

UNITED NATIONS
COMMON COUNTRY ASSESSMENT: JAMAICA
FINAL DRAFT

**SUBMITTED TO THE UNITED
NATIONS COUNTRY TEAM**

On December 17, 2010

DR. JOY M. MONCRIEFFE

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This study would not have been possible without the willing involvement of representatives from all UN agencies, relevant government ministries, the Planning Institute of Jamaica (particularly Mr. Easton Williams and Mr. Richard Kelly) NGOs and academics who provided comments. It also benefited from the oversight and coordination provided by the UN Coordination analyst, Ms Sherricca Brandford.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

SECTION ONE: BACKGROUND	7
SECTION TWO	9
JAMAICA IN CONTEXT: FRAMING THE MAJOR DEVELOPMENT CHALLENGES	9
DEMOGRAPHICS	9
POLITICS AND GOVERNANCE	9
SECTION THREE: MAJOR DEVELOPMENT CHALLENGES.....	14
3.1 MACROECONOMIC GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT	14
3.3 EDUCATION.....	22
3.4 HEALTH	29
3.5 HIV/AIDS.....	34
3.6 COMMUNITY SAFETY, CITIZEN SECURITY AND ACCESS TO JUSTICE.....	38
3.7 FOOD AND NUTRITION SECURITY	43
3.8 ENVIRONMENTAL MANAGEMENT (NATURAL RESOURCE MANAGEMENT, CLIMATE CHANGE ADAPTATION AND DISASTER RISK REDUCTION)	47
3.9 ENERGY	52
4. CROSS CUTTING THEMES	57
SOURCES	59

ACRONYMS

Alternate Secondary Education Programme	ASEP
Arable Lands Irrigated and Growing for the Nation	ALIGN
Canadian International Development Agency	CIDA
Career Advancement Programme	CAP
Caribbean Advanced Proficiency Examination	CAPE
Caribbean Certificate of Secondary Level Competence	CCSLC
Caribbean Community	CARICOM
Caribbean Secondary Education Certificate	CSEC
Child Care and Protection Act	CCPA
Child Development Agency	CDA
Citizen Security and Justice Programme	CSJP
Common Country Assessment	CCA
Community Based Organization	CBO
Community Security Initiative	CSI
Community Safety and Security Groups	CSSGs
Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women	CEDAW
Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities	CRPD
Culture, Health, Science, Arts, and Education	CHASE
Disbursement Linked Targets	DLTS
Early Childhood Development	ECD
Economic and Social Survey	ESSJ
Education For All	EFA
Environmental Performance Index	EPI
Exclusive Economic Zone	EEZ
Government of Jamaica	GOJ
Grade Six Achievement Test	GSAT
Human Employment and Resource Training	HEART
Human Rights-based Approach	HRBA
International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights	ICCPR
International Development Partners	IDPs
International Monetary Fund	IMF
Jamaica Association for Mental Retardation	JAMR
Jamaica Association for the Deaf	JAD
Jamaica Constabulary Force	JCF
Jamaica Council for Persons with Disabilities	JCPD
Jamaica Debt Exchange	JDX
Jamaica Foundation for Lifelong Learning	JFLL
Jamaica Movement for the Advancement of Literacy	JAMAL
Jamaica Reducing Reoffending Action Plan	JRRAP
Jamaica Survey of Living Conditions	JSLC
Jamaica Teachers' Association	JTA
Jamaica Teaching Council	JTC
Jamaica Tertiary Education Commission	J-TEC
Jamaica Violence Prevention, Peace and Sustainable Development Programme	JVPPSD
Jamaica Youth Advocacy Network	JAYAN
Kingston and Metropolitan Area	KMA
Kingston Metropolitan Region	KMR
Kingston Restoration Company	KRC
Literacy Assessment and Monitoring Programme	LAMP
Medium Term Framework	MTF
Men who have sex with Men	MSM
Millennium Declaration	MD
Millennium Development Goals	MDGs
Ministry of Education and Youth	MOEY

Ministry of Health	MOH
Ministry of Justice	MOJ
Ministry of Labour and Social Security	MLSS
Ministry of National Security	MNS
Most At Risk Populations	MARPS
National Plan of Action	NPA
National Strategic Plan	NSP
National Vocational Qualification	NVQ
Non-Government Organisation	NGO
Organization of American States	OAS
Offences Against the Persons Act	OAPA
People living with HIV	PLHIV
Planning Institute of Jamaica	PIOJ
Poverty Reduction Programme	PRP
Preventing mother to child transmission	PMTCT
Programme Coordinating and Monitoring Unit	PCMU
Regional Education Agencies	REAs
Regional Health Authorities	RHAs
Results-based management	RBM
Social Development Commission	SDC
Small Island Developing States	SIDS
Task Force on Child Abuse Prevention	TFCAP
Technical and Vocational Education and Training	TVET
Terms of Reference	TOR
United Nations Country Team	UNCT
United Nations Development Assistance Framework	UNDAF
United Nations Development Group	UNDG
United Nations Human Rights Council	UNHRC
United States Agency for International Development	USAID
World Health Organization	WHO
Youth Opportunities Unlimited	YOU

Tables and Figures

Table 2.1.1	National Goals and Outcomes	13
Table 3.1.1	Gaps in Capacity (Macroeconomic Growth)	18
Table 3.2.1	Gaps in Capacity (Poverty)	21
Table 3.3.1	Grade Six Achievement Test Results 2007-2009	24
Table 3.3.2	Gaps in Capacity: Duty Bearers and Rights Holders	29
TABLE 3.4.1	Gaps in Capacity (Health)	34
Table 3.5.1	Leading Causes of Death in the Caribbean Adults 20-49	35
Table 3.5.2	Most at Risk Populations (HIV/AIDS)	36
Figure 3.5.1	HIV Prevalence Among MSM in the Caribbean	38
Table 3.5.3	Gaps in Capacity (HIV)	39
Table 3.6.1	Immediate, Underlying and Root Causes (Access to Justice)	43
Table 3.6.2	Gaps in Capacity (Community Safety, Citizen Security, Access to Justice)	44
Table 3.7.1	Gaps in Capacity (Food Security)	48
Table 3.8.1	Gaps in Capacity (Environmental Management)	52
Figure 3.9.1.	Profile of Jamaica's Energy Sector, 2009	53
Figure 3.9.2.	Profile of Renewables (2009)	53
Figure 3.9.3.	Oil Consumption by Activity, 2008	54
Figure 3.9.4.	Export Earnings vs. Oil Imports, 2000-2009	54
Table 3.9.2	Gaps in Capacity (Energy)	57

SECTION ONE: BACKGROUND

Over the last fifty years, the standards and goals that are defined in United Nations' conventions and treaties have had substantial influence on development policy and practice. In particular, they have underscored that 'peace, security, human rights and development' are 'interdependent conditions for human progress'¹. Moreover, successive conventions have reaffirmed that human beings must be the core concern of development, as opposed, for example, to abstract growth targets.

The United Nations Development Group (UNDG) was responsible for outlining the United Nations Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF). The latter is the key mechanism for bringing "greater coherence to the United Nations' programmes of assistance at the country level with common objectives and time frames in close consultation with governments". The UNDAF guidelines specify the importance of active participation of government parties and respective UN agencies. This is required for both the UNDAF and the Common Country Assessment (CCA), which is "a country based process for reviewing and analyzing the national development situation and identifying key issues as a basis for advocacy, policy dialogue and preparation of the UNDAF." Consistent with its mandate and core principles, the UN emphasizes that the CCA must include the following inter-related principles: a) A human rights-based approach (HRBA); b) Gender equality; c) Environmental sustainability; d) Results-based management (RBM); and e) Capacity development.

These principles are meant to produce a particular type of product, one that focuses on how development policies and programmes are affecting---negatively and positively---the human rights of different groups of people, paying special attention to issues of gender (in) equality. Moreover, it seeks to understand the roots to the rights infringements people experience; to define the institutions, individuals and groups who are responsible for taking action; capacities for action and what is required to fill identified gaps. It is this distinct and overarching human rights based component that adds the most significant value to the analytic work and to the country's national development programmes and policies.

2. THE TERMS OF REFERENCE

The Terms of Reference (TOR) for Jamaica's Common Country Assessment (2010) specifies the following objectives: a) Strategic analysis that identifies the root causes of poverty and other development challenges, and its effects on the population, particularly on excluded groups such as women, minorities, indigenous peoples, persons with disabilities, people living with HIV/AIDS, migrants and displaced persons; b) Identification of capacity gaps of rights holders to make claims and duty bearers to meet their obligations; c) Recognition of the risks of crises and natural disasters, as well as capacities for crisis prevention and disaster preparedness; d) Greater national capacity for data collection and analysis, ensuring that data are sufficiently disaggregated to reveal patterns of discrimination; and e) Analysis based on priorities in the national development framework, aligned with the World Summit outcome document, the MD/MDGs and other internationally agreed development goals and treaty obligations.

This analysis utilizes the approach that has been recommended in the UN's 2009 CCA and UNDAF Guidelines. Therefore, it identifies the major problems or challenges, noting trends, disparities and the most affected population groups; indicates the quality of progress made towards national priorities, focusing on the MDGs and other internationally agreed development goals and treaty obligations; and utilizes a human rights based approach (and mainstream gender equality issues) in order to: 'identify priority development problems and state them as interrelated, and unfulfilled, human rights; provide a greater understanding of their causes; and identify the individuals and groups in society who are obligated to take action, and the capacities they need to be able to take action.'

¹ <http://www.reliefweb.int/unpm/documents/504CCAGuidelinesEnglish.pdf>

3. METHODOLOGY

The TOR specified six stages for the study: Information Gathering; Information Assessment; Draft CCA; Presentation of the Draft; Review of the Draft; Finalized Draft

Stage 1: Information Gathering

As the CCA/UNDAF guidelines advise, in the first stage, the information gathered explored “the civil, cultural, economic, political and social context that will lead to the identification of the main development and human rights challenges in the country, their severity, the most affected and where they live”.

Stage 2: Information Assessment

The second stage, Information Assessment, examined the data from a human rights based perspective. It used an analytical framework that sought to examine trends in development, with special attention to the gaps. The following were the key overarching questions:

1. What are the major problems or challenges?
2. What are the scope, persistence and severity of the problem?
3. What are the trends in development for each identified challenge, particularly with respect to the MD/MDGs and other internationally agreed development goals and treaty obligations?
4. Where do disparities exist? Who are most affected by these disparities?
5. What are the causes (immediate, underlying and root) of these disparities? Specifically, what disparities suggest unequal treatment and discrimination?
6. What individuals and groups in society who are obligated to take action? What capacities are needed to be able to take action?
7. What are the gaps in capacity and what is required to fill them?

Stages 3 and 4: Draft CCA

In the third stage, focus groups were convened to fill data gaps. The first draft was then prepared and presented.

Stages 5 and 6: Review and Finalization of the Draft

A zero draft of the report was submitted for early discussion on November 4, 2010. The findings were presented and reviewed at a stakeholder workshop on November 8, 2010. The consultant reviewed the draft between November 8, 2010 and November 28, 2010. A revised version was submitted for review on November 29, 2010. A second draft was submitted on December 13, 2010 and the final draft on December 17, 2010.

SECTION TWO

JAMAICA IN CONTEXT: FRAMING THE MAJOR DEVELOPMENT CHALLENGES

Jamaica, like the other eleven countries that comprise the Caribbean Community (CARICOM), is prone to those risks to development that are common among what is classified as "Small Island Developing States (SIDS): "small populations, human resource deficits, lack of access to central trading routes, susceptibility to natural disasters, poor diversification with excessive dependence on commodities and tourism, and vulnerability to global developments" (CIDA, Caribbean Community Strategic Programming Framework, p. vii). This background is important for understanding the thrust towards regional integration, which started approximately three decades ago, sputtered and stalled at intervals, but now seems more pressing as conditions of trade deteriorate (particularly as countries lose their individual preferential trade arrangements) and the risk of social and economic decline increases. Integration is being regarded as essential for the development of the Caribbean region and its peoples. Correspondingly, many International Development Partners (IDPs) have put regional strategies in place in order to advance the goal of functional cooperation across countries. Jamaica's development problems and challenges, then, are fairly typical of Caribbean SIDS; however, the country has unique issues, some of which are the outcome of its political history and development.

DEMOGRAPHICS

Jamaica is the third largest island in the Caribbean. The country is approximately 11,244 square kilometers, with a population of 2 698 800 in 2009 and a growth rate of 0.2%. The Economic and Social Survey (ESSJ) estimates that the rate of natural increase is 9.8 per 1000, with an estimated birth rate of 44000, death rate of 17600, and a loss of 20000 to external migration. In 2002, close to half (43%) of the population lived in the Kingston and Metropolitan Area (KMA).

Over the past three decades, the age profile of the population has changed. It is expected that the proportion of children (0-18 years) will fall to 30% by 2020; currently, it stands at 34.9%. In 1991, children between 0-14 years comprised 34% of the population. In 2007, the same age cohort comprised 28.3% of the population and 27.4 per cent by 2009. Thus, the population is ageing, largely because of declining fertility and mortality rates and an increase in life expectancy. The elderly (60 and over) is the fastest growing segment of the population.

POLITICS AND GOVERNANCE

Formerly a British colony, Jamaica gained Independence in 1962 and is regarded as a stable democracy, (where this is taken to mean that successive governments are changed with minimal risk of a coup) despite the polarization and violence that have tainted its political history. Anthony Payne (1994, 1991, 1993) suggests that the political system has been able to contain the 'explosive implications' of the social structure that was inherited from colonialism precisely because 'party, rather than race or class was developed as the primary frame of reference for the politically conscious in Jamaica'. Allegiance to the party, secured in some part through patronage, has contributed to political stability (Edie 1991). Stone (1974, 1985, 1989) suggested that clientelism was instrumental in securing intra-party loyalty but that it also built allegiance between politicians and the business community, which has compromised the development of the middle class. Clientelism was also critical in fostering political divisions across all segments of the society and, particularly, among the urban poor who are located in communities that have been variously characterized as "garrisons", "hot-spots" and now "volatile and vulnerable".

Politics and poverty, then, were at the root of the crime and violence within and now well beyond these communities, since frustrated young men in the innercities were recruited as footsoldiers for politicians who needed political strongholds in order to maintain power. These politicians' main point of contact became local 'dons', who 'secured' the communities on the politicians' behalf in return for benefits and spoils. This 'political alliance' became the foundation for the parallel governance systems that have now emerged. Under these governance systems, area leaders and dons play multiple roles. Hope (2006:92) explains: "the area leader is hierarchically related to but different from the don". The area leader---who can be either a man or woman---becomes prominent because of work done in the community. Male area leaders---for there are no female dons in Jamaica---may later acquire the

resources to attain the position of 'don'. Thus, "there is a hierarchical and gendered relationship between dons and area leaders". Dons, many of whom maintain alliances with political parties but are no longer 'as reliant' on politicians, function as fathers, patrons and prime adjudicators. Often, community interventions require their approval. Dons are at the apex of a chain of command. The men and boys under their charge are, in many communities, compared to an army. Some dons manage to maintain strong loyalties within the communities, particularly because the rules they insist upon offer protections, which citizens believe they have been denied by the state. There are other dons that flagrantly infringe people's rights and these are less likely to maintain power for long periods.

Violence has become commonplace in many urban innercity areas, as gangs---which vary in levels of sophistication---fight for turf. The causes of crime and violence have, in many respects, mushroomed since the time when gang warfare was tantamount to political warfare. There are now multiple gangs, with their own lines of command. Some gangs come together for community protection and many of these are involved in the 'business of extortion'. There are other gangs that have links overseas and are part of the illegal drugs and gun trade. Perceptions of collusions among some state agents and gangs are contributing to public disenchantment and distrust (Leslie, 2010).

Clientelism has bred other harmful outcomes, which further dent the citizens' confidence in the state. USAID's 2008 *Corruption Assessment of Jamaica* recognizes the efforts of a number of agencies (the Anti-Corruption Branch of the JCF, the Customs Department, the Office of the Director of Public Prosecutions and the Office of the Contractor-General) to uproot corruption, which, according to one 2008 poll, the public considers to be "the second-most serious problem facing Jamaica, behind crime and violence". The USAID's (2010: iii) assessment made a number of noteworthy conclusions. Among them: (1) "such violations are not merely the result of mismanagement or incompetence, but a direct product of a political system that rewards patronage at the expense of transparency" and (2) "there is a growing sense society must take action against corruption in order to win the 'other' battles of crime, violence, and the squeeze on the country's treasury made more acute by huge new increases in energy and food prices".

SOCIOECONOMIC BACKGROUND

The costs of corruption and violence are especially harsh, given Jamaica's precarious economic position. Jamaica is a highly indebted country; it has the fourth largest debt to GDP ratio in the world. Debt servicing comprised over 56% of the 2009-10 budget (See section on Macroeconomic Growth and Development). Correspondingly, the GOJ has inadequate resources to deal, comprehensively, with the key 'root' obstacles to human rights and human development. For example, Jamaica has managed to sustain vast social inequalities, which are in part a legacy of colonialism and, as noted above, of political and social developments since Independence. Stark contrasts of wealth and poverty help to fuel discontent among those who feel excluded and even mistreated by "the system". There is also a history of *gender inequality*, which persists despite many recent positive developments. Jamaica is a signatory to a number of human rights treaties and also, in principle, observes human rights standards that have direct bearing on gender and violence. These include the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR); the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW; and the Inter-American Convention on the Prevention, Punishment and Eradication of Violence Against Women (Convention of Belem do Para). There are United Nations' Declarations and Resolutions that provide guidance and standards, although they are not binding: The Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women; the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action; the Resolution on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Measures to Eliminate Violence Against Women²; the Millennium Declaration³ and Millennium Development Goals. As a member of CARICOM, Jamaica is also guided by the model legislation on issues affecting women. These issues include citizenship, domestic violence, equal pay, inheritance, sexual harassment and sexual offences. Recently, in October 2010, representatives from Jamaica joined Caribbean counterparts in the Caribbean UNITE Consensus, which reaffirms states obligations to end gender based violence and change the cultures that promote it.

² Resolution 52/86 dated 12 December 1997

³ Resolution 55/2 dated 8 September 2000

In 2006, Jamaica ranked 39 out of 128 countries (as opposed to 24 in 2006) in the 2007 Gender Gap Index⁴. However, the sub-indices of this overall average presented a more mixed picture. Females surpassed males in educational attainment. With respect to economic participation and opportunity, more men (78%) than women (59%) were involved in the labour force. According to 2007 statistics, too, 12% of Members of Parliament were women, while 82% of persons with ministerial positions were men. Currently (2010 data), Jamaica ranks 44 out of 134 countries in the Gender Gap Index. The sub-indices indicate that the country has high levels of inequality in political empowerment, where 13% of Members of Parliament are women while 88% of persons with ministerial positions are men. There are also comparatively high levels of inequality in economic participation and opportunity, except for the categories: 'legislators, senior officials and managers' and 'professional and technical workers', where women outnumber men. The figures show glaring gender disparities in labour force participation and earned incomes, with women at a distinct disadvantage (see section on Macroeconomic Growth).⁵

Research shows that sexual harassment and other manifestations of gender inequality persist in a historical context of male power, privilege and status, despite the huge strides that women have made in education (Institute for Gender and Development Studies, 2009). It is still the case, as Tindigarukayo (2006) and other analysts have observed, that earnings are comparatively less in female as opposed to male led industries; that in the majority of cases, the unemployed professionals and unpaid workers are women; and that women and men do not compete on an equal basis for the same jobs: often, women have to receive more training (Tindigarukayo, 2006:93). In addition, despite their educational achievement, women still have limited representation in corporate bodies and in political office. In addition, one of the major difficulties that activists encounter is that certain human rights infringements and abuses are ingrained in the culture and accepted, including by those who are most adversely affected by them (Women's Media Watch, 2008, 2009, 2010).

Jamaica's Constitution does not provide full protection from gender-based discrimination for either women or men. Although discrimination on the basis of sex is noted in s.13 of the Constitution, there are no specific provisions for redress. Thus, the Bureau of Women's Affairs (2009) notes: "the failure of the constitution's drafters to include gender-based discrimination in s.24 therefore effectively means that freedom from such discrimination has limited recognition as a constitutionally enshrined principle against which other laws and policies can be evaluated." Because of this loophole, consistent efforts have been/are being made to institute laws and policies that address gender equality, including gender-based violence. In addition, a Charter of Rights and Freedoms is being drafted to amend the Constitution. The current draft of the Charter includes protection against gender-based discrimination as a fundamental right of all citizens. A Sexual Harassment Policy and a National Gender policy have been drafted and submitted to Cabinet for approval. A Child Pornography Bill is being developed in order to prohibit the production, possession and distribution of child pornographic material. However, gender analysts point out that despite these developments, there are gaps in the legal and policy context. Moreover, there are problems with enforcement of the legal provisions that exist and with adherence to international human rights treaties and standards.

Groups concerned with tackling discrimination against persons with disabilities are eager to ensure that the issues they raise receive appropriate the necessary visibility. In 2007, Jamaica became a signatory to the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD). It was one of the first countries to do so. Since 2009, inter-ministerial committees have been formed to ensure that ministries carry out the goals outlined in the National Development Plan (Vision 2030) and the CRPD. Correspondingly, government and non-government agencies are now requesting sensitization sessions on disabilities, in order to be able to draft more inclusive policies and plans. There is also a drive within the Ministry of Education to review policies on special education in order to ensure that the provisions of the Convention are incorporated. A draft disability bill has been formulated and is being reviewed; however, this has proved a lengthy process (it started in 2003). Notably, between 2003 and 2008, the UNFPA and the EU supported the GOJ on a project promoting sexual and reproductive rights for persons with disabilities. This project involved the Jamaica Council for Persons with Disabilities (JCPD), Jamaica Association for the Deaf (JAD), Jamaica Association for Mental Retardation (JAMR),

⁴ http://www.weforum.org/pdf/gendergap/ggg07_jamaica.pdf. Retrieved December 10, 2010

⁵ <http://www.weforum.org/pdf/gendergap2010/Jamaica.pdf>

Combined Disabilities Association, among other agencies. One of the key highlights of the project is that "it enabled a synergy to develop within the disabilities sector" (UNFPA, 2008:7).

Yet, discrimination against persons 'who are differently abled' continues to prevent these persons from enjoying their political, civil and social rights. On November 1, 2010, UNICEF convened a stakeholders' meeting, comprising NGOs working with persons with disabilities. The purpose of the meeting was to highlight the key challenges affecting the community and to define future strategies. The organizations represented were the Community-based Rehabilitation Jamaica project; Jamaican Association on Intellectual Disabilities; Jamaica Council for Persons with Disabilities; Combined Disabilities Association; Jamaica Association for the Deaf and the Salvation Army School for the Blind. The group cited a number of key challenges, including: (a) problems with data and collection and analysis (b) lack of adequate resources and (c) pervasive discrimination, including among some service providers.

There are other groups that suffer discrimination and whose rights are infringed in different ways. These include people living with HIV and AIDS and those persons considered most at risk (See section on HIV/AIDS); people who are stigmatized because of perceptions of their status and of the communities in which they resid (Levy 1996); particular categories of children, including some who are in lock ups and places of safety (UN Human Rights Council, 2010). Contrary to CRC obligations, for example, the UN HRC found that "children in conflict with the law, those deemed uncontrollable and those in need of care and protection from the State were held together in detention facilities without distinction". More disaggregated data is required to analyze the multiple forms of discrimination and human rights abuses some persons and groups encounter.

PROGRESS ON THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS

How do the financial, political and social realities in Jamaica influence the achievement of the MD/MDGs? In his September 2010 presentation to the 65th Session of the United Nations General Assembly, Honorable Prime Minister Bruce Golding emphasized that indebtedness and debt servicing, the global financial crisis, the impact of climate change and the costs associated with protecting against international terrorism were undermining the achievement of the MDGs. The Prime Minister underscored that urgent and further support is required so as not to risk the gains achieved. He noted three key challenges: (1) sustaining the progress towards universal primary education, with special attention to the quality of education; boys' underperformance; and post primary retention rates; (2) securing the additional funds required to maintain the gains that have been made in treating and preventing HIV; and reverting recent losses in the country's efforts to reduce poverty levels.

