

studies and perspectives

16

# C aribbean Millennium Development Goals Report 2010

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UNITED NATIONS



ECLAC Subregional Headquarters  
for the Caribbean  
Port of Spain, December 2011

The preparation of the Caribbean Millennium Development Goals Report 2010 was coordinated by the United Nations Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) Subregional Headquarters for the Caribbean, with support from a review team comprising representatives of all United Nations Country Teams (UNCTs) in the English- and Dutch- speaking Caribbean (Barbados, the Organisation of Eastern Caribbean States (OECS), Guyana, Jamaica, Suriname, and Trinidad and Tobago). Regional institutions, including the Caribbean Community (CARICOM) and OECS Secretariats, were also invited to be part of the review team.

The services of consultant Patricia Mendoza were contracted to prepare the report, with support from the review team, which met virtually by teleconference to consider the initial draft. A technical working meeting was convened to consider the draft report. Representatives of three Member States attended this meeting, namely, Jeanette Garcia, Economist, Ministry of Economic Development, Commerce and Industry and Consumer Protection, Government of Belize, Steven Kerr, Manager, of the Planning Institute of Jamaica and Jo-Ann Fung A Loi, Manager, Social Statistics, General Bureau of Statistics, and Presella Young-A-Fat, Junior United Nations Coordinator, Ministry of Planning and Development Cooperation, Government of Suriname.

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United Nations Publication

LC/L.3537

LC/CAR/L.371

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## Contents

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Abstract.....	7
<b>I. The Caribbean context.....</b>	<b>9</b>
A. Main economic, social and physical characteristics .....	10
1. Macroeconomic trends .....	10
2. Physical vulnerability .....	11
3. Key social issues.....	11
B. National and regional priorities and objectives.....	12
C. Recent developments and prospects .....	13
1. Implications of the recent financial and economic crisis.....	13
2. Macro-socioeconomic outlook .....	15
<b>II. Towards the Millennium Development Goals .....</b>	<b>19</b>
A. Achievement per goal and indicator .....	20
GOAL 1. Poverty eradication: Reduce the level of poverty by two-thirds by 2015.....	20
GOAL 2: Universal primary education .....	25
GOAL 3. Gender equality and empowerment of women.....	29
GOAL 4. Reduced child mortality .....	34
GOAL 5: Improved maternal health.....	36
GOAL 6: Reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS and other communicable diseases .....	40
GOAL 7: Environmental sustainability .....	45
GOAL 8: Develop a global partnership for development .....	58

<b>III. Successes and challenges to attainment of the Millennium Development Goals</b> .....	67
A. Main strengths and success factors .....	67
B. Main challenges.....	69
1. Economic and financial challenges .....	69
2. Social challenges.....	70
3. Physical vulnerability, climate change and disaster risk management.....	71
4. Governance, processes and institutional barriers .....	71
5. Implementation and monitoring .....	72
<b>IV. Recommendations</b> .....	75
A. The way forward .....	75
<b>Bibliography</b> .....	77
<b>Annex</b> .....	81
<b>Issues published</b> .....	87

## Tables

TABLE 1: COUNTRY OUTLOOKS: MEDIUM-TERM.....	16
TABLE 2: PROPORTION OF POPULATION LIVING ON LESS THAN US\$1.00 PER DAY .....	20
TABLE 3: POVERTY INDICATORS FOR CARIBBEAN COUNTRIES.....	21
TABLE 4: NET ENROLMENT IN PRIMARY EDUCATION, BOTH SEXES .....	26
TABLE 5: NET ENROLMENT IN PRIMARY EDUCATION, BOYS.....	26
TABLE 6: NET ENROLMENT IN PRIMARY EDUCATION, GIRLS .....	27
TABLE 7: PRIMARY LEVEL COMPLETION RATES.....	28
TABLE 8: GENDER PARITY INDEX, PRIMARY LEVEL.....	29
TABLE 9: GENDER PARITY INDEX, SECONDARY LEVEL .....	30
TABLE 10: GENDER PARITY INDEX, TERTIARY LEVEL .....	30
TABLE 11: WOMEN'S SHARE IN NON-AGRICULTURAL WAGE EMPLOYMENT. ....	32
TABLE 12: PROPORTION OF SEATS IN NATIONAL PARLIAMENT HELD BY WOMEN .....	32
TABLE 13: UNDER FIVE MORTALITY RATE PER 1,000 LIVE BIRTHS.....	34
TABLE 14: INFANT MORTALITY RATE PER 1,000 LIVE BIRTHS .....	35
TABLE 15: IMMUNIZATION AGAINST MEASLES.....	36
TABLE 16: PERCENTAGE OF BIRTHS ATTENDED BY SKILLED HEALTH PROFESSIONALS .....	37
TABLE 17: PREVALENCE RATE PER 100,000 POPULATION LIVING WITH HIV AND AIDS.....	40
TABLE 18: COMPARATIVE HIV PREVALENCE RATES AMONGST 15 TO 24 YEAR-OLDS, 2004 AND 2008 .....	41
TABLE 19: ANTIRETROVIRAL THERAPY AMONGST PEOPLE LIVING WITH HIV/AIDS .....	43
TABLE 20: TUBERCULOSIS PREVALENCE RATE PER 100 000 .....	45
TABLE 21: INTEGRATION OF SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT INTO NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLANS AND STRATEGIES OF CARIBBEAN COUNTRIES .....	47
TABLE 22: PROPORTION OF LAND AREA COVERED BY FOREST .....	48
TABLE 23: CARBON DIOXIDE EMISSIONS (CO2) IN THOUSANDS OF METRIC TONS OF CO2.....	49
TABLE 24: CONSUMPTION OF ALL OZONE-DEPLETING SUBSTANCES IN ODP METRIC TONS .....	50
TABLE 25: TERRESTRIAL AND MARINE AREAS PROTECTED TO TOTAL TERRITORIAL AREA, PERCENTAGE.....	53

TABLE 26: TERRESTRIAL AREAS PROTECTED TO TOTAL SURFACE AREA, PERCENTAGE.....	53
TABLE 27: MARINE AREAS PROTECTED TO TERRITORIAL WATERS, PERCENTAGE .....	54
TABLE 28: NUMBERS OF THREATENED AND EXTINCT SPECIES IN THE CARIBBEAN SUBREGION, 2010.....	56
TABLE 29: PROPORTION OF THE POPULATION USING IMPROVED DRINKING WATER SOURCES .....	57
TABLE 30: ODA RECEIVED IN SMALL ISLAND DEVELOPING STATES AS A PERCENTAGE OF GNI .....	59
TABLE 31: DEBT SERVICE AS A PERCENTAGE OF EXPORTS OF GOODS AND SERVICES AND NET INCOME.....	61
TABLE 32: TELEPHONE LINES PER 100 POPULATION.....	63
TABLE 33: MOBILE CELLULAR TELEPHONE SUBSCRIPTIONS PER 100 POPULATION.....	64
TABLE 34: INTERNET USERS PER 100 POPULATION .....	66

## Figures

FIGURE 1: TRADE OPENESS OF CARIBBEAN COUNTRIES .....	10
FIGURE 2: COMPARATIVE GDP GROWTH, 2003-2007 AND 2008 .....	14
FIGURE 3: SHARE OF POOREST QUINTILE IN NATIONAL ACCOUNTS, 1990 TO 2004 .....	23
FIGURE 4: GROWTH RATE OF GDP PER PERSON EMPLOYED, 1991-2006.....	24
FIGURE 5: PERCENTAGE OF THE POPULATION UNDERNOURISHED.....	25
FIGURE 6: NET ENROLMENT IN PRIMARY EDUCATION, BOTH SEXES .....	27
FIGURE 7: PROPORTION OF STUDENTS STARTING GRADE 1 WHO REACH FINAL GRADE AT PRIMARY EDUCATION LEVEL.....	28
FIGURE 8: UNIVERSITY OF THE WEST INDIES ENROLMENT BY SEX BY CAMPUS, 2007/2008 .....	31
FIGURE 9: CHILD MORTALITY RATES .....	34
FIGURE 10: CONTRACEPTIVE PREVALENCE, 1990-2005 .....	38
FIGURE 11: ADOLESCENT BIRTH RATES IN THE CARIBBEAN.....	39
FIGURE 12: CARBON DIOXIDE EMISSIONS PER COUNTRY, 2000 TO 2007 (METRIC TONS).....	49
FIGURE 13: CARIBBEAN CONSUMPTION OF OZONE-DEPLETING SUBSTANCES, 2000 TO 2008.....	51
FIGURE 14: CARIBBEAN: TERRESTRIAL AND MARINE PROTECTED AREA AS A TOTAL.....	52
FIGURE 15: PROPORTION OF POPULATION USING AN IMPROVED SANITATION FACILITY- CARIBBEAN COUNTRIES (1990, 2000 AND 2008).....	57
FIGURE 16: DEBT SERVICE AS A PERCENTAGE OF GOODS AND SERVICES EXPORTS .....	61
FIGURE 17: MOBILE CELLULAR TELEPHONE SUBSCRIPTIONS PER 100 POPULATION FOR SELECTED CARIBBEAN COUNTRIES .....	62
FIGURE 18: MOBILE CELLULAR TELEPHONE SUBSCRIPTIONS PER 100 POPULATION FOR SLECTED CARIBBEAN COUNTRIES.....	63
FIGURE 19: COMBINED TELEPHONE AND CELLULAR LINES PER 100 POPULATION.....	65



## Abstract

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The eight Millennium Development Goals – which range from halving extreme poverty to halting the spread of HIV and AIDS and providing universal primary education by 2015 – form a blueprint for tackling critical issues facing developing countries: poverty, hunger, inadequate education, gender inequality, child and maternal mortality, HIV/AIDS, and environmental degradation.

The Caribbean Millennium Development Goals Report 2010 reviews progress in the Caribbean subregion towards the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals on the basis of the most recent data available from official country reports and statistics and identifies the areas that need further targeted intervention. It has been found that notwithstanding the impacts of the recent energy, food and financial crises which spanned 2007 and 2008, notable progress has been made by Caribbean countries by 2010 towards the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals. However, it should be noted that there have been some challenges in the preparation of the 2010 Report, as the production of timely and relevant data to track progress within and across countries in the subregion has been somewhat limited.

The most significant progress towards the Millennium Development Goals in the Caribbean has been made in the areas of primary education, child survival, maternal health and combating HIV and AIDS, in designating marine and terrestrial protected areas, in reducing consumption of ozone-depleting substances, and in improving citizens' access to telecommunications, evident from the general preference for cellular services and the shift away from land lines.

On the other hand, the global financial, energy and food crises of 2007-2008, presented serious economic challenges for the Caribbean.<sup>1</sup> Their small size and openness led Caribbean small island developing States (SIDS) to experience the most severe impacts of the global crises in key sectors or ‘drivers’ of their economies: on export volumes and prices, remittances, and in the deterioration in consumer and producer expectations.<sup>2</sup>

The Caribbean Millennium Development Goals Report 2010 does not attempt to provide a scorecard of the impact of the crises in the Caribbean. However, available data indicate that many Caribbean states took a more proactive approach in the implementation of policy responses to avert the social and economic declines experienced post-crisis during the decade of the 1990s. Despite these steps, it is expected that there will be some slippage against goals in poverty, education and health.

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<sup>1</sup> See [online]: <http://americas.sas.ac.uk/events/docs/EconomicCrisisPapers/Clegg.pdf> Dr Peter Clegg May 2009.

<sup>2</sup> ECLAC (2008/2009).



## I. The Caribbean context

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The Caribbean subregion consists of more than 16 countries located either in the insular Caribbean or on the South and Central American coastlines. The countries of the Caribbean are characterized by small physical size, small populations, and vulnerability to the constant risk of natural disasters. In 2008, the estimated total populations of each of the Anglophone countries, excluding overseas territories, ranged from just under 50,000 inhabitants in Saint Kitts and Nevis to 2.7 million inhabitants in Jamaica. The combined population and land mass for these countries totals 6.8 million inhabitants and 404,850 square kilometers, respectively. This yields an estimated population density of 17 persons per square kilometer.

As a result of relatively high per-capita incomes, Caribbean countries—with the exception of Guyana, which has struggled for some time with a debt overhang—have long been categorized as middle income countries. This classification is reflected in the composite Human Development Indices which place most of the countries in the categories of “High Human Development” and “Medium Human Development” (UNDP, 2009). One of the few exceptions is Barbados, which ranks 37<sup>th</sup> of 38 countries in the “Very High Human Development” category. The other exception is Guyana, previously classified as a heavily indebted poor country (HIPC; IDA and IMF, 2009), and now ranked in the “Medium Human Development” category (UNDP, 2009).

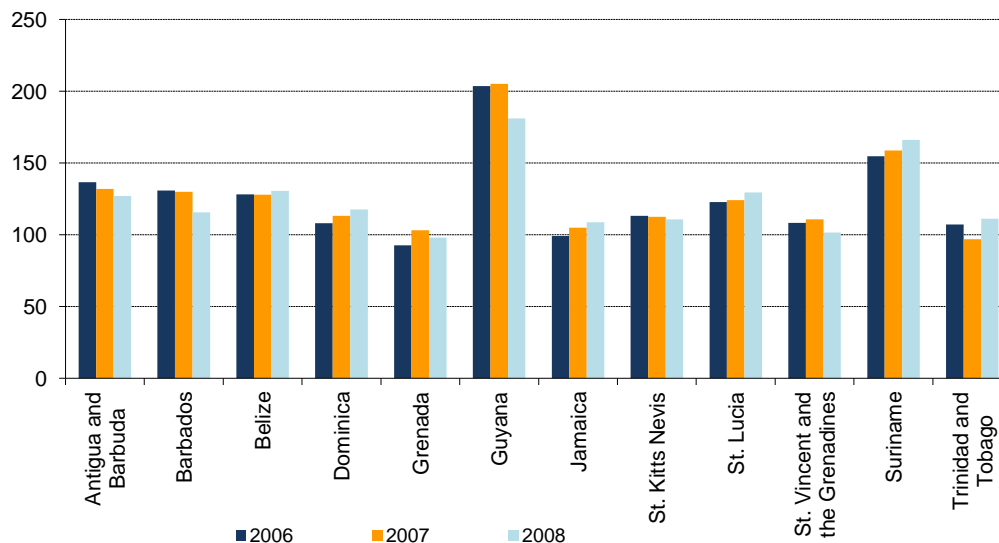
The Human Development Index (HDI) rankings contrast with the countries’ vulnerability to external financial and economic shocks. This chapter will set out the main economic, social and physical attributes of the subregion, highlighting the vulnerabilities that have implications for Goals achievement.

## A. Main economic, social and physical characteristics

### 1. Macroeconomic trends

Caribbean economies are extremely open, with external trade exceeding GDP in most cases (see figure 1). Market price GDP for the Anglophone Caribbean, excluding overseas territories, totalled US \$ 52.3 billion in 2008. These economies are therefore relatively small in terms of world trade. They depend on their natural resource endowment for the bulk of their productive activities. A long tradition of reliance on preferential trading arrangements for commodity exports, mainly sugar and bananas, is now being eroded, and only a few countries export petroleum and minerals.<sup>3</sup> For most Caribbean SIDS, tourism is the main service export. These factors together create a high level of susceptibility to external shocks, such as the recent financial crisis.

**FIGURE 1**  
**TRADE OPENNESS OF CARIBBEAN COUNTRIES**



Source: Compiled from World Bank Indicators [online]: <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator>.

Given their relatively small size, Caribbean countries are unable to influence world market prices and have relatively low levels of industrialization. Their primary and tertiary sectors are therefore the most important sources of employment, growth and development. Recent adverse changes in preferential trading arrangements to export markets and the first-time adoption of reciprocity through the Economic Partnership Agreement with the European Union have generated a more challenging international trade and economic environment for the Caribbean.

<sup>3</sup> These are mainly Guyana (gold and bauxite), Jamaica (bauxite), Trinidad and Tobago (petroleum), Suriname (gold and bauxite) and, more recently, Belize (petroleum).

## 2. Physical vulnerability

The economic vulnerability of the Caribbean subregion is matched by its exposure to natural hazards. The Caribbean subregion lies in the path of tropical cyclones which form in the Atlantic, mainly off the coast of Africa. In any hurricane season, a single tropical event can affect several countries as it traverses the subregion. Other natural hazards to which the countries are exposed include seismic activity, landslides, floods, volcanic eruptions, droughts and forest fires. Risk assumptions have had to be re-examined in some countries, such as Belize, where an earthquake off the coast of the Southern Districts in 2009 has disproved the long-held belief amongst residents that they are immune to seismic activity. The January 2010 earthquake in Haiti has been the most costly reminder of the extent to which the countries are vulnerable to natural phenomena. For the subregion as a whole, ECLAC has estimated that natural events between 1990 and 2008 have resulted in economic and social sector damages and losses of US\$ 63.0 billion and US\$ 57.0 billion, respectively (ECLAC, 2010c).

The impacts of natural disasters have been worsened in many cases by unsustainable practices in the usage of land and other natural resources. Land use practices such as deforestation, hillside farming and mangrove clearance have been recognized as contributors to the undermining of ecosystem integrity and the increasingly severe impacts of natural events such as tropical cyclones and earthquakes. This has given impetus to sustainable natural resource management practices that incorporate ex-ante measures for disaster mitigation.

The notion of disaster risk and its prevention and mitigation has, only within the last decade, taken its place within the development discourse and within development planning. One of the key lessons learnt in the assessment of natural disasters across the subregion, is that more emphasis needs to be placed on the reduction of exposure to risk and the vulnerabilities of Caribbean SIDS. There is sufficient evidence to suggest that natural disasters can decrease the momentum of development, as much time and resources in the Caribbean subregion may be spent on reconstruction or regaining prior levels of development. (ECLAC, 2010c).

## 3. Key social issues

Although per capita incomes are high, there are significant income disparities across the subregion. This has become evident in estimates of consumption-based Gini coefficients of no lower than 0.35 and as high as 0.56 over the period between 1998 and 2005 (ECLAC, 2010a). In many countries, pockets of vulnerable communities live at risk in poor habitats, with low income levels and few physical and financial assets. This, in part, reflects the less established state of Caribbean social protection systems and the need to revamp education systems to ensure focus on capabilities. In most of the subregion, social safety nets and social protection provisions are being administered in a fragmented manner, whereby there is a range of institutions, each operating its own system. There are few instances where procedural manuals are in place; information technology is not fully maximized and there are significant information asymmetries.

In terms of education, there are two recurring issues across Member States and Associate Territories: the participation of boys, and the extent to which education systems adequately address education needs. The participation of boys in the education system has declined progressively through secondary and tertiary levels. There have also been some concerns surrounding whether education systems across the Caribbean have been sufficiently focusing on building capabilities and skills sets that would make citizens competitive in a global environment.

Other contributing factors to socioeconomic vulnerability include ageing populations—a reflection of improvements in life expectancy and healthcare quality. Notwithstanding these improvements, the subregion has the second highest level of HIV/AIDS prevalence worldwide, and health risks and deaths arising from non-communicable diseases and lifestyle choices have been rising.

Box 1

## THE SOCIAL PROTECTION SYSTEMS

Given that the social protection systems are not comprehensive, there are gaps and overlaps in terms of the extent and types of vulnerabilities and shocks covered by the various provisions, and coverage, leakages and potential for abuse. In addition, information systems are underdeveloped and not integrated. These factors provide opportunities for beneficiaries to access the system for the same benefits through several agencies, each of which functions virtually independently. In addition, the lack of a targeting system and of monitoring mechanisms means that there is no information regarding the extent to which the population that is covered through the safety net provisions that exist approximates the total population that is vulnerable and/or poor. The Organization of American States (OAS) asserts that a particular concern [across the subregion] is “the fragmented approaches seen, especially as they relate to the family, where separate policies and programmes are developed for children, women and the elderly.” The inadequacy of the safety nets is especially acute for the elderly, and recent trends noted for Barbados and the OECS in the subregional OECS CCA (draft, 2010) point to an escalation in levels of abuse and abandonment of these citizens.

## B. National and regional priorities and objectives

The adoption of the Millennium Declaration in 2000 has been instrumental in supporting the orientation of development policy in the Caribbean subregion towards the achievement of a number of specific goals and targets. Member States have adopted a number of initiatives aimed at providing a general framework for integrating the Millennium Development Goals into national development and social, economic and environmental plans, including poverty reduction strategies. Effective integration of the Millennium Development Goals into the national planning framework is an essential precondition for their successful implementation.

The current plans and strategies articulated and documented across the subregion highlight priorities which either support the achievement of, or are directly link to, the Millennium Development Goals. A description of these priorities is set out below.

- **Addressing macro-economic fundamentals** to enable stability, growth and poverty reduction. Caribbean economies have been impacted heavily by the recent financial and economic crises which have only exacerbated their already vulnerable states. This has been especially true in the case of those countries that have had external debts at near-unsustainable levels even before the crisis. Priorities in this regard have included fiscal discipline and government policies conducive to growth, an active private sector and effective monetary and debt management policies. These are essential conditions for effective implementation of Millennium Development Goals -based plans and strategies.
- **Improving governance and citizen security.** Many of the countries of the subregion have placed high priority on governance, including the promotion of participatory democracy and strengthening of institutions and systems.
- **Enhancing productivity** through information and communications technology. Stated priorities focused on the effective application of information technology solutions to improve business practices and particularly to support e-government have proceeded at an uneven pace across the subregion. Facilitating e-government and formulating a comprehensive information and communication technology policy has become a major priority for almost all countries.
- **Addressing crime and youth unemployment.** As crime and homicide rates have escalated over the review period, a number of countries —including Guyana, Trinidad and Tobago, and Jamaica— have implemented multiple citizen security programmes funded by the Inter-American Development Bank. A key component of the programmes is a community initiative which aims to promote awareness and influence social practices positively. Currently, a similar programme is in the pipeline for Belize which has homicide rates comparable with the Caribbean subregion (Central American Human Development Report, 2009/2010).

The priorities have highlighted the fact that Caribbean countries continue to face many of the same challenges that were highlighted in the 2004 achievement report (UNDP, 2004). These have been compounded by the recent food, oil and financial and economic crises that have had a disproportionate impact on Caribbean countries, given their inherent vulnerabilities.

## C. Recent developments and prospects

### 1. Implications of the recent financial and economic crisis

Given their vulnerability, efforts by Caribbean countries to achieve poverty reduction and attain the Millennium Development Goals have been significantly impacted by external shocks. The series of energy, food and financial crises between 2007 and 2008 have resulted in higher prices for fuel and food imports, and lower inflows from tourism and export receipts. The direct result has been that, by 2008, the rates of growth of national output for most countries had decelerated, a turnaround from the consistently strong, positive growth experienced between 2003 and 2007 (see figure 2). The economies of The Bahamas and Jamaica, in fact, declined. Notably, too, Saint Kitts and Nevis, and Guyana were the only two countries of the subregion to have recorded growth in 2008. The effects of the crises had still not been fully realized by the end of 2008.

