: Student Interview Protocol

Personal Demographics:

1.   What form (grade) are you in?

2.   How old are you?

3.   What do you want to do after leaving high school?

4.   Do you think that the school is preparing you well to accomplish your dreams?

5.   Do you live in this neighborhood? If no, what neighborhood do you live in? Do you feel safe in your neighborhood? Why or why not?

6.   With whom do you live? Parent/s, Guardian/s?

 School Violence:

7.   What do your parents think about school violence? Explain.

8.   How do you feel about the safety of the school? Explain.

9.   Have you ever experienced school violence? Can you speak about your experience?

10.   Have you observed or been involved with others who commit school violence. Explain

11.   How does the school deal with students who engage in school violence?

12.   Do you think that the school deals differently with male and female students in the school? Why do you think so?

13.   How do you think parents, members of your family and other members of the community should confront the problem of school violence?

Globalization

14.   Do you and your friends use social media? Which ones? How do you use social media?

15.   Have you been bullied through social media? If yes, in what way?

16.   Do you know what globalization means?

17.   How do you think globalization affects Trinidad and Tobago? In what way?

18.   How do you think globalization affects school violence in Trinidad and Tobago? In what ways?

19.   What can the schools in Trinidad and Tobago do to lessen school violence based on globalization?

20.   What can the government of Trinidad and Tobago do to lessen the effects of globalization in the country?

Appendix 4: IRB Informed Consent Adult's Participation Form

Institutional Review Board
1204 Marie Mount Hall ● 7814 Regents Drive ● College Park, MD 20742 ● 301-405-4212 ● irb@umd.edu

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE

Project Title	An Exploratory Study of Globalization and Community Factors as They Impact School Violence in Trinidad and Tobago
Purpose of the Study	This research is being conducted by **Veronica James, the Principal Investigator,** from the University of Maryland, College Park, in the United States of America. I am inviting you to participate in this research project because you are an adult resident in the xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx district of Trinidad and Tobago. The purpose of this research project is to understand better the influences of globalization and community effects on school violence in the suburban community in Trinidad and Tobago. The study will contribute to existing research on school violence. It may also lead to better government intervention to the benefit of all students in Trinidad and Tobago.
Procedures	The procedures involve the following: • A short interview will be conducted in a quiet, public setting. • The short interview should last approximately for 30 minutes. • The interview may be audio-taped, with your permission. • Interview sample question: What do you think about school violence? • A copy of the signed consent form will be sent to you.
Potential Risks and Discomforts	There are no more than minimal risks, but then you do not have to answer any question that makes you feel uncomfortable.

Potential Benefits	There are no direct benefits from participating in this research. However, possible benefits include changes in policy that would decrease school violence or make students, teachers and others in the community more tolerant and respectful. I hope that, in the future, other people might benefit from this study through improved understanding of what factors may also be responsible for school violence.
Confidentiality	Any potential loss of confidentiality will be minimized by storing data in a password protected computer that is accessed only to the principal investigator. If I write a report or article about this research project, your identity will be protected to the maximum extent possible. Your information may be shared with representatives of the University of Maryland, College Park or governmental authorities if you or someone else is in danger or if we are required to do so by law.
Right to Withdraw and Questions	Your participation in this research is completely voluntary. You may choose not to take part at all. If you decide to participate in this research, you may stop participating at any time. If you decide not to participate in this study or if you stop participating at any time, you will not be penalized or lose any benefits to which you otherwise qualify. If you decide to stop taking part in the study, if you have questions, concerns, or complaints, or if you need to report an injury related to the research, please contact the investigator: **Veronica James** **veronic_james@hotmail.com** **489-6232 (mobile)**
Participant Rights	If you have questions about your rights as a research participant or wish to report a research-related injury, please contact: University of Maryland College Park Institutional Review Board Office 1204 Marie Mount Hall College Park, Maryland, 20742 E-mail: irb@umd.edu Telephone: 301-405-0678 This research has been reviewed according to the University of Maryland, College Park IRB procedures for research involving human subjects.