The GOJ's National Report to the UN's Economic and Social Council Annual Ministerial Review outlines the country's mixed record of progress towards the MDGs (See Annex 2, Table 2.1). In addition to confirming the Prime Minister's assessment, the Report highlights other priorities: environmental sustainability (integrating principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes; reducing biodiversity loss; achieving a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers); improving maternal health and reducing child mortality; promoting gender equality; achieving food security; and reversing recent losses in poverty reduction.

THE NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN

How does the GOJ plan to *Vision 2030 Jamaica*, the country's first long term development plan, seeks to address these and other development challenges? *Vision 2030* was produced through collaboration among the Government of Jamaica (GOJ), the private sector and other civil society groups. It is unlike the conventional development plans, which sought to generate growth and development by improving the tourism, agriculture and mineral industries over the short to medium term. Instead, *Vision 2030* focuses on building cultural, human, knowledge and institutional capital over time as this long-term approach is considered essential if the country is to reach developed country status by 2030.

There are seven, critical, guiding principles: transformational leadership; partnership; transparency and accountability; social cohesion; equity; sustainability; and urban and rural development. These principles both underpin and steer four strategic national goals and associated outcomes. *Vision 2030* emphasizes that all these goals and outcomes will not be achieved in the

absence of fundamental 'mindset change', which needs to permeate all levels of society, producing the relationships and levels of personal responsibility that are conducive for substantive change.

TABLE 2.1: NATIONAL GOALS AND OUTCOMES (VISION 2030)

NATIONAL GOALS	OUTCOMES
Jamaicans are empowered to achieve their fullest potential	A healthy and stable population World class education and training Effective social protection Authentic and transformational culture
The Jamaican society is safe, cohesive and just	Security and safety Effective governance
Jamaica's economy is prosperous	A stable macroeconomic environment An enabling business environment Strong economic infrastructure Energy security and efficiency A technology-enabled society Internationally competitive industry structures
Jamaica has a healthy natural environment	Sustainable management and use of environmental and natural resources Hazard risk reduction and adaptation to climate change Sustainable urban and rural development

Thirty-one task forces were commissioned to design sector plans that fit within this framework, such that they support the specified national goals and outcomes. While the main document provides broad analysis, the sector plans supply considerably more detail on the development challenges and their causes, the trends in the sector, proposed remedial strategies, capacity gaps and the strengths that can be capitalized on. Vision 2030 is being implemented and monitored through Medium Term Socio-Economic Policy Frameworks (MTF's), each lasting three years.

Section 3 of this CCA presents nine key development challenges, which are largely consistent with Vision 2030 (Vision 2030 does not prioritize health): 1) Macroeconomic Development; 2) Poverty: Urban and Rural; 3) Education; 4) Health; 5) HIV/AIDS; 6) Citizen Security, Community Safety and Access to Justice; 7) Food Security; 8) Environmental Management; and (9) Energy. Consistent with the TOR, the subsections are concerned with how these areas of development affect the human rights and quality of life of the people, who must be at the core. Each subsection highlights the key problems, which are framed from a human rights perspective, as well as the causes of the problems. Section 4 summarizes the cross cutting themes.

SECTION THREE: MAJOR DEVELOPMENT CHALLENGES

3.1 MACROECONOMIC GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

Invariably “growth is critical for raising living standards, achieving further reductions in poverty, and for macroeconomic and social stability” (IADB, 2006). It is crucial, though not sufficient, for achieving human development goals, for much depends on how growth is targeted and achieved: inequalities, poverty and lack of rights can persist despite growth and may---over a short period---be used to prompt it, though rarely without long term costs (Naschold, 2002).

Between early post Independence in the 1960s and the early 1970s, Jamaica’s rapid industrialization strategy resulted in quick expansion and an average annual growth rate of 5.7% (1961-1972). Agriculture and mining were the prominent industries during this period. However, the economic boom was largely of profit to the business and upper classes: in 1958, the “lowest two deciles of households in the country had a 2.2 share of total income, whereas the wealthiest 5%...had a 30.2% share” (Palmer 1989, p. 114). From 1972 to 1980, the economy contracted in response to external shocks (the oil price crises of 1973 and 1979); the resulting decline in tourism and in demand for bauxite and alumina; political disquiet (in some part, externally influenced), which led to capital flight and migration of a sizeable proportion of highly skilled individuals. In the 1970s, real GDP was, on average, 1.1% per annum (Vision 2030 Sector Report 2009: Labour Productivity).

Structural adjustment policies were implemented in the 1980s, with oversight from the World Bank and the IMF. These policies aimed for economic expansion through reducing the role of the state. Inflation rates declined drastically (from 27% in 1980 to 7% in 1982); the public sector deficit reduced; economic growth rates were below the levels of the 1960s to early 1970s---recording an average of 2% between 1981 and 1983 and negative growth from 1984 to 1985---though, in 1987, the growth rate was 5.7%. (Vision 2030 Sector Report 2009: Labour Productivity) Structural adjustment required significant social sacrifices, particularly among the poor; social protection measures proved inadequate.

In the 1990s, real GDP growth was 1.4% per annum. During this period, economic growth relied largely on the services industries, which employed some 65% of the labor force, while the traditional goods producing industries employed approximately 35%. Between 2000 and 2006, real GDP grew to 1.5% per annum. However, in 2008, rates of growth declined in response to the global recession, which began in 2007. In 2009, the global economy contracted by 0.8%. The economic recession had deep and negative impact on the global financial system; there was a decline in demand, consumption and trade and an increase in unemployment worldwide. Throughout 2009, in the context of the global economic crisis, Jamaica’s world trade volume in goods and services contracted by 12.3% (ESSJ 2009: 6.1) (Annex 3.1, Table 3.1.1 summarizes the performance of the goods producing and services industries in 2009.) The unemployment rate increased in 2009 to an average of 11.4%. Within the services and goods producing industries, unemployment rates among women increased to 14.8% and to 8.6% among men (ESSJ, 2009, V). Meanwhile, there was a reduction in remittances (remittance inflows amounted to US\$1791.9 million, compared with US\$2021.3 million in 2008) and in private and official investments. Social impact studies (Moncrieffe and Jude, 2009) show the costs to the poor, particularly in rural and inner-city areas: lower levels of food and nutrition, increased risks to health and education access; higher levels of employment and underemployment; increased insecurity. These social costs were especially pronounced among the elderly, children and women who head households.

KEY PROBLEMS:

There are three key features of Jamaica’s macroeconomic development that are especially pertinent to this CCA:

- The total production of goods and services is too low to meet the needs of the country;
- There is limited fiscal space for promoting growth and social expenditure; and
- Resources are distributed inequitably, with disadvantageous consequences for poverty and for social dynamics

The subsections below outline the immediate, underlying and root causes of these problems.

A. THE TOTAL PRODUCTION OF GOODS AND SERVICES IS TOO LOW TO MEET THE NEEDS OF THE COUNTRY

As noted above, in contrast to the strong growth and relative prosperity of the 1950s and 1960s, Jamaica has had a fairly low level of economic growth since the end of the 1970s, in addition to large

fiscal deficits and weak export performance. With respect to growth, Jamaica has fallen far behind industrial countries and trails some Caribbean countries (PSOJ 2010). In addition, equity financing and venture capitalism are limited and these also contribute to the substantial mismatch between levels of production and the country's needs. There are a number of underlying reasons for low growth:

(1) *Aspects of the Jamaican economy are uncompetitive.* "Exports have declined from 50% of the economy in 1980 to 30% in 2009" (Economic Intelligence Unit, cited by PSOJ 2010). The PSOJ underscores that "little has changed in the export basket" and that the "technical intensity or value added of exports is declining". Invariably, according to the PSOJ, the inability to create and build new competitive exports contributes to low growth levels. However, Jamaica is competitive in other areas: coffee, music, tourism, and other products that are unique or particularly good quality. In this regard, the culture sector is working to promote creative industries through implementing its 'Creative Industries Vision 2012'. The sector envisions that through links with tourism, its plan will "make Jamaica the global hub of creative industries". However, the sector report states: "there is a lack of real financial and strategic investment to drive culture", which raises the urgency of public/private partnerships.)

(2) *The exchange rate policy has made Jamaican exports less competitive than those from other countries.* As the exchange rate has strengthened against the US dollar, Jamaica's goods and services have become more expensive to purchase (PSOJ 2010).

(3) *Declining labour force participation has compromised growth* (PSOJ 2010). The Vision 2030 Sector Report on Labour Productivity notes that labour force participation declined from 71.0% in the 1970s to 67.7% in the 1990s. Labour force participation rates averaged 64.6% between 2002 and 2006, while the labour force grew at an average annual rate of 0.26%. Declining participation rates were especially pronounced among females: "there was a 7.5 percentage point decline for females between 1979 and 1999 compared with a 5.8 percentage point decline for males." Between 2006 and 2008 however, participation rates increased incrementally from 73.6% (males) and 56.3% (females) to 73.8% (males) and 57.5% (females). "While males have fairly large representation in all occupation groups except clerical... females are less well distributed across the spectrum of occupations" (Vision 2030 Sector Report on Labour Productivity: 16). Rates of female underemployment (where this is taken to mean working for less hours than desired) are much higher than male underemployment. The sector report highlights that the disparities in labour force participation follow a different trend from those in the education sector, where females not only outnumber males--by approximately three to one at the tertiary level--but they are also more successful (See section on Education). Thus, the sector plan includes initiatives to boost female participation and address the gender inequalities that contribute to low growth. "Both the problem of underemployment and of unemployment can only be solved by increased levels of job creation while the gender inequity calls for more complex solutions including non-discriminatory employment policies" (Vision 2030 Sector Report on Labour Productivity: 19).

(4) *While declining participation rates contribute to low growth, with a sluggish economy, there is less demand for labour.* Thus, between 1970 and 2000, the demand for employment declined as the economy experienced low periods of growth. Between 2002 and 2006, as the economy improved, employment rates increased to 2% per annum, which was higher than the GDP growth rate of 1.7%. In 2006, employment increased by 3.4%, again outstripping the 2.5% increase in GDP. With the global economic downturn, the rate of unemployment increased from 9.8% in 2007 to 10.6% in 2008. In 2009, the average unemployment rate increased to 11.4%, given reduced demands for employment in the goods producing and services industries (ESSJ, 2009: 21.1) In disaggregating these figures further, the Vision 2030 sector report emphasizes that youth unemployment (23.6%) was three times higher than adult unemployment (7.65) in 2006. In 2009, youth unemployment increased to 27.1%, the highest level since 2003 (ESSJ, 2009: 21.2). The report explains that this disparity reflects inadequacies in the education and skills training: many youth are not sufficiently prepared for work. In response, the GOJ is working to address workers' wages and conditions of employment and to analyze manpower supply. The aim is to strengthen collaborations with the MOE and skills training agencies in order to ensure that prospective employees are adequately prepared for the work force.

(5) *Labour market inactivity is another underlying cause of low productivity.* In 2006, 35% of persons of working age were outside of the labour force. This rate was higher than the average for the Latin America and Caribbean region (34.4%) as well as the global average (34.3%). Of this number, 49.5% claimed that they did not want to work (Vision 2030 Sector Report on Labour Productivity: 19). According to ESSJ data, in 2009, the percentage of persons who did not want to work increased by

12.1% over 2008. In 2006, 338,100 persons did not want to work; in 2009, the comparable figure was 449,100 (ESSJ 2009: 21.3). The sector plan recognizes that this lack of desire for employment may fuel crime, violence and other issues, such as teenage pregnancy. However, it notes that research is required to analyze and urgently address the underlying and root causes.

6) *The costs of low labour force participation are compounded by low labour productivity.* The Vision 2030 Sector Report cites the following causes: "absence of a productivity culture; high public debt; real wages and unit labour cost rising faster than labour productivity; high cost of capital; inadequate investment in human and physical capital; inadequate investments in science and technology; inadequate plant organization and management systems; and poor labour-management relations" (Vision 2030 Sector Report on Labour Productivity: 25). Notably, the report cites crime and violence as other root causes for low labour productivity and low growth. In effect, crime, violence and the security required for their containment are disincentives to investment, resulting in profit loss and increased production costs. For example, compared with environments with higher levels of security, employees limit their work hours to safe periods, which, in turn, depresses workforce productivity (See focus group findings in Annex 3.1, Table 3.1.3).

Inadequate equity financing and venture capitalism The PSOJ underscores that the inadequacies of policies regarding MSMEs have resulted in limited innovation, employment and economic growth. The 1996 National Industrial Policy confirms that MSMEs have an important role in the country's development and commits to enhancing "the ability of the sector to contribute to the national development goals". Correspondingly, a number of initiatives were planned to address the perceived challenges to MSMEs. These included: "Incorporating MSMEs in the national export promotion drive by increasing their productivity and efficiency, upgrading skills and management capabilities, improving access to credit, providing marketing support, and simplifying the process of business registration; Developing targeted industrial space for small businesses; Encouraging the efforts to link small businesses and larger firms through sub-contracting relationships; Increasing the emphasis given to training in entrepreneurship and small business management; and Establishing a Micro and Small Enterprise Coordinating Bureau to provide strategic direction to the sector's development" (Kirton and Tennant, 2008).

However, these initiatives have had limited effectiveness because of: "un-competitiveness; lack of access to credit; high unit costs of production and poor quality products; low levels of technology and technical skills; weak business and management skills; and the financial market perceived risk of MSEs and lack of appropriate collateral" (Kirton and Tennant, 2008). Regarding the latter, medium and small business remain at a distinct disadvantage because they often lack the financial information that banks require (such as audited accounts, business reports, loan history and collateral). Without credible and transparent information, financial institutions are reluctant to risk funding, even some worthwhile projects and, subsequently, monitoring MSMEs (Hamilton 2010). Consequently, the GOJ is challenged to implement innovative methods for boosting productivity among MSMEs in ways that ensure gender equality.

B. THERE IS LIMITED FISCAL SPACE FOR PROMOTING GROWTH AND SOCIAL EXPENDITURE

There are three immediate causes for this constriction in fiscal space: low production levels; high levels of debt; and low levels of revenue collection.

i) *Low production levels* Since the 1970s, total productivity levels have declined by approximately 1.8% annually. In comparison, productivity levels among CARICOM partners have improved by approximately 1.5 per cent per annum from 1972, and by two per cent per annum in the last 10 years. The PSOJ's Economic Policy (Annex 3.1, Table 3.1.2) notes: "In 1997 the average worker in Trinidad was three times more productive than the average Jamaican worker. However, this gap had widened to over five times by 2007" (PSOJ, 2010).

ii) *High debt levels* Jamaica's vulnerability to natural disasters, its history of fiscal and external shocks (including the country's heavy dependence on imported oil and the debt incurred by hikes in oil prices) as well as high interest rates are among the key underlying causes for the debt. Debt levels worsened after the financial sector crisis of 1995–96; the amount of debt absorbed by the Jamaican government approximated 44% of GDP. In 2007, the debt-to-GDP ratio was 111.3%, which was the fourth highest ratio in the world. In 2009/10, debt servicing accounted for 56.5%, while wages and salaries for civil

servants amounted to 22.5%. This meant that there were very limited resources for developing infrastructure and advancing social programmes.

Since 2008, in response to the effects of the global recession, the GOJ has made strident efforts to manage the debt. Accordingly, the GOJ contained expenditure, principally on wages and salaries; introduced two tax packages that aimed to increase revenues; and entered into agreements with the IMF in order to stem the financial gap. The IMF agreement formalized a medium term debt strategy that alleviated the high debt servicing costs; consolidated public bodies so as to improve efficiency; and provided guidelines that would limit future deficits (ESSJ 2009). With support from the IMF, select IDPs and the PSOJ, the GOJ launched the Jamaica Debt Exchange (JDX) on January 14, 2010. Under this arrangement, holders of government bonds are issued new bonds that have a longer maturity period, with lower interest rates. This arrangement is significant because Jamaica's domestic debt has increased exponentially since the 1990s. The JDX was expected to save approximately J\$40 billion in interest payments. In a recent review (published in *The Observer*, November 7, 2010), the IADB concluded that the JDX had performed better than was forecasted. With a buy in of over 99%, compared with the established target of 80%, Jamaica is poised to cut its interest rate payments by approximately one half.⁶ The IMF agreement and the improvement in the gross international reserves have boosted confidence in the economy. However, there is concern that "the current relative macroeconomic stability is a necessary but not sufficient condition for economic growth" (PSOJ, 2010).

iii) *Revenue Collection* Over the years, revenue collection has been compromised because Jamaica has managed to sustain an inadequate regulatory system, inadequate systems of securing compliance and, as noted above, cumbersome bureaucratic process, which make activities such as registering businesses and paying taxes seemingly prohibitive. Although efforts have been made to improve these bureaucratic processes, they are still regarded as impediments. The cumbersome bureaucracy then breeds corruption, as persons seek ways of avoiding it. Nevertheless, new initiatives, such as online filing of tax returns (instituted in the 2007-2008 fiscal year), are making the process easier. The e-payment system has now become the 11th largest tax collection station.⁸

C. RESOURCES ARE DISTRIBUTED INEQUITABLY, WITH DISADVANTAGEOUS CONSEQUENCES FOR POVERTY EXPERIENCES, SOCIAL DYNAMICS AND 'MINDSETS'

Among the key immediate causes for inequities in resource distribution are low production in rural areas and limited linkages between the industries that are based in the rural areas and wider rural development. These are caused, in turn, by unequal land distribution; lack of requisite services; lack of financing; limited infrastructure; and lack of emphasis on agro-processing. Underlying these more visible causes is the nature and direction of government policies, for at different periods in Jamaica's history, government policies---some of which were externally mandated---have not been sufficiently supportive of transformative agriculture. The comparatively lower education levels, skills and limited exposure within many rural areas compound the problem; they limit the prospects for developing the rural economy. These, then, are among the root causes of rural underdevelopment and rural poverty.

Yet, resources are distributed inequitably for other reasons. Political clientelism is one key immediate cause. Significantly, there are also deep social divisions that continue to influence how wealth is distributed. Therefore, the Gini coefficient has, over the long term, consistently exhibited wide social disparities, despite reductions in poverty levels.

Within social groups, there are also patent inequalities, particularly among men and women. As this section underscores, there are gender inequalities in labour force participation and gap between women and men's earned income.

GAPS IN CAPACITY: DUTY BEARERS AND RIGHTS HOLDERS

⁶ http://www.jamaicaobserver.com/business/JDX-successful-beyond-expectations---Pamela-Cox_8122590
Retrieved November 7, 2010.

⁷ http://www.jamaicaobserver.com/business/Tax-reform-is-the-key-to-Jamaica-s-partnership-for-growth--Part-I_8122316 Retrieved November 7, 2010.

⁸ <http://www.jamaica-gleaner.com/gleaner/20100917/business/business3.html>

A focus group was convened to analyze the causes of the core macroeconomic problems cited, as well as to identify gaps in capacity among duty bearers and right holders. The findings are summarized below.

Table 3.1.1 GAPS IN CAPACITY (MACROECONOMIC GROWTH)

Duty Bearers	Rights Holders
<u>Polymakers</u> -Inadequate data to formulate policies; evidence based policy-making. -Partial policy making despite the evidence. -Restricted ability to negotiate political space. Some decisions are made to satisfy political obligations; power relations are such that certain policy choices have high political consequences. -Inappropriate human resource allocation. One of the notable capacity gaps is ensuring that persons who possess the requisite skills sets are placed in the appropriate positions. -Inadequate manpower. There are insufficient numbers of persons to execute changes, particularly to monitor compliance. -Lack of governance structure to prevent mismanagement. -Inadequate financial resources.	<u>Women</u> - Inability to participate adequately in the work force - Low capacity to combat discriminatory employment practices <u>Youth</u> -Low education and skill levels -Low levels of preparedness for work <u>MSMEs</u> -Inadequate skills to attract bank financing -Inadequate space, know-how and resources for innovation <u>Overall</u> <i>Lack of capacity to demand accountability.</i> Compared with many countries, Jamaica has an active civil society but it lacks---albeit some groups more than others---sufficient capacity to hold governments accountable. Given the small size of and politics within the country, the fear of retribution is one significant underlying cause. Ultimately, many rights holders make a 'rational decision' and opt to prioritize their survival, as opposed to their rights, when these appear to conflict.

3.2 POVERTY: RURAL AND URBAN

The macro-economic context helps to define the nature and depth of poverty. Poverty, in turn, affects the pace of economic growth and development and is frequently cited as being at the root of many development challenges.

Jamaica has conventionally used consumption-based measures to assess the incidence of poverty. The Jamaica Survey of Living Conditions (JSLC) uses a basket of basic goods, which represents the minimum dietary allowances, as set by WHO/PAHO. On the basis of this basket, a regional and national poverty line is established to assess consumption patterns across households and among individuals. All persons who consume at levels below the established line are designated as living in poverty. Correspondingly, persons and households who are consuming marginally above the poverty line are deemed vulnerable to poverty. Poverty is also measured in terms of deprivation in access to basic goods such as housing, healthcare and education. The Gini coefficient is then computed, using consumption data from the JSLC. In 2005, the Gini coefficient was 0.3810, as opposed to 0.3826 in 2004. Therefore, in 2005, the wealthiest ten per cent of the population had a share of 30.3 per cent of national consumption, while the poorest ten per cent had a share of 2.5 per cent. (Vision 2030, Sector Report: Poverty Reduction: 6) The Vision 2030 sector report on poverty reduction notes that the trend in inequality has remained fairly consistent over the years, despite what appears to be a decline in consumption poverty levels since 2002. (Current figures are the same as in 2005) It is not always straightforward to decipher whether some of the harmful associations that are thought to exist among poverty and other development challenges have more to do with social, economic and political inequalities than with poverty per se.

The Prevalence of Poverty

While successive JSLC reports indicated a decrease in the prevalence of poverty in Jamaica---from 18.7% in 2002 to 9.99% in 2007---the latest figures show a drastic jump in poverty levels; that is, to 12.3% in 2008 and 16.5% in 2009 (JSLC reports, 2007, 2008, 2009). The figures for 2008 and 2009 are the highest since 2004 and reflect the effects of the global recession. Poverty has consistently been highest in the rural areas (See Annex 3.2, Table 3.2.1). Although the Kingston and Metropolitan Area (KMA) records the highest consumption levels, there are significant pockets of poverty within some communities (See Annex 3.2, Table 3.2.2) Consumption poverty is also higher among certain

categories of the population. For example, childhood poverty is a special concern. Up to 2007, when poverty levels were trending downwards, there was a concomitant decline in childhood (consumption) poverty levels. Yet, Witter et al (2009:123) found that: (a) "Child poverty remains above the national average" and (b) "The headcount measure of poverty is positively related to the size of the household". The study also showed the following: (i) "The headcount measure of poverty is inversely related to the level of education of the head of the household", with poverty levels almost twice higher among households where the heads had no education than those where the heads had secondary education; (ii) Poverty is more likely to obtain in rural households; and (iii) Poverty is influenced by the composition of the household". As the Vision 2030 Sector Report explains: "Poor households tend to have more adult females and more children"; "A greater proportion of households headed by females compared to males, is in poverty". Further, "the incidence of poverty among the elderly (60+ years) is higher than the national incidence" (Annex 3.2, Tables 3.2.3-3.2.6).