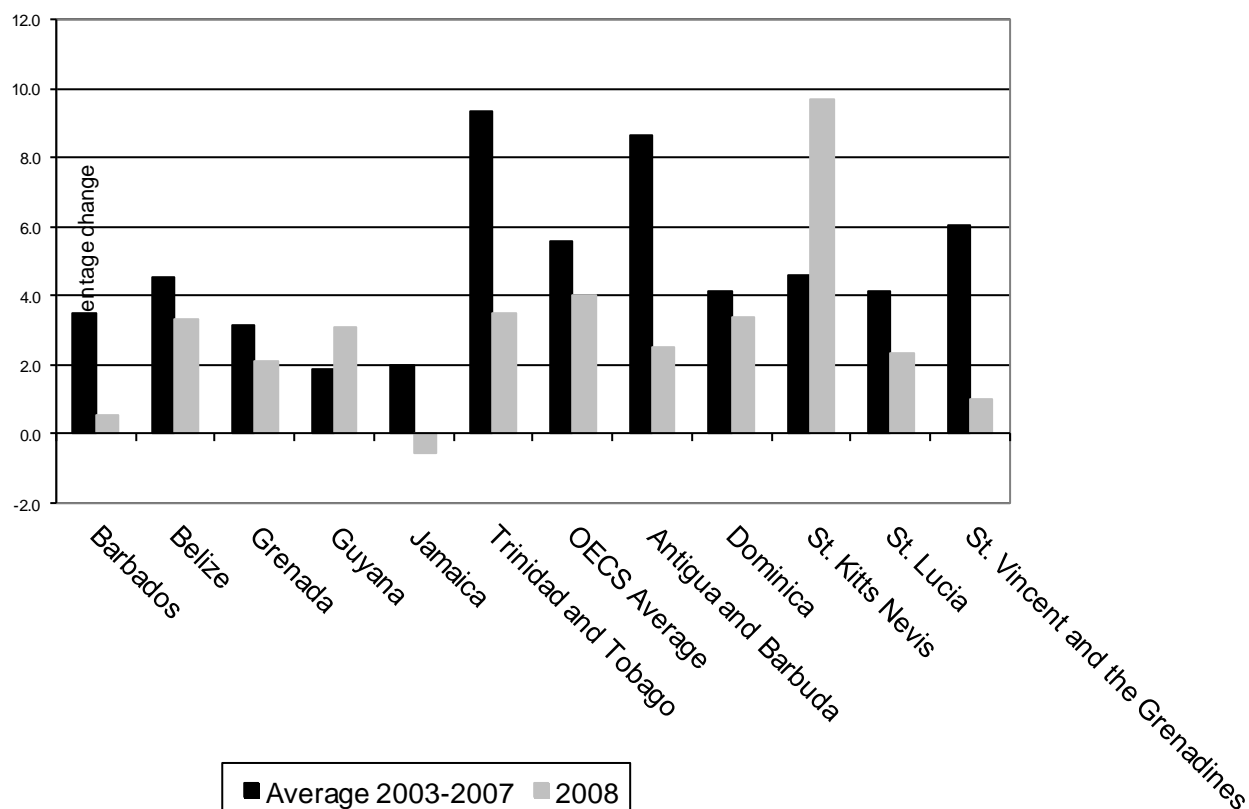
The effect of the crises and ensuing world recession seems evident in unemployment data, available for only three countries. Trinidad and Tobago data showed a reduction in the 2008 unemployment level. In contrast, unemployment rose significantly in Barbados and Jamaica in 2008. The bauxite industry, which went into decline as world demand slumped, has for the most part accounted for increased unemployment in Jamaica. This decline has been cited as the main contributing factor to the adoption by Jamaica of an IMF stabilization programme. In April, 2010, the Government of Jamaica publicized plans to sell their stake in the bauxite industry.

Studies to assess the effects of the crises so far have focused mainly on changes in the level of exports of goods and services, in terms of trade and remittances to the subregion. Each of these is likely to have had a direct effect on poor and vulnerable communities. A 40% rise in world food prices in 2008 would have been likely to have led to increases in the cost of food imports as a proportion of GDP in the OECS, which would range from 2.4 to 3.4 percentage points (ECLAC, 2008b). For Belize, Jamaica and Barbados, the increases would be 1.8, 2.1 and 2.4 percentage points respectively; likewise, the cost of food imports to Guyana would increase by 3.2 percentage points and to Trinidad and Tobago by 0.6 percentage points of GDP respectively. Using Trinidad and Tobago poverty data, the analysis further demonstrates that rising food prices have contributed to increases in the levels of indigence and inequality.<sup>4</sup> This directly dampens the effect of efforts toward achieving Goal 1, and has implications for Goal 4 in terms of possible effects of deterioration in child nutrition on child survival.

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<sup>4</sup> This reflects the head count methodology for estimating poverty levels applied by Caribbean countries, wherein indigence is based on the cost of households' food basket.

**FIGURE 2**  
**COMPARATIVE GDP GROWTH, 2003-2007 AND 2008**



Source: Compiled from World Bank Indicators [online]: <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator>

As with food prices, the energy crisis would also have affected the cost of imports and terms of trade. Both food and oil imports have significant weights in most Caribbean countries' overall price levels, so that increases in either of the two would directly reduce citizens' real income. Furthermore, the effects of price increases resulting from the two shocks (food and fuel) in 2008 would have been exacerbated by reductions in income levels as a result of the decline in tourism receipts in 2009—a consequence of the financial crisis and resulting recession.

For most of the Caribbean, the full effects of these changes are still unfolding. A list of potential crisis transmission channels for Caribbean economies is provided in Box 2.

## BOX 2 CRISIS TRANSMISSION CHANNELS FOR CARIBBEAN ECONOMIES

**Goods and service exports.** The economic contraction in developed countries resulting from the crisis would have led to reduced demand for Caribbean commodities and services, mainly travel and tourism. This translates to declines in earnings from abroad.

**Terms of trade.** Reduced levels of exports and declining prices, coupled with increases in the price of imports and their relative inelasticity, tend towards the deterioration in the relative value of Caribbean exports vis-à-vis imports. This also translates to declines in foreign exchange earnings.

**Exchange rate.** The increase in international prices stemming especially from the world food and energy crises would have pushed demand for foreign currency up, whereas the decline of tourism receipts and export receipts would have compressed its supply. Where exchange rates are floating, this pressure results in a deterioration of the rates, and in the case of fixed regimes the result would have been loss of foreign reserves.

**Trade credit.** As with other areas of credit, loans for financing, such as letters of credit, have been subject to more stringent conditions since the onset of the crisis and resulting contraction in financial flows into the subregion.

**Official development assistance.** Developed countries have slowed and in some cases are reviewing their development assistance programmes.

**Foreign direct investment.** Reflecting the global slowdown, inflows of foreign direct investment have reduced significantly.

**Remittances.** The increase in unemployment in host countries has led to a concurrent decline in remittance flows, a significant source of receipts, from Caribbean-born emigrants. The Multilateral Investment Fund (2010) notes that after recording consistent increases averaging 17% annually between 2002 and 2008, remittances to Latin America and the Caribbean slowed in 2008 and declined by 15% in 2009.

**Migratory labour.** The reduction in economic activity has translated to a reduction in the demand for workers and, therefore, to a slowdown in the number of migrant workers across the subregion, and so to a slowdown in injections of their spending into the host economies.

**Financial contagion.** Where there were strong links between financial institutions operating in the subregion with United States-based counterparts, changes in the latter could have triggered significant negative changes in the former. This is asserted to be the case with CLICO.

**Irregular [informal] economic activity.** This includes underground and illicit activities which cannot be measured. Thomas (ECLAC, 2009a) cites the irregular economic activity as most significant in Guyana, Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago, and indicates that, whilst it is not measured, it would no doubt have been constrained by the recession. This implies a contraction in tandem with the formal economies.

## 2. Macro-socioeconomic outlook

### (a) Economic outlook

Drawing from an IMF assessment, eight countries of the Caribbean subregion are net importers with heavy reliance on tourism, and have therefore been the most affected by the recent financial crisis (IMF, 2010, see table I.2). This excludes Trinidad and Tobago, Suriname and Guyana, which have significant commodity exports (petroleum and minerals) and are grouped separately. The countries which are heavily dependent on tourism have continued to experience contraction even whilst other economies within the Caribbean subregion have been showing signs of recovery (IMF, 2010).

IMF has formulated economic outlooks for the countries over the immediate term based on whether their main exports are commodities or tourism services, and the extent to which they are interlinked with the world financial system (see table 1). The report identifies the following four groups:

- Financially integrated commodity exporters
- Other commodity exporters
- Tourism intensive commodity importers

- Other commodity importers.

Most of the countries of the subregion fall into the third group, and none can be typified in the first group. Due to their heavy reliance on tourism and the continuing lag in consumer spending by residents of the larger recession economies, countries in the third group have been projected to have the longest recovery time. This also reflects weak levels of foreign direct investment. These countries are expected to continue to experience contraction even whilst other economies within the Caribbean subregion are showing signs of recovery (IMF, 2010).

**TABLE 1**  
**COUNTRY OUTLOOKS: MEDIUM-TERM**

IMF Analytical Grouping and Key Characteristic	IMF Outlook	Country and IMF Analytical Group
Other Commodity Exporting Countries Not fully integrated into the global financial markets but have significant levels of commodity exports. Highest terms of trade loss through crisis.	-Ongoing recovery resulting from higher commodity prices and rebound in global trade; -Potential increase in inflation in Suriname.	Trinidad and Tobago Suriname
Net Commodity Importing Countries with large tourism sectors Primarily dependent on tourism for current account inflows; high external debt burden but not closely integrated into the global financial markets. Sizeable terms of trade loss mainly reflecting their limited goods exports base and reliance on imported fuels.	-Modest increase in arrivals, with longer delays in improvement of arrivals at European dependent destinations. -Weak foreign direct investment, -Sluggish recovery with (average) unemployment around 13%.	Antigua and Barbuda Barbados Belize Dominica Grenada Jamaica Saint Kitts Nevis Saint Lucia Saint Vincent and the Grenadines
Other Commodity Importing Countries Heavy reliance on remittances; sizeable terms of trade losses	-Gradual, though uneven, recovery underway; -Faster than anticipated growth in US providing impetus for exports; -Continued decline in worker remittances; -Increase in oil import bill due to rise in commodity prices; -Sluggish growth in credit and deterioration in quality of credit, but comfortable levels of capital adequacy ratios.	Guyana

Source: IMF (2010), Regional Economic Outlook, Western Hemisphere, Taking Advantage of Tail Winds.

Note: None of the review countries were included in the first analytical group, which is typified as net commodity exporting countries with full access to international financial markets. For these countries, terms of trade generally move with world commodity prices.

### **(b) Social prospects**

The extent to which the social sectors of Caribbean countries have been affected by the recession and their prospects for development through to 2015 depends on the nature of measures taken by national governments to confront the crises. A number of countries, such as Barbados, Jamaica and Guyana, took direct measures to dampen the social repercussions of the crises. These included cash grants, capital transfers and subsidies on basic food items. Others, such as Antigua and Barbuda, created an unemployment fund.



The Caribbean social sector should also benefit from the ongoing work on social policies and social safety nets, much of which is supported by policy-based or direct loans to the social sector by the Inter-American Development Bank (IDB). Social sector initiatives include loans for education sector reform or improvement (Jamaica, Barbados), for enhancing life and employment opportunities for at-risk youth (Trinidad and Tobago), and for strengthening health services delivery (through transformation: Trinidad and Tobago). There is also an effort to establish a social policy support programme and to strengthen the pension system (Belize). Within the OECS, there are strong moves underway in several countries to improve their social safety nets.

At least one country (Jamaica) has sought to buffer the social sector against the negative impacts of loans and finances to other sectors. This is being pursued through the stipulation on IMF loans that no changes made should be biased against social spending.

### **(c) Prospects for the environmental sector**

The increasing frequency, levels of intensity and unpredictability of tropical cyclones since Hurricane Mitch in 1999 have led to a widespread acceptance across the subregion of the reality of climate change. It has also been accepted that, given the relatively small size of Caribbean countries, adaptation measures would be more effective than mitigation. Measures are being undertaken, however, towards implementing programmes in both areas. At the subregional level, this has included the establishment and operation of the Caribbean Community Climate Change Center and the institutional strengthening of the Caribbean Disaster and Emergency Response Agency. National level initiatives include improvements in building codes, institutional strengthening of disaster response agencies, and the development and adoption of ex-ante procedures for disaster risk management.

A recent development that seeks to promote sustainable environmental management and, therefore, adaptation and resilience, has been the implementation of Guyana's Low Carbon Development Strategy. The strategy is aimed at protecting Guyana's vast tropical rainforests whilst furthering economic development.



## II. Towards the Millennium Development Goals

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This chapter presents the status of Millennium Development Goals achievement in the Caribbean subregion, per goal and related targets and indicators. The indicators are either numbered or followed by the term “(Caribbean)”. Numbering is consistent with the official list of Goals Indicators as found on the United Nations Statistics Division Website.<sup>5</sup> Where the indication “(Caribbean)” is used, this shows that that indicator is one that was agreed to by Caribbean countries as endorsed by Heads of Government (see Statistical Annex 1). Data have been drawn as far as possible from national reports. Where reports are not available, the data used are those collected and reported by the Inter-Agency and Expert Group on Millennium Development Goal Indicators<sup>6</sup> as maintained by the United Nations Statistics Division.

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<sup>5</sup> See [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Host.aspx?Content=Indicators/OfficialList.htm> As far as possible, the Inter-agency and Expert Group collects data from national authorities.

<sup>6</sup> The Group has been responsible for data development and analysis for the assessment of trends in the implementation of the Millennium Declaration. The Group has included the United Nations Secretariat, a number of United Nations agencies, IMF, OECD and the World Bank, national experts from statistical offices, and representatives from other organizations concerned with the development of data for the Millennium Development Goals at national and international levels—such as Paris 21 and the Inter-American Development Bank.

## A. Achievement per goal and indicator

### GOAL 1. Poverty eradication: Reduce the level of poverty by two-thirds by 2015

The inherently complex task of measuring advances in poverty eradication in the Caribbean subregion is made more complicated by the infrequency with which poverty assessments have been undertaken and the resulting difficulty in comparing too few data points to gauge progress. Assessing progress in poverty elimination therefore requires a combination of quantitative and qualitative analysis, as incorporated in this section.

#### Target 1.A: Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than one dollar a day.

*Indicator 1.1: Proportion of population living below US\$ 1.00 per day.*

The existing data for the six countries reporting between 1990 and 2004 show that the highest proportions of individuals living in poverty have been recorded for Saint Lucia (20.9%) in 1995 and Suriname (15.5%) in 1999 (see table 2).

**TABLE 2**  
**PROPORTION OF POPULATION LIVING ON LESS THAN US\$ 1.00 PER DAY**

Country	1990	1993	1995	1996	1998	1999	2002	2004
Belize	...	...	13.4	...	...	...	...	...
Guyana	...	5.8	...	...	7.7	...	...	...
Jamaica	<2	3.8	...	<2	...	<2	<2	<2
Saint Lucia	...	...	20.9	...	...	...	...	...
Suriname	...	...	...	...	...	15.5	...	...
Trinidad and Tobago	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

Source: United Nations Statistics Division at [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>

Jamaica and Guyana were the two countries to have recorded estimates of persons living below US\$ 1.00 per day for more than one year over the period 1990 to 2004. Except for 1993 when the estimate was 3.8% of the population, Jamaica has consistently recorded less than 2.0% of the population living below US \$1 per day for those years reported over the same period. In contrast, the two points recorded for Guyana demonstrate an increase in poverty from 5.5% in 1993 to 7.7% of the population in 1999.

*Indicator: Headcount of persons living below the poverty line (Caribbean).*

From 2004 to 2009, country poverty assessments to determine the proportion of the population living below a national poverty line were conducted by six countries of the subregion—Antigua and Barbuda, Belize, Grenada, Jamaica, Saint Lucia, and Trinidad and Tobago (see table 3). This is the standard approach for measuring poverty across the Caribbean, and the indicator suited to its outputs is included as “population living below national poverty line.”<sup>7</sup> There are inherent issues which, in the absence of corrective action, make it impossible to compare estimates of proportions living below national poverty lines either within countries or across countries (see Box 3). The adjustments needed have been taken consistently by Jamaica only, and have been applied to the most recent survey conducted in Belize. This allows for interpretation of changes in levels of poverty between the last two data points for these two countries. In the case of Jamaica, the proportion of the population estimated to be living below the poverty line declined by 8.9 percentage points between 1999 and 2007. For Belize, the proportion estimated rose by 9.0 percentage points between 2002 and 2009.

**TABLE 3**  
**POVERTY INDICATORS FOR CARIBBEAN COUNTRIES**

Country	% of population below poverty line 1	% of population below the indigence line 1	Poverty Gap Ratio (Poverty Line Approach)	Assessment year (Poverty Line Approach)	% of population living below US\$1 per day 2	Previous levels of poverty (Assessment Year)
Antigua and Barbuda	19.0	4.0	18.4	2005	...	12.0 (early 1990s)
The Bahamas	...	...	...	...	...	...
Barbados	...	...	...	...	...	13.9 (1997)
Belize	41.3	15.8	n.a.	2009	...	33.0 (2002)
Dominica	39.0	<5	10.2	2002	...	...
Grenada	37.7	15.0	10.1	2008	...	32.1 (1999)
Guyana	...	2.4	...	...	7.7 (1998)	35.0 (1999)
Jamaica	9.9	...	...	2007	<2.0 (2004)	18.7 (2000)
Saint Kitts Nevis	...	...	...	...	...	31.2 (2000)
Saint Lucia	28.8	1.6	9.0	2005	20.9 (1995)	31.2 (2000)
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	....	...	...	...	...	37.5 (1996)
Suriname	...	...	...	...	15.5 (1999)	77.0 (1993)
Trinidad and Tobago	16.0	1.0	4.6	2005	<2.0	21.2 (1992)

Sources: United Nations Statistics Division [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>; Government of the Republic of Suriname. (2009). MDG Progress Report 2009; Guyana Millennium Development Goals 2007; Planning Institute of Jamaica in collaboration with the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Foreign Trade. (2009a). National report of Jamaica on the Millennium Development Goals for the annual ministerial review of the Economic and Social Council (2009). Halcrow Group Limited and the Belize National Assessment Team. (2009). Final Report. Country Poverty Assessment. (Unpublished Draft); Kairi Consultants Ltd. (2007c). In Association with the National Assessment Team of St. Lucia. Trade Adjustment and Poverty in St. Lucia. 2005/06. Volume I-Main Report; United Nations Development Programme (2004). Regional Report on the Achievement of the Millennium Development Goals in the Caribbean Community.

<sup>7</sup> See [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>.

### BOX 3 COMPARING POVERTY ESTIMATES ACROSS COUNTRY AND OVER TIME: A CAVEAT

Although assessment of progress toward achieving the Millennium Development Goals requires the identification of trends within and across countries, “Country poverty assessment: Grenada, Carriacou and Petit Martinique,” cautions:

“The headcount Index (or poverty rate) cannot strictly be compared across time and across countries because poverty lines are relative (not absolute) and because there is a need for a further step to calculate a line that has constant purchasing power in comparator regions or years (Kairi Consultants, 2007/2008, p. 37).”

The report further indicates that, notwithstanding these limitations, countries use the headcount index to compare their progress in poverty reduction over time as well as relative to their neighbours (ibid). Limitations in comparing poverty measures over time and across countries, as well as possible solutions, are explored in the World Bank’s Poverty Reduction Strategy Sourcebook, which indicates, inter-alia, that

“Comparing national poverty rates based in nationally derived poverty lines—those anchored in nationally specific consumption patterns and food requirements—is a feasible alternative only to the extent that the poverty lines estimated in the various countries represent welfare levels... (p. 40).”

The Jamaica Millennium Development Goals Report 2009 attributes progress in reducing poverty to factors such as reductions in inflation, increases in real wages, and expansion of the informal sector (Planning Institute of Jamaica, 2009). The report acknowledges that remittances may also have been an important contributor to progress in this area. Although not directly attributed, the report highlights 2002 improvement in the social safety net and the establishment of a conditional cash transfer programme entitled “Programme of Advancement through Health and Education (PATH)”.

It is notable that the Belize 2009 Country Poverty Assessment (CPA) is the first in the subregion since the onset of the energy, food, and financial and economic crises. There is an expectation that for most countries of the subregion, these three crises, which spanned 2007 and 2008, will have led to erosion in any gains made against poverty reduction prior to their onset. Such losses would result from reduced income (due to job losses following the financial and economic crisis) and higher costs of living (because of price increases inherent in the energy and food crises).

#### *Indicator 1.2: Poverty gap ratio*

Based on the approach used for estimating poverty across the Caribbean, the poverty gap ratio is the percentage of the national poverty line that has to be provided for each person living below the line to bring that person to a “non-poor” state. It can also be described as the “resources required to reduce the shortfall of the poor from the poverty line to zero through targeted cash transfers.”<sup>8</sup> Estimates of the poverty gap ratio, for those countries that completed assessments as cited above, have ranged from a low of 4.6% for Trinidad and Tobago to a high of 18.4% for Antigua and Barbuda, both in 2005. The poverty gap ratios for Dominica and Grenada in 2002 and 2008, respectively, have been estimated at just over 10.0%.

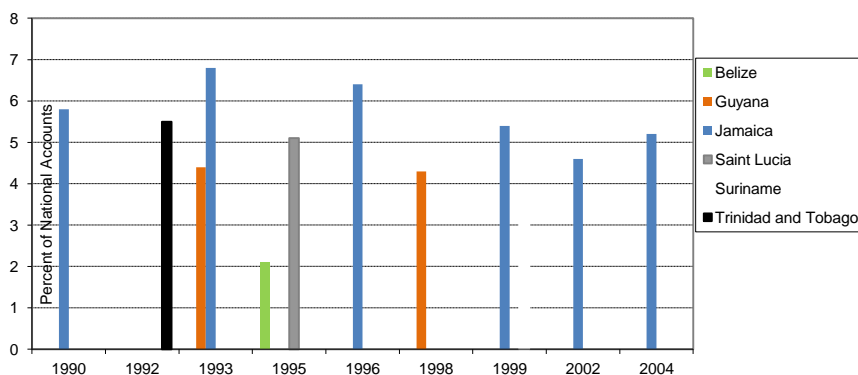
#### **Target 1.B: Achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people**

#### *Indicator 1.3: Share of poorest quintile in national consumption*

The indicator of the share of national income or consumption accruing to the poorest quintile or one-fifth of the population across the subregion shows significant inequalities. The share was calculated at no more than 6.0% for the six Member States for which data were available (see figure 3).

<sup>8</sup> See [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Metadata.aspx?IndicatorId=2>.