Statement of Consent	Your signature indicates that you are at least 18 years of age; you have read this consent form or have had it read to you; your questions have been answered to your satisfaction and you voluntarily agree to participate in this research study. You will receive a copy of this signed consent form.	
	If you agree to participate, please sign your name below.	
Signature and Date	NAME OF PARTICIPANT [Please Print]	
	SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT	
	DATE	

Appendix 5: Community Adult Interview Protocol

Personal Demographics:

1. What is your name and your profession?

2. In what neighborhood do you reside?

3. How long have you lived in that neighborhood?

4. Do you have a family?

5. How many children do you have? What are their ages?

6. Do/did they attend secondary schools in this area?

Safety Concerns/School violence:

7. How do you view the safety concerns of your neighborhood?

8. Have your children ever been victims or been involved in school violence?

9. If yes, how has that affected your child, you, and/or the rest of your family?

Community Involvement:

10. Are you an active member of the Parents' Teacher's Association? If yes, in what capacity?

11. How has the community of Sanaata changed over time?

12. Whom or what is responsible for the change?

13. Do you believe that such change/s in the community have influenced children to commit acts of school violence? Explain

Globalization:

14. What are some of the ways that industrialized countries have affected changes in Trinidad and Tobago?

15. In what ways does globalization affect school violence in your community?

16. What can you and other members of your community do to confront school violence in the secondary schools?

Appendix 6: IRB Informed Consent Parent's Participation Form

Institutional Review Board
1204 Marie Mount Hall ● 7814 Regents Drive ● College Park, MD 20742 ● 301-405-4212 ● irb@umd.edu

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE

Project Title	An Exploratory Study of Globalization and Community Factors as They Impact School Violence in Trinidad and Tobago
Purpose of the Study	This research is being conducted by **Veronica James, the Principal Investigator,** from the University of Maryland, College Park, in the United States of America. I am inviting you to participate in this research project because you are parent/guardian of a Form 1-3 student, as well as an adult resident in the xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx district of Trinidad and Tobago. The purpose of this research project is to understand better the influences of globalization and community effects on school violence in the suburban community in Trinidad and Tobago. The study will contribute to existing research on school violence. It may also lead to better government intervention to the benefit of all students in Trinidad and Tobago.
Procedures	The procedures involve the following: • You are sent an Adult Consent Form by your child at home. • You are asked to sign the form if you wish to participate in the study. • You are asked to return the signed form with your child the following day. • Upon receipt of the signed Adult Consent Form, a short questionnaire will be sent to you by the Investigator. • The completed short questionnaire should be returned with your child the following day. • The questionnaire should last approximately 20-30 minutes to complete. • A copy of the signed consent form will be sent to

	you.
	• Questionnaire sample questions:
	○ Has your child been a victim of school violence? If so, please describe.
	○ Do you think that other countries can influence school violence in your community's schools?
Potential Risks and Discomforts	There are no more than minimal risks, but then you do not have to answer any question that makes you feel uncomfortable.
Potential Benefits	There are no direct benefits from participating in this research. However, possible benefits include changes in policy that would decrease school violence or make students, teachers and others in the community more tolerant and respectful. I hope that, in the future, other people might benefit from this study through improved understanding of what factors may also be responsible for school violence.
Confidentiality	Any potential loss of confidentiality will be minimized by storing data in a password protected computer that is accessed only to the principal investigator. If I write a report or article about this research project, your identity will be protected to the maximum extent possible. Your information may be shared with representatives of the University of Maryland, College Park or governmental authorities if you or someone else is in danger or if I am required to do so by law.
Right to Withdraw and Questions	Your participation in this research is completely voluntary. You may choose not to take part at all. If you decide to participate in this research, you may stop participating at any time. If you decide not to participate in this study or if you stop participating at any time, you will not be penalized or lose any benefits to which you otherwise qualify. If you decide to stop taking part in the study, if you have questions, concerns, or complaints, or if you need to report an injury related to the research, please contact the investigator: **Veronica James** **veronic_james@hotmail.com** **489-6232 (mobile)**
Participant Rights	If you have questions about your rights as a research participant or wish to report a research-related injury, please contact:

	University of Maryland College Park Institutional Review Board Office 1204 Marie Mount Hall College Park, Maryland, 20742 E-mail: irb@umd.edu Telephone: 301-405-0678 This research has been reviewed according to the University of Maryland, College Park IRB procedures for research involving human subjects.	
Statement of Consent	Your signature indicates that you are at least 18 years of age; you have read this consent form or have had it read to you; your questions have been answered to your satisfaction and you voluntarily agree to participate in this research study. You will receive a copy of this signed consent form. If you agree to participate, please sign your name below.	
Signature and Date	**NAME OF PARTICIPANT** **[Please Print]**	
	SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT	
	DATE	

Appendix 7: Parent/Guardian Questionnaire Protocol

1.   Does your child enjoy his/her school experience? Why/ Why not?

School Violence:

2.   Does your child complain of bullying, fighting, or teasing by other children in the school?

3.   Has your child ever been a victim of school violence including (verbal abuse, sexual abuse/assault, cyberbullying, or abuse by a weapon in school? If yes, please explain.