Multidimensional Poverty

One of the difficulties with restricting measures of poverty to income and consumption is that these indicators are entirely insufficient for evaluating and portraying the multidimensional nature of poverty. As the PIOJ's *Mapping Poverty Indicators* note: 'The multidimensional nature of poverty increases the importance of diversity in interventions so as to ensure greater access of vulnerable groups to social services, increased participation in governance and greater involvement in social and economic development' (PIOJ, *Mapping Poverty Indicators*, p. 1). In its bid to broaden its understanding of poverty, the Planning Institute of Jamaica (PIOJ) has, since 1996, been using both a consumption-based and an unsatisfied basic needs approach to map poverty incidence across communities. While the focus of the consumption based poverty maps is on personal incomes, the unsatisfied basic needs maps focus on publicly provided infrastructure. The 2002 findings note that while there may be correspondence between both maps, there are also divergences, since persons and households who have high levels of consumption can reside in areas that have low access to quality amenities. Although consumption below the poverty line and high unmet basic needs (which reflect on the quality of life enjoyed by the households) can both be characterized as poverty, the PIOJ defines unmet basic needs as deprivation and consumption below the poverty line as poverty. The generated poverty maps are useful to policymakers since they allow for more objective allocation of resources.

Using the 2001 Population Census and the 2002 JSLC data, the poverty maps (consumption based approach) indicated that the 10 poorest communities were located in rural areas in the parishes of Trelawny, St James, St Mary, St Catherine, Portland and Westmoreland. The greatest concentration of unsatisfied basic needs were located in St Thomas, Portland, Southern St James and Northwestern Westmoreland. St Ann had the highest poverty prevalence and St Catherine the lowest. This data is to be updated with the 2011 census. (It is interesting to note that some of the parishes highlighted also have correspondingly high rates of adolescent pregnancy, including St. Thomas, Westmoreland and St.Mary. This would suggest a need for greater investment in health, including sexual and reproductive health information and services and education.)

KEY PROBLEMS

There are three key problems surrounding poverty in Jamaica, which should inform the direction and content of policy responses.

1. Poverty limits the pace of human development in Jamaica
2. There is inadequate appreciation of the weight of the issues surrounding poverty and what the response should be
3. Many poverty alleviation and poverty eradication activities exist; however, the lack of an overarching and sufficiently strong governance mechanism restricts their effectiveness

A. POVERTY LIMITS THE PACE OF ECONOMIC, SOCIAL AND HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

The data indicates that there are interrelated, mutually reinforcing factors that cause poverty but that poverty also causes these factors/conditions. Generally, the immediate causes and consequences of poverty include: (1) Inadequate incomes; (2) Low levels of educational achievement; (3) Low skill levels and income earning capacities; (4) Limited access to basic social services; (5) Inadequate economic opportunities, which result in underemployment, unemployment and low wage employment; (6) Low

levels of rural development, which undermine the opportunities and livelihoods within households; and (7) High levels of exposure to natural hazards and poor environmental practices (Adapted from Vision 2030 Sector Report: Poverty Reduction, pp. 8-9). Section 3.1 shows the importance of including gender inequality as a key factor. The effects of gender inequality on poverty are particularly pronounced among female-headed households (Witter et al, 2009). All these factors limit the pace of human and economic development; they also have social consequences.

With respect to rural poverty, specifically, studies have shown that various factors underpin it. Among the more prominent are unemployment and underemployment and low skill levels; comparatively lower educational levels among rural as opposed to urban populations (note that both access to education and the quality of education are lower in rural areas); inadequate access to basic amenities, including piped water, electricity, telephone services, sanitation; inadequate access to reproductive health services; migration of the better trained and educated individuals from the rural to urban areas. Underlying these immediate causes are inadequate opportunities, since most industries are located in the urban centres, the decline of the bauxite industry since 2008 and the lack of attractiveness of the agriculture industry, particularly to the youth.

The general causes of poverty that are cited above are pertinent to urban poverty. However, the nature of urban poverty is distinct, principally because of vulnerabilities to crime and violence. The causes and nature of citizen insecurity are different across urban and, particularly, deep rural areas, since violence has now spread to urban enclaves of rural parishes.

B. THERE IS INADEQUATE APPRECIATION OF THE WEIGHT OF THE ISSUES SURROUNDING POVERTY AND WHAT THE RESPONSE SHOULD BE

What makes poverty a transient or chronic condition within rural and urban areas depends on deep contextual, including intra-household, factors. There are ample qualitative analyses that show the links between socio-cultural dynamics and poverty (including the exclusions, poor incorporation, gender discrimination, lack of rights and adverse power relations). Dealing with such complex root issues requires special expertise. Much is expected from the PATH programme; however, PATH was not designed --- and is unable--- to deal with the deep causes of poverty and the relationships that sustain it. There is inadequate knowledge of how to address the psychological aspects of poverty and inequality and insufficient collaboration with agencies that claim to include this component. Without adequate know-how, it is impossible to measure whether psychological interventions are actually tackling or subtly reinforcing some of these root causes.

In addition to these issues, there are some longstanding structural inequities, which have not been adequately addressed by successive governments. These have multiple effects. Specifically, the inequitable historical apportionment of wealth, assets and services (for example, land, potable water, health and education) manifest themselves in many other areas, such as administration of justice, access to finances, access to social services and influence on public policy. The combined effect is limited buy-in by certain classes into national production plans and visions as it pertains to savings, pooled resources, equity financing, venture capital, fiscal responsibility and discipline and labor productivity. All these 'byproducts' are consequential for macroeconomic development, broadly, and reinforce poverty, specifically.

C. MANY POVERTY ALLEVIATION AND POVERTY ERADICATION INTERVENTIONS EXIST; HOWEVER, THE LACK OF AN OVERARCHING AND SUFFICIENTLY STRONG GOVERNANCE MECHANISM RESTRICTS THEIR EFFECTIVENESS

The issues raised above are not unknown to policymakers. As noted, there are very many poverty alleviation programmes at both state and non-state levels. There are NGOs that attempt to address the psychological dimensions of poverty and there are state interventions that promise citizen and community empowerment. However, there are limitations to these programmes, which appear to be rooted in failures in governance. Respondents in one focus group emphasized the following:

1. Poverty reduction and eradication is an attractive area of work to IDPs. Correspondingly, there are many programmes and initiatives; however, the interventions are splintered.
2. There is no structured mechanism for monitoring and evaluating poverty;
3. There is no structured mechanism for monitoring the quality of interventions;
4. The prior institutional framework for coordinating work on poverty did not function optimally;
5. There is need for a focal point in order to ensure coordination;

6. Vision 2030 identifies poverty as a major challenge; however, questions remain about “who owns poverty” to ensure that objectives are realized.

Underlying causes

These issues exist because poverty alleviation and eradication have been treated in a fragmented fashion over the years. Under the National Poverty Eradication Programme (1995), attempts were made to coordinate interventions. However, the Programme Coordinating and Monitoring Unit (PCMU) that was given the mandate of coordinating a highly multi-layered structure lacked the direction and autonomy to work effectively. In the absence of an effective coordinating agency, poverty reduction has not been centralized and addressed aggressively. This coordinating gap has resulted in practices that impair the poverty alleviation and eradication objectives. For example, inadequate data integration and utilization (using data in policy planning and monitoring) underpin the gaps in evaluating and monitoring poverty.

Root causes

At the root, then, are fundamental issues of governance. Focus group respondents stressed the need for a re-institution of poverty and re-elaboration of programmes, consistent with Vision 2030 and the Medium Term Framework. Development aid would then fit within that structure. However, the challenge is that the UN agencies also display a fragmented response to poverty. For example, while the UNFPA focuses on reproductive health and issues such as masculinities, UNICEF focuses on children and the UNDP works on governance, citizen security and justice. However, these are not necessarily linked. Respondents pointed out that it is important to identify the interlinkages and to use these as the starting point for a more coordinated approach. Similarly, with respect to GOJ initiatives, JSIF was established to address poverty eradication at the public/community level while HEART NTA and the PATH programme focused on addressing welfare dimensions. In addition, there are many small programmes. These initiatives are often kept distinct, which compromises effectiveness.

GAPS IN CAPACITY: DUTY BEARERS AND RIGHTS HOLDERS

In analyzing capacity gaps among duty bearers and rights holders, respondents suggested that there is no deficiency in policy formulating and planning skills. While it is true that much more work is required to integrate qualitative with quantitative data and to achieve the depth of analysis required to assess and address poverty and inequality in their multiple dimensions, there is ample talent and skill within the country to conduct the mixed methodological assessments that this requires.

Table 3.2.1 GAPS IN CAPACITY (POVERTY)

Duty Bearers	Rights Holders
<p><u>Policymakers</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Technical capacity may be required to assist with constructing and integrating qualitative with conventional quantitative indicators. -Much emphasis has been placed on measuring poverty and that less has been achieved in explaining it. Generally, the explanations have stopped at ascriptive features: rural, female headed households, education level, age, employment status and occupation. More effort needs to be placed on exploring the unequal distribution of property that underpins all of those as well as the relational dimensions to poverty -The major gap appears to be with data utilization, which could improve if agencies manage to build effective synergies with both state and non-state actors. -Capacity gaps in monitoring and evaluation are common across state and non-state agencies; this is a substantial and pervasive problem -Poverty reduction would also profit from more effective governance, under centralized administration. Past experience shows that the responsible agency would need the requisite budget and autonomy to perform. This is a significant capacity gap that the GOJ recognizes and plans to address 	<p><u>Women</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Inability to participate adequately in the work force -Low capacity to combat discriminatory employment practices -Low education and skill levels -Inadequate opportunities <p><u>Youth</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Low education and skill levels -Low levels of preparedness for work -Inadequate opportunities <p><u>Children and the Elderly</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Inadequate social protection <p><u>Rural Residents</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Inability to participate adequately in the work force -Low education and skill levels -Inadequate opportunities -Inadequate empowerment to claim rights and demand accountability

3.3 EDUCATION

Education is key to poverty eradication and macroeconomic growth and development. Lack of or inadequate education and skills undermine human capital and contribute in quite fundamental ways to most development challenges. Consequently, Jamaica's (Vision 2030) Education Sector Plan (2009-2030) aims for a "well resourced, internationally recognized, values based system that develops critical thinking, life-long learners who are productive and successful and effectively contribute to an improved quality of life at the personal, national and global levels".

The sector plan builds on recommendations from the 2004 Task Force on Educational Reform, which recognized the importance of tackling longstanding inequities in the education system, dating from the colonial period. These persistent inequities had been noted before. In 1983, UNESCO observed that despite reforms since Independence, the two-tiered secondary school system had entrenched inequalities between high schools, which offered the promise of quality post-secondary education and the others, where children and parents had lower prospects for social mobility. With respect to primary education, the report commended the quantitative achievements, particularly near universal enrolment rates but emphasized that improvements were required in the quality of education at both primary and secondary levels. In response, the GOJ's Five-Year Development Plan (1990 - 1995) aimed to address the gap between enrolment and attendance at the primary level; low attendance rates in the rural areas; literacy and numeracy gaps at the primary level, as well as mastery of the skills required for entry to the secondary level; and the inequality of provision at the lower secondary level. A number of programmes were launched or strengthened in order to meet these objectives. However, an evaluation of the achievements of educational achievements since Plan implementation noted that despite these efforts, problems persisted with lower than desired attendance, particularly among boys. Absenteeism was also higher in rural areas and on Fridays. Thus, the 2004 Task Force confirmed that two decades after the 1983 UNESCO report, there were still significant gaps in retention and the quality of education provision at all levels. This background is important for understanding the nature of the key problems in the sector as well as the thrust of the GOJ's current response.

KEY PROBLEMS

(A) The quality of education provision at all levels is compromised by longstanding inequalities; (B) Challenges in governance and management have undermined the quality of provision; (C) The gaps between policy formulation and implementation compromise effectiveness (D) Insufficient budget allocation compromises growth and innovation in the sector

(A) THE QUALITY OF EDUCATION PROVISION AT ALL LEVELS IS COMPROMISED BY LONGSTANDING INEQUALITIES

Early Childhood Education Early Childhood Development (ECD) describes the period of prenatal human development up to a child's eighth year of life (CARICOM, 1997). Over the last few decades, ECD has been recognized as the basis for human, social and economic development of a country (World Bank, 1999; 2009). Correspondingly, the GOJ identified ECD as a special area of focus for the development of policy and programming. GOJ provides policy, regulation, service delivery and coordination support to this period of human development through the cross-sectoral Early Childhood Commission, established by Act of Parliament in 2003 and through the Early Childhood Act 2005. The adoption of the National Strategic Plan (NSP) for ECD 2008-2013 gave force to the GOJ legislated commitment to improve access to and quality of services in the early childhood sector, and provides a framework for multiple sources of investment from IDP, civil society and private sector sources.

In May 2010, findings of the mid-term review of the NSP (ECC, 2010) indicated that policy interventions in support of the development of the young child are weakest at each 'end' of the plan, namely in the period of child development, prenatal to 3 years, and in the years 6 to 8 when the child transitions to primary education. The review highlighted the following causes and concerns:

1. The persistent and high infant mortality rates point to the prenatal health of the mother as a continuing priority concern; however lack of data on the degree to which death is preventable and life might be sustainable following birth inhibit the development of policy and interventions in prenatal and post natal care. Data are therefore required for both the design and the targeting of interventions to reduce infant mortality.

2. There are no data on the quality of care being received by 90% of children under the age of 3 years 8 months in the years before entry to early childhood education facilities. In these years research has shown that poor quality of the home learning environments for care, safety and stimulation of children (PIOJ, 2009) and exposure to violence as victims and witnesses (PAHO, 2005) have negative impacts on the developing brain. Children of parents in the lowest quintile had the least stimulation provided by adults and were less likely to have stimulating resources (toys) at home (PIOJ/JSLC, 2008).

3. Longitudinal research in Jamaica on the impact of quality parenting interventions in the first 3 years of life for long-term cognitive and psychosocial development (Lancet, 2007) demonstrates significant effects. The learning profiles of children at Grade 1 (PIOJ/ESSJ, 2009; PIOJ/JSLC, 2008) indicate inadequate early childhood development of over a third of children entering primary school. Therefore, evidence-based targeted interventions for those children exposed to violence and who are cared for in poor quality home learning environments are both essential and effective in the support of their development in the first three years of life, and lay the foundations for developmental progress through early childhood education and the higher levels of education, and beyond.⁹

In addition to these findings, the Vision 2030 Sector Report on Education cites the following immediate causes of the variable quality of provision at the EC level: (1) Disparity in provision across community basic schools, public infant schools/departments and preparatory schools; (2) 'lack of the required physical infrastructure, equipment and support materials'; (3) 'poor nutritional support which impairs intellectual and physical development'; (4) 'absence of adequate parenting support for the children and the schools' (Vision 2030 Sector Report on Education: 21). A focus group of specialists within the sector was convened to further analyze the causes of problems with quality at the EC level. The group emphasized the importance of recognizing the disparities in provision across rural and urban areas, as well as among different categories of children. A summary of key assessments from the focus group is presented below.

A. Disparities in provision across community basic schools, public infant schools/departments and preparatory schools The evidence shows that within the poorest communities, there is a lack of acceptable infrastructure, standard of services and trained practitioners. The ratio of practitioner to child is unbalanced; settings are overcrowded in some areas; and children, particularly given these conditions, receive inadequate care. The root causes reflect on the state of the macro-economy, as well as on the poor social conditions within some communities. Thus, there is limited financing for EC schools and departments and an inability to allocate resources in ways that can promote equality in education across institutions. In many of the communities where the quality of provision is compromised, practitioners are required to work in very vulnerable settings, with minimal incentives. In some, authorities have been unable to contain the violence. Many inner-city communities show inadequate community governance, weak communal relations; feelings of disempowerment and of a lack of capacity to demand accountability for quality education.

B. Disparities in provision across different categories of children In practice, many children with disabilities are not reached. Here, there are gaps in data; policymakers do not know the size of this population. This reflects on limitations in the census and also on prevailing social attitudes. Parents are uncomfortable sharing the needs of particular children---such as children with disabilities or children living with or affected by HIV (See *subsection on disabilities and section on HIV/AIDS*)---given the discrimination that exists within families and communities.

C. Disparities in rural-urban provisions Some rural families do not have the means to enroll in ECIs, which raises the importance of employing more Roving Caregivers. This is both a consequence of inadequate funding and of the lack of adequate attention to rural development strategies.

D. Lack of the required infrastructure; Low maintenance of infrastructure Commonly, within the poorest communities, there is inadequate provision of infrastructure, learning resources and equipment. Further, there is inadequate maintenance of existing infrastructure and equipment. There are a number of root causes: inadequate investment in the ECD sector; inadequate public education; inadequate collaboration in providing public education; inadequate community governance; crime and violence and poor environmental conditions.

E. Poor nutritional support Presently, children at the EC level do not receive an education benefit from PATH; however, they do receive a health benefit. Focus group respondents indicated that social protection could be better integrated with early childhood education.

F. Absence of adequate parenting support for the children and the schools Across some of the poorest communities, parents do not fully appreciate the need for early childhood education. Some do not understand their roles in their children's education and some fail to provide the required support, despite having sound knowledge

⁹ This background subsection was provided by UNICEF

of their roles and responsibilities. Among the root causes are the breakdown of family structures; feelings of powerlessness among parents; inadequate parenting practices; poverty; low education levels; and a tradition among schools of excluding parents. Another key root cause is the inadequacy of public education. Public education is required on a range of issues, including the significance of the early childhood period and the roles and responsibilities of families (particularly fathers and mothers) and communities in securing a solid foundation for the child; the value of quality materials and why certain equipment are required in an early childhood environment. Focus group respondents identified the greatest challenge to public education to be inadequate funding. They also recognized that public education required novel strategies, such as house-to-house sessions in order to reach some of the most marginalized families and cross sector collaboration in order to maximize on resources.

Special Education Both the GOJ and several private voluntary organizations provide education for children with special mental and physical needs; however, most of these schools are concentrated in the Kingston Metropolitan Area. The Vision 2030 Sector Report notes that in 2004, only 0.34% of the school population was being served through special education facilities; the remainder was enrolled in mainstream schools. Integrating children with special learning needs into the mainstream may be an effective strategy if the requisite supports are in place for them to succeed. However, the Vision 2030 Sector Report suggests a number of deficiencies: "(1) Inadequate number and distribution of institutions to support the variation in special needs across the island; (2) Inadequate number of trained individuals to service [persons] with varying learning needs; (3) Inadequate equipment to support training for some learning needs; (4) Inadequate financing to support the varying needs; (5) Inadequate support in the homes of individuals with learning needs; (6) Inadequate programmes to support the gifted" (Vision 2030 Sector Report on Education: 28).

Underlying these are a number of variables: inadequate priority on special education; inadequate financial and human resources, as well as capacity; misunderstandings and fears of special needs within families, at community level and among service providers; discrimination and human rights infringements of persons with special needs; inadequate public education and enforcement of measures that are in place to protect rights.

Primary Level Primary level education is provided for children from six to eleven years. There are no tuition costs for primary education, although parents are asked to pay an ancillary fee and to purchase uniforms and books. As the fees are 'discretionary', their non-payment should not result in exclusion from school. Measures such as these have helped to improve access to primary education, such that Jamaica has managed to sustain its achievement of MDG2: universal enrolment of children in school up to the first cycle (grade nine) secondary level. However, they have not solved problems with retention (See Annex 3.3, Table 3.3.1) or with education quality. With respect to the latter, performance on key national and regional exams continues to be weak – none of the five components of the Grade One Learning Outcomes is mastered by more than 25% of students entering grade 1; about two of every three students master the grade four literacy test and less than half master the numeracy test in 2009; average scores on the Grade Six Achievement Test (GSAT) hovers around 50% for Mathematics, English and Science for the five years up to 2008.¹⁰

Table 3.3.1 Grade Six Achievement Test Results 2007-2009 (MOE Statistics)

GSAT Subjects	2007	2008	2009
Mathematics	46.0	54.6	52.7
Language Arts	48.0	52.6	56.7
Communication Task	66.6	56.7	61.2
Science	52.0	52.3	53
Social Studies	51.0	55.8	52.9

¹⁰ Based on analysis of Data from MOEY Statistics Unit, UNICEF (2009).

There are qualitative differences among the Primary, Primary and Junior High, All Age and Preparatory Schools, with the better-resourced preparatory schools achieving the best results. For example, the unevenness of performance according to school type is highlighted by the performance in the Grade 4 literacy test, where a higher percentage of students in private preparatory schools achieve mastery than their counterparts in public primary schools (ESSJ 2007). The lowest levels of performance are found among children in All Age and Primary and Junior High Schools. Schools located in the urban centres performed better than schools in rural Jamaica (ibid). This trend was again displayed in the June 2010 examinations: 65% of public school children attained mastery in literacy, compared with 88% of preparatory school students; in numeracy, 38% of public school children attained mastery in numeracy, compared with 74% of preparatory school students (MOEY Statistics Unit).

Similarly, the performance gap between girls and boys persists in every subject area in the GSAT. In the June 2010 examinations, “58 per cent of those mastering the literacy test were girls, while 60 per cent of those achieving mastery in the numeracy test were girls”¹¹. This has intensified concerns about the quality of education students are receiving and special attention to boys. The subsection below summarizes findings on the causes for the deficiencies in the quality of provision. They describe the problems that are inherent to the system but also depict the ways in which education provision is affected by the wider macroeconomic and social context.

A. Improper and Inflexible Teaching Methods In practice, many schools are not sufficiently flexible, given the realities of the settings. The methods are excessively teacher-centered, focused on rote learning and take insufficient account of how boys learn (Vision 2030 Sector Report on Education). The Sector Report on Education notes that this reflects the weight of conventional teaching cultures as well as inadequate knowledge of differing teaching approaches and methods. However, the Sector Report on Gender (p. 28) emphasizes another dimension: “In general, there is gender disparity in most areas of public life. Men are under represented in education in situations where boys could benefit from a strong male presence. Women are under represented in areas where caring and nurturing are not palpably required”. Notably, 89% of teachers at primary level are female (Gender Gap Index 2010). Additionally, there are inadequate resources, which result in overcrowded classrooms; inadequate numbers of support staff; inadequate funding for staff and necessary teaching aides. All these factors discourage experimentation with different learning styles.

B. Generally poor performance in key areas such as numeracy and literacy Apart from the quality of teaching methods, another immediate cause for the variable quality of performance in numeracy and literacy is inadequate attention to the period of transition from early childhood to primary education. Here the major root obstacles are longstanding governance methods and conventional teaching cultures; these have proven difficult to uproot.

C. Under-enrolment for some rural schools and disparities in provision across communities and schools The Sector Report outlines the resource challenges in the rural areas, including the inability of some schools to ensure fully qualified staff; and inadequacy of transportation for children especially in rural areas (Vision 2030 Sector Report on Education: 25). It attributes the root causes to inappropriate allocation of resources; “inadequate financial support for children” and “inadequate funding for schools”.

D. Disciplinary practices within some schools do not support quality education Verbal and physical abuse are still common within some schools and communities. Poor disciplinary practices persist because prevailing cultural attitudes support them: For example, many parents and teachers believe that discipline requires beating.

E. Lack of parental engagement Parents are inadequately involved in their children's education. As at the EC level, some parents do not understand their roles in their children's education and some parents who understand their roles fail to provide the required support. Focus group respondents noted that some schools do not involve communities in a reasoned and structured way, although this would be mutually beneficial. There are deep seated attitudes to parental involvement; discrimination against particular categories of parents; deference on the part of parents to teachers, whom they consider better equipped to educate their children and define their futures (Also see section on EC above).

F. In many low performing schools, teachers are required to work in unsatisfactory conditions. Teachers who work in violent and vulnerable communities must counter unsafe working conditions on a daily basis. Remuneration and other incentives to work in these areas are low. In addition, teachers who work in the poor urban and rural areas are required to perform despite very limited access to basic resources. At the root of these problems are the inability to control urban violence; to address rural and urban poverty and to implement policies that equalize provisions and outcomes. Further, resource constraints and the inappropriate allocation of existing resources continue to present formidable challenges.