**FIGURE 3**  
**SHARE OF POOREST QUINTILE IN NATIONAL ACCOUNTS, 1990 TO 2004**



Source: United Nations Statistics Division at [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>

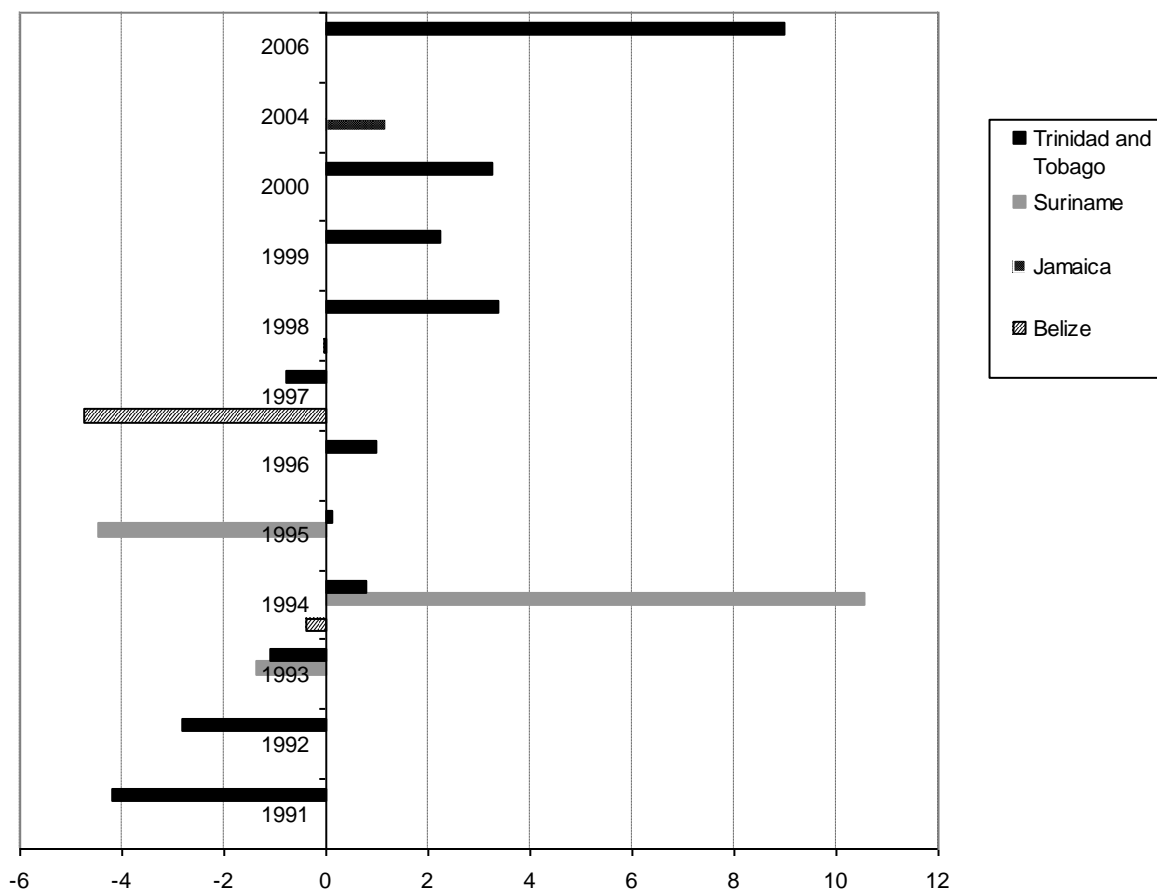
*Indicator 1.4: Growth rate of GDP per person employed*

Data on growth rate of GDP per person employed were available for Belize, Jamaica, Suriname, and Trinidad and Tobago. With the exception of Jamaica, the countries all recorded contraction in GDP per person employed at least once between 1990 and 2006 (see figure 4). For Belize, this contraction occurred between 1994 and 1997, and coincided with a period of recession and fiscal adjustment. Stabilization measures taken during this period included retrenchment of public officers. Since the public service is the largest single employer in Belize, this measure contributed significantly to declines in productivity and employment levels.

*Indicator 1.5: Employment-to-population ratio*

The employment-to-population ratio crossed the halfway mark for seven countries in the subregion in 2008, with The Bahamas achieving the highest rate at 65.4%. This was a significant improvement from 1991 levels, when only four of the eight reporting countries were generating jobs for more than 50% of their working-age population. The countries achieving the highest increases in employment-to-population ratios between 1991 and 2008 were Trinidad and Tobago (16.2 percentage points), Barbados (9.6 percentage points), Belize (9.6 percentage points) and Guyana (6.4 percentage points). Smaller increases were also realized by Suriname (1.2 percentage points) and The Bahamas (2.8 percentage points). In contrast, Jamaica's employment-to-population ratio decreased by 4.5 percentage points over the same period.

**FIGURE 4**  
**GROWTH RATE OF GDP PER PERSON EMPLOYED, 1991 – 2006**



Source: United Nations Statistics Division at [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>

**Target 1.C: Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger**

*Indicator 1.8: Proportion of underweight children under five years of age.*

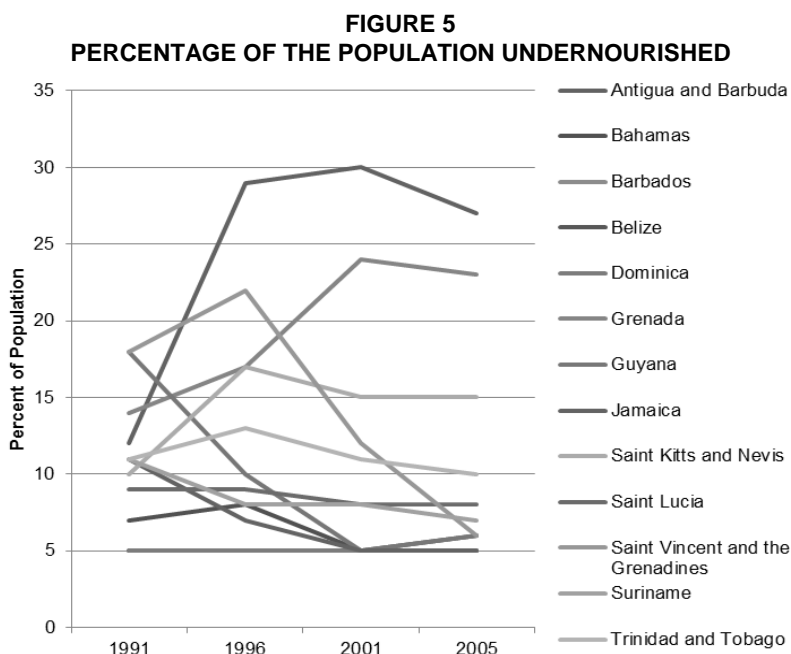
Between 1992 and 2006, there was a reduction of the percentage of children under five years of age who were moderately or severely underweight, in Belize, Guyana, Jamaica, Antigua and Barbuda, and Suriname. For Belize, the reduction was minimal—0.1%. The reductions recorded for Guyana (5.7%), Jamaica (5%) and Suriname (3.4%) were more substantial. Of the six countries, Jamaica, and Antigua and Barbuda are the only ones to have achieved the target, recording reductions by half or more in the number of underweight children by 2002.

*Indicator 1.9: Proportion of population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption*

The available data for this indicator suggest different patterns for two groups of Caribbean countries. The first—the non-OECS countries—show some progress in that three out of eight countries have been able to significantly reduce the proportion of undernourished persons (see figure 5). These were: Guyana (12 percentage points), Jamaica (6 percentage points) and Suriname (4 percentage points). The Bahamas and Trinidad and Tobago had small reductions of 1 percentage point each, whilst Belize and Barbados maintained their levels.



Of the second group—the OECS—three countries showed marked increases in the proportion of the population that was undernourished. These are: Antigua and Barbuda (15 percentage points), Grenada (9 percentage points) and Saint Kitts and Nevis (5 percentage points). Two other OECS—Saint Vincent and the Grenadines and Saint Lucia—reported reductions in the proportions of their undernourished populations. Saint Vincent and the Grenadines had a 12 percentage point decline, whilst Saint Lucia had a marginal 1 percentage point reduction.



Source: United Nations Statistic Division at [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>

## GOAL 2: Universal primary education

**Target 2.A: Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling.**

*Indicator 2.1: Net enrolment ratio in primary education (by sex-Caribbean)*

The 2007 UNICEF Report *State of the World's Children* indicates a Latin America and Caribbean (LAC) regional average of 95% net enrolment for boys and girls in primary schools. Access to primary education in the Caribbean has been relatively constant, with compulsory school attendance being the norm in most countries. Caribbean countries virtually achieved and maintained the Goal for primary education, with net enrolment rates generally exceeding 90% since 2000 (see tables 4,5 and 6). Exceptions are noted for Antigua and Barbuda, Dominica and Jamaica.

**TABLE 4**  
**NET ENROLMENT IN PRIMARY EDUCATION, BOTH SEXES**

Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Antigua and Barbuda	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	74	88.8
Bahamas	86.4	...	...	84.4	88.3	90.4	88.1	90.8	91.6
Belize	91.6	91.1	92.6	94.3	98.3	97.7	99.1	98.9	99.7
Dominica	97.4	82.6	99.1	97.7	93.7	87.7	82	73.3	75.6
Grenada	83.9	90.5	...	...	98.0	98.9	...	96.0	98.5
Guyana	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	98.5
Jamaica	93.8	92.8	91.5	89.6	90.9	89.4	...	85.5	80.5
Saint Kitts and Nevis	...	...	97.6	98.5	96.2	95.6	...	...	...
Saint Lucia	97.3	97.9	96.9	96.5	95	92.6	95.1	94.4	93.5
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	98.4	98.4	99.1	99.4	99.3	98.3	...	98.4	97.5
Suriname	94	94	94	92	93	91	93	94.2	92
Trinidad and Tobago	94	94.1	91.1	92.6	93.4	90.7	...	96.9	95.3

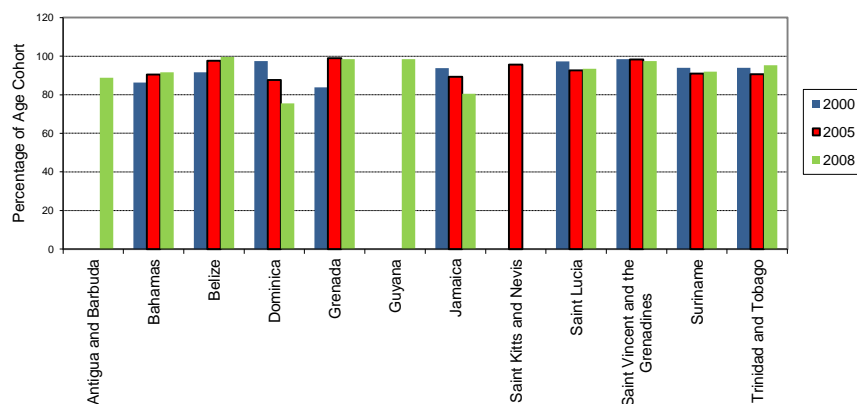
Source: United Nations Statistics Division, see [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>

**TABLE 5**  
**NET ENROLMENT IN PRIMARY EDUCATION, BOYS**

Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Antigua and Barbuda	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	74.7	90.9
Bahamas	86.5	...	...	83.5	87	88.9	86.6	89.4	90.5
Belize	91.8	91	92.4	...	97.5	...	98.4	...	99.5
Dominica	98.1	86.7	98.5	96.8	93	85.6	78.9	71.1	71.7
Grenada	87.1	94.4	...	...	97.6	...	...	95.5	97.9
Guyana	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	98.5
Jamaica	93	92.7	91.5	89.9	91.5	90.4	...	86.1	81.8
Saint Kitts and Nevis	...	...	...	...	...	93	...	...	...
Saint Lucia	97.8	99.1	97.5	98.3	96.7	94.3	96.5	95.5	93.9
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	...	...	...	...	...	99.6	...	...	...
Suriname	...	90.4	89.2	88.9	...	89.6	89.5	86.6	90.7
Trinidad and Tobago	93.7	93.8	90.2	92.6	93.2	90.7	...	97.6	95.6

Source: United Nations Statistics Division, see [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>

**FIGURE 6**  
**NET ENROLMENT IN PRIMARY EDUCATION, BOTH SEXES**



Source: United Nations Statistics Division at [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>

In terms of gender, the primary school net enrolment ratios for boys and girls in The Bahamas, Belize, Dominica and Saint Kitts are virtually equivalent (see figure 6). Net enrolment rates in primary education for girls show significant declines for Dominica (21.2 percentage points), Suriname (9.9 percentage points) and Jamaica (8.5 percentage points) between 2000 and 2007 (see table 6).

**TABLE 6**  
**NET ENROLMENT IN PRIMARY EDUCATION, GIRLS**

Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Antigua and Barbuda	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	73.4
Bahamas	86.3	...	...	85.4	89.6	91.9	89.6	92.4
Belize	91.4	91.3	92.9	...	99.1	...	99.8	...
Dominica	96.8	78.5	99.7	98.6	94.4	90	85.2	75.6
Grenada	80.6	86.5	...	...	98.5	...	...	96.4
Guyana	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Jamaica	93.4	92.9	91.4	89.3	90.3	88.3	...	84.9
Saint Kitts and Nevis	...	...	...	...	...	98.3	...	...
Saint Lucia	96.9	96.6	96.2	94.6	93.3	91	93.6	93.2
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	...	...	...	...	...	96.9	...	...
Suriname	...	94.4	92.1	91.6	...	90	88.6	84.5
Trinidad and Tobago	94.3	94.5	92.1	92.5	93.5	90.7	...	96.2

Source: United Nations Statistics Division at [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>

**TABLE 7**  
**PRIMARY LEVEL COMPLETION RATES**

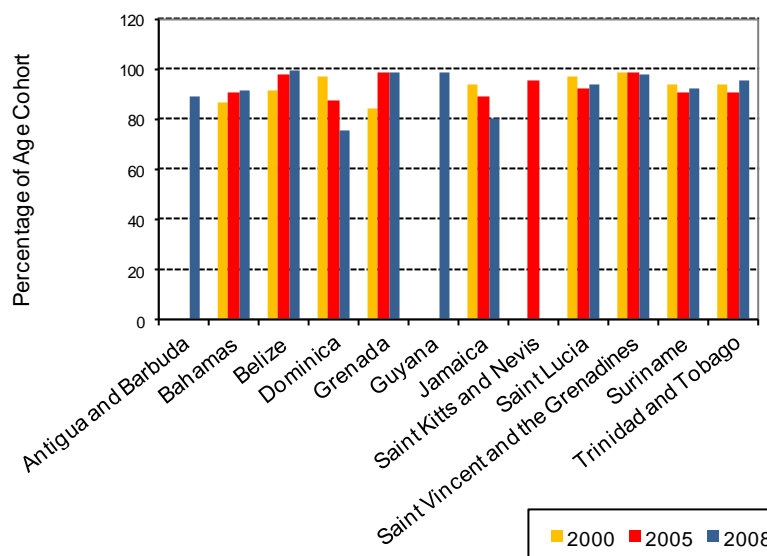
Country	Both Sexes		Boys		Girls	
	2000	2007	2000	2007	2000	2007
Antigua and Barbuda	...	97.4	...	...	...	...
Bahamas	...	90.9	...	89.7	...	92.1
Barbados	99.1	93.9	...	...	...	...
Belize	91.5	90.5	...	90.4	...	90.6
Dominica	82.8	90.8	...	91.2	...	90.4
Grenada	...	...	...	...	...	...
Guyana	65.1	...	61.5	...	68.9	...
Jamaica	89.8	...	...	...	...	...
Saint Kitts and Nevis	77.6	68.0	...	67.6	...	68.7
Saint Lucia	...	...	...	...	...	...
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	64.1	...	...	...	...	...
Suriname	...	...	...	...	...	...
Trinidad and Tobago	93.3	95.8	...	...	...	...

Source: United Nations Statistics Division at [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>

*Indicator 2.2: Proportion of pupils starting grade 1 who reach last grade of primary*

With the exception of Saint Kitts and Nevis, and Suriname, the primary school completion rates for eight countries reporting in 2007 exceeded 90% (see table 7 and figure 7). Saint Kitts and Nevis recorded a completion rate of 67.7% whilst Suriname reported 45% (Government of the Republic of Suriname, 2009).

**FIGURE 7**  
**PROPORTION OF STUDENTS STARTING GRADE 1 WHO REACH FINAL GRADE AT PRIMARY EDUCATION LEVEL**



Source: United Nations Statistics Division, [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>; Government of the Republic of Suriname, MDG Progress Report 2009

The Suriname Millennium Development Goals Achievement report 2009 suggests that this performance reflects high repetition rates which, in turn, are a symptom of internal efficiency issues. Equally important, the report asserts that internal strife in the country during the 1992-1998 period led to the destruction of many schools in the interior, and that the supply of both school buildings and trained teachers in the interior are still not adequate to meet the demand (Government of Suriname, 2009).

*Indicator 2.3: Literacy rate of 15-24 year-olds, women and men*

During the period 2003 to 2008, literacy rates for Caribbean countries exceeded 90% in most cases. Mirroring the trend in net enrolment rates, the lowest literacy rates are recorded for Jamaica, Grenada and Antigua and Barbuda.

### GOAL 3. Gender equality and empowerment of women

#### Target 3.A: Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education no later than 2015

*Indicator 3.1: Ratios of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education*

Most Caribbean countries had achieved near-parity in primary education by 2007 (see table 8). Whilst gender differences in primary education are not significant, the limited available data on urban and rural schooling show marked differences between the two sectors.

**TABLE 8**  
**GENDER PARITY INDEX, PRIMARY LEVEL**

Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Antigua and Barbuda	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	0.94	0.92
Bahamas	0.99	1	1.02	1.01	1	1	1	1	1
Belize	0.96	0.97	0.96	0.98	0.97	0.96	0.97	0.99	0.97
Dominica	0.96	0.91	0.97	0.99	0.99	1.02	1.02	1.01	1.06
Grenada	0.97	0.95	0.95	1	0.97	0.97	...	0.98	0.95
Guyana	0.97	0.98	0.98	0.98	0.97	0.99	0.99	0.98	0.99
Jamaica	1	0.99	0.99	0.98	0.98	0.97	...	0.97	0.97
Saint Kitts and Nevis	1.04	1.09	1.03	1.03	1.07	1.06	...	...	...
Saint Lucia	0.97	0.95	0.97	0.94	0.94	0.95	0.92	0.95	0.97
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	0.95	0.95	0.95	0.97	0.95	0.9	...	0.95	0.92
Suriname	...	0.99	0.98	0.98	...	0.96	0.96	0.94	0.95
Trinidad and Tobago	0.99	0.98	0.99	0.97	0.97	0.97	...	0.97	0.97

Source: Interagency and Expert Group (IAEG) on MDG Indicators through United Nations Statistics Division (<http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>), unless otherwise stated. Primary agency: UNESCO.

1. Guyana Millennium Development Goals Report 2007
2. Suriname Millennium Development Goals Report 2009

**TABLE 9**  
**GENDER PARITY INDEX, SECONDARY LEVEL**

Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Antigua and Barbuda	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	0.96	0.93
Bahamas	0.96	0.96	1.06	1.03	1.01	1.01	1.01	1.04	1.03
Belize	1.07	1.07	1.04	1.06	1.04	1.01	1.06	1.07	1.08
Dominica	1.16	1.06	1.06	1.04	0.99	1	0.98	1	0.93
Grenada	...	...	1.15	0.98	1.08	1.02	...	0.98	0.92
Guyana	1.03	1.04	1.03	...	1.02	0.98	0.98	0.94	1.01
Jamaica	1.03	1.03	1.02	1.02	1.01	1.03	...	1.04	1.04
Saint Kitts and Nevis	1.09	1.02	0.98	1.06	1.03	0.98	...	...	...
Saint Lucia	1.3	1.26	1.28	1.11	1.09	1.18	1.17	1.11	1.04
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	1.34	1.17	1.12	1.1	1.08	1.25	...	...	1.11
Suriname	...	1.18	1.39	1.34	...	1.29	1.32	1.33	1.28
Trinidad and Tobago	1.1	1.08	1.1	1.09	1.07	1.04	...	1.06	1.07

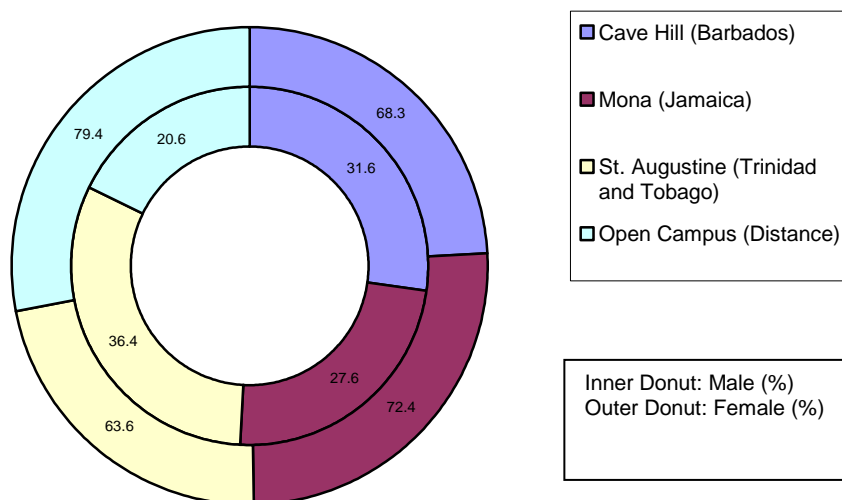
Source: United Nations Statistics Division at [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>

**TABLE 10**  
**GENDER PARITY INDEX, TERTIARY LEVEL**

Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Antigua and Barbuda	1	1	1	1	1	...	...	...	...	...
Belize	...	...	...	1.91	2.43	...	...	...	...	1.85
Dominica	1	1	1	1	1	1	...	...	3.26	...
Grenada	1	1	1	1	1	1	...	...	...	1.34
Guyana	...	...	...	...	1.88	2.07	2.18	2.12	1.42	...
Jamaica	1.82	1.97	2.17	2.29	...	...	...	...	2.22	...
Saint Kitts and Nevis	1	1	1	1	1	1	...	...	...	...
Saint Lucia	...	...	...	2.03	3.38	2.72	5.31	2.34	2.25	...
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	1	1	1	1	1	1	...	...	...	...
Suriname	...	...	1.71	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Trinidad and Tobago	1.49	1.53	1.5	1.6	1.27	1.28	...	...	...	...

Source: United Nations Statistics Division at [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>

**FIGURE 8**  
**UNIVERSITY OF THE WEST INDIES ENROLMENT BY SEX BY CAMPUS, 2007/2008**



Source: University of the West Indies

The trend noted in the 2004 Caribbean Millennium Development Goals achievement report, where girls have outnumbered boys at the secondary and tertiary levels, continues to prevail (see tables 9 and 10 and figure 8). This trend is most marked in Suriname, Saint Lucia and Guyana. In Guyana, there has been a dramatic shift from 2004 to 2005, when more than two females were enrolled for each male.

*Indicator 3.2: Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector*

Sufficient data to identify changes in women's share of non-agriculture wage employment were available for only six countries (see table 11). Of these, improvement has been noted for only two (Belize, and Trinidad and Tobago), whereas another three have showed deterioration. It is notable that, whilst the position has been reversed by 2005, Barbados had previously recorded parity in men's and women's non-agricultural wage employment between 2001 and 2004. Belize, Guyana and Dominica have continued to exhibit the lowest shares of women in non-agricultural wage employment, perhaps reflecting the relatively large sizes of their rural sectors and the predominance of agriculture in economic activity and as an export base.

The persistent inequalities in the situation of women and the differences in employment between women and men, together with the discrimination faced by women, have been identified (OAS, 2007) as obstacles to the achievement of gender equality and decent work for all. Caribbean women have higher participation rates in the economy than do women in other regions, such as Latin America and North America; however, this greater share of women's wage employment in the non-agricultural sector has not improved their status in the labour market, which has remained significantly inferior to that of men.

**TABLE 11**  
**WOMEN'S SHARE IN NON-AGRICULTURAL WAGE EMPLOYMENT**

Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Antigua and Barbuda	...	50.62	50.62	50.62	50.62	50.62	50.62	50.62
Bahamas	...	49.82	49.72	50.12	50.42	50.02	49.72	48.82
Barbados	49.93	50.13	50.03	51.13	51.33	...	...	...
Belize	...	35.01	34.01	...	...	36.53	35.91	37.71
Dominica	...	43.83	...	...	...	...	...	...
Grenada	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Guyana	...	...	34.72	...	...	...	...	...
Jamaica	45.03	44.93	46.23	46.33	45.23	45.63	45.83	46.33
Saint Lucia	49.43	...	47.82	45.92	47.52	...	...	...
Suriname	...	...	...	...	38.13	...	...	...
Trinidad and Tobago	40	39.9	41.4	41.9	43.5	43.9	...	...