4.   What do you think are the causes of school violence?

Globalization:

5.   Globalization involves, among other things, the trading of goods among international countries, including Trinidad and Tobago. This can have a negative or positive impact on the country. Do you believe that globalization can influence school violence in Trinidad and Tobago?

6.   How can parents and other community members prevent such outside influences of globalization on your community schools?

Appendix 8: IRB Informed Teacher's Consent Form

Institutional Review Board
1204 Marie Mount Hall ● 7814 Regents Drive ● College Park, MD 20742 ● 301-405-4212 ● irb@umd.edu

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE

Project Title	An Exploratory Study of Globalization and Community Factors as They Impact School Violence in Trinidad and Tobago
Purpose of the Study	This research is being conducted by **Veronica James** from the University of Maryland, College Park, in the United States of America. We are inviting you to participate in this research project because you are a teacher in the xxxxxxxxxxxxxxx school district of Trinidad and Tobago. The purpose of this research project is to understand better the influences of globalization and community effects on school violence in the suburban community in Trinidad and Tobago. The study will contribute to existing research on school violence. It may also lead to better government intervention to the benefit of all students in Trinidad and Tobago.

Procedures	The procedures involve the following:
	• If you would like to participate in this study, please print and sign the consent form.
	• If you agree and submit your consent form, you will be asked to fill out a questionnaire to be returned the following day.
	• The questionnaire should take approximately 30 minutes to complete.
	• A copy of the signed consent form will be sent to you.
	• Questionnaire sample question(s):
	    ○ What do you know about globalization?
	    ○ Do you think that globalization here can affect school violence?

	There are no more than minimal risks, but then you do not have to answer any question that makes you feel uncomfortable.

Potential Benefits	There are no direct benefits from participating in this research. However, possible benefits include changes in policy that would decrease school violence or make students, teachers and others in the community more tolerant and respectful. We hope that, in the future, other people might benefit from this study through improved understanding of what factors may also be responsible for school violence.
Confidentiality	Any potential loss of confidentiality will be minimized by storing data in a password protected computer that is accessed only to the principal investigator. If we write a report or article about this research project, your identity will be protected to the maximum extent possible. Your information may be shared with representatives of the University of Maryland, College Park or governmental authorities if you or someone else is in danger or if we are required to do so by law.
Right to Withdraw and Questions	Your participation in this research is completely voluntary. You may choose not to take part at all. If you decide to participate in this research, you may stop participating at any time. If you decide not to participate in this study or if you stop participating at any time, you will not be penalized or lose any benefits to which you otherwise qualify. If you decide to stop taking part in the study, if you have questions, concerns, or complaints, or if you need to report an injury related to the research, please contact the investigator: **Veronica James** **veronic_james@hotmail.com** **489-6232 (mobile)**
Participant Rights	If you have questions about your rights as a research participant or wish to report a research-related injury, please contact: University of Maryland College Park Institutional Review Board Office 1204 Marie Mount Hall College Park, Maryland, 20742 E-mail: irb@umd.edu Telephone: 301-405-0678 This research has been reviewed according to the University of Maryland, College Park IRB procedures for research involving human subjects.

Statement of Consent	Your signature indicates that you are at least 18 years of age; you have read this consent form or have had it read to you; your questions have been answered to your satisfaction and you voluntarily agree to participate in this research study. You will receive a copy of this signed consent form.	
	If you agree to participate, please sign your name below.	
Signature and Date	**NAME OF PARTICIPANT** [Please Print]	
	SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT	
	DATE	

Appendix 9: Teacher Questionnaire Protocol

Personal Demographics:

1.   What neighborhood do you live in?

2.   How long have you lived in this/that neighborhood?

3.   Do you feel safe in your neighborhood?

4.   How long have you worked in this school?

5.   What forms (grades) do you teach?

6.   What subjects do you teach?

7.   How do the students respond to your teaching?

School Violence:

8.   What do think about school violence?

9.   What are some of the acts of school violence in the school?

10.   How does the school deal with children who participate in school violence?

11.   How do you feel about your own security in the school?

 Globalization:

12.   How do you think about changes taking place in the world and do you believe that

         globalization influences acts of school violence?

13.   How do you think those changes are affecting the community negatively?

Community Involvement:

14.   What has been the community response to school violence?

15.   How are you and other educators trying to prevent school violence in your community?

16.   What other influences in the community are impacting young people to engage in school violence?

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