¹¹ http://www.jamaicaobserver.com/news/Grade-4-results-show-performance-gaps_8234652#ixzz18l6xkbuv

G. It is important to pay attention to the period and quality of transition from early childhood to primary education. Students are normally shocked by the vast differences in teaching methods: there is a sudden and dramatic change from the participatory methods used at early childhood level to didactic methods of instruction at the primary level. While it is worthwhile to question the utility of didactic methods at the primary level, it is, nevertheless, important to introduce and carefully manage a transition period. Furthermore, the ECIs should help to shape what occurs at the primary level, particularly in the early stages.

Secondary Level The GOJ aims to provide universal access to secondary education. In 2004/05, the gross enrolment rate recorded was 91.5%. Between 2006 and 2009, the total number of students enrolled in public school increased. The MOE notes that in 2009, the overall gross enrolment rate for grades 7-11 was 101.7%. However, the net enrolment rate (grades 7-9) was 87%: 85.1% for males and 89% for females. For grades 10-11, however, the overall net enrolment rate was 68.4 percent (ESSJ 2009: 22.10).¹² This shows clear problems with retention. Of the secondary school teachers, 80.5% were trained. Of these, 37.6% were trained university graduates and 42.9% were college-trained teachers. In 2005, by contrast, only 27.2% of the teachers were university trained.

Secondary school achievement is normally assessed using three major examinations: the Caribbean Certificate of Secondary Level Competence (CCSLC), the Caribbean Secondary Education Certificate (CSEC) and the Caribbean Advanced Proficiency Examination (CAPE). The primary examination is the CSEC. In 2006, 35.7% of students attained Grades I-III in Mathematics. The comparable figures were 35.3% for 2007; 43% for 2008 and an estimate of 40.9 % for 2009. In 2006, 50.1% of students attained Grades 1-III in English; 51.6% attained Grades 1-III in 2007; 54.4% in 2008 and an estimate of 62.8% in 2009. The highest pass rates were in technical and vocational subjects, with impressive performance in Physical Education. There was improvement in the pass rates for the Sciences, from 59.3% in 2006 to 62.1% in 2009. The pass rate in Mathematics was 40.9%, down by 2.1% from 2008. The pass rate for English Language improved, overall, compared with 2008; it was 61.4% for all school types, compared with 53.3% in 2008 (ESSJ 2009). In CAPE examinations, Jamaican students achieved good passes: over 90% passed at levels I-IV in 23 of the 46 subject modules examined (ESSJ, 2009). The stratification from the pre-primary schools is reflected at the secondary level: students who gain places within the traditional schools are likely to achieve the best results.

The assessments of the causes of gaps in quality at the primary level (above) are also pertinent to the secondary level. At this level, the problems with boys' education are pronounced; the longstanding inequalities across better resourced 'traditional' schools and 'others' remain; there are gaps in rural and urban achievement; and underachievement in the more vulnerable communities within urban areas. Problems are compounded as the particular challenges facing adolescents are manifested within the schools, such as teenage pregnancies, which affect retention rates; gang violence and exposure to drugs (See section on Adolescent Health).

Tertiary Education Enrollment in tertiary institutions exceeds the CARICOM target of 15% eligible age cohort. In 2001, Jamaica enrolled 16.9% of eligible 18-25 year olds and in 2008, 61,140 students were enrolled (29.5% of eligible students). Of those enrolled in 2008, 68.6% were females (UNESCO, 2010:12). There are eight community colleges that provide post secondary education. The majority of these offer bachelor's level or associate degrees in association with the two principal universities: University of Technology (UTECH) and University of the West Indies (UWI). Apart from UTECH and UWI, there are two other recognized local universities: Northern Caribbean University (NCU), and the University College of the Caribbean (UCC). A number of overseas-based universities deliver courses in Jamaica.

The GOJ offers teacher training through a range of teachers' colleges; that is, in addition to provisions at the universities. Nursing education is provided through UWI, UTECH, NCU and various community colleges.

¹² The gross enrolment rate provides a ratio of the number of children enrolled at a particular grade level regardless of their age. It may, therefore, include children who are repeating grades or who have delayed their enrolment. The net enrolment rate only records those children who are within the appropriate age range. (ESSJ, 2009: 22.10)

At the tertiary level, the progressive problems with male education are especially stark. For example, at the University of the West Indies, Mona campus, 72% of registered Jamaican students are female. At Cave Hill in Barbados, the comparable rate is 76.2 percent (ESSJ, 2009). The GOJ has expressed commitment to addressing the roots of this imbalance and has, to this end, offered new scholarships and bursaries, emphasizing Sports Development in order to reverse the gender gap (ESSJ 2009:22.23). There are questions about the extent to which this strategy is sufficient to fill earlier gaps in the quality of male education.

In addition, there is a challenge in regulating and standardizing the quality of education offered. Inadequate monitoring and evaluation is the key underlying cause. This is rooted in ineffective governance systems and mechanisms, which affect all sectors. There are questions, too, about the relevance and practicality of the courses, given the demands of the labour market (Vision 2030 Sector Report: Education).

The class imbalance persists, particularly within universities, where the costs of education de-select substantial segments, sustaining socio-economic inequities. In addition, there are limited provisions for the adult working population; lack of innovative methodologies for assessing capability; inadequate alternative routes of entry for those who have not gained the required pre-qualifications; and inadequate opportunities post graduation. Consequently, though it is normally more costly to study overseas, many students prefer to opt for this alternative. Inequality and poverty are at the root of the class imbalance at tertiary level, which is compounded by the reduction of GOJ allocation to the sector.

The GOJ's Strategic Plan for Tertiary Education (2006-10) was designed to address these gaps. Efforts are being made to increase enrolment, update the curricula and increase funding. At the UWI, the Weekend Degree programme is one attempt at non-traditional programme delivery. Through joint programmes with selected overseas universities, the UWI is also working to strengthen the curricula.

Technical and Vocational Education and Training HEART was established in 1982 to provide technical and vocational education and, therewith, build a skilled workforce. HEART provides competency-based education, using the National Vocational Qualification (NVQ) framework. Enrolment rates in HEART accredited programmes are fairly high; however, approximately 68000 young people still have no access to skills training programmes. Efforts are underway to include Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) into secondary education programmes. Consequently, 51 TVET laboratories have been introduced in 27 high schools, which have been upgraded to Centres of Excellence; at 14 high schools, staff received professional training and the GOJ's Implementation Plan for Mainstreaming TVET Rationalization in Schools is to be phased in between 2009 to 2014. While there is very high regard for the value of skills training, there are questions about the extent to which training programmes facilitate genuine social mobility and address social disparities¹³: "How valuable is HEART Level 1 certification? How many youth will be able to fund Level II (and beyond) certification? What is the likely outcome where youth (whose expectations have now been raised) find themselves unable to pursue studies or find employment? Is the vision behind the youth training opportunities offered consistent with tackling ingrained social inequalities? If not, should it be consistent and what changes would this mean for the design and content of the programmes?"¹⁴

Literacy and Non-formal Education In Jamaica, a person is considered literate if/she can "associate simple words used in context, understand some prose and undertake a range of simple numeric tasks"¹⁵. Persons with basic literacy are able to read simple text but need assistance if they are to function above this level. Individuals who are functionally literate are able to read, write and calculate to a level that allows them to develop personally and socially. According to data from UNICEF, between 2003 and 2007, the youth literacy rate for males was 91% and, for females over the same period, it was 98%. The JSLC (2008) notes that in 1999, adult literacy rate (functional and basic) for persons 15 years and over was 79.9%, compared with 91.7% in 2009. This is a marked increase in literacy over the period. However, caution is required in interpreting literacy data. More technologically advanced countries tend to have higher parameters for defining literacy. Therefore, the literacy rates are not comparable internationally; Jamaica requires a lower level of attainment. With support from UNESCO,

¹³ Source: Final Report Impact and Sustainability Study For the Kingston Urban Renewal Project (Parade Gardens)

¹⁴ Ibid.

¹⁵ JAMAL, *Jamaica Adult Literacy Survey*, 1999

plans are underway to implement a new instrument, the Literacy Assessment and Monitoring Programme (LAMP), which will provide internationally comparable estimates.

When current literacy data is disaggregated by age, sex, consumption quintile, region and educational level, the findings indicate the following: (1) A higher proportion of males (10.6%) than females (6.5%) are illiterate, although more males than females have gained in functional literacy since 1999 (2) Literacy decreases with age: Among adolescents, the literacy rate is 97.8%. The rate slips after 44 years. For persons within the 50-54 age groups, the literacy rate is 85.6%; (3) In the KMA region, the literacy rate is 93.8%; in the rural areas, the comparable rate is 89%. (4) Literacy increases with consumption level; thus, 69.1% of the poorest are functionally literate compared with 83.6% of the wealthiest (PIOJ, 2010).

Approximately 75 agencies and organizations across Jamaica, principally NGOs and CBOs, provide literacy and non-formal education programmes. The Jamaica Movement for the Advancement of Literacy (JAMAL) was formed in 1974 and has subsequently been renamed the Jamaican Foundation for Lifelong Learning (JFLL). JFLL provides the High School Equivalency Programme, as well as secondary education for employees. Agencies and organizations have limited capacity---with respect to human resources and finances---and are unable to cater, adequately, particularly for at risk youth. The GOJ's Fresh Start programme is attempting to bridge that gap, thus, providing for "unattached" youth, which the agencies, at present, are unable to reach.

INADEQUATE GOVERNANCE AND MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS HAVE COMPROMISED EDUCATION QUALITY. The summaries above indicate the need for effective governance and management systems to improve quality education. Under the GOJ's modernization programme, mechanisms are being put in place to facilitate this. For example, the Jamaica Teaching Council is meant to "raise and regulate the standards of the teaching profession in Jamaica, as well as provide support to achieve excellence in teaching" (Sectoral Debate Presentation, July 21, 2009, p. 13). Accordingly, in 2009, a licensing framework for teachers was developed and plans for continuous professional development through Quality Education Circles were formalized.

The National Education Inspectorate is designed to monitor the quality of education provision and promote "a culture of excellence and system of accountability". An operational framework has been developed and 45 school inspectors recruited. Regional education agencies (REAs) are to "improve the management of education affairs by devolving authority for operations to smaller local agencies, and provide support for school improvement" (Minister of Education, Sectoral Debate Presentation, July 21, 2009, p. 14). Further, in 2009, one Cabinet submission proposed the establishment of the Jamaica Tertiary Education Commission (J-TEC). This Commission should provide national oversight for tertiary institutions, which would include regulatory, planning and coordination responsibilities (ESSJ, 2009: 22.1). Support is required to bridge customary gaps between planning and implementation: resource constraints, inadequate capacity levels, ensuring compliance, monitoring and accountability.

THERE ARE GAPS BETWEEN POLICY FORMULATION AND IMPLEMENTATION, WHICH COMPROMISE EFFECTIVENESS. The Ministry of Education is responsible for identifying national strategic educational priorities and for developing and implementing policies to advance these. With guidance from the Task Force on Education, the GOJ is now implementing an Education System Transformation Programme, which aims to achieve the following: (1) Create a world class education system in Jamaica; (2) Enable Jamaica to compete in the global economy; (3) Raise educational standards for all; (4) Enable access and equity for all; (5) Produce disciplined, ethical and culturally aware Jamaican citizens.¹⁶ The MOE has prepared important policies and programmes that are designed to improve the quality of education that is provided (See Annex 3.3. Section 3.3.4). However there are concerns that, as with many other sectors, there are gaps between policy formulation and implementation, which compromise effectiveness. Among the underlying reasons are: (a) "Processes for translating policies into concrete actions are not as effective as desired, given lapses in policy planning and severe resource constraints; (b) In principle, policy formulation processes involve wide stakeholder consultation. However, these consultations may not involve the critical policy implementers, especially in ways that promote ownership; (c) Implementing agencies and key stakeholders may know but not accept their roles in

¹⁶ Ministry of Education, Education Transformation – Cabinet Briefing, January 18, 2008

implementation; (d) Capacity levels vary across and within implementing agencies; (e) Monitoring and evaluation processes and procedures exist; however, these are not adequately institutionalized. There needs to be more effective mechanisms for enforcing compliance" (Source: CCDC/OAS, 2010, Situation of the Promotion and Protection of Children's Rights.)

INSUFFICIENT BUDGET ALLOCATION COMPROMISES GROWTH AND INNOVATION IN THE SECTOR The GOJ's ambitious Education Transformation Programme depends on adequate funding. The Government of Jamaica funds the sector through allocations from the budget. In 2006/2007, the GOJ allotted 11.4% of the budget (\$40 billion) to the education sector. In 2009/10, the GOJ allocated 12.9 per cent of the national budget (See Annex 3.3, Table 3.3.2). Funds from bilateral and multilateral agencies, the private sector and non-governmental organizations and NGOs were used to supplement the national budget. Of the national budget, 33% was allotted to secondary level education; 31.8 percent to the primary level; 18.1 percent to the tertiary level and 3.8 percent to the early childhood level. Special education programmes received \$849.2 million. Compared with 2008/9, these allocations represented an increase of 14.2% to the primary level, 12.7% to the early childhood level and 12.2 % to the secondary level. Nevertheless, as the bulk of the budget was allocated to recurrent expenditure, considerably less was available for investment in infrastructure and learning resources, which has implications for outcomes. Although Jamaica commits a fairly high percentage of its budget to education, current levels of expenditure are not sufficient to fund the transformation programme required.

The GOJ recognizes that innovative financing solutions, which place students, rather than institutions, at the centre are required (Vision 2030 Sector Report). The National Education Trust is one such effort. It seeks to garner funds from a variety of sources: the Consolidated Fund; proceeds from a casino tax; local and international philanthropy; grants from local programmes such as the Culture, Health, Science, Arts, and Education (CHASE) Fund; the Universal Access Fund/E-Learning Jamaica (UAF/E-IJam); international partners as well as from remittances. Funds are to be used for capital investment in the sector.

TABLE 3.3.2 GAPS IN CAPACITY (EDUCATION)
Respondents indicated the following capacity gaps among duty bearers and rights holders.

Duty Bearers	Rights Holders
<u>Policymakers and Implementing Agencies</u> -Data collection and utilization -Translating policies into concrete actions -- Improving the quality of stakeholder involvement. --Developing strategic actions to improve collaboration across sectors -Securing additional financial and human resources as well as exploring avenues for maximizing on under-utilized capacities -Monitoring and evaluation <u>Teachers</u> -Flexible teaching methods and innovative teaching methodologies, including to reach children with special learning needs, children growing up in violent contexts and rural areas, boys -Resources	<u>Communities</u> -Inadequate empowerment to participate in education, claim rights and demand accountability -Inadequate resources to contribute to schools -Inadequate public education, such as on value of EC education and community's role -Difficulty with negotiating <u>Parents</u> -Low education and skill levels in some areas -Inadequate empowerment to participate in education, claim rights and demand accountability <u>Youth</u> -Low education and skill levels -Inadequate opportunities <u>Children</u> -Inadequate empowerment to participate in education, claim rights and demand accountability <u>Rural Residents</u> -Low education and skill levels -Inadequate opportunities -Inadequate empowerment to claim rights and demand accountability

3.4 HEALTH

Ultimately, worker productivity and macroeconomic growth depend on the health of the population. Poor health causes low educational outcomes and there is a synergistic relationship between poverty and health.

Jamaica has had many noteworthy gains in health. In 1900, Jamaica's life expectancy at birth was 38 years. Currently, according to national statistics (ESSJ, 2009), life expectancy is 74 years, which is comparable to that in many developed countries (UNICEF figures note 72 years²¹). In recent years, the GOJ has undertaken several initiatives to improve access to health care, including abolishing user fees in public health facilities. As a consequence, there is greater access to 20% of Jamaicans who were previously unable to afford health services. This is important, since, on average, 65% of persons who utilize public health facilities are from the poorer segments of the population. There are ongoing efforts to restructure the Ministry of Health at central level. The aim is to improve cost effectiveness and reduce the bureaucracy involved in accessing and utilizing the budget.

However, the earlier gains are now at risk for a number of reasons: the MOH's budget---as a percentage of the GOJ budget---has been declining; there is disproportionate investment in curative care at the expense of prevention; there are disparities in health resources between urban and rural areas; the significance of most communicable diseases has been decreasing while the burdens from lifestyle diseases and health conditions---including chronic non-communicable diseases, HIV/AIDS, homicides, accidents, alcohol and substance abuse, mental and behavioral disorders---are increasingly absorbing a larger proportion of the GOJ budget allocation to the health sector.

KEY PROBLEMS

1. Challenges remain in some key areas of health provision: child/adolescent health, maternal health and lifestyle diseases;
2. Environmental management (natural resource management, climate change and disaster risk reduction) has important implications for health;
3. The governance and health service delivery systems requires strengthening with regard to health financing, partnership for health development and policy formulation and implementation

A. CHALLENGES REMAIN IN SOME KEY AREAS OF HEALTH PROVISION: CHILD/ADOLESCENT HEALTH, MATERNAL HEALTH AND LIFESTYLE DISEASES

Child Health

According to Article 6 of the CRC, health policies should be designed to 'ensure to the maximum extent possible the survival and development of the child.' The MOH has committed to providing wide access to adequate perinatal, child health and nutrition services. The MOH uses the following indicators of infant and child health: levels of immunization, nutritional status and infant and child mortality rates.

Immunization: The 1986 Immunization Regulations stipulate that all children under seven years of age must be "adequately immunized" prior to entering school. It is preferred that children are immunized within 1 year of birth or as soon as is feasible thereafter. The 2003 Public Health Act re-enforces these regulations. In 2001, immunization coverage (DPT, OPV, BCG) for children 0-11 was 92.6% and 85.7 in 2007. In 2001, MMR coverage for children 12-23 months was 84.6% and 76.2% in 2007. For 2009, immunization coverage for key vaccines for children 0-11 months were as follows: BCG, 94.1%; DPT/DT, 90.1%; OPV/Polio, 88.6%; Hib, 90.1%; HepB, 89.9%; 88.1% of children have received the MMR (ESSJ 2009: 23.8). According to these statistics, therefore, the downward trend in immunization is being reversed. These statistics are, in large part, comparable to PAHO/WHO data²²; however, they must be interpreted with caution given inadequacies in data collection systems.

Nutrition: There is a National Infant and Young Child Feeding Policy (1995), which is designed to reduce child morbidity and mortality rates and to "serve as a reference guide for the promotion, protection and support of breastfeeding and safe and adequate weaning practices". The intent of the policy is to ensure that women exclusively breastfeed their children during the first six months of life and that they then complement breastfeeding with other foods as of the sixth month and up to 2 years. The National Breastfeeding Programme executes the policy. According to 2009 MOH data, approximately

²¹ http://www.unicef.org/infobycountry/jamaica_statistics.html#68

²² http://apps.who.int/immunization_monitoring/en/globalsummary/countryprofileresult.cfm?C='jam'

45% of six week old babies who were seen at the public clinics had been exclusively breastfed. This marks an increase over 2008, when 42.8% were exclusively breastfed. However, it does not reach the MOH's target of 60% exclusive breastfeeding for children at six weeks of age. There are cultural and practical reasons (for example, mothers need to return to work) for the breastfeeding practices that exist. Underlying these immediate causes are poverty, which is one root push factor to women who must work to ensure their families' survival. Another root cause is the gaps in implementing the National Infant and Young Child Feeding Policy (1995).

The MOH's nutritional surveillance system is meant to monitor the nutritional status of very young children (0-3 years). Again, there are concerns about the quality of information that is generated by this system (PIOJ, Child Nutrition in Jamaica, 2005). However, policymakers also rely on anthropometric information that is available through the Jamaica Survey of Living Conditions (JSLC). This data shows consistently high levels of undernourishment, especially among children in the poorest households and increasing levels of over-nutrition or obesity, largely among children in the wealthiest households. There are pockets of malnutrition in some areas and notable levels of anemia in children under five (37.6%) and of school age (23.5%). Policymakers recognize the importance of improving the effectiveness of the nutrition clinics and school feeding programmes, since some categories of children remain more under-served than others.

Infant and Child Mortality: According to 2007-2008 MOH data, the rates of infant and under-five mortality are 21.3/1000 and 25.4/1000 live births respectively. Here, there is some discrepancy between national and UNICEF data. UNICEF (2008 data) notes that the probability of dying under 5 years is 31 per 1000 live births²³, compared with 32/1000 in 2000, 33 per 1000 in 1990 and 61 per 1000 in 1970. Thus, the rate of reduction since 1990 has not been significant.

The major causes of infant mortality are problems originating in the perinatal phase, congenital malformations, HIV, acute respiratory infections, gastroenteritis and malignant neoplasms (PAHO 2010: 22). The MOH notes that the incidence of respiratory infections and gastroenteritis has been increasing in recent years. Upsurges normally occur in the cooler months and are associated with rotavirus infections (cited in PAHO/WHO, 2010:14). In addition to these causes, it is clear that violence is taking a toll on children. Data from the Accidents and Emergency units within public hospitals indicate that in 2009, 314 children from 0-9 years had suffered from burns; 372 from accidental poisoning; 468 from blunt injuries and 121 from sexual assault or rape (ESSJ, 2009: 23.8) (The ESSJ does not record how many of these children died as a consequence.)

Although the current rates of child mortality are comparatively low, reports (including the Medium Term Social and Economic Framework of Jamaica) note that the country is not making the progress that is required for reaching the child mortality targets that are specified under the MDGs; that is, reducing child mortality by two thirds.

Addressing the underlying and root causes of child mortality is critical. Some of the underlying causes relate to the quality of the environment; some are the outgrowth of urban and rural poverty, which has consequences for child nutrition and health; some are the consequences of the quality of the transportation and health infrastructure, particularly in the rural areas, which affect whether mothers are able to gain timely access to quality care. In cases, these underlying causes overlap.

The MOH's/PAHO (2007) *Estimation of the Cost of Interpersonal Violence Study* notes that the annual direct cost of violence to the Jamaican health sector was, then, JA\$ 2.2b; that is 40% of the recurrent hospital budget.

With respect to HIV, while 'access to ARVs for preventing mother to child transmission (PMTCT) of HIV and opt out testing for pregnant women have resulted in a significant decline in mother to child transmission of HIV' (See section on HIV below), the strengthening and careful targeting of these efforts (in order to reach households) is critical, as are continuous public education campaigns that can address the social attitudes and personal insecurities that may prevent mothers from accessing treatment.

The need for increased health financing and human resources is an important factor that is at the root of some of the causes for child mortality. The level of education, especially among women within poor households, is another key root factor. The inability to control violence is among the root

²³ <http://www.who.int/countries/jam/en/>

causes of the majority of development challenges but this, in turn, reflects on the level and quality of resources, as well as the thrust of violence reduction strategies (See section on Citizen Security).

Adolescent Health

Adolescents between 10 and 19 years comprise 19.5% of the population. There are a number of critical issues that affect adolescent health. For example:

1. Adolescents suffer some of the most significant costs of the high rate of crime and violence that now seems endemic in Jamaica. In 2002, adolescents (largely males) accounted for approximately 26% of the total number of visits to accident and emergency units. Data from the MOH show that between January and June 2009, adolescents accounted for 26.2% of intentional injuries (males were involved in over 70% of these); 22.3% of unintentional injuries, with males comprising 66% of the cases seen.
2. An increasing number of adolescents are referred to Child Guidance Clinics for mental health and behavioral problems. Some of the factors contributing to mental breakdown among adolescents include exposure to or being a victim of violence within and/or outside of their families, illicit drug abuse, loss of one or two parents to violence or disease, child-headed households and lack of adequate psychosocial and remedial support.
3. Adolescents are highly vulnerable to factors that promote negative reproductive health outcomes. Early initiation into sexual activities, forced sexual relations, insufficient awareness and skills to protect their health, and lack of youth-friendly services are issues contributing to reproductive ill-health among young people in Jamaica. A situation analysis conducted by the Ministry of Health confirms that while there have been improvements in adolescent reproductive health issues over the years, the rates of HIV infection among girls in the 15-24 year age group is twice that of their male counterparts and the rates of teenage pregnancy still remain too high at 72/1000. Furthermore, social norms regarding sexuality and gender issues, such as sexual risk-taking and multiple partnerships have negative implications for the risk-taking behaviours of adolescent males. Data from the 2008 National Family Board Reproductive Health Survey demonstrate the need for greater, and more effective, attention to male sexual reproductive health.