Source: Interagency and Expert Group (IAEG) on MDG Indicators through United Nations Statistics Division (<http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>), unless otherwise stated. Primary agency: International Labour Organization through specialized survey completed by labour departments. Guyana Millennium Development Goals Report 2007. Suriname Millennium Development Goals Report 2009.

*Indicator 3.3: Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament.*

Five Caribbean countries—Antigua and Barbuda, Dominica, Guyana, Trinidad and Tobago, and Suriname—have recorded a slight increase, in the proportion of females holding seats in the lower house. The proportion has declined in three countries, and has remained static in two (see table 12).

**TABLE 12**  
**PROPORTION OF SEATS IN NATIONAL PARLIAMENT HELD BY WOMEN**

Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Antigua and Barbuda	...	5.3	5.3	5.3	5.3	10.5	10.5	10.5	10.5	10.5	10.5
Bahamas	15	15	15	20	20	20	20	20	12.2	12.2	12.2
Barbados	10.7	10.7	10.7	10.7	13.3	13.3	13.3	13.3	10	10	10
Belize	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.9	3.3	6.7	6.7	6.7	3.3	0	0
Dominica	9.4	...	18.8	18.8	18.8	19.4	12.9	12.9	16.1	18.8	14.3
Grenada	...	26.7	26.7	26.7	26.7	26.7	26.7	26.7	26.7	13.3	13.3
Guyana	18.5	18.5	20	20	20	30.8	30.8	29	29	30	30
Jamaica	13.3	13.3	13.3	11.7	11.7	11.7	11.7	11.7	13.3	13.3	13.3
Saint Kitts and Nevis	13.3	13.3	13.3	13.3	13.3	0	0	0	6.7	6.7	6.7
Saint Lucia	11.1	11.1	...	11.1	11.1	11.1	11.1	5.61	11.1	11.1	11.1
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	4.8	4.8	22.7	22.7	22.7	22.7	18.2	18.2	18.2	18.2	21.7
Suriname	15.7	...	17.6	17.6	17.6	19.6	25.5	25.5	25.5	25.5	25.5
Trinidad and Tobago	11.1	...	16.7	19.4	19.4	19.4	19.4	19.4	26.8	26.8	26.8

Source: Interagency and Expert Group (IAEG) on MDG Indicators through United Nations Statistics Division (<http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>), unless otherwise stated. Primary agency: International Parliamentary Union through submission from national parliaments.

1. From Guyana Millennium Development Goals Report 2007.
2. From Suriname Millennium Development Goals Report 2009
3. Transition years; ratios would have changed with change in administration



Available information shows that there were a total of twelve general elections in the Caribbean during the 2007 to 2010 period. Guyana is the only country that had recent elections that resulted in female candidates being elected to more than 27% of the seats in the lower house. Additionally, Guyana is the only Caribbean country that has implemented a quota of 30% for women's participation in political parties. The proportion of seats in the lower house held by women in that country stood at 30% in July 2010.<sup>9</sup> In contrast, less than 10% of the seats in their lower houses in Belize, and Saint Kitts and Nevis are held by female politicians. These countries' proportions of elected female politicians have remained unchanged from 1990 levels. All other countries of the subregion have increased their proportions of elected female representatives by between 4.3 percentage points and 13.3 percentage points (see table 12). The Caribbean Institute of Women in Leadership is an initiative to promote greater participation of women in politics (see box 4).

In the 2010 elections in Trinidad and Tobago, a woman was elected as Prime Minister for the first time. During the review period, the subregion has appointed two female heads of state. Nevertheless, while there has been some improvement in women's representation in the political arena in the Caribbean, there is still a long way to go for meaningful gender equality to be achieved. The selection of female candidates to participate in politics therefore remains an issue to be addressed, since women are underrepresented in a number of areas in political life, even though they represent over 50% of the voting population. The International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance (International IDEA) identifies a number of obstacles to women's participation in parliament (International IDEA, 2002), many of which are consistent with the limitations to women's participation in leadership and decision-making in the Caribbean. Some of the obstacles faced include:

- Lack of support for the inclusion of female candidates by political parties (political parties are considered to be the 'schools' which educate and produce future parliamentarians)
- Lack of party support, including financial resources
- Ideological, social and cultural barriers (including race and class)
- Lack of training and confidence among women to engage in politics, and media portrayal of women in politics.

#### **BOX 4 INITIATIVES TO PROMOTE GREATER PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN IN POLITICS**

The Caribbean Institute of Women in Leadership is an initiative developed to train and support women in politics and decision-making in order to hasten the transformation of politics and governance in the Caribbean towards the achievement of sustainable development. The Institute was conceived in 2005 and launched in 2009. It is a partnership of United Nations agencies, the Commonwealth Secretariat and NGOs. The main purpose of CIWIL is to produce high-quality research, documentation, analysis, training and advocacy to advance women's transformational leadership and increase the number of women in politics, leadership and decision-making at all levels in the Caribbean.

The regional Steering Committee, with representatives from governments and NGOs, has been active in organizing activities to develop the institution, and maintains a support network for women in politics through virtual discussions with its members

<sup>9</sup> See [online]: <http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/arc/classif310710.htm>

## GOAL 4. Reduced child mortality

### Target 4.A: Reduce by two thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the under-five mortality rate

#### Indicators 4.1 and 4.2: Under-five mortality rate and infant mortality rate

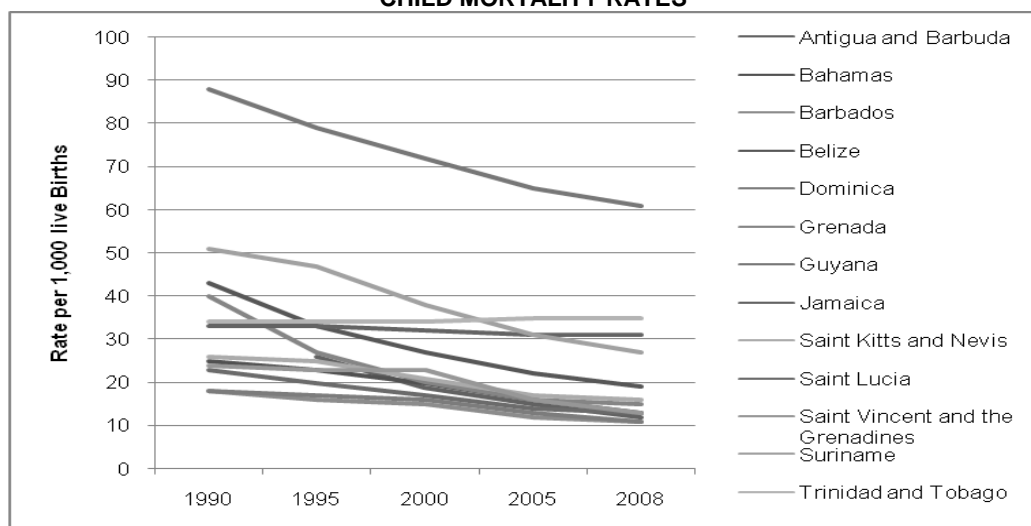
Child mortality rates declined between 1990 and 2008 in all Caribbean countries (see table 13 and figure 9). Rates moved from a high of 88 deaths (Guyana) and 51 deaths (Suriname) per 1,000 live births in 1990 to 61 deaths (Guyana) and 35 deaths (Trinidad and Tobago) deaths per 1,000 live births in 2008. Suriname, Guyana and Belize had higher infant and under-five mortality rates than the rest of the subregion but have been able to reduce these significantly over the years since 1990. Grenada also showed a remarkably steep decline in both mortality rates.

**TABLE 13**  
**UNDER-FIVE MORTALITY RATE PER 1, 000 LIVE BIRTHS**

Country	1990	1995	2000	2005	2008
Antigua and Barbuda	...	26	19	15	12
Bahamas	25	23	20	16	13
Barbados	18	16	15	12	11
Belize	43	33	27	22	19
Dominica	18	17	16	13	11
Grenada	40	27	20	16	15
Guyana	88	79	72	65	61
Jamaica	33	33	32	31	31
Saint Kitts and Nevis	26	25	21	17	16
Saint Lucia	23	20	17	14	13
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	24	23	23	16	13
Suriname	51	47	38	31	27
Trinidad and Tobago	34	34	34	35	35

Source: United Nations Statistics Division, see [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>

**FIGURE 9**  
**CHILD MORTALITY RATES**



Source: United Nations Statistics Division, see [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>

Countries reporting progress towards Goal 4 have cited immunization as the main contributing factor. Jamaica reported, however, that immunization coverage has declined in recent years as a result of severe staff shortages at immunization clinics and community health posts, relaxation of the requirement for immunization as a precondition for school enrolment, and lack of vigilance on the part of parents, especially the younger cohorts (Planning Institute of Jamaica, 2009a). Apart from staff shortages, other factors contributing to a slowdown in the rate of reduction of child mortality include acute respiratory infections (pneumonia), diarrhoea and worm infestations in Guyana (Guyana Millennium Development Goals Report, 2007). Jamaica also cited complications during the neo-natal period (Planning Institute of Jamaica, 2009a).

Infant mortality rates for the Caribbean exhibit the same declining pattern as do child mortality rates (see table 14). Starting from a high in 1990 of 64 deaths (Guyana) and 44 deaths (Suriname) per 1,000 live births, infant mortality has declined to 47 deaths (Guyana) and 31 deaths (Trinidad and Tobago) per 1,000 live births in 2008. The similarities in trend underscore the fact that infant mortality is the key determining factor in child mortality.

**TABLE 14**  
**INFANT MORTALITY RATE PER 1, 000 LIVE BIRTHS**

Country	1990	1995	2000	2005	2008
Antigua and Barbuda	...	22	17	13	11
Bahamas	17	15	13	11	9
Barbados	15	14	13	11	10
Belize	35	27	23	19	17
Dominica	15	15	14	11	9
Grenada	33	23	18	14	13
Guyana	64	59	54	49	47
Jamaica	28	27	27	26	26
Saint Kitts and Nevis	22	21	18	15	14
Saint Lucia	18	16	14	14	13
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	19	19	19	14	12
Suriname	44	41	33	28	25
Trinidad and Tobago	30	30	30	31	31

Source: United Nations Statistics Division at [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>

Levels of infant mortality recorded for several countries are comparable to those registered for developed countries. There has been a more marked slowdown in the infant mortality rates in recent years, however, and the two trends appear to be converging

Child and infant mortality rates recorded in 1990 averaged 35.3 and 28.3 deaths per 1,000 live births, respectively. Using these averages as a baseline, and taking account of target 4.A and of the importance of infant mortality to child survival, the 2015 targets for child and infant mortality across the subregion should average 11.7 and 9.4 deaths per 1,000 live births, respectively. This suggests that, despite the slowdown in the rates, child and infant mortality rates would have to be reduced over the next five years at twice the rate achieved in the 1990 to 2008 period.

Achievement of the necessary reduction will require advances in areas such as mother-to-child transmission of HIV and AIDS, violence against children, and manslaughter due to traffic-related and other accidents. There is also a need to address lifestyle issues that may affect the health of newborn and young children, such as obesity in pregnant mothers. These issues are similar to those raised in the 2004 report (UNDP, 2004), wherein public health issues were recognized as critical to further improvement in

child mortality rates. This recognition points to the need for multisectoral interventions, such as public education and awareness campaigns.

*Indicator 4.3: Proportion of 1-year-old children immunized against measles*

Reflecting reliance on immunization as a measure to control preventable diseases and so reduce child- and infant mortality rates, only two countries of the subregion, Jamaica and Suriname, have recorded immunization coverage of less than 90% of the population of children of the recommended age in 2008 (see table 15). This is an improvement on rates of coverage as low as 86% recorded in 1990, and reflects a commitment to a 90% threshold. A subregional and national vaccination campaign led by the Caribbean Epidemiological Centre (CAREC) in 1991, comprising an active and sensitive surveillance approach known as the ‘Fever with Rash’ system, has contributed significantly to this improvement. There have been no confirmed cases of indigenous measles recorded since 1992.

Instances of immunization rates falling below the threshold have not been limited to Suriname and Jamaica. In fact, unlike the case of child and infant mortality trends, there have been marked fluctuations in several country immunization rates of between 88% and 95% since 1990.

**TABLE 15**  
**IMMUNIZATION AGAINST MEASLES**

Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Antigua and Barbuda	95	97	99	99	97	99	99	99	99
Bahamas	93	92	94	90	89	85	88	96	90
Barbados	94	93	91	90	98	93	92	75	92
Belize	96	94	88	96	97	95	99	96	96
Dominica	99	99	98	99	99	98	99	96	99
Grenada	92	99	96	99	74	99	98	98	99
Guyana	86	92	93	89	88	92	90	96	95
Jamaica	88	85	86	79	86	84	87	76	88
Saint Kitts and Nevis	99	90	99	98	98	99	99	99	99
Saint Lucia	88	89	98	90	95	94	94	94	99
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	96	98	99	94	99	97	99	99	99
Suriname	70	82	73	69	86	99	83	85	86
Trinidad and Tobago	90	91	87	88	95	93	89	91	91

Source: United Nations Statistics Division at [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>

## **GOAL 5: Improved maternal health**

### **Target 5.A: Reduce by three quarters, between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio**

*Indicator 5.1: Maternal mortality ratio*

The maternal mortality ratio is the annual number of female deaths from any cause related to, or aggravated by, pregnancy or its management (excluding accidental or incidental causes) during pregnancy and childbirth, or within 42 days of termination of pregnancy, irrespective of the duration and site of the pregnancy, for a specified year. Since it is a relatively rare event, maternal mortality ratio is expressed per 100,000 live births. It also means that large sample sizes are needed if household surveys are used. There are further difficulties in measuring maternal mortality. Vital Registration and Health Information Systems in most developing countries are weak, and thus cannot provide an accurate assessment of maternal mortality. Even estimates derived from complete Vital Statistics Systems, such as those in developed and some Caribbean countries, suffer from misclassification and underreporting of maternal deaths.

*Indicator 5.2: Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel.*

The proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel is a useful indicator for measuring a health system's ability to provide adequate care for pregnant women. Despite the added value, the term "skilled attendant" may not necessarily capture women's access to good quality health care adequately, particularly when complications arise.

The proportion of women in the Caribbean subregion attended by skilled health professionals during delivery averages 99% or more for most countries (see table 6). This reflects improvements made in recent years. Notably, the country with the lowest proportion is Suriname with 90%.

Maternal mortality is still very high in Guyana and Jamaica, whereas Belize and Suriname have made great progress in lowering their rates. Although starting from lower levels, Trinidad and Tobago has made less progress and additional efforts are needed.

Countries reporting on Millennium Development Goals progress have indicated that the occurrence of non-communicable diseases and the impact of HIV and AIDS are key factors preventing satisfactory reductions in maternal mortality rates. Jamaica reports that, aside from HIV and AIDS-related impacts on maternal health and survival, maternal deaths have been caused by heart disease and diabetes. The report further indicates that heart disease has become the second leading cause of death in Jamaica. The Guyana Millennium Development Goals Report 2007 lists the major causes of maternal deaths during the 2002-2004 period as haemorrhaging during pregnancy and childbirth, abortion during childbirth, and non-obstetric causes (Government of Guyana, 2007).

**TABLE 16**  
**PERCENTAGE OF BIRTHS ATTENDED BY SKILLED HEALTH PROFESSIONALS**

Country	2000	2004	2005	2006	2007
Antigua and Barbuda	99.9	100.0	99.9	99.9	100.0
Bahamas	99.0	...	...	99.0	99.0
Barbados	98.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	...
Belize	...	...	...	95.8	94.6
Dominica	100.0	100.0	99.0	...	94.03
Grenada	100.0	...	100.0	...	98.8
Guyana	85.6	...	...	83.3	...
Jamaica	...	...	96.713	...	...
Saint Kitts and Nevis	99.4	100.0	100.0	...	100.0
Saint Lucia	100.0	100.0	100.0	97.9	...
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	100.0	...	100.0	...	100.0
Suriname	84.5	...	...	89.8	...
Trinidad and Tobago	96.0	...	...	97.8	...

Source: United Nations Statistics Division at [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>

**Target 5.B: Achieve, by 2015, universal access to reproductive health.**

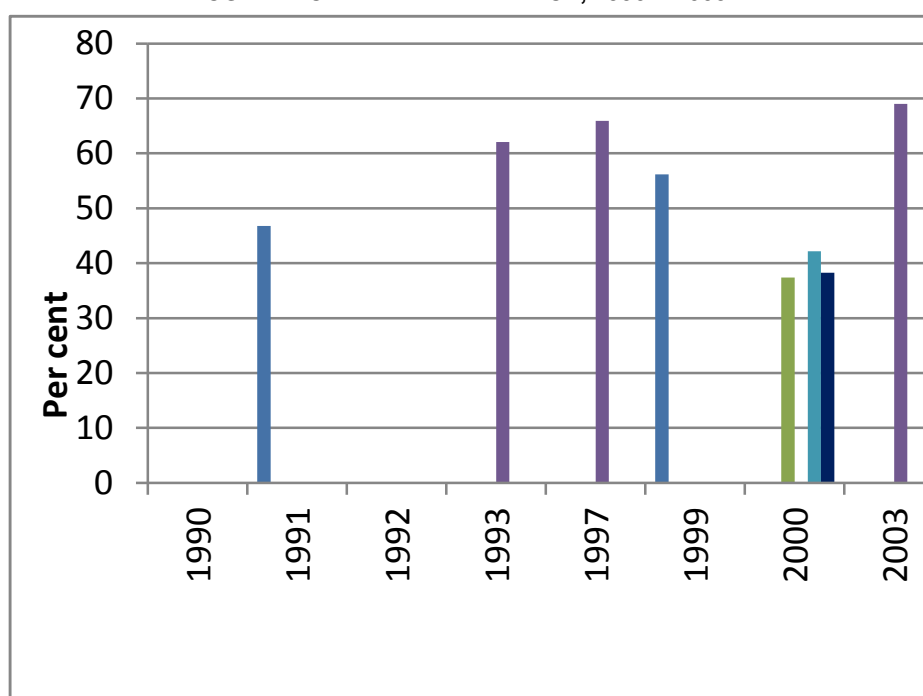
Achieving universal access to reproductive health remains a challenge in the subregion. High rates of sexual activity combined with low contraceptive use, have resulted in worrying levels of adolescent pregnancy. Nearly 20% of live births in the Caribbean are to adolescent mothers. Age considerations hinder universal access to reproductive health. This includes limited access to comprehensive sex education and to youth-friendly services, such as counselling on and access to contraception (ECLAC/UNFPA, 2009).

*Indicator 5.3: Contraceptive prevalence rate*

Limited data and information on contraceptive prevalence exist, since there are no registers and surveys have been sporadic. The available data show that contraceptive prevalence across the subregion ranged between 30% and 50% over the period between 1990 and 2005 (see figure 10). During the same period, contraceptive prevalence across Latin America mostly exceeded 60%, with the highest rates recorded by Costa Rica (80.0%) and Puerto Rico (84.1%). The Caribbean subregion rates are median, yet significantly lower than those of developed countries.

Data on unmet need for family planning are sparser than those of contraceptive needs. Since 1990, only two countries—Jamaica and Belize—have reported survey results on unmet family planning needs. In both countries, the indicated level has ranged from 11.7% to 25%. Unwanted pregnancies are often found at either very young or relatively higher ages or might lead to short birth intervals. These conditions all increase risk levels, so that meeting family planning needs would impact both maternal health and child mortality positively.

**FIGURE 10**  
**CONTRACEPTIVE PREVALENCE, 1990 – 2005**



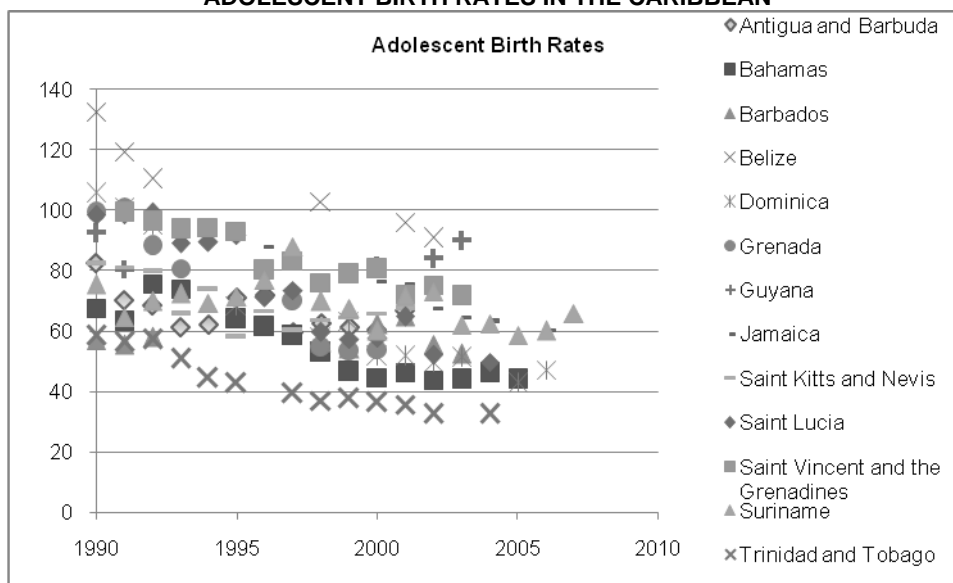
Source: United Nations Statistics Division at [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>

#### *Indicator 5.4: Adolescent birth rate*

Recent statistics show that almost 20% of live births in the subregion have been to adolescent mothers (see figure 11). Data from Dominica and Saint Lucia show that, in 2005, approximately 16 % of live births have been to adolescent mothers. For the same period, 19% of live births in Saint Kitts and Nevis were to adolescents. In 2004, some 6% of adolescent girls aged 15 – 19 in Saint Lucia and Saint Vincent and the Grenadines and 4% in Barbados gave birth. In Antigua and Barbuda, 2.2 % of adolescent girls aged 15 – 19 gave birth (Lorraine Blank, 2007). These trends suggest high levels of sexual activity combined with low contraceptive use. Lack of access to sex education and to contraceptives, therefore, constitutes an unmet need for this group. This is of particular importance, since pregnant adolescents are at increased risk of morbidity and mortality due to complications during pregnancy and childbirth, including obstructed labour, preterm labour and spontaneous abortion. Age

considerations can also impede access to universal reproductive health services, such as comprehensive sex education and youth counselling on, and access to, contraception (ECLAC/UNFPA, 2009). Notwithstanding the sparseness of recent data, they are sufficient to identify that, though high, the levels of adolescent births have been declining for most countries since 1990.

**FIGURE 11**  
**ADOLESCENT BIRTH RATES IN THE CARIBBEAN**



Source: United Nations Statistics Division, [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>

**Indicator 5.5: Antenatal care coverage (at least one visit and at least 4 visits)**

Most countries of the subregion have reported women as making at least one antenatal visit for more than one of the years between 1990 and 2007. The proportion recorded has been in excess of 90% for all reporting countries. The few notable exceptions are Antigua and Barbuda in 1998 (82.0%), and Guyana (80.9%) and Saint Lucia (47.8%) in 2000. In addition, the two countries—Belize and Jamaica—which have reported four or more antenatal visits, record much lower percentages. These were 76.4% for Belize in 1991 and 87.2% for Jamaica in 1997.<sup>10</sup>

**Other issues identified**

There are several other factors which impact Goal 5 in the Caribbean subregion. The first of these is the typically young age of sexual initiation and the fact that it is often forced (Jones, A. and Jemmott, E. Trotman, 2009). Furthermore, the health system is affected by the migration of skilled health workers in search of better opportunities in other countries. The costs of health care, resulting from an ageing population and limited economies of scale, have been increasing. This makes further improvements challenging. The profile of maternal deaths has changed as well; there is a higher concentration now among adolescents, as a result of lifestyle-related indirect causes such as obesity, diabetes and HIV and AIDS. Furthermore, indicators on the availability and use of emergency obstetric care facilities, as opposed to the often under- or misreported maternal health figures, reveal that the health care system is overburdened and has limited capacity (ECLAC, 2009).

Lack of sufficient data makes it extremely difficult to assess progress towards Goal 5. Although most indicators show favourable trends, improvements may, in fact, be taking place much more slowly.

<sup>10</sup> See [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>.

The key areas of concern mentioned above will need to be addressed in order to reach Targets 5a and 5b. Many of these issues are addressed in other Goals: thus, realizing success in Goal 5 depends on overall progress in all of the other Millennium Development Goals.

## **GOAL 6: Reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS and other communicable diseases**

The Caribbean has the record of being the geographical region with the second highest HIV prevalence rate worldwide. While the rate has shown signs of stabilizing amongst the general population, there is growing concern that progress may not be as advanced amongst vulnerable or most at-risk groups. These have been identified as men who have sex with men, commercial sex workers, prisoners, persons living with HIV, and migrant and/or mobile populations. Recognizing the implications for national development and poverty eradication, Caribbean countries have integrated measures to address HIV and AIDS into their national development plans and/or Poverty Reduction Strategies.

### **Target 6.A: Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS**

HIV prevalence rates for 2001 and 2008 across the Caribbean, as well as the estimated number of persons living with HIV and AIDS, were available for only six of the countries covered in the present report. The data show a reduction or no change in prevalence rates for three of the countries—Barbados, Belize and Guyana (see table 17). For the other three countries, Suriname, Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago, prevalence rates have increased over the same period. Consistent estimates of prevalence rates continue to be difficult to achieve and the range in the reported data for 2008 suggests that any conclusion regarding progress toward combating and reversing the spread of the disease using this indicator should be viewed with caution (see table 18).

**TABLE 17**  
**PREVALENCE RATE PER 100,000 POPULATION LIVING WITH HIV AND AIDS**

Country	2001		2007	
	Prevalence	Persons living with HIV/AIDS	Prevalence	Persons living with HIV/AIDS
Barbados	1.2	2 100	1.2	2 200
Belize	2.1	2 900	0.77 (2009)	3 600
Guyana	2.5	12 000	2.5	13 000
Jamaica	1.4	22 000	1.6	27 000
Suriname	1.3	35 000	2.4	68 000
Trinidad and Tobago	0.9 (2001) <sup>1</sup>	...	1.0 (2008) <sup>1</sup>	...
	1.4	12 000	1.5	14 000

Source: UNAIDS, 2008 Report on the Global AIDS Epidemic.

### **Gender and HIV and AIDS**

There are concerns regarding the impact of the epidemic among women, particularly those in the younger age groups. The Caribbean epidemic occurs within the context of gender inequalities, marked by a thriving cocaine and sex industry which services a local and foreign clientele, and widespread movement of persons. Sex between men is a smaller but very important factor in the spread of the disease but remains a hidden issue (UNAIDS, 2007).

Prevalence rates in the Caribbean subregion show a consistent and increasing trend towards “feminization”. Although there continue to be more cases of new infection amongst males than females, the rate of increase for women in the 15 to 24 age group has risen. The male-to-female ratio in the Caribbean population living with HIV has shifted, from 65% male to 35% females in 1990, to 52% male



to 48% female in 2007. This reflects an almost 40% rise in the number of women living with HIV in the Caribbean in the 17-year period (UNAIDS, 2009). Female education and empowerment and improved access to reproductive health and rights are key for success.

**TABLE 18**  
**COMPARATIVE HIV PREVALENCE RATES AMONGST 15 TO 24 YEAR-OLDS, 2004 AND 2008**

Countries	2004 estimates	2008 estimates	2008 range
Barbados	1.5	1.2	0.8--1.7
Belize	2.4	2.1	1.2--3.1
British Virgin Islands	n.a.	0.03 (2006) <sup>3</sup>	n.a.
Guyana	2.5	2.5	1.4--3.7
Jamaica	1.2	1.6	1.1--2.1
Trinidad and Tobago	3.2	1.5	1.0--2.1
Suriname <sup>4</sup>	0.9	1.0	1.5--4.3

Sources: 2004 Caribbean MDG achievement report; Interagency and Expert Group (IAEG) on MDG Indicators through United Nations Statistics Division (<http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>); Plan of Action for Localizing MDG, British Virgin Islands; Suriname Millennium Development Goals Report 2009

*Indicator 6.1: HIV prevalence amongst population aged 15 to 24 years*

The Pan Caribbean Partnership against HIV and AIDS (PANCAP) (see box 5) indicates that prevalence rates amongst young people in the Caribbean range from 0.08% to 3.2%. Caribbean youth face significant barriers to accessing sexual, reproductive and HIV health services and many have yet to adopt consistent safer-sex behaviour. Furthermore, young women are especially subject to pressures for intergenerational and/or transactional sex; forced sexual debut is a major issue affecting many young people (Bombereau and Allen, 2008).

**BOX 5**  
**PAN-CARIBBEAN PARTNERSHIP**

Caribbean regional coordination and collaboration on HIV/AIDS was significantly improved in 2001 with the formation of the Pan-Caribbean Partnership against HIV and AIDS (PANCAP), and the development of a Regional Strategic Framework. PANCAP was charged with a comprehensive mandate articulated through the Caribbean Regional HIV/AIDS Strategic Framework. Through their PANCAP collaboration, the Caribbean partners working in the field of HIV/AIDS have been able to promote and/or contribute to improvements in policy and legislation and social and public education programmes aimed at reducing stigma and at enabling an improved quality of life for persons living with HIV/AIDS.

With the support of UNAIDS, PANCAP has played a key role in the negotiations for price reductions of ARV drugs for the subregion and has represented the Caribbean at international forums to highlight the seriousness of the epidemic and to share best practices with the rest of the world.

The Caribbean Epidemiology Centre (CAREC) has reported (CAREC/PAHO/WHO) that the prevalence rates among the younger age group in the Caribbean has increased steadily and has become the leading cause of death amongst 15- to 24-year-olds (UNAIDS, 2007).

*Indicator 6.2: Condom use at last high risk sex*

Nearly 40% of persons living with HIV and AIDS do not use condoms and over 25% do not know their partner's HIV status. Moreover, less than one-third had disclosed their own status to their sexual partner (CARICOM/PANCAP, 2008). This underscores the risks attached to the failure to use condoms.

In an effort to change such behavioural patterns, barriers to condom use have been identified and a regional model condom policy developed, to aid the promotion of consistent and proper use of both

male and female condoms (Pan Caribbean Partnership against HIV/AIDS, 2008). HIV education and prevention programmes promoting condom use as an effective protective mechanism against HIV infection have contributed to increased condom distribution and sales throughout the subregion. In Jamaica, recent data seem to indicate that the behavioural change communication programmes have also begun to contribute to sustained safe-sex behaviour among the adult population (see box 6).

The programmes have met with some resistance, however, and a number of Caribbean countries maintain laws and policies that undermine efforts toward education about condom use and, by extension, thwart universal access.

#### **BOX 6** **TRENDS IN CONDOM USE IN JAMAICA**

Condom distribution and sales in Jamaica have increased from approximately 2.5 million condoms in 1985 to approximately 10 million annually since 1995. The proportion of condoms sold has increased from 30% to 70% during the same period. The proportion of men aged 15–49 years reporting condom use at last sex with a non-regular partner in Jamaica has been approximately 75% since 1992, based on periodic national KAP surveys with population-based samples. Among women aged 15–49 years, reported condom use at last sex with a non-regular partner has increased from 37% in 1992 to 73% in 1996 and declined somewhat to 66% in 2004. These data suggest that the behavioural change communication programmes in Jamaica have contributed to sustained safer sex-behaviour among the majority of the adult population. At the same time, a significant proportion of persons (approximately 25% of men and 34% of women in 2004) continue to be at risk of HIV infection due to failure to use condoms with a non-regular sexual partner.

#### *Indicator 6.3: Proportion of population aged 15-24 with comprehensive and correct knowledge of HIV and AIDS*

A 2008 survey undertaken by the UNICEF office for Barbados and the Eastern Caribbean identified a relatively high level of awareness of HIV and AIDS in the Caribbean. The survey found that 80.1% of respondents rated their knowledge of HIV and AIDS as very good (30.4%) or fairly good (49.7%), and that young people were generally knowledgeable about the meaning of HIV and AIDS, its transmission modes and the means of protection. They cited school and media campaigns as their main sources of information (UNICEF, 2008).

These results indicate that the number of young persons with comprehensive and correct knowledge of HIV and AIDS is increasing in the Caribbean, which is attributed, in part, to the proliferation of media and other campaigns at both national and subregional levels. Other contributing factors include national level comprehensive education and intensive communication programmes which tend to be focused on teenagers and young adults. In addition, Ministries of Education across the subregion have implemented health and family life curricula within schools aimed at increasing students' capacity to protect themselves against HIV infection.

Notwithstanding such survey results, in general, high levels of knowledge amongst Caribbean people regarding HIV and AIDS and how it may be prevented has not resulted in safer sex practices (Figueroa, 2008). This has been mainly due to a number of myths that continue to prevail, which have led to the misconception that contraction of HIV/AIDS can be avoided even with unprotected sex or that infected persons can be identified on sight.

**Target 6.B: Achieve, by 2010, universal access to treatment for HIV/AIDS for all those who need it**

*Indicator 6.5: Proportion of population with advanced HIV infection with access to anti-retroviral drugs*

There has been notable progress in the subregion in terms of access to prevention and treatment and antiretroviral (ART) drugs. These efforts are often stymied by barriers such as entrenched social norms, beliefs, policy and legislation. These create highly stigmatized environments where discrimination, homophobia and violence against certain groups thrive, preventing them from further progress in decreasing the transmission and incidence of HIV (ECOSOC, 2009).

The Caribbean has noted significant progress in the provision of care, treatment and support and towards improving the quality of life of persons living with HIV. Estimates show that the number of people receiving treatment is increasing, from 4,000 in 2003 to 30,000 (between 25,000 and 35,000) in 2007. There has been a significant increase in the percentage of persons living with HIV/AIDS who receive antiretroviral treatment (see table 19). Efforts at addressing HIV and AIDS across the subregion have led to an increase in antiretroviral treatment, scaling up of programmes to prevent mother-to-child transmission of HIV, and of social and public education programmes aimed at reducing stigma and at enabling an improved quality of life for persons living with AIDS. In the Bahamas, Barbados, Jamaica, and Trinidad and Tobago, there have been special efforts to reduce morbidity and mortality through enabling wider access to anti-retroviral treatment.

**TABLE 19**  
**ANTIRETROVIRAL THERAPY AMONGST PEOPLE LIVING WITH HIV/AIDS**  
(Percentage)

Country	2006	2007
Barbados	67	73
Belize	42	49
Guyana	37	45
Jamaica	33	43
Suriname	35	45
Trinidad and Tobago	53	58

Source: United Nations Statistics Division, [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>

Factors contributing to the improved access to ART may include higher priority being placed on programmes to support education, training of health care providers, and safety of blood supply as a part of the early response to the epidemic. In recent years, however, governments have been able to access significant funding and technical support from the World Bank and the Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria (GTATM). This has allowed Caribbean Governments to shift their response to one of greater multi-sectoral responsibility for combating HIV and AIDS with a vision of achieving region-wide impact (see box 7).

### BOX 7 THE “3 BY 5” PROJECT

The “3 by 5” project to bring ART to three million people by the end of 2005 was a successful initiative in the Caribbean and the momentum it created continued during 2006-2007. ART coverage has increased in the majority of countries and more and more people who need such treatment are accessing it. This was made possible because of the introduction and promotion of new standards, policies and norms in the provision of care and treatment in the health sector and at community level.

The quality and standard of ART in the Caribbean is noteworthy. The positive development, as reported by many countries, is that the majority of people on ART are still receiving it after 12 months of beginning treatment. This is an important marker in terms of patient follow-up and quality of care. In addition, there has been a significant (85%) reduction in the number of annual deaths attributed to AIDS, between 2001 and 2006.

#### **Target 6.C: Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases.**

##### *Indicator 6.6: Incidence and death rates associated with malaria*

Whilst there has been an overall decline in the incidence of malaria throughout the Caribbean since 2004, the mainland countries—Belize, Guyana and Suriname—remain at high risk, reflecting the greater challenge posed by their larger, forested areas. In Guyana, cases of malaria have intensified because of the increase in the number of people involved in mining and logging activities. These activities are based in remote areas and, in some cases, are virtually impossible to reach, meaning that patients do not have access to medication in time (Guyana Millennium Development Goals Report, 2007). In Suriname, due to a number of preventative interventions by the Government, there has been reduction in the total number of positive cases, from 12,197 in 2001 to 1,487 in 2008, a reduction of almost 90%. Moreover, *artemether lumefantrine* (Coartem®) treatment has reduced the malaria mortality to zero in the years 2005 to 2008 (Government of the Republic of Suriname, 2009).

In 2006, Jamaica experienced a small outbreak of malaria—186 imported cases. This was followed by local transmission in 2007 so that the cumulative total was 386 cases by September 2008 (Planning Institute of Jamaica, 2009). This underscores the fact that the vector mosquito is still present in the insular Caribbean. Countries maintain vigilance in order to prevent re-introduction and local transmission.

Suriname is in the process of implementing a Malaria Reduction Programme in order to eradicate the disease, especially within high risk areas such as goldmines (Government of the Republic of Suriname, 2009). Guyana has executed public education campaigns targeted at the prevention, early detection and treatment of malaria, including the establishment of malaria committees in schools and villages, coordinated by trained Ministry of Health personnel (Guyana Millennium Development Goals Report, 2007). The rest of the Caribbean has increased surveillance and vector control activities. As such, better containment of malaria from mainland countries can be accomplished once the effort is made to enhance proper vector surveillance across their vast territories by 2015. A multifaceted approach, including stronger political will at the national, regional and international levels, sustained public education and health programmes for local populations, and improved hygiene to reduce mosquito breeding sites, will contribute to a realization of the target (CARICOM, 2004).

##### *Indicator 6.9: Incidence, prevalence and death rates associated with tuberculosis*

The incidence and prevalence of tuberculosis in the Caribbean varies widely (CARICOM, 2004). Two Member countries reported extremely high prevalence rates per 100,000 population in 2008, Suriname (rising from 160 in 2000 to 270 in 2008) and Guyana (falling from 130 in 2000 to 110 in 2008).

Associated Territory Antigua and Barbuda (0.4) and Member State Barbados (0.9) reported the lowest prevalence rates in 2008. The OECS countries managed to more than halve their prevalence rates between 2000 and 2008. Most countries have included tuberculosis treatment programmes in the National Health Strategic Plans with satisfactory results (see table 20).

**TABLE 20**  
**TUBERCULOSIS PREVALENCE RATE PER 100 000 POPULATION**

Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Antigua and Barbuda	8.3	1	10	0.8	1.1	5.9	2.2	0.7	0.4
Bahamas	17	5.1	10	3.6	14	4.1	3.4	7.8	8.6
Barbados	0.4	2.5	0.8	1.2	4.1	1.2	1	11	0.9
Belize	11	12	12	12	23	28	37	42	43
Dominica	42	33	33	33	40	7.1	4.1	4.4	6.7
Grenada	6.2	12	8.8	8.3	7.3	8.6	7.2	4.5	1.8
Guyana	130	120	110	99	98	99	100	89	110
Jamaica	5.9	6.3	6.6	5.8	6.9	7.2	7.8	9.2	7.9
Saint Kitts and Nevis	19	19	17	17	23	23	19	4.4	3.4
Saint Lucia	21	21	18	18	19	19	17	12	8.2
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	47	46	47	48	44	51	44	32	23
Suriname	160	160	160	170	180	200	220	250	270
Trinidad and Tobago	12	15	3.1	5.6	11	3.6	15	6.3	18

Source: United Nations Statistics Division, [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>

*Indicator 6.10: Proportion of tuberculosis cases detected and cured under directly observed treatment short course*

Many countries in the Eastern Caribbean have seen a downward trend in the number of reported cases for tuberculosis due to the use of the Directly Observed Treatment Short Course (DOTS). In Guyana, tuberculosis has been included under the Communicable Diseases National Priority Programme as it is considered one of the leading causes of death there (Guyana Millennium Development Goals Report, 2007). In 2005, there were 40 deaths attributed to the disease, of which 36 (90%) were HIV-related. This suggests that the (reported) increasing incidence of HIV and AIDS has also impacted on the increase in tuberculosis infections.

**Other health issues in the Caribbean and responses**

Most countries in the subregion have been experiencing an epidemiological transition, with persons dying from more non-communicable diseases. The major causes of death in the Caribbean are now diabetes, hypertension, stroke, heart disease and accidents and injuries. There is a growing concern over nutritional patterns and their impacts on health, including the growing incidence of obesity.

**GOAL 7: Environmental sustainability**

Goal 7 comprises four targets and a total of ten official indicators. As pointed out in the Caribbean Millennium Development Goals Report 2004, the global targets and indicators do not capture the reality of the Caribbean subregion, as the global scope of the Goals makes it necessary to consider priorities for the international perspective vis-à-vis specific regional, national or local relevance. The 2004 report further indicated that the main environmental issues facing the subregion were triggered by human factors such as over-fishing, pollution (primarily excess nutrient inflow), and smothering by sediments

released by soil erosion and deforestation. It also enumerates impacts from natural factors like hurricanes and a disease (probably viral) that wiped out a keystone species, the sea urchin (*Diadema antillarum*), in the mid-1980s.

Generally, the 2004 report called attention to environmental problems related to global climate change and the deterioration in the state of the coral reefs as the most pressing issues facing the subregion. In fact, the most relevant issues and priorities have been captured effectively in the Mauritius Strategy for Further Implementation of the Barbados Programme of Action for the Sustainable Development of Small Island Developing States (United Nations, 2005). In addition to climate change and sea level rise, those issues that correspond to Goal 7 include natural and environmental disasters, management of waste, and coastal, marine, land, freshwater, biodiversity and energy resources.

Available environmental data is not very up to date and in protected areas, enforcement or policing systems are usually weak and often suffer the adverse effects of limited financial resources to administer, or otherwise change, behavioural patterns. Where data constraints are concerned, the tendency noted in 2004 towards ad hoc studies, which make it impossible to calculate trends, remains virtually unchanged. Despite great progress over the past 10 years, the statistical data available for calculating the official and complementary indicators are still insufficient, particularly in certain countries and for certain variables. For example, there are no data for the calculation of indicator 7.4, the proportion of fish stocks within safe biological limits. Also, since indicator 7.7 (the proportion of species threatened with extinction) has been added recently, there are no historical series of comparable, harmonized statistics; there is only one estimate at the global level.

In an effort to make the Millennium Development Goals more relevant, the subregional indicators in the Statistical Annex (see annex) include coral reefs destroyed by human activity and natural disasters, and the economic losses and social dislocation caused by natural disasters. Notwithstanding, reporting in this chapter has centred on the official list of indicators.

**Target 7.A: Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes and reverse the loss of environmental resources.**

**Target 7.B: Reduce biodiversity loss, achieving, by 2010, a significant reduction in the rate of loss**

Achievement of targets 7A and 7B is gauged by indicators 7.1 to 7.7 which cover management of land, forest, terrestrial and marine biodiversity, fresh water resources, and carbon emissions and consumption of ozone-depleting substances. These aspects should be the focus of a national sustainable development strategy, or be fully incorporated into national development plans. Caribbean countries have reported mixed success, however, in integrating national sustainable development strategies, where they exist, into their national development plans (see table 21).

**TABLE 21**  
**INTEGRATION OF SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT INTO NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLANS AND STRATEGIES OF CARIBBEAN COUNTRIES**

Country	Name of Plan	Planning period	Level of success at integrating of NSDS
Antigua and Barbuda	National Environmental Management Strategy	2004 to 2009	Very well
Barbados	National Strategic Plan	2005 to 2025	Very well
Belize	Vision Document Horizon 2030	2010 to 2030	...
Dominica	Growth and Social Protection Strategy	2006 to 2010	Fairly well
Grenada	National Sustainable Energy Plan	2002	
	National Strategic Development Plan	2007 to 2011	Fairly well
	National Physical Development Plan	2003	
Guyana	Guyana National Development Strategy	2001 to 2010	Very well
	Guyana Low Carbon Development Strategy	2010	
Jamaica	Jamaica Vision 2030: National Development Plan	2005 to 2030	Very well
Saint Kitts and Nevis	Medium term Economic Strategies	3 years	With minimum success
Saint Lucia			Very well
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	National Economic and Social Development Plan	2010 to 2020	Fairly well
Suriname	Multi-Annual Development Plan	2006 to 2011	With minimum success
Trinidad and Tobago	Vision 2020	2005 to 2020	Very well

Source: ECLAC (2010), Caribbean Regional Report for the Five Year Review of the Mauritius Strategy for Further Implementation of the Barbados Programme of Action for Sustainable Development of Small Island Developing States (MSI+5), (LC/CAR/L.258). Santiago, Chile.

*Indicator 7.1: Proportion of land covered by forests.*

The metadata for this indicator use the FAO definition of forested areas, as “land spanning more than 0.5 hectares with trees higher than 5 metres and a canopy cover of more than 10%, or trees able to reach these thresholds in situ,”<sup>11</sup> and which includes neither land under cultivation nor urban park spaces. Data compiled by the United Nations Statistics Division for land covered by forest in 2005 show that Belize (72.5%), Guyana (76.7%) and Suriname (94.7%)—which are located on mainland Central and South America around the Caribbean basin—have much higher percentages of land covered by forest than the other countries of the Caribbean. Dominica (61.3%) is the only Caribbean SIDS in the insular Caribbean to have reported a significant proportion of forested area (see table 22).

<sup>11</sup> See [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Metadata.aspx>.