Maternal Health

The PAHO/WHO Cooperation Strategy (2010-2015) notes that maternal mortality surveillance has improved in recent periods and that treatment and preventive interventions have improved. However, there are concerns that the country may not meet the MDG target: reduce the maternal mortality rate by three-quarters between 1990 and 2015.

There are discrepancies between national and international recognized statistics. The GOJ's report on the quality of progress towards the MDGs indicates a 20% reduction in MMR over 14 yrs. However, PAHO/WHO and UNICEF reports indicate a rate of 95 per 100,000 live births between 2003 and 2008. It is widely acknowledged that there are problems with data collection and analysis.

The immediate causes of maternal mortality include both reproductive health and non-reproductive health related diseases and health conditions. Data from the Strategic Framework on Safe Motherhood indicate that the major causes of death continue to be hypertensive disease/ eclampsia, haemorrhage and sepsis. However, while these direct causes have been declining over the past 4 years, indirect causes such as HIV/AIDS, violence, and other chronic conditions such as obesity, sickle cell disease and cardiac disease have been increasing.

Other factors hampering progress in reducing maternal mortality include inadequate human resources, low levels of public education and awareness, inadequate implementation of health policies, poverty and cultural approaches to maternal care.

Life-Style Diseases

The gradual ageing of the population coupled with changes in healthy lifestyles, have caused an epidemiological transition, marked by increasing trends in chronic non-communicable diseases such as diabetes, hypertension, heart disease and cancer. Other health conditions such as alcohol and drug abuse and road traffic accidents are increasing and are, somehow, lifestyle-related.

Effective prevention, control and management of these health issues require policy changes, reorganization of health services delivery and innovative health financing mechanisms with a multi-sectoral approach to address the social, cultural and political factors underlying these problems.

However, recent unfavorable trends in donor support along with food insecurity, high rates of crime and violence and the impact of natural disasters limit the GOJ's capacity to effectively deal with lifestyle-related diseases and health conditions.

A focus group convened to assess the immediate, underlying and root causes for some of the unhealthy lifestyle choices agreed that lower consumption of fruits and vegetables is mainly due to high cost. Peer pressure, especially for children and adolescents, and aggressive food industry marketing through the media, convenient location of fast food restaurants and lack of time for parents and/or guardians to prepare nutritious meals at home were also identified as major determinants of unhealthy eating. In addition, nutrition education is still inadequate, particularly among the poorest households. In some part, lifestyle choices reflect some emerging 'cultural' practices for, despite the changes in agricultural policy, there is still a bias towards consuming manufactured foods. There is need for better synergies between the Ministries of Health and Agriculture in order to ensure that 'food security' strategies prioritize monitoring the quality of imports and local manufactured foods.

Across age groups, violence (domestic and communal) has been forcing new lifestyle choices. Generally, the opportunities and space for physical activities have been reduced and the option of joining indoor exercise areas is only available to those who can afford it.

It is important not to underestimate the effects of increasing levels of stress on health outcomes, particularly hypertension and heart disease. According to 2005 estimates, 20% of the population has mental disorders. The rates of schizophrenia are increasing, with approximately 20,000 new cases diagnosed each year. The 2008 Health and Lifestyle Survey indicates that 25.6% of females and 14.8% of men had exhibited symptoms of depression. (PAHO/WHO 2010:19). These are, in part, related to the quality of the socio economic context and the resulting pressured lifestyles

B. ENVIRONMENTAL MANAGEMENT (NATURAL RESOURCE MANAGEMENT, CLIMATE CHANGE AND DISASTER RISK REDUCTION) HAS SERIOUS---POTENTIALLY CATASTROPHIC---IMPLICATIONS FOR HEALTH

Jamaica has made substantial improvements in extending its water supply and sanitation coverage although there are variations across rural and urban areas. The water is of high quality, although in some areas it is low in mineral content, which poses health risks. The water quality is most at risk during natural disasters, such as hurricanes and flooding. During these periods, too, the incidence of vector borne diseases increases, at great cost to the health sector. (In 2008, Jamaica was classified as an endemic malaria country. In addition, dengue fever is endemic within some parishes, although the MOH has implemented measures to contain it.) Bacterial diseases can increase after periods of inclement weather. For example, there was a surge in leptospirosis in 2006 and 2007, following the heavy rains and floods. This flare up had much to do with poor waste management and infestation from rodents. As Section 8 shows, Jamaica is vulnerable to natural disasters and this vulnerability will increase with global warming; therefore, there are potentially serious implications for health.

Health suffers where there is disposal of highly toxic or persistent pollutants into seawater, such as the runoff from agricultural pesticides and fertilizers, and where there is untreated domestic sewage. Lack of solid waste collection coverage compromises health, as does the location of communities in areas where the air quality is poor. (Section 8 outlines the immediate, underlying and roots causes for the environmental challenges.)

The Environmental Health Unit, Ministry of Health lacks adequate numbers of staff, as well as the specialist staff required. While the MOH has consistently responded to natural disasters, other areas of focus frequently suffer as a consequence. At the root of this problem is the need for increased health financing. There is also need for strengthened efforts to ensure disaster preparedness, as well as a comprehensive cross-sectoral risk reduction strategy. The MOH recognizes the importance of proactive planning.

C. THE GOVERNANCE OF HEALTH SERVICE SYSTEMS REQUIRES STRENGTHENING

Jamaicans receive public health services from a network of 24 hospitals, 5 specialist facilities and 348 health centres. Regional Health Authorities (RHAs) are responsible for managing the delivery of care in these health centres. The GOJ has been focusing on improving the MOH's capacity to monitor health provision across the regions, by holding the RHAs to better account. The following areas require attention:

- a. Spatial disparities in health provision
- b. Health Information including surveillance, monitoring and evaluation
- c. Human resources for health
- d. Patient-centered, sensitive and accountable health care system
- e. Private/public mix for country-driven sustainable health financing
- e. Filling gaps between policy formulation and implementation

(See Annex 3.4 for the main conclusions from the focus group discussion)

TABLE 3.4.1 GAPS IN CAPACITY (HEALTH)

The findings indicate the following capacity gaps among duty bearers and rights holders. Among duty bearers, there are marked similarities with the gaps reported for the Education sector.

Duty Bearers	Rights Holders
<u> Policymakers and Implementing Agencies </u> -Data collection and utilization -Translating policies into concrete actions -Improving the quality of stakeholder involvement. -Developing strategic actions to improve collaboration across sectors -Allocation of resources across rural and urban areas -Securing additional financial and human resources as well as exploring avenues for maximizing on under-utilized capacities -Monitoring and evaluation	<u> Parents </u> -Low education and skill levels in some areas -Inadequate empowerment -Inadequate resources <u> Adolescents and Youth </u> -Gaps in knowledge, particularly on male reproductive health -Gaps in negotiating peer influence <u> Women </u> -Inadequate empowerment -Inadequate public education -Resources <u> Rural Residents </u> -Low education and skill levels -Inadequate opportunities -Inadequate empowerment to claim rights and demand accountability

3.5 HIV/AIDS

HIV/AIDS is treated distinctly, given its substantial implications for human development and for macroeconomic growth. Many of the core issues that have been discussed are also pertinent to understanding the dynamics of HIV: gender inequalities, poverty, discrimination, lifestyle choices and the social conditions facing adolescents and youth

The HIV epidemic in Jamaica mirrors the wider Caribbean and, to some extent, the global picture. The first reported case of AIDS in Jamaica occurred in 1982; almost 30 years later, the prevalence stands at approximately 1.7%. The epidemic in Jamaica, as in the rest of the Caribbean, is complex and heterogeneous: it combines a generalized epidemic with concentrated pockets within the most at risk groups throughout the population. The impact of HIV on development in Jamaica is yet to be documented; however, HIV is a development challenge for the Caribbean region, where it established as the leading cause of death among adults. The impact of the global crises will magnify this challenge if urgent attention is not given to preventing and treating it. Despite the economic challenges, investments in the HIV/AIDS response have produced some positive results in Jamaica

Key Successes in Jamaica

1. There is a decline in HIV/AIDS cases that are reported annually. In 2006, there were 2121 cases, compared with 1738 cases in 2009.
2. Access to ARVs has resulted in a significant decline in HIV related deaths since the public gained access to treatment in 2004.
3. Access to ARVs for preventing mother to child transmission (PMTCT) of HIV and opt out testing for pregnant women have resulted in a significant decline in MTCT of HIV and of paediatric AIDS cases reported to the MOH
4. The scale up of HIV testing has resulted in more timely diagnoses.
5. Interventions with sex workers (SW) have been scaled up much more than those among men who have sex with men (MSM), with over 70% of SW reporting HIV testing within the last 12 months and high levels of exposure to prevention interventions.
6. Good evidence-based interventions for MSM are being implemented, though not at scale.
7. The programme continues to gather strong evidence to guide the response and have a monitoring and evaluation framework in place.
8. There is good stakeholder participation at all levels.
9. There is an excellent mechanism for consultation and discussion

Source: 2010 Aide Memoire on Universal Access. Country Consultation Process, October 19-22, 2010

Key Problems:

These gains noted above are substantial ; however, it is still the case that HIV/AIDS remains one of the main causes of mortality in the Caribbean; it is the leading cause of death among persons from 20-59 years. It is critical that the GOJ and partners recognize and respond to this regional reality.

Table 3.5.1 Leading Causes of Death in the Caribbean Adults 20-49

Males		Females	
HIV/AIDS	15.7%	HIV/AIDS	14.5%
Ischemic heart disease	10.2%	Diabetes	10.9%
Homicide	6.2%	Ischemic heart disease	7.9%
Diabetes	6.2%	Cerebrovascular disease	6.7%

Dynamics of the Epidemic

The overall prevalence rate (1.7%) in Jamaica hides the evolving dynamics of the epidemic. It is important to unpick these:

1. In 2009, the male to female ratio among persons who were confirmed with AIDS in Jamaica was 1.2:1. The cumulative AIDS case rate was higher among men (642 per 100,000) than women (461 per 100,000). Kingston, St. Catherine and St. James have recorded the highest number of HIV and AIDS cases over the years.

2. Although information on new infections is not available, data suggests that people---particularly girls---are getting infected through sexual initiation before the age of 10. The majority of cases occur among persons who are between 20 and 49 years, the most productive age group. Of this group, the majority of cases are females. Females also represent two thirds of the cases in the age group: 10-19 years. The main mode of transmission is through heterosexual contact.

3. HIV prevalence is highest among particular at-risk populations, especially those whose sexual behaviors are criminalized and/or considered immoral. Like the rest of the Caribbean, prevalence in Jamaica is highest among men who have with men (MSM), many of whom remain in marriages or have relations with women, in many cases to disguise their relations with other men. However, of the countries that criminalize homosexuality, the prevalence is highest in Jamaica: 31.8% (See figure below)

The Most At Risk Populations

MSM: There are particular categories of MSM who are especially vulnerable, for example, those who are homeless and those who trade sex with other men. Generally, MSM face considerable stigma and discrimination, including serious human rights abuses at all levels of the society. Across the Caribbean, HIV prevalence is higher (among MSM) in those countries that criminalize homosexuality (Jamaica, 32%; Guyana, 21%; Trinidad and Tobago, 20%).

Crack/cocaine users: Crack/cocaine users are engaged in high-risk behaviors, including trading sex to sustain their drug habits. They have an important role in the 'spread and acquisition of HIV'.

Sex workers: Among sex workers, persons who are brothel based have a lower prevalence rate than those who are street based. Surveys conducted among men diagnosed with AIDS indicate that approximately 25% had previously engaged the services of a sex worker. The 2008 UNGASS report notes that only 40% of female sex workers take advantage of prevention programmes.

Young people: Young people (especially young women and out of school youth) are particularly vulnerable to HIV. This is because multiple partnerships are increasingly common and accepted. Girls and boys, particularly those who are initiated early into sex or those compelled or coerced to engage in transactional sex are also at increased risk especially where there is intergenerational sex.

The table below shows prevalence rates among the most at-risk populations (MARPS) in Jamaica.

Table 3.5.2 Most at Risk Populations

MARPS: SIZE AND PREVALENCE ESTIMATES		
Population	Size	Prevalence Estimates (2007)
Men who have sex with men	9000-27000	32%
Crack/cocaine users	4000	5%
Sex workers	7000-18000	5%
Prison Inmates	5000	3.5%
STI clinic attendees	45000	3.4

Source: National HIV/STI Programme Annual Review 2010, p. 5

IMMEDIATE, UNDERLYING AND ROOT CAUSES

Given the urgency and precariousness of the situation, it is important to understand the immediate, underlying and root causes for the dynamics discussed above.

Immediate Causes

The data shows a number of immediate causes: These include multiple sex partners; low age at initiation; unprotected sex and/or inconsistent condom use (Note that condom use for young people is at 60%); and there is a high rate of people living with HIV who do not know their status (estimated at almost 14,000).

Underlying Causes

These are some harmful sexual practices that underpin these immediate causes. Conventionally, boys and girls are initiated early into sexual activities. Problematically, particularly within some communities, parents are now forcing their children into transactional sex. The rewards are not only meant to satisfy needs or to stem poverty and hunger; they are also meant to secure non-essential items and maintain the trappings that suit the growing materialist/'bling' culture. Respondents in one focus group emphasized that these show a declining sense of responsibility and accountability among some parents, as well as a flagrant disregard for the Child Care and Protection Act (CCPA) and the CRC.

Other underlying causes include: poor health seeking behaviours, lack of access to services; lack of adherence to treatment; and inappropriate treatment. In addition, there is some indication that as PLHIVs live longer and appear to feel less threatened by the disease, there is less strict adherence to the treatments.

Root Causes

Cultural and Religious Traditions: Within the Jamaican society, there is intolerance and, at times, violent opposition to sexual diversity. Cultural and religious traditions have upheld particular models of ideal and idealized sexual behavior, comprised of abstinence until marriage, heterosexual relationships and monogamy after marriage. Consequently, particular high-risk groups, whose sexual behaviors divert from the norm, are labeled as dissidents. Discrimination, including in prevention approaches among healthcare workers, taints social attitudes to these groups. One significant consequence is that stigma, and the expectation of further marginalization, drives these groups to cover their sexual practices and avoid treatment. Across schools, children living with and affected by HIV/AIDS also suffer discrimination, as do other persons living with (and otherwise affected by) HIV/AIDS. The root causes, then, manifest in poor health seeking behaviours, lack of access to services, low rates of testing, the high rate of people living with HIV who do not know their status. Unless the root causes are addressed, the immediate manifestations will not be resolved.

Culture and Unequal Gender Norms: Abstinence and monogamous relationships are upheld on the one hand but so, too, are unequal gender norms that undermine safe sexual practices and responsible decision-making. Boys and girls are initiated early into sexual activities. Particularly within some communities, parents are now forcing their children into transactional sex. The rewards are not only meant to satisfy needs or to stem poverty and hunger; they are also meant to secure non-essential items and maintain the trappings that suit the growing materialist/'bling' culture. Respondents in one focus group

emphasized that these show a declining sense of responsibility and accountability among some parents as well as a flagrant disregard for the Child Care and Protection Act (CCPA) and the CRC.

Multiple partnerships (another cultural tradition) are more prevalent among males than females, particularly men who are between 15 and 24 years. The 2008 KABP survey notes that men who were involved in multiple relationships had 5.68 partners on average while females had 2.91 partners. Importantly, the survey also found that the majority of men and women involved in multiple partnerships do use some form of protection: Six out of ten persons reported using a condom the last time they had sex while 44% reported using a condom the last ten times they had sex (National HIV/STI Programme Annual Review 2010, p. 44).

Discrimination against girls and women is common within the culture. Men are socialized to be rough and sexual harassment and gender-based violence do not receive the moral approbation they ought. Thus, these are often tolerated, including among victims. The outcomes of these root issues are multiple sex partners; low age at initiation, particularly among girls; unprotected sex and/or inconsistent condom use.

However, gender socialization drives the epidemic in other ways. For example, boys and men are often reluctant to get tested; therefore, they have difficulty managing the disease. Many do not know their status or want to know. Correspondingly, HIV testing for men who are at risk has proceeded at a slower pace than that for women. This, then, explains the following immediate manifestations and underlying causes: low testing, low access to treatment; poor health seeking behaviours.

Denial of Human Rights: Throughout the Caribbean, colonial laws and policies still exist, which prohibit and punish homosexuality and sex work. In Jamaica, practicing homosexuals can face up to 10 years in prison. Such laws permit stigma and discrimination. Policies such as mandatory HIV testing without consent and pre-employment screening also constitute rights infringements, fuel discrimination, cause MARPS not to seek services, and limit the uptake that should, ideally, occur. The consequences are demonstrated in the table below: HIV prevalence is highest among countries that criminalise homosexuality and highest in Jamaica, where homophobia is rife.

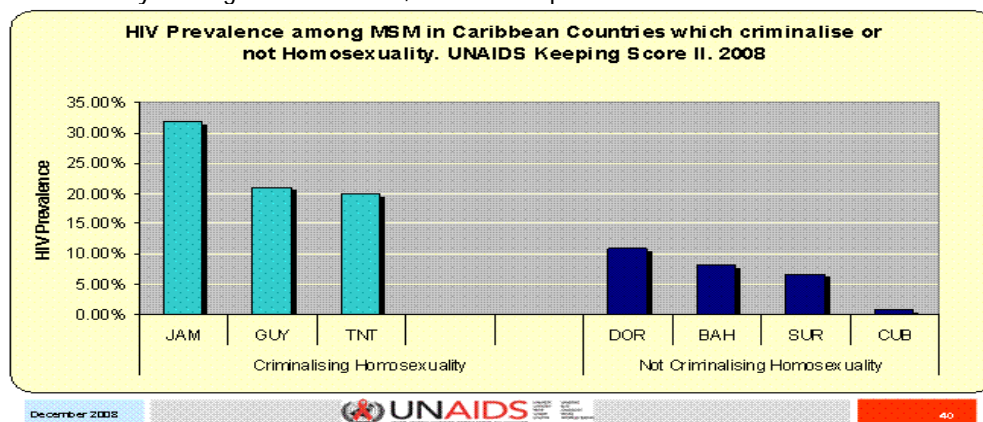


Figure 3.5.1

Poverty: Poverty remains at the root of some high-risk sexual practices, such as transactional sex. In 2009, over 37% of sexually active respondents were engaged in transactional sex. Prevention responses require a better link with social protection. Poverty, too, leads to manifestations such as low access to services. The cost of treatment is still prohibitive for certain segments of the population.

Financing and sustainability of the national programmes Resources are now dwindling and the country will lose the Global Fund in mid-2013. Jamaica's new position as an upper middle-income country limits the funding that is accessible, which puts current achievements at severe risk.

Inadequacy of integrated planning and service delivery There is recognition that responses to HIV should be better integrated with programmes that deal with sexual and reproductive health. However, HIV has wider relations with other sector programmes. For example, poverty is one root cause for high-risk practices that may culminate in HIV/AIDS; conversely, HIV/AIDS also causes poverty. The increase in gender-based violence has significant implications for HIV/AIDS. In unplanned settlements,

where there are high levels of insecurity, violence against women and girls commonly increase and, with it, the risk of HIV. Thus, HIV is interconnected with citizen security, community safety and environmental management. The environment is critical in other ways. For example, PLHIVs are especially at risk when they subsist in unsanitary situations or use beaches polluted with waste. Education and awareness is indispensable for reducing prevalence rates, for containing the spread of HIV/AIDS and for improving the life chances of PLHIV. In all these areas, the gaps in inter-sectoral collaboration compromise the effectiveness of existing interventions.

Table 3.5.3 GAPS IN CAPACITY (HIV)

Focus group respondents noted the following capacity gaps among duty bearers and rights holders.

Duty Bearers	Rights Holders
Government; UN agencies; Donors; -Sustaining and improving funding levels -Data collection and utilization -Improving the quality of stakeholder involvement. --Developing strategic actions to improve collaboration across sectors -Inadequate knowledge of the culture sensitive approaches that are required to reach persons who fear discrimination -Translating policies into concrete actions Health care workers; Law enforcement services; Social services NGOs -Reaching the most at risk populations -Data collection and utilization --Monitoring and evaluation -Inadequate knowledge of the culture sensitive approaches that are required to reach persons who fear discrimination	<u>MSM</u> -Inadequate empowerment to claim rights, for example, concerning societal discrimination <u>Drug users</u> -Inadequate empowerment to claim rights -Inadequate education <u>Sex workers</u> -Low education and skill levels in some areas -Inadequate empowerment to claim rights and demand accountability <u>Adolescents and Youth</u> -Gaps in knowledge, particularly on male reproductive health -Resources -Negotiation skills <u>Children</u> -Some lack the power to make alternate sexual choices <u>Prison inmates</u> -Lack of capacity to claim rights -Some lack the power to make alternate sexual choices -Lack of negotiation skills and space <u>People living with HIV/AIDS</u> -Inadequate empowerment to claim rights, for example, concerning discriminatory employment practices -Resources -Lack of negotiation skills and space

3.6 COMMUNITY SAFETY, CITIZEN SECURITY AND ACCESS TO JUSTICE

Violence is among the most pressing issues facing the Jamaican society. While not 'at war', the levels of violence, insecurity and resulting deaths in Jamaica are comparable to those in some high conflict situations. "The standard international definition of a war or high intensity conflict is 'violence characterized by fatality rates of over 1000/year', and in Jamaica 1574 people were murdered in 2007" (UNDP, 2009: 7-8).

In Jamaica, violence, in its varying manifestations, has intensified, particularly over the last three decades. This has comprised human development and macroeconomic growth. The World Bank estimates that if Jamaica were to reduce its homicide rates to levels that are on par with rates in Costa Rica, the GDP could increase by approximately 5.4% (UNDP 2009: 8)

The cost of direct medical care for violence-related injuries at public hospitals island- wide was USD 29 million, approximately 12 per cent of Jamaica's total health budget (World Health Organization 2006). Productivity losses due to violence-related injuries are estimated to account for approximately USD 398 million, equivalent to four per cent of Jamaica's gross domestic product (Butchart et al., 2008; MoH and VPA, 2007, p. 8).

Current assessments offer two positions that are of critical importance to this CCA: (1) The policing and justice systems have, in some part, helped to foment violence (See, for example, Leslie 2010; Harriott 2009; JCF Strategic Review, 2007); (2) A state-led approach is insufficient for containing and resolving the underlying and root causes of violence; rather, a genuinely participatory community approach is required (Harriott 2009).

KEY PROBLEMS

There are three key problems: (See summary of immediate, underlying and root causes in Annex 6).

- The levels of violence in Jamaica pose significant threats to human security, right to life and to economic growth and development;
- The policing and justice systems are inadequate for containing violence and, in some respects, perpetuate it; and
- Current citizen and community security approaches and programmes have variable impact.

THE LEVELS OF VIOLENCE IN JAMAICA POSE SIGNIFICANT THREATS TO HUMAN SECURITY, RIGHT TO LIFE AND TO ECONOMIC GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

In 1974, violent crimes in Jamaica accounted for approximately 10% of major crimes. By 1996, violent crime rates had increased exponentially to 43% of total crimes. In the 1950s and 1960s, the murder rate was merely 7 per 100,000. By 2004, the rate of intentional homicides in Jamaica (55.5 per 100,000) was as much as three times that in other Caribbean countries and seven times the global average (Leslie 2010: 5). Jamaica's murder rate has increased since that 2004 assessment and, at 62 per 100,000 in 2009, is among the highest in the world. Rape and felonious wounding have also increased over the period. It is important to note that actual violent crime rates are thought to be higher than these reported rates since, according to recent estimates (Harriott 2009), only 20-30% of crimes are reported to the police.