**TABLE 22**  
**PROPORTION OF LAND AREA COVERED BY FOREST**  
*(percentage)*

Country	1990	2000	2005
Antigua and Barbuda	21.4	21.4	21.4
Bahamas	51.5	51.5	51.5
Barbados	4	4	4
Belize	72.5	72.5	72.5
Dominica	66.7	63.1	61.3
Grenada	12.2	12.2	12.2
Guyana	76.7	76.7	76.7
Jamaica	31.9	31.5	31.3
Saint Kitts and Nevis	14.7	14.7	14.7
Saint Lucia	27.9	27.9	27.9
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	24.2	26.4	27.4
Suriname	94.7	94.7	94.7
Trinidad and Tobago	45.8	44.4	44.1

Source: United Nations Statistics Division, [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>

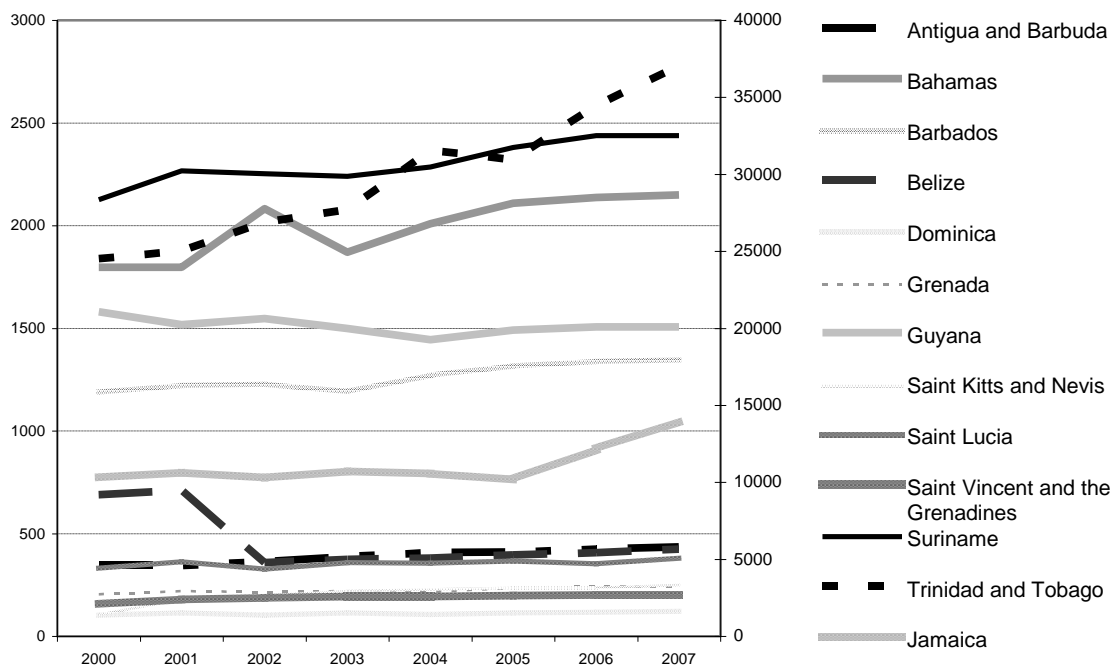
*Indicator 7.2: CO<sub>2</sub> emissions per capita (Caribbean)*

While CO<sub>2</sub> emissions have increased in absolute terms in the subregion (see figure 12 and table 23), total and per capita emission levels remain a small fraction of the levels of developed countries. With the exception of Trinidad and Tobago and Jamaica, per capita levels of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions have not exceeded 2,500 tons<sup>12</sup> since 1990. The levels of emissions of Trinidad and Tobago reflect the negative impacts on environmental sustainability of the country's oil, gas and heavy industry sectors. Although the country has supported some energy-efficiency initiatives, there are few economic incentives for reducing energy consumption.

<sup>12</sup> Carbon Dioxide Information Analysis Center (CDIAC). See [online]: <http://cdiac.ornl.gov/>



**FIGURE 12**  
**CARBON DIOXIDE EMISSIONS PER COUNTRY, 2000 TO 2007 (METRIC TONS)**



Source: United Nations Statistics Division, [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>

**TABLE 23**  
**CARBON DIOXIDE EMISSIONS (CO<sub>2</sub>) IN THOUSANDS OF METRIC TONS OF CO<sub>2</sub>**

Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Antigua and Barbuda	345	345	363	389	407	411	425	436
Bahamas	1 797	1 797	2 083	1 870	2 010	2 109	2 138	2 149
Barbados	1 188	1 221	1 228	1 192	1 272	1 316	1 338	1 346
Belize	689	711	359	374	381	396	407	425
Dominica	103	114	103	114	106	114	117	121
Grenada	205	220	216	220	216	235	242	242
Guyana	1 580	1 518	1 547	1 500	1 445	1 492	1 507	1 507
Jamaica	10 319	10 627	10 301	10 722	10 561	10 165	12 152	13 964
Saint Kitts and Nevis	103	183	198	220	227	235	235	249
Saint Lucia	330	363	326	359	356	367	352	381
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	158	180	187	194	194	198	202	202
Suriname	2 127	2 266	2 252	2 241	2 285	2 380	2 439	2 439
Trinidad and Tobago	24 514	25 024	26 890	27 697	31 555	30 949	34 481	37 037

Source: Carbon Dioxide Information Analysis Center (CDIAC). See [online]: <http://cdiac.ornl.gov/>

Taking into account emissions from the burning of fossil fuels and from cement production, but excluding those resulting from land-use change, the ratio of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions to GDP has fallen slightly. Notwithstanding the low emissions and the decline in per capita emission levels, progress toward greater efficiency is necessary in the context of climate change and the commitment to global measures for its mitigation.

One of the major challenges to reducing emissions in the subregion is posed by land-use change, particularly deforestation for conversion to agricultural use.

*Indicator 7.3: Consumption of ozone-depleting substances*

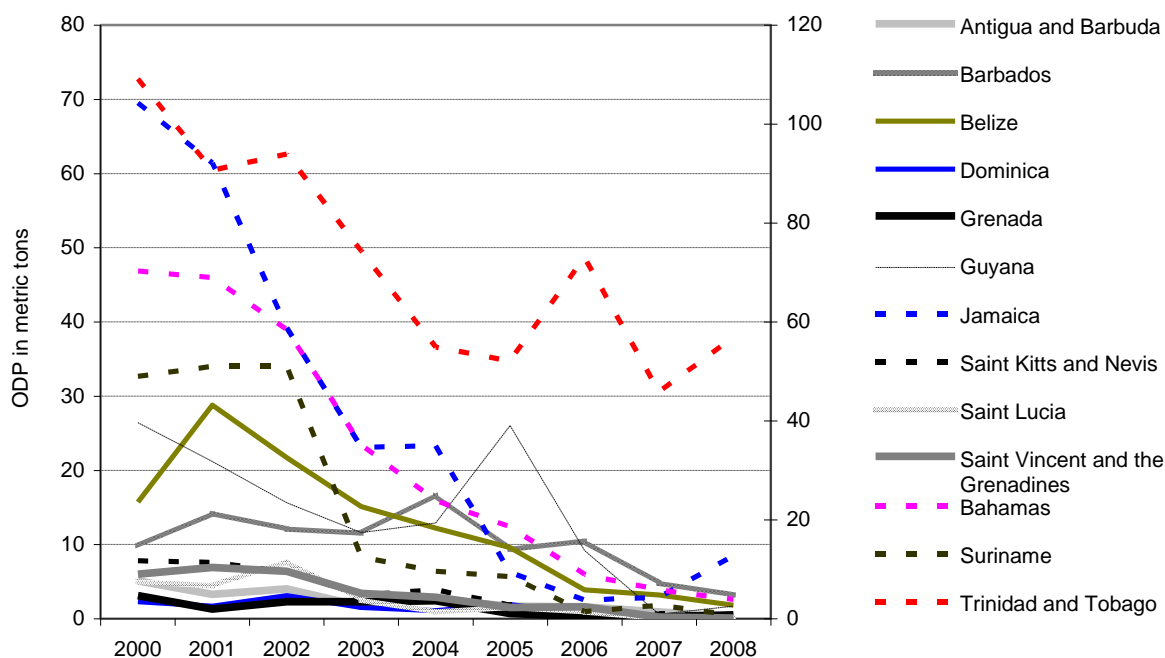
The strong commitment by Caribbean countries to protecting the ozone layer is evident in the decline in consumption of ozone-depleting substances by approximately 90%, from 1,098 metric tons to 78 metric tons between 1990 and 2008 (see table 24 and figure 13). This trend reflects efforts made in the framework of the Montreal Protocol, including international cooperation, technological progress and successful collaboration between the public and private sectors.

**TABLE 24**  
**CONSUMPTION OF ALL OZONE-DEPLETING SUBSTANCES IN ODP METRIC TONS**

Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Antigua and Barbuda	5.1	3.3	4	1.7	2.6	1.7	1.6	0.9	0.3
Bahamas	70.3	68.9	58.4	35.1	23.8	18.6	8.9	5.8	3.9
Barbados	9.8	14.2	12.1	11.5	16.7	9.3	10.5	4.8	3.2
Belize	15.7	28.8	21.7	15.1	12.2	9.6	3.9	3.2	1.8
Dominica	2.3	1.7	3.1	1.5	1.1	1.9	0.6	0	0
Grenada	3.1	1.3	2.3	2.3	2.4	0.7	0.3	0.2	0.5
Guyana	26.4	21.2	15.6	11.6	12.9	26	9.2	0.6	1.7
Jamaica	69.5	61.4	39.2	23.1	23.3	6.2	2.5	2.9	8.5
Saint Kitts and Nevis	7.8	7.6	6.3	3.2	3.9	1.8	1.1	0.6	0.4
Saint Lucia	5	4.4	7.7	2.5	0.9	1.5	0.9	0	0.1
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	6	6.9	6.4	3.4	2.9	1.5	1.6	0.2	0.1
Suriname	49	51	51	12.4	9.6	8.5	1.4	2.7	0.7
Trinidad and Tobago	109.1	90.7	93.9	74.4	54.9	52.1	73	45.8	56.8

Source: United Nations Statistics Division, [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>

**FIGURE 13**  
**CARIBBEAN CONSUMPTION OF OZONE-DEPLETING SUBSTANCES, 2000 TO 2008**



Source: United Nations Statistics Division, see [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>.

*Indicator 7.4: Proportion of fish stock within safe biological limits*

There are no statistics for this indicator. Research on the level of exploitation of fisheries, which provides an approximate view of the situation, suggests that fish stocks in the Caribbean are not among the most seriously threatened in the world when compared to those in regions such as the north-east Atlantic, the western Indian Ocean and the north-western Pacific. In the case of inland fisheries, the Caribbean subregion has a high proportion of the resources that are less exploited than the global average (FAO, 2009).

Notwithstanding these findings, sustainability of fish stocks is a pressing concern for the Caribbean given the importance of fishing as a source of livelihood. Rising ocean temperatures resulting from the changing global climate have led to the bleaching and deterioration of coral reefs. The impact of climate change on marine habitat has negative economic implications for the subregion. Reefs as biological formations are tourist attractions and lose their aesthetic value when they are bleached. Moreover, bleaching threatens the biological safety of fish since a high percentage of species depend on the reefs for their survival. The collapse of coral reefs would have broad-ranging impacts on the fishing industry and the overall ecology of the subregion (ECLAC, 2010a).

*Indicator 7.5: Proportion of total water resources used*

Whilst the Caribbean has only 15% of the world's land mass and 8.4% of its population, it receives 29% of its precipitation and has 33% of its renewable water resources (WWAP, 2009). Rainfall is the main source of water, supplying artificial dams and replenishing groundwater aquifers (ECLAC, 2010a). Rain water harvesting is practiced in some of the smaller island States and also in those where the topography limits access to a public distribution system. In some of the water-scarce countries, the use of

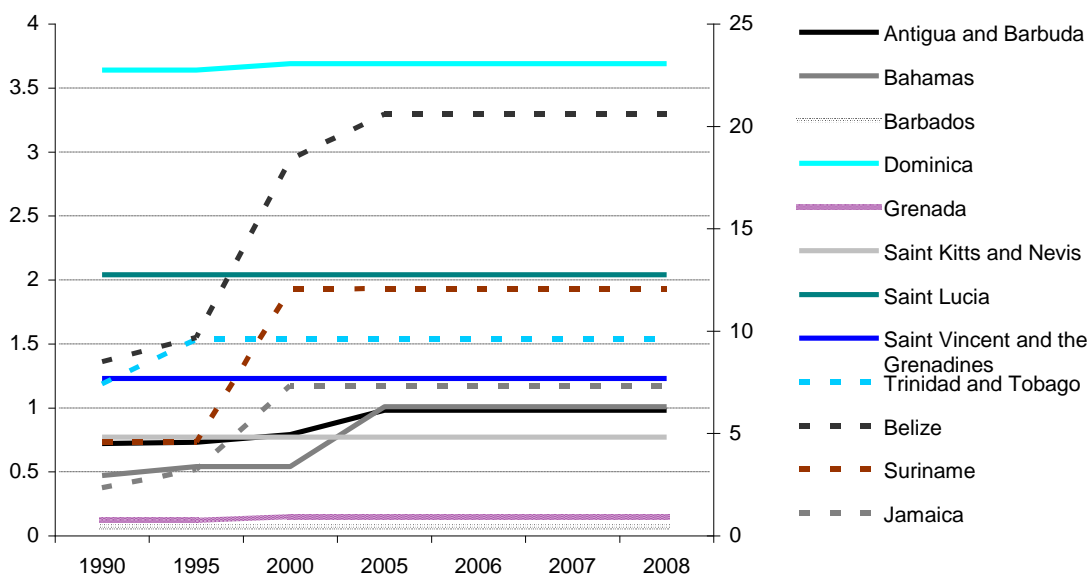
desalination systems is increasing, as the demand for fresh water surpasses the supply from natural sources.

The primary source of demand for water in most Caribbean countries is for domestic consumption. There are situations, however, in which the strong contributions of tourism and agriculture to specific economies have resulted in significant competition for scarce water resources (ECLAC, 2010a). Consequently, there has been a notable increase in demand for water across the subregion, as made evident by a 76% surge in consumption, rising from 150,000 m<sup>3</sup> per year in 1990 to 264,500 m<sup>3</sup> to 2004 (UNEP, 2009). This increase in demand reflects an expansion in water use both for industrial (irrigated agriculture, manufacturing and mining) and for household consumption. Despite the relative abundance of water, therefore, there are considerable problems emerging with respect to quality and availability over time and geographic space. These issues would be exacerbated by climate change (ECLAC, 2010a).

*Indicator 7.6: Proportion of terrestrial and marine areas protected*

The marked distinction between forested areas in the two groups of Caribbean countries—the insular Caribbean vis-à-vis countries in the Caribbean basin, as noted above—underscores the position of small island developing States with respect to the relevance of some Millennium Development Goals indicators. Given the importance of the marine environment to the economic livelihoods and social fabric of SIDS, biodiversity levels of terrestrial and marine areas combined are a more useful tool for setting and monitoring development targets. Since 1990, there has been little change in the percentage of marine and terrestrial area under protection as a proportion of national territory (see figure 14 and tables 25, 26, 27).

**FIGURE 14**  
**CARIBBEAN: TERRESTRIAL AND MARINE PROTECTED AREA AS A TOTAL**



Source: United Nations Statistics Division, See [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>

**TABLE 25**  
**TERRESTRIAL AND MARINE AREAS PROTECTED TO TOTAL TERRITORIAL AREA, PERCENTAGE**

Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Antigua and Barbuda	0.79	0.79	0.79	0.79	0.79	0.98	0.98	0.98	0.98	0.98
Bahamas	0.54	0.54	1.01	1.01	1.01	1.01	1.01	1.01	1.01	1.01
Barbados	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07
Belize	18.39	19.01	19.17	19.3	19.68	20.59	20.59	20.59	20.59	20.59
Dominica	3.69	3.69	3.69	3.69	3.69	3.69	3.69	3.69	3.69	3.69
Grenada	0.15	0.15	0.15	0.15	0.15	0.15	0.15	0.15	0.15	0.15
Guyana	4.92	4.92	4.92	4.92	4.93	4.94	4.94	4.94	4.94	4.94
Jamaica	7.34	7.34	7.34	7.34	7.34	7.34	7.34	7.34	7.34	7.34
Saint Kitts and Nevis	0.77	0.77	0.77	0.77	0.77	0.77	0.77	0.77	0.77	0.77
Saint Lucia	2.04	2.04	2.04	2.04	2.04	2.04	2.04	2.04	2.04	2.04
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	1.23	1.23	1.23	1.23	1.23	1.23	1.23	1.23	1.23	1.23
Suriname	12.05	12.05	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07	12.07
Trinidad and Tobago	9.6	9.6	9.6	9.6	9.6	9.6	9.6	9.6	9.6	9.6

Source: United Nations Statistics Division, [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>

**TABLE 26**  
**TERRESTRIAL AREAS PROTECTED TO TOTAL SURFACE AREA, PERCENTAGE**

Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Antigua and Barbuda	6.6	6.6	6.6	6.6	6.6	7	7	7	7	7
Bahamas	7.4	7.4	13.7	13.7	13.7	13.7	13.7	13.7	13.7	13.7
Barbados	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Belize	24.3	25.4	25.6	25.6	26.3	27.9	27.9	27.9	27.9	27.9
Dominica	21.7	21.7	21.7	21.7	21.7	21.7	21.7	21.7	21.7	21.7
Grenada	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7
Guyana	4.9	4.9	4.9	4.9	4.9	4.9	4.9	4.9	4.9	4.9
Jamaica	18.9	18.9	18.9	18.9	18.9	18.9	18.9	18.9	18.9	18.9
Saint Kitts and Nevis	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.6
Saint Lucia	14.3	14.3	14.3	14.3	14.3	14.3	14.3	14.3	14.3	14.3
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	10.9	10.9	10.9	10.9	10.9	10.9	10.9	10.9	10.9	10.9
Suriname	11.4	11.4	11.4	11.4	11.4	11.4	11.4	11.4	11.4	11.4
Trinidad and Tobago	31.2	31.2	31.2	31.2	31.2	31.2	31.2	31.2	31.2	31.2

Source: United Nations Statistics Division, [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>

**TABLE 27**  
**MARINE AREAS PROTECTED TO TERRITORIAL WATERS, PERCENTAGE**

Country	2000	2005	2009
Antigua and Barbuda	0.5	0.7	0.7
Bahamas	0.2	0.4	0.4
Barbados	0.1	0.1	0.1
Belize	11.4	11.9	11.9
Dominica	0.1	0.1	0.1
Grenada	0	0	0
Guyana	0	0	0
Jamaica	4.2	4.2	4.2
Saint Kitts and Nevis	0.5	0.5	0.5
Saint Lucia	0.1	0.1	0.1
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	0.6	0.6	0.6
Suriname	22.9	22.9	22.9
Trinidad and Tobago	2.8	2.8	2.8

Source: United Nations Statistics Division, [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>

The Caribbean subregion is well-known for its high species diversity and endemism that comprise and support a wide variety of ecosystems. Many countries have established protected areas as part of their efforts to conserve biological diversity and hence reduce their vulnerability to environmental changes, whilst increasing potential opportunities for economic development.

A protected area can be defined as an area of land and/or sea that is especially dedicated to the protection and maintenance of biodiversity, and of natural and associated cultural resources, that are managed through legal and other effective means (CARICOM, 2003). To this end, the proportion of protected terrestrial and marine areas to a nation's total territorial area is an important indicator for monitoring trends in achieving Target 7B: reducing biodiversity loss.

Overall, the Caribbean has demonstrated a growing commitment towards the conservation of biodiversity. Between 1990 and 2005, Belize, in particular, adopted significant changes to the mass of protected areas. These increases in the number of declared protected areas coincided with, and immediately followed, the period of the Rio Earth Summit (United Nations Conference on Environment and Development) in 1992. Since 2005, there has been little or no increase in the proportion of protected areas throughout the subregion.

It must be added, however, that achievement of this target depends more on the effective management of declared areas than on the number of new areas. The existence of protected areas alone is not enough to safeguard species and habitats (ECLAC 2010a). In fact, the Caribbean faces several challenges in protecting its biodiversity. These include pressures and disruptions stemming from competing economic activities, the impact of climate change, and the effect of limited management capacity due to the small human resource base. These issues point, in part, to a need for adequate allocation of financial resources, and for innovative or collaborative arrangements and mechanisms that will provide for non-governmental agencies and community groups to engage actively in the management of protected areas. This approach would help to overcome the capacity constraint posed by the perennial human resource shortage.

*Indicator 7.7: Proportion of species threatened with extinction*

The Caribbean Subregion has high biological diversity per unit of land area<sup>13</sup>, as well as a very high level of endemism and a high extinction rate (Table 28). Currently, information on species threatened with extinction remains unreliable. The inclusion of this issue as an indicator for target 7.B is recent and no historical trend can be established owing to the lack of comparable and harmonized statistics. Nonetheless, many assessments and studies conducted in recent years suggest that the unique biodiversity of the Caribbean is being lost or is seriously threatened by human activities at all levels and throughout the Subregion.

Table 28 presents the numbers of threatened and extinct species, both for animals and plants, in the Subregion. Anguilla (n=3) and Jamaica (n=2) have experienced the extinction of plant species whilst the Bahamas (n=2), Dominica (n=1), Jamaica (n=6), Puerto Rico (n=2), St. Lucia (n=1), St. Vincent & the Grenadines (n=1) and the US Virgin Islands (n=2) have experienced the extinction of animal species. Currently Jamaica has the highest levels of ‘threatened’ animal (n=74) and plant (n=209) species as well as animal species ‘extinction’ levels (n=6). The US Virgin Islands have the lowest levels of ‘threatened’ animal species (n=22) whilst Trinidad & Tobago have the lowest levels of ‘threatened’ plant species (n=1).

**Target 7.C: Halve, by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation***Indicator 7.8: Proportion of population using an improved drinking water source*

Caribbean countries have made consistent progress towards the attainment of full access to improved drinking water services between 1990 and 2008. During this period, the proportion of the total population with improved access to drinking water exceeded 95% for at least eight Member States and Associate Territories,<sup>14</sup> with the largest increase being for Belize, where the proportion increased from 75% in 1990 to 99% in 2008 (see table 29).

<sup>13</sup> Island Resources Foundation (1998). *Biodiversity Assessment of the Eastern Caribbean*. St John’s, Antigua.

<sup>14</sup>Member States were Barbados, Belize, Saint Kitts and Nevis, and Saint Lucia; Associate Territories were Aruba, British Virgin Islands, Montserrat, and Turks and Caicos Islands.

**TABLE 28**  
**NUMBERS OF THREATENED AND EXTINCT SPECIES IN THE CARIBBEAN SUBREGION, 2010**

	ANIMALS		PLANTS	
	Threatened <sup>a</sup>	Extinct <sup>b</sup>	Threatened <sup>a</sup>	Extinct <sup>b</sup>
Anguilla	29	0	3	3
Antigua& Barbuda	35	0	4	0
Aruba	23	0	-	-
Bahamas	55	2	5	0
Barbados	35	0	2	0
Belize	39	0	30	0
British Virgin Islands	34	0	10	0
Dominica	38	1	10	0
Grenada	35	0	3	0
Guyana	47	0	22	0
Jamaica	74	6	209	2
Montserrat	33	0	3	0
Netherland Antilles	38	0	2	0
Puerto Rico	51	2	53	0
St. Kitts & Nevis	35	0	2	0
St. Lucia	40	1	6	0
St. Vincent & the Grenadines	35	1	4	0
Suriname	39	0	26	0
Trinidad & Tobago	48	0	1	0
Turks & Caicos	33	0	2	0
US Virgin Islands	22	2	11	0
TOTAL	818	15	330	5

a Includes values for 'Critically Endangered', 'Endangered' and 'Vulnerable' IUCN Red List Categories.

b Includes values for 'Extinct' and 'Extinct in the Wild' IUCN Red List Categories.

Source: <http://www.iucnredlist.org/about/summary-statistics>

*Indicator 7.9: Proportion of population using an improved sanitation facility*

Most Caribbean countries have achieved significant improvements in the use of sanitation facilities since 1990. Based on available data, eight SIDS (the Bahamas, Barbados, Grenada, and Saint Kitts and Nevis, Anguilla, Cayman Islands, British Virgin Islands and Montserrat) reported over 95% of the population using sanitation facilities in 2008 (see figure 15). As with improved water access, Belize achieved the highest increase, from 74% to 90% over the period.

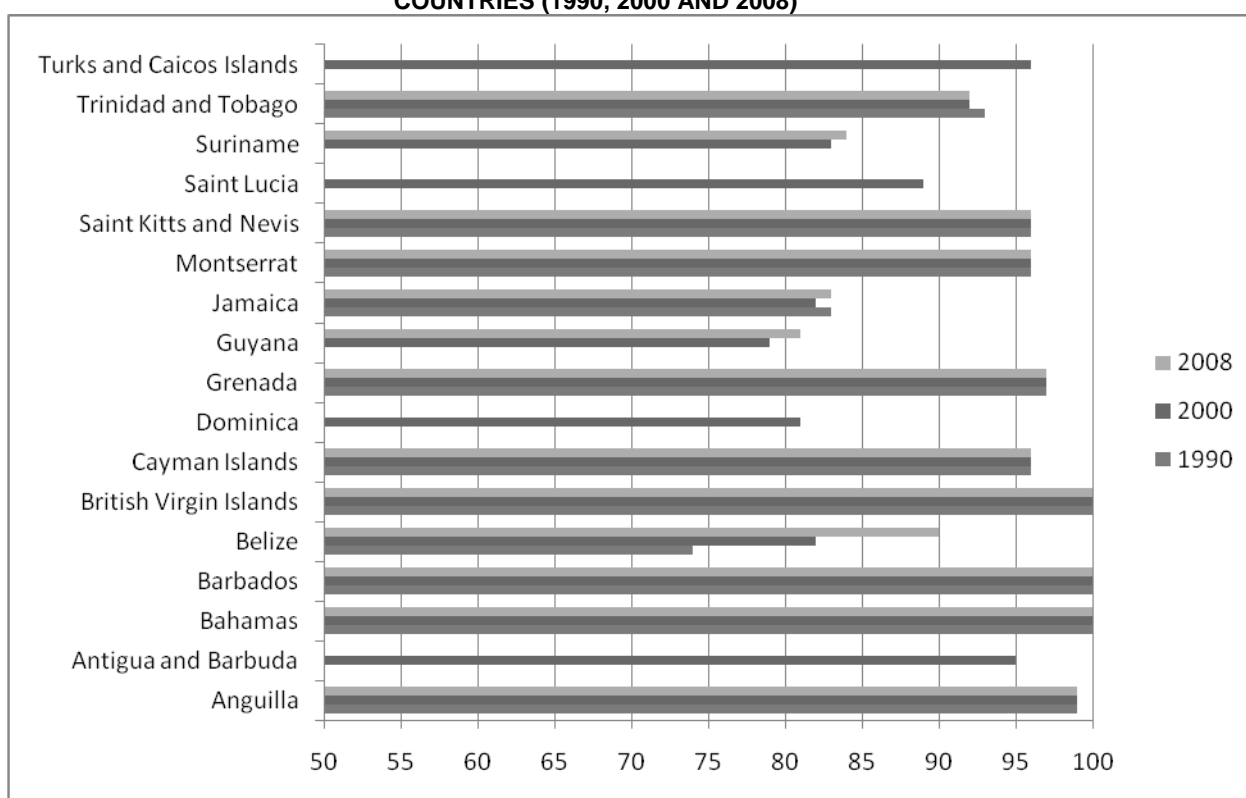


**TABLE 29**  
**PROPORTION OF THE POPULATION USING IMPROVED DRINKING WATER SOURCES**

Country	1990	1995	2000	2005	2008
Antigua and Barbuda	...	91	91	...	...
Bahamas	...	96	96	...	...
Barbados	100	100	100	100	100
Belize	75	82	89	96	99
Dominica	...	95	95	95	...
Grenada	...	94	94	...	...
Guyana	...	87	89	92	94
Jamaica	93	93	93	93	94
Saint Kitts and Nevis	99	99	99	99	99
Saint Lucia	98	98	98	98	98
Suriname	...	91	91	92	93
Trinidad and Tobago	88	90	91	93	94

Source: United Nations Statistics Division, [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>

**FIGURE 15**  
**PROPORTION OF POPULATION USING AN IMPROVED SANITATION FACILITY –CARIBBEAN COUNTRIES (1990, 2000 AND 2008)**



Source: See [online]: <http://unstats.un.org/unsd/mdg/data.aspx>

## **GOAL 8: Develop a global partnership for development**

### **Target 8.A: Develop further an open, rule-based, predictable, non-discriminatory trading and financial system. Includes a commitment to good governance, development and poverty reduction – both nationally and internationally**

Caribbean countries remain committed to a global partnership that is established on the principles of equity and justice and that gives due attention to their interests, particularly with respect to trading arrangements (Caribbean Millennium Development Goals Regional Report, 2004). For the past 30 years, the Caribbean has pursued an external trade policy anchored on preferential treatment (World Bank, OAS and others, 2008). Under the Lomé Convention and Cotonou Agreement, Caribbean countries have benefited from preferential access to European markets for traditional agricultural exports, primarily sugar and bananas, and have also received substantial aid allocations. In addition, the Caribbean has also benefited from preferential access to the United States market under the Caribbean Basin Initiative and subsequently through the Caribbean Basin Partnership Act (CBPTA).<sup>15</sup>

Preferential arrangements came under immense attack in the negotiations in the ACP-EU Cotonou Agreement, the proposed FTAA and in WTO, as developed States sought a liberalized global trade regime based on reciprocity. Despite their advocacy for special and differential treatment based on small size and underdevelopment, in December 2008, Caribbean countries signed the Economic Partnership Agreement (EPA). The EPA (ECLAC, 2008a) is the first reciprocal trade arrangement between the European Union and the Caribbean, and is WTO-compatible. Through the Agreement, the European Union has committed to immediate duty-free and quota-free access for 98.5% of goods of Caribbean origin, while the Caribbean will liberalize 87% of its trade relations with the European Union in a phased approach. Integral in the Agreement is ‘Aid for Trade’ (AFT). The Caribbean Regional Development Fund was established to provide resources to support the implementation of EPA and support adjustment measures and economic reforms.

### **Target 8.B: Address the special needs of the least developed countries**

This target emphasizes the role of official development assistance (ODA) in the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals. The main indicators of this target are net ODA as a percentage of OECD/DAC<sup>16</sup> gross national income (GNI) to least developing countries, and net ODA as a percentage of OECD/DAC donors’ GNI. In 1970, the world’s rich countries agreed to give 0.7% of their GNI annually as official international development aid. However, in 2007 and 2008, the ratios were only 0.28% and 0.31% respectively. Available data for 2005 and 2008 indicate that, of the OECD/DAC countries, only Denmark, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway and Sweden have met and exceeded the United Nations target of ODA at 0.7% of GNI. The United Kingdom and the United States of America, the two major trading partners of the Caribbean, reported minimal ODA as a percentage of GNI of 0.47% and 0.23%, respectively, with decreases in these percentages in 2008 (although the United States ranks the higher in dollar terms) (see table 30).

In the Caribbean, the level of ODA received relative to 1990 levels has declined steadily. In fact, Caribbean countries are not among the top recipients of ODA, receiving only approximately 0.08% of global ODA<sup>17</sup> in 2007-2008. The movement in this indicator during 2005-2008 has been mixed. While

<sup>15</sup> On March 24, 2009, the World Trade Organization (WTO) Council for Trade in Goods approved the long-standing waiver request from the United States of America on the Caribbean Basin Economic Recovery Act (CBERA). The approval of the waiver, which will remain valid until 2014, provides the legal authorization for CARICOM goods covered under CBERA to duty-free access to the United States market.

<sup>16</sup> The Development Assistance Committee is a unique international forum where donor governments and multilateral organizations come together to help partner countries reduce poverty and achieve the Millennium Development Goals.

<sup>17</sup> See [online]: <http://www.globalissues.org/article/35/foreign-aid-development-assistance>

some countries, such as Grenada and Guyana, saw huge declines in ODA as a percentage of their GNI, some countries, like Saint Kitts and Nevis (reconstruction after hurricane Omar) and Suriname, saw significant increases. As the 2004 report highlighted (UNDP, 2004), FDI inflows, which have also been reflecting a declining trend, cannot fully compensate for declining ODA. If the Millennium Development Goals are to be achieved, ODA will need to be increased significantly.

**TABLE 30**  
**ODA RECEIVED IN SMALL ISLAND DEVELOPING STATES AS A PERCENTAGE OF GNI**

Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Antigua and Barbuda	1.581,2	1.271,2	2.001,2	0.861,2	0.211,2	0.941,2	0.351,2	0.671,2	0.721,2
Bahamas	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Barbados	0.011,2	-0.051,2	0.141,2	0.771,2	1.071,2	-0.061,2	...	...	...
Belize	1.891,2	2.781,2	2.611,2	1.311,2	0.801,2	1.221,2	0.791,2	1.891,2	2.121,2
Dominica	6.551,2	8.091,2	12.901,2	4.691,2	11.611,2	7.701,2	6.911,2	5.971,2	6.291,2
Grenada	4.401,2	3.111,2	2.811,2	2.711,2	4.121,2	11.611,2	5.961,2	4.011,2	5.491,2
Guyana	17.541,2	17.601,2	10.771,2	13.901,2	21.481,2	20.111,2	19.791,2	12.261,2	14.481,2
Jamaica	0.101,2	0.621,2	0.271,2	0.071,2	0.871,2	0.381,2	0.331,2	0.231,2	0.551,2
Saint Kitts and Nevis	1.301,2	3.291,2	8.961,2	0.051,2	0.011,2	0.641,2	1.121,2	0.721,2	9.121,2
Saint Lucia	1.791,2	2.901,2	5.011,2	2.261,2	-2.951,2	1.311,2	2.211,2	2.191,2	2.041,2
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	1.951,2	2.471,2	1.321,2	1.821,2	2.751,2	1.881,2	1.001,2	12.371,2	4.711,2
Suriname	3.851,2	3.391,2	1.121,2	0.891,2	1.671,2	2.531,2	3.091,2	6.201,2	3.711,2
Trinidad and Tobago	-0.021,2	-0.021,2	-0.101,2	-0.031,2	-0.011,2	-0.011,2	0.081,2	0.101,2	0.051,2

Source: United Nations Statistics Division, [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>

*Target 8.C: Address the special needs of landlocked developing countries and Small Island Developing States (through the Barbados Programme of Action for the Sustainable Development of Small Island Developing States and the outcome of the twenty-second special session of the General Assembly)*

The Caribbean has used the SIDS Barbados Programme of Action (BPoA) as a basis for mobilizing the resources needed fulfil its sustainable development commitments. Since the Global conference on Sustainable Development of SIDS in 1992, Caribbean SIDS have made progress in the implementation of BPoA (ECLAC, 2010a). Initiatives have been taken at both the national and regional levels, both to strengthen institutional capacity to carry out policy reforms, and to formulate appropriate strategies and action plans, such as in the areas of climate change and renewable energy. Two regional-level institutions have been established, the Caribbean Community Climate Change Center (CCCCC)<sup>18</sup> in 2005 and the Caribbean Catastrophic Risk Insurance Facility (CCRIF) in 2007.<sup>19</sup>

<sup>18</sup> The Centre is recognized by UNFCCC, UNEP and other international organizations as the focal point for climate change issues in the Caribbean.

<sup>19</sup> CCRIF is a regional insurance fund for Caribbean Governments designed to limit the financial impact of catastrophic hurricanes and earthquake by providing financial liquidity.

*Target 8D: Deal comprehensively with the debt problems of developing countries through national and international measures in order to make debt sustainable in the long term*

Most Caribbean countries are characterized as highly indebted, with debt-to-GDP ratios in excess of 70% and, in some instances, in excess of 100%. This level of indebtedness has been fuelled by persistent fiscal deficits as growth in expenditure has, in most instances, outstripped growth in revenue. In addition, the impact of several hurricanes has produced serious reverses to infrastructural development. More recently, the global economic crisis has narrowed fiscal revenue and has led many countries to seek external financing from IMF and the Caribbean Development Bank for budgetary and balance of payment support. The average overall fiscal deficit for the Caribbean subregion was 3.7% of GDP for the period 1997-2006, worsening to 4.2% for 2008-2009, while the average external debt as a percentage of GDP was slightly in excess of 40% for the period 1997-2008. However, the fact that most Caribbean economies are classified as middle income due to high per capita GDP impedes their access to debt relief. Guyana and Haiti are the only countries eligible for assistance under the Highly Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC)<sup>20</sup> initiative.

The Millennium Development Goals Report, 2004 called for an improvement in the disbursement of funds under the programme and also for debt cancellation to be extended to a wide range of developing countries. In 2005, to speed progress toward the Goals, the HIPC Initiative was supplemented by the [Multilateral Debt Relief Initiative \(MDRI\)](#) which allows for 100% relief on eligible debts by three multilateral institutions—IMF, World Bank, and the African Development Fund (AfDF)—for countries completing the HIPC Initiative process. In 2007, the Inter-American Development Bank also decided to provide additional (“beyond HIPC”) debt relief to the five HIPCs in the Western Hemisphere.<sup>21</sup>

*Indicator 8.12: Debt service as a percentage of exports of goods and services*

With the exception of Guyana, all countries of the subregion have seen increases in their debt service levels from those recorded in 1995, one of the base years for the Millennium Development Goals. Escalation of debt service levels has been most marked for Belize, with a more than fivefold increase, and Saint Kitts and Nevis, with an almost threefold increase. There have also been significant increases in debt service levels recorded for Dominica, Saint Lucia, and Saint Vincent and the Grenadines (see table 31 and figure 16). These increases preceded the international financial crisis and, therefore, would have made the countries more vulnerable to that external shock.

<sup>20</sup> The HIPC Initiative was launched in 1996 by IMF and World Bank, with the aim of ensuring that no poor country faces a debt burden it cannot manage.

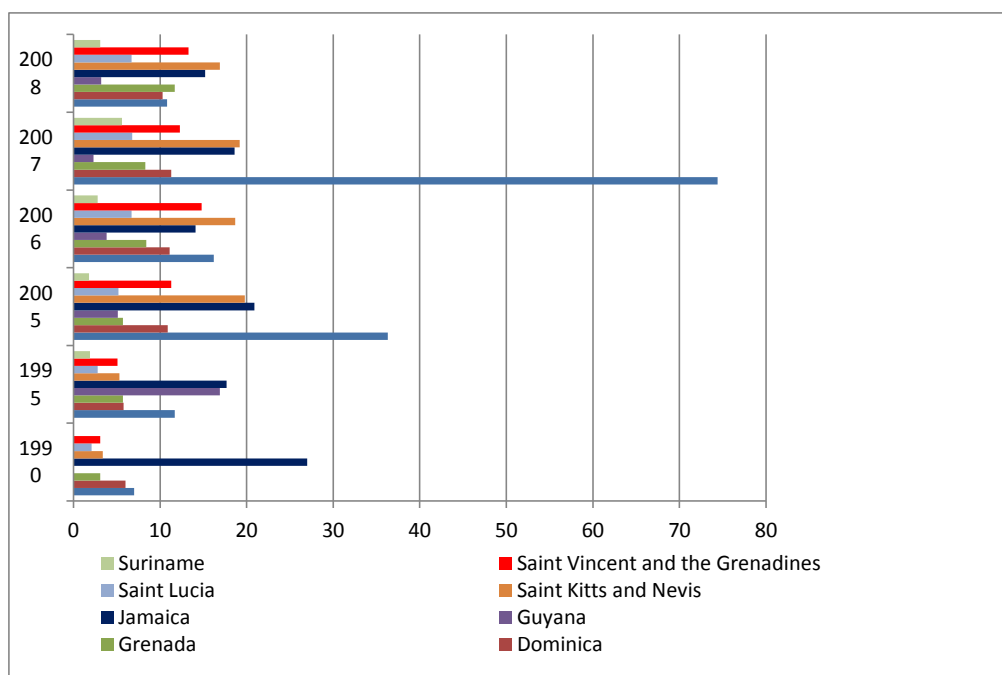
<sup>21</sup> See [online]: <http://www.imf.org/external/np/exr/facts/hipc.htm>.

**TABLE 31**  
**DEBT SERVICE AS PERCENTAGE OF EXPORTS OF GOODS AND SERVICES AND NET INCOME**

Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Belize	16.5	21.1	38.1	28.7	60	36.3	16.2	74.4	10.8
Dominica	6.5	12.1	9	11.3	10.7	10.9	11.1	11.3	10.3
Grenada	5.6	8	15.5	16.5	13.5	5.7	8.4	8.3	11.7
Guyana	11.81	8.61	6.81	7.61	6.21	5.11	3.81	2.31	3.21
Jamaica	15.3	19.3	23.6	21.7	19.5	20.9	14.1	18.6	15.2
Saint Kitts and Nevis	12.6	13.6	24.7	26	23.1	19.8	18.7	19.2	16.9
Saint Lucia	7.2	6.6	5.3	6.7	4.3	5.2	6.7	6.8	6.7
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	6.1	6.7	6.5	7.8	10.2	11.3	14.8	12.3	13.3

Source: United Nations Statistics Division, [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>

**FIGURE 16**  
**DEBT SERVICE AS A PERCENTAGE OF GOODS AND SERVICES EXPORTS**



Source: United Nations Statistics Division, see [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>

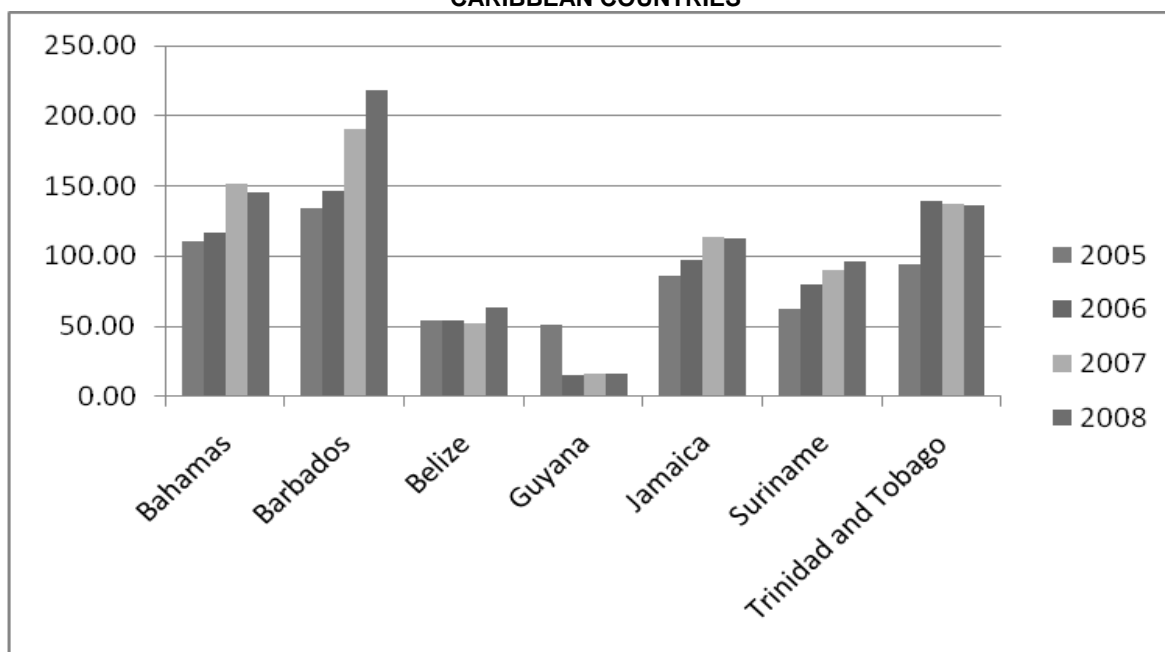
The debt service level recorded for Belize in 2007 reflects payouts related to a successful debt restructuring negotiation process initiated in 2006. It is instructive to note, however that whilst the previous year's debt service level had been relatively modest, the level recorded for 2005 was 60%, which highlights the rationale for the debt restructuring.

The financial and economic vulnerability of most of the countries in the subregion prior to the onset of the global crises would have been exacerbated by their high public debt levels—as demonstrated in Chapter 1. These debts were incurred prior the food and energy crises of 2007. In some cases, national responses to the crises have been expansionary and counter-cyclical and the individual country assessments show that, in some cases, debt levels will rise further as a result (ECLAC, 2009a).

*Indicators 8.14 and 8.15: Telephone lines and cellular subscribers per 100 population.*

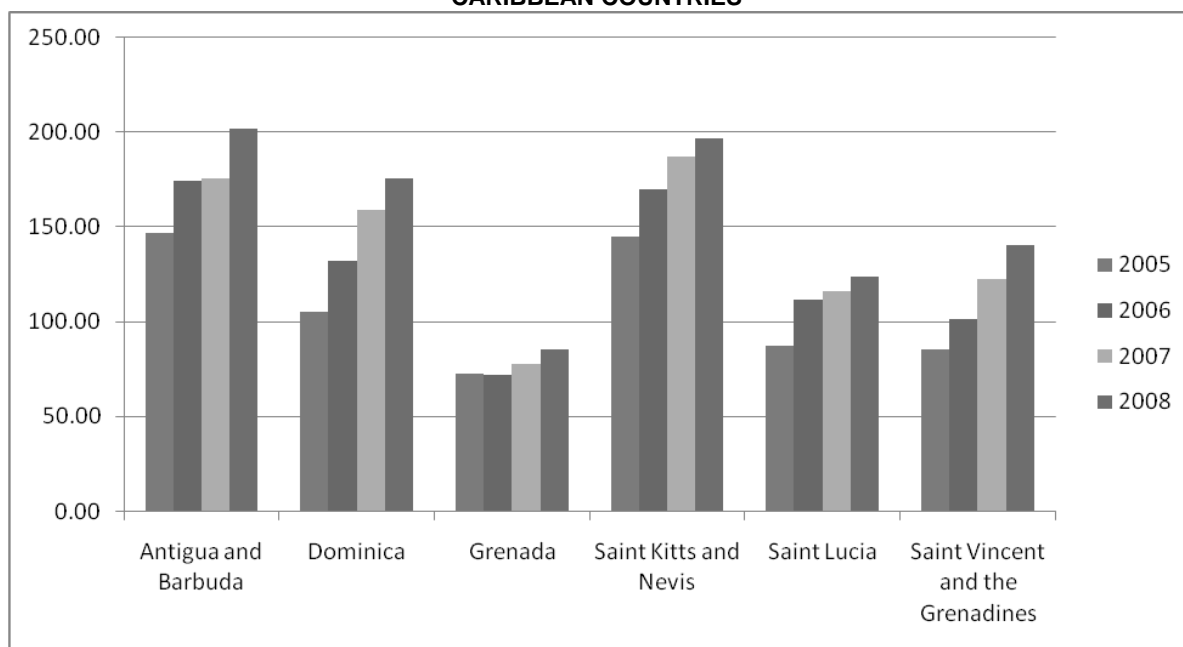
The number of telephone lines per 100 inhabitants has increased at a slower pace than had been anticipated in 2000, due mainly to a preference for and shift to cellular communications (see figures 17 and 18 and tables 32 and 33). Table 33 shows near-exponential increases in cellular telephone subscriptions across most of the countries of the subregion, with the exception of Guyana.

**FIGURE 17**  
**MOBILE CELLULAR TELEPHONE SUBSCRIPTIONS PER 100 POPULATION FOR SELECTED CARIBBEAN COUNTRIES**



Source: United Nations Statistics Division, see [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>

**FIGURE 18**  
**MOBILE CELLULAR TELEPHONE SUBSCRIPTIONS PER 100 POPULATION FOR SELECTED**  
**CARIBBEAN COUNTRIES**



Source: United Nations Statistics Division, see [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>.