In Jamaica, violence is largely concentrated in the urban areas (See Annex 3.6, Table 3.6.1) Seventy percent of murders committed between 1994 and 1997 occurred in the Kingston Metropolitan Area (KMA). In 2008, the official murder rate for the KMA region was 96.2 per 100,000 (Leslie 2010). In 2009, the majority of murders were reported in the urban centres of Kingston, St Andrew, St Catherine and St James (ESSJ 2009). Women, children (See Annex 3.6 Table 3.6.2) and the elderly are now among the targets, which marks a cultural change from the era when their protection was paramount.

There is little dispute about the political origins of this violence, although less is known about the depth and breadth of current political involvement. Presently, the primary, most visible cause, of the violence is gang related. There are approximately 268 gangs operating in Jamaica, as opposed to 49 in 1998. In 1998, it was estimated that there were 7 highly organized criminal gangs. In 2009, it was estimated that there were 12 such gangs (Leslie 2010). In 1983, official records indicate that gangs were responsible for 3% of the murders committed. By 2009, this had increased to 52 percent (Mogensen, 2005, p. 11; JCFSD, 2010, cited in Leslie 2010). It is believed that these figures are underestimated and that gangs may be 'responsible for approximately 80 per cent of all major crimes in Jamaica and 90 per cent of murders' (Leslie 2010).

A distinction has been made between "corner gangs" (which come together largely for community protection and for social connections) and criminal gangs (many of which are well organized operations with links to international drugs and arms trafficking). Gangs have now spread well beyond the confines of the innercities and can be found across the parishes. Even more disturbingly, growing numbers of children within schools are involved in gangs and, in particular areas, have links with corner and criminal gangs. Most gangs are comprised of young men from, on average, 16 years, though preparation for membership can begin from five years. Children, particularly males, are groomed from early to "fear, hate and harm" (Gayle, 2009: 53) Children with disabilities are trained as gun or drug carriers, though they rarely feature in policy (Focus group discussion with stakeholders working on disability issues, UNICEF). Increasingly, girls are being incorporated in gangs within communities and schools.

There are fears that 'deportees', some of whom had been imprisoned overseas for crimes ranging from illegal entry and stay to murder, contribute to the upsurge of crime and violence. Here, the findings are contradictory; some analysts contend that deportees have not had the influence suggested. The social and economic costs associated with reintegration, particularly in ways that protect against violence, adds to the challenges to the GOJ.

Violence takes other forms. As in many other contexts of insecurity and violent conflict, domestic violence increases during these periods and often continues long after the conflicts abate. While the legislation on preventing gender-based violence is modern and comprehensive (for example, the Domestic Violence Act 1996, the Sexual Offences Act 2009, the Child Care and Prevention Act

2004), there are severe institutional and attitudinal problems affecting enforcement. "Reports suggest that only 25 per cent of sexual violence is reported...This under-reporting is directly related to discrimination against women, and the trivialisation of sexual violence perpetrated by an acquaintance as "just a little sex" (Amnesty International, 2006). Consequently, women are more likely to report sexual violence to health facilities than to the police and many do not anticipate justice in the courts ²⁴ (Amnesty International, 2006).

Gender based violence is also leveled against men and boys, depending on perceptions of masculinity. The Vision 2030 Sector Report on Gender reinforces that "gender politics *within* masculinities also occurs [and] has repressive consequences for some men and boys. The overarching culture of masculinity more often than not, gives an even less therapeutic atmosphere for male victims of GBV whether committed by a homosexual male or by a female" (Vision 2030 Sector Report on Gender: 30; Bailey & Yusef-Khalil, 2007 forthcoming). This provides an important frame for interpreting available statistics. For example, while the data indicates that girls are the major victims of rape and carnal abuse (See Annex 3.6, Table 3.6.3), the difficulty with this conclusion is that sexual abuse of boys is often not reported. Consistent with cultural traditions, boys normally maintain silence when they are abused, as they fear the stigma that is likely to result from knowledge of their assault or rape.

It is not uncommon in Jamaica's history for various minority groups to be subjected to discrimination and violent suppression. Currently, particular segments of populations who are most at risk of HIV/AIDs (such as men who have sex with men) are often subjected to violence (See section on HIV/AIDs)

In addition to the types of violence noted above, corporal punishment remains a problem within homes and schools. The 2005 MICS report observed that 73% of children between 2 and 14 years received modest physical punishment while 7.5% received severe punishment. There is evidence that corporal punishment is more pervasive in the poorer communities.

Considerably more males than females are victims and perpetrators of crime and violence. (See Annex 3.6, Table 3.6.4) Broadly, about 50% of the offenders and victims of GBV are the youth. The Vision 2030 Sector Report on Gender (p.31) emphasizes: "Boys and girls are more vulnerable to sexual violence and more likely to become abusers or violators themselves due to contributing factors such as poor parenting, child abuse, sub-standard living conditions, low levels of education, and lack of social services."

UNDERLYING AND ROOT CAUSES

Beneath the immediate causes and manifestations of this pervasive threat to human security are a numbers of factors and practices that have grown progressively worse over time:

1. *Breakdown in family structures and relations:* absence of good fathers, as well as growth in the number of female headed households, which have higher levels of poverty
2. *High levels of socio-economic inequality.*
3. *Poor quality of the environment.* The unplanned settlements that were created in urban enclaves, particularly since the 1960s, provide conducive contexts for breeding other forms of human insecurity
4. *Alternate/parallel forms of governance* have been cultivated in communities, which, though 'more cost effective and efficient', are also abusive of human rights. The vote, lifestyles and loyalties are often mandated. *Low education levels, inadequate skills and opportunities for the youth.* The options and space for choice are constricted because of the low education levels among the youth.
5. *Easy availability of weapons.*

At the root of these immediate and underlying causes are high levels of socio-economic inequality, poverty, the breakdown of the law: citizens have lost trust in legal institutions and in the policing systems (see below), which have---contrary to their mandates---abused human rights. The distrust is rooted in the perception and evidence that various leaders have 'legitimized' and profited from violence, that links remain between politicians, police, organized crime, and gangs and that the state is unresponsive to and disrespects the poor and or certain categories of people, particularly residents

²⁴ <http://www.amnestyusa.org/document.php?id=ENGAMR380022006&lang=e>

within the inner cities. There is distrust at community level too, where there is both social fragmentation and cohesion, for protection of what may amount to a small unit, such as a lane.

Certain cultures/mindsets are emerging that, together, make citizen and community security seemingly more difficult to achieve. Importantly, these are not confined to violence prone areas. Analysts emphasize the following: a culture of lawlessness and revenge; aggressive cultures of masculinity; a consumption culture (persons resort to crime and violence in order to realize quick material gain); culture of gender discrimination, which legitimizes gender discrimination and gender based violence, including among victims; a 'kingship' culture, which allows for the rise and negative influence of personalities; and a growing culture of disregard for fundamental human rights, including the right to life.

THE POLICING AND JUSTICE SYSTEMS ARE INADEQUATE FOR CONTAINING VIOLENCE AND, IN SOME RESPECTS, PERPETUATE IT

The previous section noted that there is public distrust of policing. On the ground, there are high levels of complaints about police brutality; widespread evidence of disrespect for certain categories of persons, which foments violence; and perceptions of corruption. The Jamaican Constabulary Force is responsible for one of the highest rates of killings by police in the Americas. In 2007, 272 persons died as a result of use of force by the police; 224 were killed in 2008 and 253 in 2009.²⁵ In May 2010, during a 2-day West Kingston joint police-army operation 65 civilians were confirmed killed. In October 2010, the UN Special Rapporteur on Torture expressed concern "about the high number of murders committed each year, including the large number of people who are killed in police operations in circumstances that are not always clear".

The Ministry of National Security commissioned a strategic review of the Jamaica Constabulary Force in 2007. The findings indicated that (1) the culture within the JCF "is that of command and control", which undermines effectiveness; corruption is prevalent and "there is a general lack of regard for human rights"; the JCF leadership and the GOJ have not been able to address problems with corruption and human rights abuse, which further undermines public confidence and effectiveness;

One thousand six hundred and eighty persons were murdered in 2009; by comparison, in 2008, 1618 murders were committed. . . Four hundred and eighty one of these cases were cleared up, as opposed to 515 cases in 2008. There were 1665 cases of reported shootings, an increase of 9% over 2008. Of these, 29.2% were cleared up, compared with over 35% in 2008. An alarming 1326 of these shootings were committed by civilians; among these were 36 reported drive by shootings. According to reports, 339 of these shootings occurred in police/civilian combat and resulted in 255 fatalities (ESSJ, 2009).

"internal accountability is weak"; leadership and management systems are weak. The Review outlined definite actions to address each of these areas and the MNS has expressed commitment to wide and deep reforms. Its action plan includes a culture audit; zero tolerance policy on corruption and anti-corruption strategies; review of the internal appraisal and disciplinary system; expansion of community policing; a leadership development programme as well as mechanisms for 'professionalising the JCF'.

However, there is another dimension that is worth consideration. Police complain of limited human and financial resources. There are also practical constraints: problems with transport; communication; inadequate capacities to utilize DNA evidence; inadequate ballistic helmets and bulletproof vests. These 'causes' affect the effectiveness of policing; however, there are questions about the nature of the approach. Some analysts contend that conventional strong-arm crime prevention approaches may be producing more costs than advantages. (See concerns about extra-judicial killings above) Key respondents argued that apart from 'community policing', the traditional strategy is focused, primarily, on security rather than prevention and safety. They underscore that police responses often do not create environments that are less likely to produce the risk factors that lead to offending. From the citizens' perspective, the more responsive, professional type of policing is limited to community-based policing in selected communities. However, the common interpretation is that community policing is 'a project or programme that some people do rather than way of doing things in the police force'. Second, according to some commentators, 'the customer service approach is not a culture among the police' (Also see findings from the JCF Strategic Review).

²⁵ <http://www.amnesty.org/en/library/info/AMR38/001/2008/en>

These issues raise fundamental questions about governance and accountability. At the root of the inadequacies of policing are poor governance systems both within the JCF and the society. With respect to the latter, accountability mechanisms do not allow citizens to hold the police to account without fear of retribution. The 2007 Justice Sector Reform raises similar issues. It relied on community consultations in order to diagnose the causes of the problems in the system. The table below identifies the immediate, underlying and root causes emphasized.

Table 3.6.1 Immediate, Underlying and Root Causes (Access to Justice)

Immediate Causes	Underlying Causes	Root Causes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -There is a lack of equality in access to justice -Persons are treated disrespectfully (in ways that abuse their dignity, time and rights to privacy) -There is unfairness (and the perception of unfairness) in the administration of justice -The cost of justice is prohibitive, particularly for the poorest -It normally takes a very long time to achieve fair disposition in both civil and criminal matters -There is lack of knowledge of legal matters 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -'Insufficient attention is paid to human rights and to some of Jamaica's obligations under international human rights treaties, some of which have not yet been integrated into domestic law and practice' -'There are many barriers to accessing the justice system, including the inaccessibility of legal information, legal assistance and the courts'. -'Justice personnel do not always carry out their duties in a professional manner (there are related concerns about low remuneration, insufficient numbers of personnel to handle the jobs, and inadequate training)'. -'Many practices and procedures are outdated and inefficient (specific issues include: the use of juries, the use of preliminary inquiries, scheduling practices; court management and administration practices; filing and recording keeping)'. -'Actors and institutions within the justice system are not fully accountable'. -'Court houses and other infrastructure are in very poor condition'. <p>(Source: Justice Sector Reform Report: 10)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Inequalities in wealth influence inequalities in social relations; the justice system reflects and upholds deep societal cleavages -Low levels of awareness and of education -There is a culture of lack of accountability/lack of enforcement of accountability mechanisms -Poverty: People living in conditions of poverty are unable to afford justice

CURRENT CITIZEN AND COMMUNITY SECURITY APPROACHES AND PROGRAMMES HAVE VARIABLE IMPACT

The GOJ has implemented a number of initiatives that have been important for tackling crime and violence: 'Anti-Gang/Organized Crime Legislation'; 'Building and strengthening the institutional structure of the criminal justice system to investigate and prosecute under the new law'; 'strengthening the capacity of the security forces'; 'modernizing and reforming the JCF' and, lately, the 'National Crime Prevention and Community Safety Strategy' (See Annex 3.6.6). Unlike traditional approaches, the 'National Crime Prevention and Community Safety Strategy' focuses on 'crime prevention through social development; situational crime prevention; effective policing and justice processes; and reducing reoffending' (MNS 2010).

The concepts of the community safety approach and crime prevention through social development are not new. They build on lessons learnt from many current initiatives, some spearheaded by NGOs and CBOs. Recently, the EU and the Jamaica Social Investment Fund commissioned a review (Moncrieffe 2010b) of the effectiveness of non-state actors in reducing crime and violence and promoting community safety. That review found that there have been many noteworthy successes and that these approaches have been critical for human development within many vulnerable communities. However, the overall quality of programming is variable and appears to reflect different levels of understanding of and engagement with the communities; inadequate specialization in areas of proficiency; lack of monitoring and evaluation and inadequate synergies across agencies, which are caused, in turn, by competition for funding; conflicts over boundaries of operation and donor requirements. Further, some community interventions are still compromised by political interference. These findings suggest that more resources (human and financial) are required to deepen and spread responses; to tackle unhealthy power relations and dynamics across and within some key agencies at both central and local levels; and to bridge gaps in operating and managing capacities.

GAPS IN CAPACITY: DUTY BEARERS AND RIGHTS HOLDERS

Interviews conducted within the Ministry of National Security confirmed that one of the key capacity gaps among duty bearers is that of governance. There are huge deficiencies in the quality of accountability and, particularly, enforcement

mechanisms. There is need for synergies across areas of interventions, some of which are currently regarded as distinct and unassociated. At policy level, appropriate governance mechanisms are required in order to ensure more comprehensive policymaking and implementation, involving all pertinent sectors. Correspondingly, effective relationships must be cultivated among central agencies, among local agencies and across central and local agencies. More effective governance, as one key respondent suggested, should translate to devolving authority to and building capacities among local actors so that persons can respond in more targeted and nimble ways. A citizen approach will require genuine participatory approaches. Here, there are gaps in capacity to negotiate contexts, which requires tools, such as gender and culture sensitive programming. Harriott (2010: 3-4) notes:

“Citizen security regards the citizen as the subject to be protected and served by the state. But it is also entails a notion of governance. It positions the citizen as a participant, as responsible agent, as planner and a power to which state actors are directly accountable. It reorients the state and shifts power to the local level in order to have a more responsive state, more effective crime prevention and control, and better protection of their rights”.

As with other sectors, respondents indicated that there were gaps in data collection. However, they emphasized that the major gaps were in utilizing the data that exists. The failure to see the interrelations across sectors results in loss of data. They also noted that one fundamental question had not been resolved: “What is the importance of data in planning and responsive government?”

Among duty bearers, there are severe capacity gaps, particularly in the most vulnerable communities. The gaps are multifaceted and require a comprehensive approach that is seriously focused on addressing inequalities and adverse power relations. There are budgeting implications, which may have political consequences. For example, should MP subventions be weighted to reflect and respond to the needs within the most violence affected communities? Is this type of re-allocation necessary for equitable citizen security?

Table 3.6.2 Gaps in Capacity (Community Safety, Citizen Security, Access to Justice)

Duty Bearers	Rights Holders
Government- Counterparts note capacity gaps in:	<u>Communities</u>
-Governance and Management	-Inadequate empowerment
-Accountability and Enforcement	-Local governance and management
-Improving the quality of stakeholder involvement.	-Negotiating space/context
-Promoting synergies across areas of interventions, some of which are currently regarded as distinct and unassociated	-Build effective community relations
-Ensuring more comprehensive policymaking and implementation, involving all pertinent sectors	-Exercise free choice
-Negotiating contexts---policy and local/community---which requires tools, such as culture sensitive programming	<u>Women, Youth, Children, PWDs, PLHIV</u>
-Data collection and utilization	-Inadequate empowerment to claim rights
-Professionalizing Law enforcement services, including:	-Resources
-Promoting Accountability and enforcement and citizen security approach	-Inadequate negotiating skills and negotiating space
-Securing Resources	
Social services and NGOs	
-Securing Resources	
-Negotiating local contexts	
-Data collection and utilization	
-Monitoring and Evaluation	
-Building synergies across agencies	

3.7 FOOD AND NUTRITION SECURITY

The FAO defines food security as “a situation that exists when all people, at all times, have physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food that meets their dietary needs and

food preferences for an active and healthy life"²⁶ Food security is a fundamental requirement for human development.

Food security takes place at a variety of levels: national, regional, community, household and individual. At each level, there are a variety of critical factors to be considered, including access, affordability, dietary and nutritional requirements and preferences. Many issues contribute to determining the status of each of the factors. For example, the question of access to food at a national level might include trade policy, social safety nets, distribution, production and productivity.

In Jamaica, the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries has developed a National Food Security Strategy, which identifies increased agricultural production and productivity as a means to improved national self-reliance. This is one aspect of food security. Currently, there is no one agency or institution that provides a multi-sectoral approach to the development and implementation of a national food and nutrition security strategy that is comprehensive, multifaceted and cohesive. However, this gap and its costs well-being have been recognized; the recent crisis in food and nutrition in Jamaica (2008-2009) demonstrated that the country is food insecure, with the poor being the most vulnerable.

Conceptualized in this way, the key challenges to food security in Jamaica are these (See Annex 3.7 focus group findings):

1. Food Availability – Jamaica requires a “sufficient quantity of food of appropriate quality that is available to all people through domestic production, with special emphasis on a structured food import replacement program, and imports”
2. Food Access – “The more vulnerable groups of people have inadequate “access to the resources required to acquire appropriate foods for a nutritious diet”
3. Food Utilization - The more vulnerable groups of people have inadequate capacity to “reach a state of nutritional well-being through food choices and consumption that reflect Recommended Dietary Allowances (RDAs)”.
4. Food Stability - The more vulnerable groups of people require “access to adequate, safe and nutritious food at all times, are not at risk of losing access to it due to shocks, and consume/utilize foods that reflect physiological needs”. (Adapted from CFNI/PAHO, 2009: 2-4)

A. JAMAICA REQUIRES A “SUFFICIENT QUANTITY OF FOOD OF APPROPRIATE QUALITY THAT IS AVAILABLE TO ALL PEOPLE THROUGH DOMESTIC PRODUCTION, WITH SPECIAL EMPHASIS ON A STRUCTURED FOOD IMPORT REPLACEMENT PROGRAM, AND IMPORTS”

The Ministry of Agriculture, with support from the FAO, EU, CIDA and the GOJ, has been grappling with issues of food security, particularly with the objective of reducing dependence on imported foods and increasing local productivity. Jamaica's 2009 Agriculture Sector Plan (Vision 2030) necessarily places agricultural development within the wider economic context, particularly the global economic recession, which started in United States credit markets in 2007. Against this background, the sector plan anticipated ‘reduced flows of direct investment; greater difficulty in sourcing financing from global capital markets; reduction in demand for Jamaica's exports; and a downturn in tourism earnings’ (Vision 2030, Agriculture Sector Plan, p.2) The sector plan recognizes the benefits of agriculture to the economy, particularly for the rural producers (small and medium sized farmers), who comprise up to 85.6% of agricultural holdings. However, it also emphasizes the severe constraints to the industry, caused by ‘trade liberalization, competition, low productivity, heavy reliance on imports, use of inappropriate technologies, praedial larceny, high cost of capital and inadequate research and development’. The sector's vision for 2030 “is for dynamic transformation ... through a sustained, research-oriented, technological, market-driven and private sector-led revolution, which revitalizes rural communities, creates strong linkages with other sectors and emphatically repositions the sector in the national economy to focus on production of high-value commodities and contribute to national food security”

²⁶ FAO. 2002. *The State of Food Insecurity in the World 2001*. Rome.

(Vision 2030, Agriculture Sector Plan, p.1). The plan recognizes that realizing this vision depends upon restructuring, including modernization of the sector, to ensure greater efficiencies and effectiveness.

Immediate, Underlying and Root Causes

The MOA has already begun to address the immediate, underlying and root causes of inadequate food availability. The immediate causes include low levels of agricultural production; low levels of productivity; loss of arable lands to commercial uses; inadequate incentives for agricultural production; inadequate infrastructure; reluctance/failure to embrace best practices; limited access to credit by farmers; and high input costs.

Practices underlying these more visible causes include the competition for arable lands for commercial purposes. This competition is, in turn, rooted in what some experts describe as policy incoherence between the agriculture and commercial sectors. Inadequate incentives for agricultural production obtain because of a lack of investment in the sector, as well as the existence of disadvantageous trade relations. The Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries' Budget Presentation (2010) acknowledges that while trade is critical for economic sustainability, it has damaged local production by substituting imported foreign products:

"We have literally killed our dairy sector and marginalized so many others including our beef, lowland coffee, Irish potato, onion, peanut, and small ruminants sectors because we have allowed ourselves to believe that cheap imports are necessary for stimulating economic activity and alleviating poverty'.

The presentation emphasized that in order to build a sustainable agriculture industry, it is important to define and protect those areas where the country has a comparative advantage. This applies, for example, to disadvantageous trade arrangements with CARICOM, where Jamaica's farmers and agro-processors are unable to compete with producers from countries such as Trinidad and Tobago, which benefits from a subsidized agro-processing sector. Similarly, under WTO rules, Jamaican markets have, conventionally, been overrun with goods from external markets. This reflects failures at policy level to safeguard the productive sector and primary producers.

Beneath the reluctance or failure to embrace best practices are human resource constraints (there are insufficient numbers of persons to provide extension services); farmers' limited access to modern and efficient technology (this is, in part, one byproduct of limited access to credit and the Ministry's resource constraints: financial and in research and development); cultural resistance from farmers and the need for risk mitigation, particularly as it pertains to natural disasters in the form of flooding, wind damage and pest control.

Despite these constraints, agricultural production has increased in very recent periods. Between 2004 and 2008, domestic crop production declined modestly (by 3.5%), although there were sizeable fluctuations within the period. In 2008, the major factors affecting production included the hurricane of 2007 as well as the tropical storm in 2008; high fertilizer costs; and poor quality farm roads, which restrict transportation of inputs and products. In response, the Government attempted to source cheaper fertilizer from overseas and was successful in doing so. This created competition in the local market and resulted in reduced fertilizer prices. Lower input costs for imported raw materials also contributed to the reduction in fertilizer prices. In 2009, domestic crop production increased for all products. The ESSJ credits this improvement to: "The Ministry of Agriculture's Production and Productivity Programme, which targets mainly domestic crops; Other government programmes, which offered farmers increased support in the areas of marketing, irrigation and extension services; Increased use of protected cultivation (greenhouses) and; More efficient and increased use of irrigated lands"

Similarly, the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries' Budget Presentation (2010) attributes the gains in both export and domestic production to deliberate efforts to 'modernize the Ministry with changes in marketing, investments packaging and promotion, extension support and research and training', as well as to substitute local production for imports and then expand exports. It notes that along with the expansion in production, import substitution efforts have saved foreign exchange expenditure. Similarly, employment in the sector has expanded by 5% between 2008 and 2009. This is significant, particularly for the rural areas, where 70% of people who live in conditions of poverty are located.

Correspondingly, in 2009, the real value added for Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing grew by 12.1%, compared with 2008. The sector increased its contribution to GDP from 4.8% (2008) to 5.6% (2009). This figure reflects the expanded value of agriculture to the economy through backward and forward linkages, such as 'demand for input suppliers and by agro-processors from using local agricultural raw material'. However, Jamaica still lags behind a number of countries in terms of the value that is added to primary agricultural production. For example, while other countries utilize 70% of their local primary produce, Jamaica utilizes approximately 40%. Thus, there is room for expansion.

B. FOOD ACCESS – THE MORE VULNERABLE GROUPS OF PEOPLE HAVE INADEQUATE “ACCESS TO THE RESOURCES REQUIRED TO ACQUIRE APPROPRIATE FOODS FOR A NUTRITIOUS DIET”

The immediate causes of low food access are inadequate incomes, high food prices and high transport costs. Qualitative studies conducted to assess the impacts of the high costs of food and fuel crisis (2008-2009) show the high levels of vulnerability among the urban and rural poor. Poverty is the root cause of low food access.

Policymakers recognize the importance of expanded social safety nets that are more effectively allocated. Respondents in one focus group explained that safety nets should be used to assist people back to a state of food security. They also acknowledge the need for more efficient and affordable food distribution systems, particularly to rural areas. The section on poverty (above) underscores the importance of ensuring that the approach to expanding social safety nets takes account of gender dynamics

C. FOOD UTILIZATION - THE MORE VULNERABLE GROUPS OF PEOPLE HAVE INADEQUATE CAPACITY TO “REACH A STATE OF NUTRITIONAL WELL-BEING THROUGH FOOD CHOICES AND CONSUMPTION THAT REFLECT RECOMMENDED DIETARY ALLOWANCES”.

Inadequate food utilization (people's inability to take food and transform into safe and healthy diet) poses substantial costs to health. Both over and under-nutrition are prevalent in Jamaica. Anemia is common among pregnant women and children (See section on Health).

The immediate causes of inadequate food utilization are already clearly articulated in Section 4 (Health). They include unbalanced diets, low availability and accessibility of the more nutritious foods (such as fruits and vegetables) and inadequate knowledge of how to prepare proper diets. Underpinning these are the comparative costs of fruits and vegetables (these are prohibitively expensive for some segments of the population); low levels of education; lack of varied diet; questionable diet within school feeding programmes and preferences (which may be peer influenced) for less healthy options.

At the root, then, are poverty, consumption preferences, inadequate knowledge and irresponsible behaviours despite knowledge. Key respondents have suggested that the household and individual level, persons need to help to change consumptions patterns. This is happening in a sporadic way. However, closer links could be formed with relevant sectors. Further, since utilization depends on the affordability of foods, a supportive policy framework is required.

D. FOOD STABILITY - THE STATUS OF FOOD AND NUTRITION IS NOT SUFFICIENT TO ENSURE THAT ALL PEOPLE HAVE “ACCESS TO ADEQUATE, SAFE AND NUTRITIOUS FOOD AT ALL TIMES, ARE NOT AT RISK OF LOSING ACCESS TO IT DUE TO SHOCKS, AND CONSUME/UTILIZE FOODS THAT REFLECT PHYSIOLOGICAL NEEDS”

As noted above, the country's vulnerability to food shocks was disturbingly clear during the recent crisis. Food access is also at risk during periods of natural disasters, which are likely to become more frequent and intense.

The question of food safety is critical. The immediate causes for inadequate food safety relate, in the main, to farmers' inadequate adherence to best practices concerning on the farm operations, which, for example, increases the risks of chemical residues in food; inadequate monitoring of the quality of

imports; insufficient regulation of manufactured foods; despite huge strides, there is water pollution in some areas, particularly unplanned communities. These have consequences for food security and health.

Problems with food safety are prevalent where there are inadequate policies and enforcement of regulations. Other root causes for problems with food safety include the low

CAPACITY GAPS: DUTY BEARERS AND RIGHTS HOLDERS

The comprehensive approach to food security that select policymakers envision is both essential and new. It requires effective collaboration across a range of sectors, including Agriculture, Health, Education and Environment. Further, it must be linked with strategies for poverty reduction. Previous multi-stakeholder initiatives provide ample lessons on the likely capacity gaps: regulation; developing and enforcing standards; management, including of relations among stakeholders; building ownership among policy implementers and ensuring that policies translate to actions. The latter cannot be overstated. Food and Nutrition Security will require building effective inter-linkages and facilitating coordinated planning. There is a further gap. Proper data collection is important for locating food vulnerability and locating its causes. Here, technical capacity may be necessary to conduct the mixed methodological disaggregated analyses that are most useful for policy formulation and implementation. Importantly, this data must include a gendered approach to understanding food security issues and designing solutions.

Among rights holders, poverty and the associated conditions---low incomes and education levels, low access to infrastructure, restricted options and disempowerment---limit families' capacities to ensure their food and nutrition security. A gender approach is required to examine the dynamics of food security within families (See Section on Poverty).

Table 3.7.1 Gaps in Capacity (Food Security)

Duty Bearers	Rights Holders
Government-	<u>Households</u>
-Governance and Management	-Low incomes and education levels
-Accountability and Enforcement	-Low access to infrastructure
-Improving the quality of stakeholder involvement.	-Restricted options and
-Promoting synergies across areas of interventions, some of which are currently regarded as distinct and unassociated	disempowerment
-Ensuring more comprehensive policymaking and implementation, involving all pertinent sectors	
-Negotiating contexts---policy and local/community---which requires tools, such as culture sensitive programming	
-Data collection and utilization	
-Developing strategic actions to improve collaboration across sectors	
-Translating policies into concrete actions	

3.8 ENVIRONMENTAL MANAGEMENT (NATURAL RESOURCE MANAGEMENT, CLIMATE CHANGE ADAPTATION AND DISASTER RISK REDUCTION)

Environmental management encompasses a range of activities, including natural resource management, climate change adaptation and disaster risk reduction. Environmental management is critical to and indispensable for macro and microeconomic development. It has crucial inter-linkages with all sector policies and programmes.

Jamaica is signatory or party to a range of environmental treaties and protocols (See Annex 3.8.1). Through Vision 2030, the GOJ has placed natural resource management, climate change adaptation and disaster risk reduction on the national development agenda and the country is making notable strides in these areas. For example, Jamaica has formulated key policies, strategies and action plans, laws and regulations and, with support from UNEP, UNDP, EU, USAID, WB, CIDA and IDB, is implementing and considering a number of important initiatives (See Annex 3.8.2). However, despite these achievements, there are some causes for concern (See Annex 3.8.3). The subsections below identify these.

KEY PROBLEMS:

1. Jamaica's economic development, like that of many SIDS, depends in large measure on its natural resource base. However, plans for macroeconomic growth and development can undermine environmental care and preservation. Inadequate environmental care and preservation can, in turn, restrict the potential and prospects for macroeconomic growth and development.
2. Among the particular deficits are 'deteriorating air and water quality; poor management of solid, liquid and hazardous wastes; loss of biodiversity; watershed degradation and net loss of forests cover; and increasing incidence of fires'²⁷.
3. There is inadequate public awareness of the importance of protecting the natural resource base and applying sound environmental management practices.
4. There is insufficient integration of cross-sectoral planning (See Annex 3.8.4 for an evaluation of the critical inter-linkages among the key development challenges noted in the CCA).
5. There is inadequate integration of issues relating to gender and the environment.

TRENDS IN NATURAL RESOURCE MANAGEMENT: CONSEQUENCES, CAUSES AND MOST AFFECTED POPULATIONS For decades, Jamaica's macroeconomic growth strategies prioritized select sectors, including tourism, agriculture, mining, manufacturing and industrial processing. These sectors rely on healthy natural capital; however, they have contributed to its degradation. For example:

Despite the existence of regulations (such as through tourism licensing and the Natural Resources Conservation Authority), aspects of tourism development have compromised the quality of the environment and, in turn, the growth potential of the sector. Infrastructure for the tourist industry has been over-concentrated on the narrow coastal strips. Mangroves and wetlands (which formerly covered up to 2% of the island)²⁸ have been destroyed in the interest of hotel construction. The marine habitat and coral reefs have been damaged. The National Water Commission has established sewage treatment plants in the three major tourist areas; however, questions have been raised about the level of treatment of the effluent that is being discharged in the near shore environment. One important cost is that the long-term viability of the tourist industry is under threat since growing proportions of tourists value preserved natural habitats. However, there are other costs that are even more immediate: The degradation of mangroves and coral reefs means that an important natural protective system is being depleted. The discharge of sewage into near shore environments presents a substantial health risk, particularly to persons whose immune systems are already compromised (such as persons living with HIV) and to young children who are especially susceptible to diarrhoea and infectious diseases.

Mining and quarrying (bauxite) have been very profitable for Jamaica but have had serious environmental costs, including: "dust and noise pollution; relocation of communities; deforestation (Estimates show that forest cover has been declining at a rate of approximately 0.1% annually, largely because of bauxite mining²⁹) loss of biodiversity; land and groundwater pollution from red mud disposal; scarification of the landscape and beach erosion" (Vision 2030 Sector Report: 15). It is important to note the spin-off effects for food security (which is compromised because of land and water pollution) and health (which is threatened by air, water, land and noise pollution) as well as the implications of deforestation and beach erosion for climate change adaptation and disaster risk reduction.

Manufacturing and Industrial Processing have compromised air and water quality: effluent from sewage and trade have been discharged in rivers and harbours; fugitive dust from cement manufacturing and the burning of fossil fuels have damaged air quality; noxious odors (from alumina processing) and noise are common place in areas where some of the poorest segments of the population reside.

Poor agricultural practices, such as slash and burn, uncontrolled use of fire and hillside farming have contributed to deforestation, land degradation, and soil erosion, which have exacerbated land slippage and flooding. This has also resulted in the loss of forest ecosystems, biodiversity and reduction of wildlife habitats. Agricultural practices also result in the terrestrial run-off of fertilizers, pesticides and

²⁷http://www.vision2030.gov.jm/Portals/0/Sector_Plan/Microsoft%20Word%20-%20Natural%20Resources%20and%20Environmental%20Managment%20-%20June%202009.pdf

²⁸http://www.nepa.gov.jm/projects/description/NRV_Project.pdf

²⁹http://www.nepa.gov.jm/projects/description/NRV_Project.pdf

herbicides to the coastal environment. Notably, the Agriculture industry is heavily dependent on agro chemicals. However, there is improper treatment and management of hazardous chemicals, which has serious implications for the health of the population. Poor fishing practices (overfishing, the use of dynamite, the use of fine mesh nets and dragline method of fishing) have harmed the marine habitat and resulted in the depletion of fish stocks. Although Jamaica has a high ranking in this area (Environmental Performance Index), there are damaging consequences for food security and nutrition.

A focus group comprising experts from NEPA, the Forestry Department, UNEP and UNDP was convened to highlight the principal impediments to environmental management. Adding to the concerns noted above, the group also identified the following issues: lack of proper valuation for natural resources; inadequate management of protected areas; lack of knowledge of the carrying capacity of most development areas; lack of detection of radioactive waste; water insecurity; lack of integration of informal settlements into environmental management; and outdated development orders and inadequate spatial planning. Note that the Water Resources Authority (WRA) has completed an atlas of water quality in Jamaica and has water quality data that is very recent for the island. A national water quality monitoring programme was initiated but its sustainability needs to be ensured.

TRENDS IN CLIMATE CHANGE ADAPTATION, CONSEQUENCES, CAUSES AND MOST AFFECTED POPULATIONS

Jamaica is a party to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change and the Kyoto Protocol. The country is a non-Annex I Party to the Protocol; therefore, it is not obligated to meet specific targets for greenhouse gas emissions. However, Jamaica is obliged to adapt to potential impacts of climate change.

The potential effects of climate change on Jamaica include sea level rise, which would exacerbate beach erosion increase salinity in coastal aquifers and increase the risk of flooding, particularly in coastal areas and farmlands. Flooding on farmlands would, in turn, result in declines in agriculture yields and increased susceptibility to famine. It is expected that the Caribbean region will experience even more variation in climate resulting in the increased intensity of extreme events such as floods, droughts and hurricanes. The country still bears the costs of past tropical storms, hurricanes, floods and droughts. Between 2004 and 2008, there were five major storms, which resulted in damage of approximately US\$1.2 billion (ESSJ 2009). These have had long-term effects on the natural environment and on people's livelihoods, particularly in rural areas (Also see section on Gender and the Environment below). The loss of lives, loss of manpower days, extensive damage to infrastructure and the new health burdens posed (for example, the upsurge in diseases such as dengue and malaria) during this period reinforces the urgency of proactive and preventive planning. Jamaica is also located within a seismically active area of the Caribbean plate and is vulnerable to earthquakes and tsunamis.

Climate change adaptation is critical given the dependence of the economy on coastal resources and ecosystems. The effects of climate change will be exacerbated by: degradation of the country's watersheds, the lack of proper design and maintenance of coastal infrastructure and lack of spatial planning. Among the sectors that are most vulnerable to climate change are agriculture, coastal resources (including fisheries), water resources, tourism, and health. Coastal and low-lying communities are at highest risk.

TRENDS IN DISASTER RISK REDUCTION, CONSEQUENCES, CAUSES AND MOST AFFECTED POPULATIONS

The Vision 2030 sector report notes that the following activities have been conducted to reduce the risk of disasters: "Development of a natural hazard mitigation policy; Incorporation of hazard information into the development approval process; Relocation of communities located in high-risk areas¹; Strengthening the public education component of disaster management to focus more on the link between the environment and disasters; Rio Grande Valley Flood Early Warning System; Support to Community Based Disaster Management ; Disaster Mitigation Project for St. Mary; Community Disaster Management Strengthening Project".

In the wake of the recent earthquake in Haiti, the University of the West Indies has also developed a Natural Hazards Locator System, which will assist with managing the risks from earthquakes and other natural catastrophes. The gaps that the sector report points to are "hazard data collection and mapping, vulnerability assessment, risk assessment, watershed management and risk transfer measures such as insurance".

ODPEM underscores that efforts to reduce the risks of disasters must involve community level education that will improve awareness of how the natural environment should be treated and of practical matters, such as the risk of constructing buildings in areas and in ways that erode the natural buffers that protect the communities. Correspondingly, ODPEM is managing a number of community mitigation programmes that are focused on natural hazard management for coastal towns, which have borne most of the destruction from natural disasters. (See section on Gender and the Environment below) There are other gaps:

1. The need for investments in macro-economic mitigation infrastructure, such as coastal sea defence.
2. The importance of addressing risk mitigation in the upper watersheds
3. The need to promote community capacity resilience
4. The need for multi-hazard mapping and risk analysis; institutional strengthening; training with local authorities and disaster coordinators at the parish level
5. The importance of increased engagement of the youth in disaster risk reduction.

EXPLAINING THE TRENDS: IMMEDIATE, UNDERLYING AND ROOT CAUSES

Annex 3.8.5 provides a detailed assessment of the immediate, underlying and root causes for the observed trends in environmental management. Despite the formulation of policies and laws, one key immediate cause is the lack of clear, enforceable and enforced governance mechanisms. Thus, poor agricultural practices abound in the absence of an effective regulatory framework. (There are also practical constraints, such as the lack of disposal facilities for pesticides and herbicides.) Likewise, there is no management mechanism for radioactive waste and inadequate tools and administrative mechanisms for managing chemical waste. The watersheds regulatory framework requires revision, as it is outdated, and an effective watersheds management system urgently needs to be implemented, although the Forestry Department works in some upper watersheds. Problems with informal settlements occur in a context of inadequate management and boundary enforcement, as well as no clear policy on land use. Inadequate planning and environmental impact studies help to explain the lack of maintenance of the coastal defence infrastructure and of wastewater treatment plants. However, poor design of infrastructure, lack of training of operators; lack of capacity; and misunderstandings of and problems with procurement are also among the immediate causal factors.

Underlying these immediate causes are lack of public awareness and education. Across sectors, too, there is inadequate awareness, which is, in some part, the by-product of failures to conduct prior environment risk analyses. However, participants also cited inadequate political will and ownership of the environment agenda; consequently, natural resource management is frequently deprioritized, despite expressed commitments.

Inadequate resources and economic opportunities are among the root causes for some poor agricultural and fishing practices. They are also among the root causes for development choices that seek short-term gains, sometimes at the expense of the environment and the medium/long-term costs to development. As one project document underscores (Piloting Natural Resource Valuation within Environmental Impact Assessment): "Maintaining ... natural resource values are difficult given the national priorities of socio-economic development and Jamaica's institutional framework governing natural resource use and environmental management, which is heavily biased against protection in favour of extraction and exploitation for short-term economic gains."³⁰

THE IMPORTANCE OF A GENDER APPROACH TO THE ENVIRONMENT

The importance of a gender approach to the environment is singled out here because it could be better framed within debates. The UN Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) emphasized the importance of a gendered approach to environmental management. In its aftermath, the UN World Summit on Sustainable Development, 2002; the 10 year review of the UNCED; the Conference to Review the Sustainable Development Plans of Small Island Developing States (SIDS); the Barbados Programme of Action, 2005 have reiterated the significance. The Vision 2030 Sector Report on Gender expresses concern that "this has not necessarily been translated into action on women and the environment or for that matter a gendered approach to environment planning,

³⁰http://www.nepa.gov.jm/projects/description/NRV_Project.pdf

management and conservation". The Report suggests that while the differential effects of the environment on men and women may not be apparent, there are critical issues that require consideration. Among them:

1. Women comprise the majority of people in poverty. Women's unequal status is reflected in areas such as food production; energy/ fuel; access to credit; housing; issues of land ownership and tenure.
2. In the poorest communities, where housing is unplanned and water quality at risk, women's reproductive health is likely to be compromised. Further, women will face greater financial and time burdens to secure water for their families, given their role as prime caregiver. The Report underscores that in some communities, there are tensions over water rights. Men normally enforce their 'right' to first access. Similarly, sanitation related diseases are more consequential for women, who have major responsibility for the households.
3. Climate change has particular implications for women, since it is the poor---of whom the majority are women---who are most likely to feel the most severe effects. It is women, too, in their role as primary caregivers, who are most likely to bear the burdens of disaster mitigation.

These and other issues are not represented, as fully as they might, in environmental management. Considerably more data collection and analysis is required. The JASPEV (2003) Gender Review provides a useful starting point.

CAPACITY GAPS: DUTY BEARERS AND RIGHTS HOLDERS

The Vision 2030 sector report notes that a multi-stakeholder approach is indispensable for success. Consequently, over the long term, the sector proposes to achieve a 'comprehensive programme of biodiversity and ecosystem management' (under the leadership of NEPA and the Ministry with responsibility for environment); safe systems for managing waste so as to reduce the negative effects on the ecosystem (involving MOH, PIOJ, OPM, NSWMA); to successfully integrate environmental issues into social and economic decision-making (NEPA, OPM, Cabinet Office, UDC, NSWMA, National Land Agency); ensuring that the management of natural resources meets international standards and that such resources are used in ways that are sustainable (including NEPA, OPM, the MOA, Forestry Department, Fisheries Department, among others); ensuring that the leadership capacities of relevant public and private sector entities are improved; increasing public knowledge so that Jamaicans are aware of their responsibilities to and for the environment.

One of the key capacity gaps is in enforcement. NEPA's responsibilities include "monitoring the natural resource assets and the state of the Jamaican environment; preparing national environmental, planning and developmental strategies and action plans and monitoring the implementation of related programmes"; and "enforcing environmental and planning laws and regulations". NEPA notes that its main capacity gaps are its inability to enforce laws and regulations and lack of effective public education mechanisms. The principal cause of these gaps is inadequate funding. Similarly, the Forestry Department is an executive agency within the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries. Under the terms of the 1996 Forest Act, the Department has responsibility for 'managing and conserving the country's forest resources'.³¹ The Department notes that its main capacity gaps are in carrying out investigations; educating the communities on appropriate approaches; enforcing legislation; and in developing effective external communication tools.

Table 3.8.1 Gaps in Capacity (Environmental Management)

Duty Bearers

Government and supporting agencies

- Governance and Management
- Accountability and Enforcement
- Improving the quality of stakeholder involvement.
- Promoting synergies across areas of interventions, some of which are currently regarded as distinct and unassociated
- Ensuring more comprehensive policymaking and implementation, involving all pertinent sectors
- Data collection and utilization
- Developing strategic actions to improve collaboration across sectors
- Translating policies into concrete actions

Rights Holders

Households

- Low incomes and education levels
- Inadequate public education
- Restricted options and disempowerment

Women

- Inadequate capacity to negotiate power dynamics within local contexts
- Low incomes and education levels
- Inadequate opportunities

³¹<http://www.forestry.gov.jm/aboutus.html>

3.9 ENERGY

Jamaica depends on imported oil for approximately 94% of its energy needs and has one of the highest per capita consumption (10.2 barrels) in the Western hemisphere (Figure 1). Jamaica exploits renewable and indigenous sources of energy to meet the rest of its energy needs (Figure 2). The country is over 90% reliant on imported oil for electricity generation. This has caused a significant increase in the country's oil bill over the past decade, totaling over US\$2 billion in 2008, which accounts for approximately 66 % of the nation's foreign exchange earnings (See Annex 3.9.1: Strengths and Weaknesses in the Energy Sector)

The increasing demand for petroleum products has become a development challenge, given the fiscal constraints now facing the country. Among the other issues are the effects of high-energy costs of economic competitiveness and social well-being, the high transmission and distribution system losses (currently 20%) and the current licensing structure. Apart from the cost, increased gasoline consumption, along with the use of other petroleum based products, poses a threat to air quality. The country needs to increase energy efficiency and conservation, lower the cost of energy and lessen dependence on imported oil by diversifying the energy mix.

Figure 3.9.2. Profile of Renewables 2009

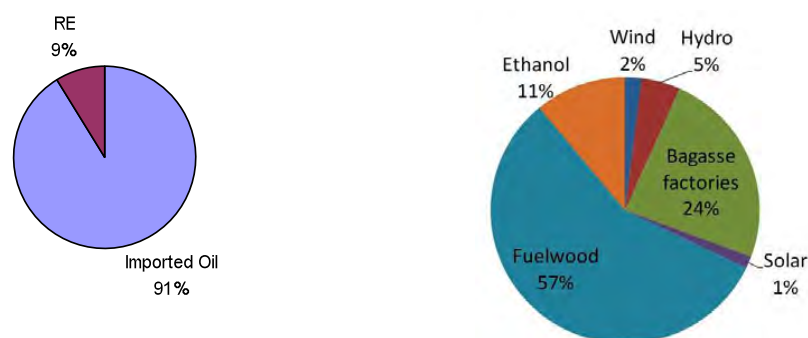


Figure 3.9.1. Profile of Jamaica's Energy Sector, 2009

Jamaica has a high electricity penetration rate, with approximately 95% of the country having access. This improves the quality of life, although at significant costs. Despite this, Jamaica has a relatively low energy security³² due to its high reliance on imported fossil fuels. Indeed, some segments of the population can be regarded as energy poor. (More analysis is required to dissect the implications for men and women. See Section on Gender and the Environment above.) The actual and potential effects of climate change forces urgent consideration of the status of the energy sector since the energy infrastructure must be designed with a high level resilience in order to withstand meteorological and other hazards that may occur. The burning of fossil fuels is also one of the most significant contributors to the damaging emissions of greenhouse gases, which result in global warming and climate change. Although globally Jamaica's greenhouse gas emissions are low, the country should explore energy efficient solutions, which includes relying on alternative sources, including solar, wind, hydropower, and biofuels. However, Jamaica is facing added pressures for diversification (See Summary in Annex 3.9.2).

KEY PROBLEMS

1. Jamaica has very high and extremely costly dependence on imported petroleum;
2. Although oil is imported at high financial and economic costs, it is used inefficiently and conservation is inadequate;
3. Jamaica needs to develop alternate sources of energy but has inadequate capacity to do so; and

³² Energy security denotes the uninterrupted supply of diverse forms of energy in adequate quantities and at affordable prices.

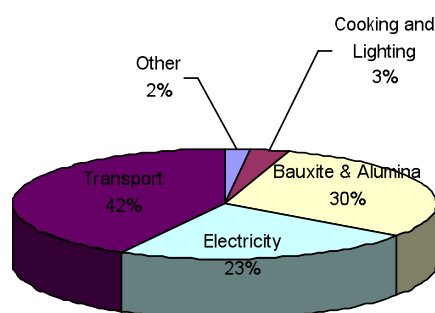
4. Jamaica has made significant strides in policy design; however, the policy and legislative framework now requires implementation and enforcement.

A. JAMAICA HAS A HIGH AND COSTLY DEPENDENCE ON IMPORTED PETROLEUM

Currently, Jamaica relies, almost entirely, on imported petroleum, which is used to meet over 90% of the country's energy requirements. The country also has high energy intense activities (Figure 3). In 2009, Jamaica imported 22 million barrels of oil at a cost of US\$1.3 billion. In 2008, by comparison, Jamaica spent considerably more (US\$2.8 billion) on imported oil. It is important to qualify what appears to be a policy achievement for the reduction in imports had more to do with the decline in the Bauxite and Alumina sector. In 2008, that sector imported 9 million barrels of oil (31% of total imports of petroleum), while in 2009, the Bauxite and Alumina sector imported 3 million barrels (14% of imports).

The high dependence on imported oil renders the country vulnerable to the volatility of the oil market, which has had adverse effects on the country's ability to achieve energy security and has also constrained economic growth. In addition, the country has to be mindful of geopolitical tensions in the major oil producing countries, dwindling oil reserves and concerns about climate change.

In 2002, the average peak price for crude oil was US\$25. In 2008, the average peak price was US\$97, an increase of 288% (ESSJ 2009). The volatility in oil prices has had negative impacts on variables such as inflation, GDP, employment, the trade balance and the fiscal deficit. In fact, the price of oil has tracked the country's export earnings (Figure 4).



Source: Ministry of Energy & Mining

Figure 3.9.3. Oil Consumption by Activity, 2008

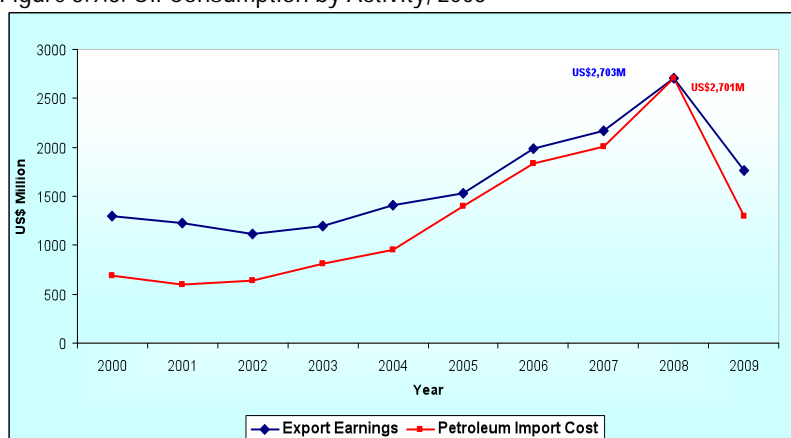


Figure 3.9. 4. Export Earnings vs. Oil Imports, 2000-2009.

Source: Ministry of Energy and Mining

Given the important role of energy in the country's socio-economic development, the GOJ committed to completing the National Energy Policy, which was initially started under the previous administration. The National Energy Policy 2009-2030 proposes strategies and solutions to the country's energy situation and also seeks to anticipate and respond to climate change. Further, it addresses the need for energy conservation and efficiency, renewable energy and establishing requisite links with other sectors: construction, bauxite, transport, agriculture and finance. The National Energy Policy, therefore, seeks to address the root causes of the country's oil dependence: the failure to develop indigenous sources of energy, which, some analysts contend, should have long been a policy priority. Also, the National Energy Policy is in line with the goals for the Energy Sector outlined by Vision 2030 Jamaica: National Development Plan.

B. ALTHOUGH PETROLEUM IS IMPORTED AT HIGH FINANCIAL COSTS, IT IS USED INEFFICIENTLY BY BOTH PRODUCERS AND CONSUMERS

The high costs of importing petroleum are compounded by low energy efficiency and conservation among both producers and users of energy. For example, the Jamaica Public Service Company (JPSCo), which has the monopoly on transmitting and distributing energy, has old plants that it is attempting to retrofit. There are transmission losses averaging as much as 24 %. Similarly, the National Water Commission (NWC), which is the largest public sector user of electricity (almost 50% of public sector electricity cost is attributed to the NWC), experience huge distribution losses, in large part because of its faulty pipelines. Reports indicate that the NWC can only account for approximately 30% of the water produced. (A proportion of inefficiencies in the electricity and water sectors are due to theft, although this is at a lower level than transmission losses.) Similarly, there are significant inefficiencies in the transport sector such as the age of motor vehicles (most cars are 10 years and over) and the tendency towards private motor vehicles and taxis rather than mass transit. Underlying this is the inadequate quality of the roads.

The analysis shows that at the root of much of the inefficiencies among producers and business consumers of energy is the failure to build and/or maintain appropriate infrastructure. The public adds to the inefficiencies; many people do not conserve. Given such inefficiencies, Jamaica is considered one of the most energy intense countries, which means that the energy per unit of GDP is higher than that in many countries.

It is worth underscoring that there are social and cultural issues at the root of high energy consumption. With high crime rates, people are hesitant to turn lights out. There is reluctance to leave windows open and in some cases people choose instead to use air conditioning. Energy efficiency is often not considered when designing and erecting buildings, which highlights the need to address this issue in Energy Efficient Building Codes. Poor spatial planning, particularly in the urban areas, also underpin energy inefficiencies where centres of economic concentration are located further away from residential areas. There is, besides, an unaffordable culture of material consumption, which prioritizes convenience and facilitates irresponsible energy use.

Key Energy Inefficiencies

- High technical and non-technical electricity system losses
- High energy intensity of economy relative to productivity (as measured by the energy intensity index ratio of energy consumption to GDP)
- Inefficient energy use in production and consumption
- Low level of adaptation of new energy technologies
- Importation and use of energy-- inefficient motor vehicles (based on type, size, age and fuel use)
- Inefficient and inadequate public transportation system in KMA and other urban and rural areas
- Inefficient movement of traffic in urban centres
- Inefficient land transport modes for cargo and passengers
- Inefficient land transport modes for cargo and passengers
- Energy inefficiencies in alumina sector

Source: National Energy Policy

JAMAICA NEEDS TO DEVELOP ALTERNATE SOURCES OF ENERGY BUT HAS INADEQUATE CAPACITY TO DO SO

The National Energy Policy notes that 'Jamaica is endowed with a very high potential for the use of renewables in the form of solar, wind and biomass production; the ethanol dehydration industry is well established; and there are wide co-generation opportunities'. In addition, there are a few hydroplants across the island.

The importance of using alternative sources, especially renewable energy sources, is gaining traction. For example, the tourism sector and the hospitals make use of some level of solar energy. However, none of the indigenous sources have been developed to the extent that they are able to compete with petroleum; oil is still the most cost effective resource in the short term (Note that while other Caribbean countries---save Trinidad and Tobago---face similar issues, Barbados has made substantial strides in developing solar energy for their water heating industry)

Beneath the slow development of indigenous sources of energy are inadequate finances and technical capacity. However, the prospects for the economy are enormous. Development of renewable sources of energy is an avenue for possible economic diversification and job creation. Currently, Jamaica imports feedstock for the production of ethanol from Brazil and the United States. Jamaica produces ethanol for export and to fulfill its E-10 mandate.³³ The country has not used local feedstock to produce ethanol. If ethanol were to be produced from sugarcane, this could have significant benefits for rural development.

C. JAMAICA HAS MADE SIGNIFICANT STRIDES IN POLICY DESIGN, HOWEVER, THE POLICY AND LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK NOW REQUIRE IMPLEMENTATION AND ENFORCEMENT

Importantly and appropriately, one of Jamaica's policy responses is to develop indigenous and renewable sources of energy. Consistent with Vision 2030, there is the National Energy Policy and five draft sub-policies for:

8. Renewable Energy
9. Energy-from-Waste
10. Biofuels
11. Trading of Carbon Credits
12. Energy Conservation and Efficiency

These policies should set the framework for diversification of the energy mix, investigation of renewable sources of energy, financial benefits from renewables, licensing arrangements, public/private partnerships and public awareness. The policy framework attempts to create an enabling environment for competition and investment within the energy sector and to promote the use of alternate sources of energy as part of the energy mix. The huge obstacle is in terms of the licensing arrangement with the national company as sole provider and distributor of energy, through the national grid. This is scheduled to remain intact until 2038. JPSCo's monopoly of the transmission and distribution of energy has hampered the development of, and private investments in, renewable energy since whatever is produced has to be sold to the company. The profits received from these investments would be largely dependent on how much JPSCo is willing to pay. Although some incentives exist for the development of alternative sources of energy, these are few, and include loans for pre-feasibility studies and installation of solar water heaters and tax waivers on the import of equipment for renewable energy. The policy and legislative framework is currently inadequate to support decentralization and further liberalization of the electricity sector.

Notwithstanding, Jamaica does have a fairly effective regulatory mechanism. The Office of Utilities Regulation (OUR) has managed to improve standards and hold utility companies relatively accountable for their services. The OU is now increasing its capacity to better execute its responsibilities.

CAPACITY GAPS: DUTY BEARERS AND RIGHTS HOLDERS

Jamaica has some technical capacity---which needs to be improved---in developing and operating existing, new and emerging technologies. There is need for improved capacities in regulation and in establishing, maintaining and enforcing standards within the energy sector. One key respondent

³³ E-10 or Ethanol 10 is a fuel mixture containing 10% ethanol and 90% gasoline.

explained that there are capacity gaps in negotiation, such that parties are able to respond to different policy and programming options, with the benefit of solid evidence. There are other gaps as well, including in creating proper legislation, conflict resolution, project management and building competence in taking advantage of opportunities within the 'Clean Development Mechanism'.

One significant capacity gap among rights holders reflects on their skill and ability to hold service providers and each other to account. There are issues of power dynamics here, which are rooted in the country's history of political and social development, as well as in the realities of the context now. People do not feel able to demand better service and they do not expect responsiveness. Many have come to accept that changes will only occur if there are visible and threatening public demonstrations.

There are gaps in knowledge among the public, especially awareness of the economic and human costs of inefficient energy use and their own, critical, responsibility in conservation.

Table 3.9.2 Gaps in Capacity (Energy)

Duty Bearers

Government and supporting agencies

- Governance and Management
- Accountability and Enforcement
- Improving the quality of stakeholder involvement.
- Promoting synergies across areas of interventions, some of which are currently regarded as distinct and unassociated
- Developing strategic actions to improve collaboration across sectors
- Translating policies into concrete actions

Rights Holders

Households

- Knowledge on costs of inefficient energy use
- Knowledge of personal and household responsibility
- Translating existing knowledge into action
- Restricted options and disempowerment

Women

- Inadequate capacity to negotiate power dynamics within local contexts
- Low incomes and education levels
- Inadequate opportunities

4. CROSS CUTTING THEMES

This section summarizes the main crosscutting themes .

A. GENDER INEQUALITY IS A KEY DEVELOPMENT CHALLENGE

The findings from the CCA clearly describe the ways in which unequal gender relations are ingrained within the culture and, perversely, 'legitimize' inequities, discrimination, the subordination of women and particular 'perceived' categories of men and boys. Gender is pertinent to each development challenge outlined, although there is insufficient data to capture the dynamics, particularly in areas such as Environmental Management and Energy. Where data is available, there are indications that it could be used more effectively. Translating the commitment to gender equality into tangible effective actions remains a considerable challenge.

B. COMPREHENSIVE MEASURES ARE REQUIRED TO REVERSE THE INEQUALITIES THAT COMPROMISE LIFE CHANCES AMONG CHILDREN, ADOLESCENTS AND YOUTH

Children, adolescents and youth are among the key population groups that require comprehensive focus. On the one hand, there are significant segments who may be classified as 'at risk'. Multiple and multifaceted interventions in education, sexual and reproductive health, poverty and violence reduction are required. These are also the population groups with most productive potential and capacity to tackle the development challenges identified. Youth require urgent focus.

C. GOVERNANCE AND MANAGEMENT REQUIRE STRENGTHENING ACROSS THE SECTORS

Governance and management issues are the core of all the development challenges. Moreover, the nature of the gaps in governance is fairly constant. The major capacity gaps are in:

1. Building synergies across agencies and actors;
2. Bridging gaps between policy formulation and implementation (which involves developing accurate budgets; finding the resources required to translate policies into action; defining stakeholder responsibilities; developing mechanisms to ensure stakeholder compliance; identifying performance indicators; creating effective systems for monitoring and evaluation.
3. Strengthening the policy and regulatory frameworks;
4. Building effective enforcement mechanisms;
5. Strengthening the frameworks for citizen accountability;
6. Strengthening leadership.

D. DATA COLLECTION AND, PARTICULARLY, DATA ANALYSIS AND UTILIZATION REQUIRE STRENGTHENING ACROSS THE SECTORS

There are problems with data collection, analysis and utilization. Most respondents placed the emphasis on inadequate data utilization, which, they note, is rooted in the failure to build appropriate synergies across state agencies and among state and non-state actors. However, the status of data gathering and analysis is not consistent across the agencies; therefore, some respondents considered the problems to be more fundamental. In education, for example, literacy measurements do not meet international standards. In health, there are pervasive problems with MMR data, which are rooted in problems with collection and analysis.

There are problems with securing and utilizing disaggregated data. JAMSTATS is based within the PIOJ and is designed to 'consolidate and manage social and economic data' and to 'provide a comprehensive source, which simplifies data retrieval and facilitates reliable tracking of key indicators and targets'. JAMSTATS has encountered a number of challenges, including in defining indicators, 'strengthening database and management processes', successfully countering 'cultural barriers to institutionalization'. In addition, there is need for additional financial and human resources, including to build the capacities of agencies to implement the new system. In that regard, JAMSTATS requires some basic support: (a) 'Training on defining rights indicators and determining what needs to be measured and how; (b) Technical assistance on translating rules on child rights and legislations into monitoring indicators; (a) Training on developing qualitative indicators'. The gaps and needs across agencies differ, which suggest that a rigorous intra and cross-sectoral assessment of the status of data collection, management and utilization is required.

MICS was designed to gather information on children and on the status of women. It is meant to

strengthen national expertise in data gathering and monitoring, survey design, processing and analysis, using international standards. There are concerns that the indicators could be better suited to Jamaica (Witter 2009). The upcoming 2011 census provides an opportunity for the Government of Jamaica to collect, analyze and utilize data for strategic planning and resource allocation purposes.' Under the Modernization of STATIN Strategic Plan, the capacity of the Institute has been improved, though it notes that there are challenges, particularly in collecting data in an increasingly hostile environment and in a context where people distrust the government. Finally, UNDP has been supporting GOJ's efforts to coordinate national statistics collection. A national statistical system is being developed, which should meet international standards. One acknowledge drawback of all these is that they are solely quantitative systems, despite the significant value for policy of collecting qualitative data and developing the relevant indicators.

E. CULTURE AND POWER-SENSITIVE PROGRAMMING APPROACHES ARE REQUIRED TO ADDRESS THE DEVELOPMENT CHALLENGES

The underlying and root causes of the development challenges identified involve questions of power, politics and culture. This applies whether the aim is to promote intersectoral linkages, collaborations across state and non-state actors or building working relationships with communities. Programming approaches that are insensitive to the social and political dynamics within institutions and communities are unlikely to be able to negotiate the complex policy contexts in Jamaica.

The significance of 'mindsets' in facilitating or hindering human development is a recurrent theme. UN agencies could build on this GOJ initiative and encourage a 'mindset change' among duty bearers and right holders' that genuinely embraces equality and human rights, such that these become the benchmarks for policymaking and programming.

F. THE CAPACITY GAPS ARE COMMON AMONG DUTY BEARERS AND RIGHTS HOLDERS

It is noteworthy that the capacity gaps among duty bearers and rights holders are fairly consistent. Among duty bearers, the core capacity gaps are in the areas of governance and management noted above. For the rights holders, in the majority of cases, there are gaps in education and skills levels. It is easier to strengthen responses to these 'more tangible', gaps than it is to address gaps in capacity to demand accountability and to claim rights at the personal and public levels. Fear of reprisal and discrimination, harmful ingrained cultural beliefs, lack of trust in the political system are among the root causes. UN agencies could work together to define how, though advocacy and the thrust of they programming support, they could begin to counter these 'less tangible' but substantive issues.

SOURCES

- Barnett, A. (2008) Setting Our Sights on Food Security
<http://www.src-jamaica.org/newsfeatures/documents/SettingOurSightsonFoodSecurity.pdf>
- Bureau of Women's Affairs (2009), Policing and Prosecution of Sexual Offenses in Jamaica: A Baseline Assessment
- CARICOM (1997) Caribbean Plan of Action of Early Childhood Care, Education and Development, CARICOM Secretariat: Turkeyen, Guyana
- Chevannes, B. et al (2007) Jamaica Justice Sector Reform Task Force. Final Report.
- CIDA (2007), Caribbean Community Strategic Programming Framework FY 2007/8 to 2017-18
- ECC (Early Childhood Commission) (2010) Mid-Term Review of the National Strategic Plan for ECD 2008-2013, Early Childhood Commission: Kingston, Jamaica
- Edie, C. (1991) *Democracy by Default: Dependency and Cleintelism in Jamaica*, Kingston: Ian Randle.
- Government of Jamaica (2009), *Vision 2030 Development Plan*, Planning Institute of Jamaica
- Hamilton, R. (2010) Strategies for Improving Access to Financing MSMEs in Jamaica: Addressing the Information Asymmetry Problem. NCU School fo Business, WD Carter Lecture Series.
- Harriott, A (2010) Citizen Security And Human Development In The Caribbean – Some Thoughts. Occasional Paper.
- Hope Enterprises Ltd (2008) HIV/AIDS Knowledge, Behaviour and Attitudes Survey, Jamaica
- IADB (2006) IDB Country Strategy for Jamaica (2006-2009)
- Institute for Gender and Development Studies (2009) Country Baseline Assessment: Gender-based Violence, Jamaica
- Kirton, C. and David Tennant (2008) Policies and Institutions Supporting Medium and Small Enterprises in Jamaica, Report Submitted to the United Nations Economic Commission on Latin America and the Caribbean
- Lancet (2007) Child Development in Developing Countries Series, Volume 369: 60-70; 145-57; 229-42.
- Leslie, G. (2010) Confronting the Don: The Political Economy of Gang Violence in Jamaica, Small Arms Survey: Occasional Paper
- Levy, H, with B. Chevannes (1996) *They Cry 'Respect': Urban Violence and Poverty in Jamaica*. Kingston: Centre of Population, Community and Social Change
- Ministry of Health (2007) Strategic Framework for Safe Motherhood Within the Family Health Programme 2007-2011
- Ministry of Health (2010) National Strategic Plan: Preadolescent and Adolescent Health and Development (Draft)
- Ministry of National Security (2007) Jamaica Constabulary Force Strategic Review

Ministry of National Security (December 2010) The Agenda of the Ministry of National Security to Address Safety and Security in Jamaica, Address to 16th Annual International Development Partners Retreat, Jamaica Crime, Justice and Security Retrospective and New Initiatives

Moncrieffe, J. (2004) Power Relations, Inequality and Poverty: A Concept Paper for the World Bank

Moncrieffe, J and P. Griffiths-Jude (2009) Social impacts of the Global Economic Crisis: Jamaica Country Study. Prepared for DFID and the World Bank.

Moncrieffe (2010a) Reducing Gender Based Violence in Jamaica: Increasing Awareness, Enhancing Access to Protection, Strengthening Responses. Consultancy to Conduct End of Project Evaluation

Moncrieffe (2010b) Non-State Actor Assessment Study for JSIF and EU

Naschold, F. (2002) Why Inequality Matters for Poverty. ODI: Inequality Briefing Paper, (22).

PAHO (Pan American Health Organisation) (2005) A comprehensive Analysis of Jamaican Children's Exposure to Violence, PAHO: Kingston, Jamaica

Payne, A. (1991) Jamaican Society and the Testing of Democracy in *Society and Politics in the Caribbean*. MacMillan Academic and Professional Ltd.

Payne, A. (1993) Westminster Adapted: The Political Order of the Commonwealth Caribbean in *Democracy in the Caribbean: Political, Economic and Social Perspectives* Johns Hopkins University Press.

Payne, A. (1994) *Politics in Jamaica*, Ian Randle Publishers

Palmer, C. (1989) Identity, Race and Black Power in Independent Jamaica in *The Modern Caribbean*, University of North Carolina Press.

Permanent Mission of Jamaica to the United Nations, September 21, 2010, Statement by the Honourable Bruce Golding, Prime Minister of Jamaica, at the High Level Meeting on the Millennium Development Goals in the General Debate of the 65th Session of the General Assembly.

Planning Institute of Jamaica (2010) Community Renewal Programme

Planning Institute of Jamaica (2009) Parenting in Jamaica, Working Paper, PIOJ: Kingston, Jamaica

Planning Institute of Jamaica (2008) Jamaica Survey of Living Conditions, PIOJ: Kingston, Jamaica

Planning Institute of Jamaica (2009) Economic and Social Survey of Jamaica, PIOJ: Kingston, Jamaica

Planning Institute of Jamaica (2009) in Collaboration with the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Foreign Trade, National Report of Jamaica on Millennium Development Goals for the UN Economic and Social Council Annual Ministerial Review

Planning Institute of Jamaica, *Jamaica Survey of Living Conditions* 1990, 1995, 2000, 2005, PIOJ, Jamaica

Planning Institute of Jamaica (2009) Medium Term Socio-Economic Policy Framework

Planning Institute of Jamaica (2009) Vision 2030 National Development Plan

Planning Institute of Jamaica (2009) Vision 2030 Sector Plan: Education

- Planning Institute of Jamaica (2009) Vision 2030 Sector Plan: Labour Productivity
- Planning Institute of Jamaica (2009) Vision 2030 Sector Plan: Gender
- Planning Institute of Jamaica (2009) Vision 2030 Sector Plan: Poverty
- Planning Institute of Jamaica (2009) Vision 2030 Sector Plan: Agriculture
- Private Sector Organization of Jamaica (2010) Economic Policy Framework
- Stone, C. (1974) *Electoral Behaviour and Public Opinion in Jamaica*, Kingston: ISER
- Stone, C. (1985) *Democracy and Clientelism in Jamaica*, New Jersey: Transaction Books
- Stone, C. (1989) *Power, Policy and Politics in Jamaica in Independence: Essays on the Early Years*, Heinemann Publishers
- Tindigarukayo, J. (2006) 'Perceptions and Reflections on Sexual Harassment in Jamaica' in *Journal of International Women's Studies*, Vol. 7, No. 4.
- UNDP (2009), *Community Security and Social Cohesion: Towards a UNDP Approach*
- UN (February 2009) *Common Country Assessment and United Nations Development Assistance Framework: Guidelines for UN Country Teams*
- UN (2010) *Caribbean Unite Consensus*
- UN Human Rights Council (2010), *Report of the Special Rapporteur on torture and other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment, Manfred Nowak: Mission to Jamaica*
- Women's Media Watch-Jamaica (2010) *Final Report to the United Nations Trust Fund on the project: 'Enhancing Public Access to Protection under the Laws on Domestic and Sexual Violence'*
- Women's Media Watch-Jamaica, *Workshop Report: Gender Based Violence and the Role of Educators*, Jamaica Teachers Association Headquarters, Kingston, October 31, 2009.
- Women's Media Watch-Jamaica, *Workshop Report: Preventing Sexual Violence, Protecting Women's Rights, Report of Consultation and Training For Leaders of Civil Society Organizations and select Public Sector Agencies*, Alhambra Inn, Kingston, February 19, 2009.
- Women's Media Watch-Jamaica, *Workshop Report: Promoting Women's Right, Preventing Gender-Based Violence*. Church of the Open Bible, Montego Bay, November 5, 2008.
- World Bank (2009) *Investing in Young Children: An Early Childhood Development Guide for Policy Dialogue and Project Preparation*, World Bank: Washington, D.C,
- UNESCO (2010) *National Education Support Strategy For Jamaica (2010-2014)* UNESCO Cluster Office for the Caribbean
- UNFPA, *State of World Population Report 2008: Reaching Common Ground: Culture, Gender and Human Rights*
- UNFPA (2008) *Sexual and Reproductive Health: Final Country Project Report*
- USAID (2010) *Corruption Assessment for Jamaica*