**TABLE 32**  
**TELEPHONE LINES PER 100 POPULATION**

Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Antigua and Barbuda	49.651	47.373,10	47.541	46.761	46.111	43.671	44.321	44.251	43.861
Bahamas	37.51	39.89	40.39	41.54	43.53	40.88	39.92	39.82	39.322
Barbados	49.2121	51.3119	52.8919	53.182	53.732	53.262	52.882	58.932	58.782
Belize	14.22	13.67	11.86	12.32	12.21	11.96	11.9	11.51	10.35
Dominica	33.3525	34.221,14	34.9514	33.1714	31.0014	28.1714	26.0214	26.0314	26.192
Grenada		32.3022	33.0022	32.0322	32.0022	26.7622	26.9422	27.6522	27.6022
Guyana	9.0424	10.5513	10.6013	12.1413	13.4613	14.4213	15.442	15.702	16.372
Jamaica	19.228	19.755	16.6616	17.4416	15.9616	11.9616	12.7716	13.7116	11.6916
Saint Kitts and Nevis	47.587	48.227	49.7112	49.0712	41.9512	41.3112	41.4912	40.5612	39.952
Saint Lucia	31.124	31.479	31.859	30.249	25.679	23.619	24.519	24.259	24.029
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	23.099	24.169	25.2715	19.5615	17.5315	20.7015	20.8015	21.0315	20.8715
Suriname	16.12	16.33	16.37	16.38	16.55	16.22	16.13	15.972	15.822
Trinidad and Tobago	24.46	23.99	24.39	24.36	24.54	24.45	24.6	23.14	23.022

Source: United Nations Statistics Division, [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>

**TABLE 33**  
**MOBILE CELLULAR TELEPHONE SUBSCRIPTIONS PER 100 POPULATION**

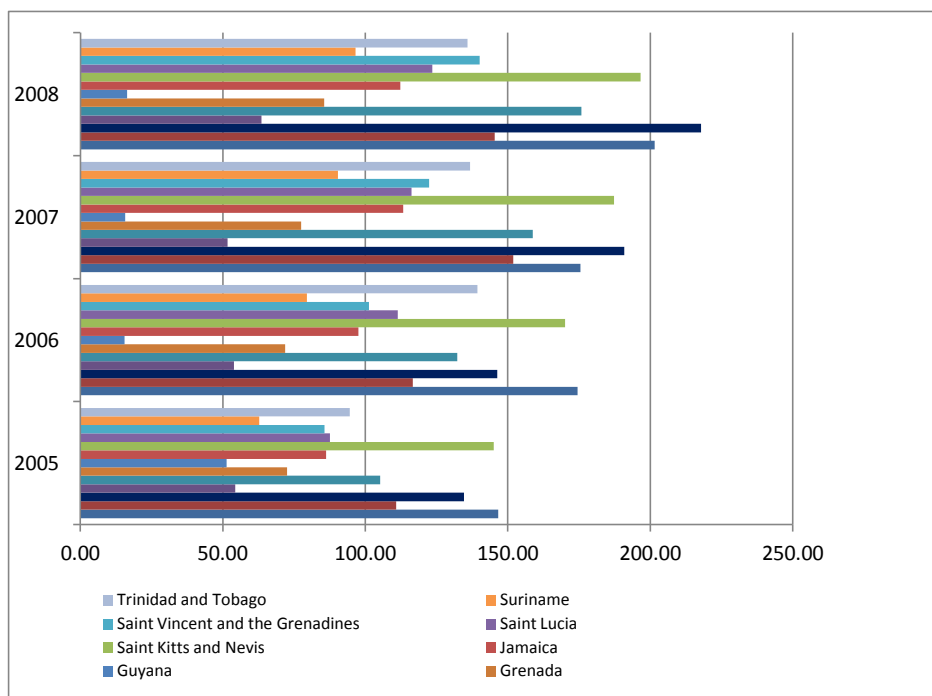
Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Antigua and Barbuda	28.5214	31.785,14	47.741	56.733	65.5214	102.9514	130.2114	131.2214	157.6714
Bahamas	10.347	19.597	38.867	38.517	57.867	69.987	76.777	112.117	106.047,15
Barbados	11.31	21.13	38.65	55.57	79.23	81.42	93.39	132	159.093
Belize	6.68	15.19	19.6	22.37	33.19	42.35	42.01	40.17	53.23
Dominica	1.7623	11.352	17.942	35.112	61.882	77.092	106.302	132.762	149.663
Grenada	4.25	6.33	7.43	41.5	42.38	45.72	44.92	49.8	57.97
Guyana	5.274,19	9.954,19	10.464,19	18.134,19	22.514,19	36.844,19	...	...	...
Jamaica	14.2912	23.099	47.7022	59.9222	69.3422	74.2822	84.7822	99.5722	100.5822
Saint Kitts and Nevis	2.611	4.5011	10.581	45.941	59.781	103.792,10	128.5817	146.7817	156.663
Saint Lucia	1.598	1.708	8.928	61.108	61.748	63.968	86.898	91.923	99.538
St Vincent and the Grenadines	2.1913	6.9413	9.2321	58.0821	66.3421	64.9621	80.4921	101.3621	119.2321
Suriname	8.79	18.36	22.55	34.58	43.1	46.58	63.33	74.463	80.763
Trinidad and Tobago	12.5025	19.7025	20.1425	25.6925	49.5718	70.1018	114.7918	113.676,18	112.873,26

Source: United Nations Statistics Division, [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>

When the combined number of cellular and telephone line subscribers are taken into account, two Member States—Antigua and Barbuda, and Barbados—achieved parity as early as 2003. Other Member States to achieve parity in the combined indicators by 2007 were Jamaica, Trinidad and Tobago, and Saint Vincent and the Grenadines. Among the Anglophone countries, only Guyana has recorded substantial increases in the number of telephone lines— doubling in number between 1995 and 2005. Despite this, Guyana has the second lowest level of land lines per 100 population, and this standing is not improved when cellular subscribers are taken into account. In fact, Guyana displays the lowest level of combined telephone line and cellular subscribers in the subregion. There have also been notable increases in telephone connections in Saint Lucia and in Saint Vincent and the Grenadines (see figure 19).



**FIGURE 19**  
**COMBINED TELEPHONE AND CELLULAR LINES PER 100 POPULATION**



Source: United Nations Statistics Division, see [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>

*Indicator 8.16: Internet users per 100 population*

Whilst the increased access to telephone lines suggests significant progress in terms of communication, there is still room for growth where information and communications technology is concerned. This is reinforced by a comparison of the number of Internet users across the Caribbean (see table 34) with that of OECD countries. Except for Antigua, Saint Lucia and Jamaica, Internet access in the Caribbean has generally remained below 50 per 100 persons. This is significantly lower than 2007 rates recorded for the United Kingdom and the United States of America, of 72 and 72.5, respectively. However, these statistics do not account for the ongoing increase in the number of mobile service subscribers which, in turn, is facilitated by the increase in cellular service coverage. With greater availability of “smart phones” and mobile Internet services, inhabitants are accessing packages, and thus the Internet, more easily.

**TABLE 34**  
**INTERNET USERS PER 100 POPULATION**

Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Antigua and Barbuda	6.48	8.9	12.5	17.23	24.27	34.72	62.64	70.06	75.03
Bahamas	4.31	5.47	19.15	26.46	28.93	31.64	33.38	26.98	31.54
Barbados	3.97	5.97	11.93	39.69	59.38	63.18	...	73.86	73.67
Belize	5.96	...	5.68	...	5.79	9.21	10.4	10.86	11.31
Dominica	8.81	13.25	18.42	23.62	30.32	38.54	39.4	40.27	41.16
Grenada	4.06	5.13	14.76	18.65	19.57	20.49	21.4	22.29	23.18
Guyana	6.61	13.21	16.47	18.4	19.01	20.95	22.9	24.87	26.85
Jamaica	3.12	3.86	22.99	30.41	40.26	46.19	48.46	55.64	56.88
Saint Kitts and Nevis	5.86	7.71	21.15	22.97	24.74	26.46	28.13	29.75	31.33
Saint Lucia	5.09	8.18	14.64	20.98	21.4	21.57	32.96	41.51	58.68
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	3.25	5.09	5.55	6.46	7.37	9.2	32.15	52.29	60.49
Suriname	2.51	3.06	4.16	4.72	6.08	6.4	7.52	8.62	9.71
Trinidad and Tobago	7.72	9.23	10.58	11.69	12.18	14	14.99	16.02	17.02

Source: United Nations Statistics Division, [online]: <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx>

### **III. Successes and challenges to attainment of the Millennium Development Goals**

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#### **A. Main strengths and success factors**

The Millennium Development Goals cover the areas of poverty reduction (Goal 1), education (Goal 2), gender (Goal 3), health (Goals 4, 5 and 6), the environment (Goal 7) and trade and partnerships (Goal 8) and form the core of the Millennium Declaration. Subsequent to their agreement and adoption, a number of recommendations have been made for their enhancement, including improvement in the gender focus.

The Millennium Development Goals have been described as mutually reinforcing because of the strong inter-linkages amongst the eight Goals and respective targets and indicators. Viewed from the Human Capability Approach and the Human Development Paradigm, Goals 2, 4, 5 and 6—with their focus on education and health—provide for “human functioning” or the ability of individuals to do and become what they want. Specifically, achievement of these Goals provides for human beings to “be well-nourished...knowledgeable and be equipped to participate in the life of one’s community” (UNDP, 2007). They are, therefore, essential for human rights and the achievement of poverty reduction (Goal 1).

Moreover, education is a critical tool in combating child mortality, poor maternal health and diseases, whilst good health is an essential human condition for effective learning.

Gender equality and the empowerment of women, the focus of Goal 3, is seen as a cross cutting issue and a precondition for the achievement of all the other Goals and, fundamentally, for overcoming poverty and hunger and improving health outcomes. From the Caribbean perspective, and the experience in education where boys are now lagging behind, the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals by either one of the sexes in a context where the other loses ground undermines the development objective of that Goal. The inter-linkage between gender and education is evident in the educational targets and indicators for school enrolment of males and females for Goal 3, which is a further enumeration of the general enrolment data in Goal 2.

Achievement of Goal 1 can only be effectively realized if national planning processes are clearly informed and guided by the Millennium Development Goals targets for the remaining seven Goals. There is also a direct linkage with Goal 8, in that an effective national plan helps to inform trade and partnership arrangements. Conversely, the more individuals and demographic groups benefit from advances in trade and technology, the more likely the chances are of reducing income poverty and income disparities. The link is even more direct and obvious where issues such as access to affordable medicines facilitated under Goal 8 contribute to halting the spread of HIV and AIDS as enunciated in Goal 6.

The most significant progress towards the Millennium Development Goals in the Caribbean has been made in the areas of primary education, child survival, maternal health and combating HIV and AIDS, in designating marine and terrestrial protected areas, in reducing consumption of ozone-depleting substances, and in improving citizens' access to telecommunications, evident from the general preference for cellular services and the shift away from land lines.

#### BOX 9

#### CONDITIONAL CASH TRANSFER—PROGRAMME OF ADVANCEMENT THROUGH HEALTH AND EDUCATION (PATH)

The Government of Jamaica, in 2000, embarked on a reform of the social safety net to increase its efficiency and effectiveness and, ultimately, attain the Millennium Development Goals. An essential component of this reform was the merger of three existing income support benefits, the food stamp, the old age and incapacity allowance, and the outdoor poor relief programme, into a single conditional cash transfer programme called the Programme of Advancement Through Health and Education (PATH). The programme seeks to promote human capital development, especially among children and young people, as a means of breaking the poverty cycle. Preliminary evaluation has indicated early success in targeting the poorest households for benefits, a reduction in poverty levels and, in particular, increased school attendance among children in beneficiary families. The programme was therefore deemed to have had a positive impact on school attendance; overall poverty has declined from 19.1% in 2002 to 16.1% in 2004. This has contributed significantly to the country being on track to achieve the Millennium Development Goals.

An examination of initiatives undertaken in these areas demonstrates the following success factors:

- **Focused efforts to address barriers, such as conditional cash transfer programmes.** Such programmes have been implemented in Jamaica (see box 9) and Trinidad and Tobago to target education and health outcomes, by providing incentives for families to keep children in schools and to have them attend health clinics regularly.
- **Working through strategic partnerships.** This approach generates a critical mass of complementary skills and capacities working towards a common goal. Examples of its success are the regional Pan-Caribbean Partnership for combating HIV and AIDS, and the ongoing collaboration of national authorities and PAHO/WHO on health. PANCAP is a

major contributor to improved quality of life for those living with HIV and AIDS, and to raising awareness of the disease and promoting changes in lifestyle and behaviour.

- **Collaboration amongst national and international partners for institutional and programme strengthening.** Caribbean health programmes and, particularly, work in the areas of child mortality and maternal health, have benefited from cooperation to improve health programmes.
- **Private sector awareness and leadership.** Involvement of the private sector has yielded key successes in efforts to reduce stigma and discrimination against persons living with HIV and AIDS in the workplace. The interventions required—such as policy development, peer education, sensitization, and advocacy—could only have been led by employers. Over the review period, national workplace policies were established in Trinidad and Tobago, Guyana, Belize and Jamaica and some countries have established HIV units within their respective ministries. In some cases, the policies are driven by the national strategic plans on HIV and AIDS. These workplace policies are the result of joint efforts involving both employers and workers—management and labour—in the public and private sectors.<sup>22</sup> Private sector involvement and leadership has also been important in the area of telecommunications.
- **Availability of dedicated resources.** Availability of resources through the Global Environment Facility (GEF) has been one of the greatest contributors to success in the environmental arena. The track record related to this Facility demonstrates the importance of access to sustainable financing mechanisms, which is not available for other Goals.

## B. Main challenges

Progress towards a number of targets related to poverty reduction, gender equality and women's empowerment, higher education and debt sustainability, remains challenged. There are still improvements to be made in terms of the management of existing terrestrial and marine reserves, and in reducing or offsetting CO<sub>2</sub> emissions.

### 1. Economic and financial challenges

#### (a) Impact of global crises

The impact of the financial and economic crisis has been one of the main challenges to many countries' attainment of the Millennium Development Goals. There is anecdotal evidence, and in the case of Belize, preliminary results from participatory poverty assessments, that household coping strategies will have a direct impact on several Goals. The Goals most likely to be affected are poverty reduction, universal education, and health. The PPAs and employment data suggest that the impact will materialize through household decisions to reduce the quantity and quality of food consumed (Goal 1), to hold back or withdraw children from schools (Goal 2), and to engage in transactional sex and/or defer health expenditures (Goal 6).

At the national level for each country, the decline in export revenues and the economic downturn are likely to reduce fiscal revenues which could, in turn, lead to a contraction in social spending. Where governments opt to contract external or domestic debt, or to increase deficits in order to channel finances into responding to the crises, their ability to address the root causes of poverty and/or adopt programmes to accelerate Millennium Development Goals achievement will be compromised.

<sup>22</sup> In many cases, the initiative is also supported by the International Labour Organization.

### **(b) Size and scale**

It is clear from the national Millennium Development Goals Reports that the issue of size—and the related constraints on achieving economies of scale—poses an impediment to achievement of the Goals. The cost of communication technology is cited by Suriname as an impediment to Internet access. Cost is also cited as a contributing factor to the slow growth of Internet and cellular access in Belize. This problem is evident wherever there is a single provider of services, and/or where the population is spread over a relatively large geographic area with scattered remote communities. Therefore, establishing alternatives such as tele-centres must be considered and the relevant data captured.

The size constraint is also evident in the small pool of skilled persons, in limitations on financial resources and options for fiscal revenues, and in institutional capacities. Financial and technical constraints appear evident, for example, in understaffing and limited access to resources of hospitals, in natural resource management, environmental protection policies and legislative provisions. Activities in these areas often highlight technical capacity issues, such as lack of documented procedures and poor information management systems and processes.

## **2. Social challenges**

### **(a) Security**

Both Guyana and Jamaica cite the issue of violence as one of the main challenges to the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals. The Jamaica report details the manner in which violence impedes progress, which includes loss of income earners within families: the dampening effect on general economic activity because of interruptions in business operations, the loss of productivity, the increase in gender-based violence (which in turn can affect children's performance in schools), and the cost to households (in terms of loss of income and medical bills) when members are injured.

Whilst the issue may not have been cited in other reports, violence is an impediment; current measures to address the root causes of crime and violence across the Caribbean attest to this. The issue is an intricate one, given that the nature and direction of correlation between communities' incomes, levels of poverty and access to services, with levels of crime and violence, is difficult to ascertain.

Based on observed correlation, there is a widely held belief that forced returnees contribute to an escalation in crime and violence. Whilst there is no evidence that forced returnees are a direct cause of escalations in violence, the issue is recognized as one to be addressed. In response, countries—such as Jamaica—have formulated programmes to support the smoother integration of forced returnees into society.

### **(b) Impact of cultural barriers on health**

The needs of vulnerable groups, especially youth and men who have sex with men, are still not being fully met in the campaigns against HIV and AIDS, and in support of universal access to reproductive health. Research shows that cultural barriers are one of the main impediments in both areas. Strategies need to be designed to overcome such barriers and enable lifestyle changes that reduce risks. This is especially relevant to the use of condoms.

### **(c) Effect of migration on health and education**

An impediment closely related to health is that of migration. The loss of nurses and teachers who have migrated from the subregion to developed countries over the past decade has placed constraints on the level of health care and education services provided. This has been cited, especially by Jamaica, as a constraint to improving child mortality and maternal health performance.

### **3. Physical vulnerability, climate change and disaster risk management**

Caribbean countries are prone to the seasonal impact of tropical cyclones and, to a lesser extent, to earthquakes and volcanic eruptions. Damage and losses have always been significant in terms of GDP, and recovery efforts normally extend over several years. Losses have been more significant where there has been no enforcement of or compliance with planning regulations, or where the regulations themselves are deficient.

### **4. Governance, processes and institutional barriers**

#### **(a) Governance**

Despite an increasing trend of consultation in the process of formulating policies and strategies across the subregion, there is an apparent need for accountability in the implementation stages of agreed policies and strategies. Whilst this accountability is required of public sector agencies, it is perhaps more important that the citizens to whom they are answerable have the capacity to identify implementation problems and call for recourse. This suggests a need for capacity-building at both community and institutional levels in order to improve citizen participation and deepen the democratic process.

#### **(b) Approaches to planning**

It is not unlikely for processes geared toward Millennium Development Goals achievement to be pursued in parallel yet not fully integrated into national development or broad-based poverty reduction strategy processes. The interlinked nature of the Millennium Development Goals emphasizes the need for comprehensive approaches to planning which have traditionally not been practiced in the Caribbean. This can be demonstrated by the variations in levels of emphasis and incorporation of national sustainable development strategies (ECLAC, 2010). National sustainable development strategies are integrated into national plans of Caribbean countries to varying degrees through one of the following:

- A National Environmental Management Strategy
- A National Strategic Plan
- National Vision Documents
- Long term plan/multi-annual development plans
- A Social protection strategy
- A National Sustainable Energy Plan
- A National Physical Development Plan
- A Low Carbon Development Strategy
- Medium Term Economic Strategies

The variety of plans articulated and the fact that few of them are comprehensive or cover a period of more than five years shows a lack of synchronization between the policymaking practices of the subregion and the Millennium Development Goals framework. This reflects the influence of business and political cycles and the shifts in focus and priorities which are inherent in transitions between political administrations. The loss in momentum resulting from such transitions often contributes to a slowdown in development activities. Recognizing these constraints, many Caribbean countries are adopting long term planning frameworks. These practices are still too recent for definitive determination of the degree to which they are effective. In particular, the continuity of long term plans across political administrations has still not been fully demonstrated.

### **(c) Institutional arrangements and capacities**

The institutional arrangements also reflect the variation in approaches evident in the broader planning processes and social policy—both critical for Millennium Development Goals achievement. Country assignment of responsibility for planning ranges from the more comprehensive and integrated agencies (as in the case of Jamaica), to single ministries with coordinating mandates that depend on moral suasion (as in the case of Belize). Although Downes (2000) makes a compelling case for development of human resources and effective institutions as a precursor to the adoption of long term planning, line ministries with weak coordinating mandates continue to be the main institutional arrangement for planning across the Caribbean.

Many of the Millennium Development Goals country reports also point to lack of resources and accountability on the part of the institutions as impediments to achievement of the Goals. This issue is the mirror side of the governance issue raised earlier, and at its root is the need to build institutional capacity and processes that will support accountability.

## **5. Implementation and monitoring**

### **(a) Relevance**

A number of country progress reports, as well as the Caribbean Regional Millennium Development Goals Report 2004, have pointed out that, given the macro-socioeconomic structure of Caribbean countries, universal targets and indicators of the Millennium Development Goals do not completely capture Caribbean-specific issues. An example of this is the target for reducing the number of persons living below US \$ 1.00 per day—a purchasing power parity (PPP) indicator.<sup>23</sup> With relatively high per capita incomes prevailing in the subregion, this measure is rarely taken and generally not used as a standard for economic well-being in the Caribbean.

In recognition of this incompatibility, an effort was made to identify indicators that were most appropriate for the subregion. The process culminated with the endorsement of agreed indicators and targets, termed the “Caribbean- Specific Millennium Development Goals” by the CARICOM Council for Human and Social Development (COHSOD) in November of 2008. The identification of Caribbean-specific indicators and targets allows for the adoption of a key measure recommended through the 2004 Assessment as necessary for the Caribbean to achieve the Goals: integration into national planning frameworks. This recommendation was coupled with that of national ownership of the process by each Caribbean Government.

The Caribbean-Specific Millennium Development Goals are set out in Annex 1 of the present report. There has been little work done to establish the baselines for some of these indicators, however, and a number of them will be difficult to quantify.

### **(b) Targeting and development financing**

Caribbean countries espouse strong support of the Millennium Development Goals and incorporate Millennium Development Goals references in their national plans and budgets and in various socioeconomic reports. Notwithstanding, assessing Millennium Development Goals achievement continues to be dampened by weak targeting and fragile monitoring and evaluation systems.

Initiatives need to take account of differences across geographic areas, communities and social groups. Country poverty assessments show varying levels of poverty, indigence and vulnerability across geographic divisions within each of the Caribbean countries. Social and ethnic groups each face specific challenges and are themselves at different levels or stages of development. This implies a need to extend the regional effort to localize the Millennium Development Goals to the national level. Countries

<sup>23</sup> The indicator for measuring this target has been revised upward to US\$ 1.25 per day to reflect the effects of cumulative inflation since the year 2000.



will need to identify and cost the baselines, targets and programmes that will yield the most effective results at the national and sub-national levels.

At the national level, the most focused initiative to identify measures to localize the Goals has been taken by a cluster of OECS countries, encouraged through the efforts of the OECS Secretariat. Plans for localizing the Goals have been formulated and documented for OECS member States Saint Kitts and Nevis, Dominica, and Saint Lucia, and for one Associate Territory, British Virgin Islands. Furthermore, localized Millennium Development Goals indicators have been identified in progress reports for Guyana, Suriname and Jamaica (see Annex 2).

Insufficient availability of financial resources has further impeded achievement of the Millennium Development Goals. Lack of funds stalls the process of planning, and targeting cannot be implemented fully, thereby hindering efforts to provide reliable information, and compromising policy decisions. Incomplete information processes and inefficient procedures also dampen the effectiveness and efficiency of service delivery. In view of the needed turnaround in boys' participation in secondary and tertiary education, and the need to achieve gains over the next five years that would be on par with progress made in the past ten years, removing financial resource constraints is critical for full Millennium Development Goals achievement in the Caribbean.

### **(c) Availability and quality of data and methodology issues**

A persistent challenge facing the Caribbean subregion with respect to monitoring and evaluation of the Goals has been that of the quality of the statistical data available. Almost all progress reports reviewed have highlighted deficiencies in the collection and processing of data by relevant national institutions. This reflects the generally weak statistical capacity in the Caribbean, especially with respect to social and gender statistics. The challenge is further compounded by a lack of sex-disaggregated data.

Efforts to address this issue are being supported by agencies of the United Nations system (including ECLAC), the CARICOM Secretariat, the University of the West Indies (UWI) and the Caribbean Development Bank (CDB). In the main, these efforts are aimed at building the necessary human resource capacity for the collection and analysis of data.

Assessing progress in poverty reduction and the Millennium Development Goals in the Caribbean is also challenged by a number of key technical measurement issues. The first of these has been a lack of correlation between Millennium Development Goals monitoring and what can now be viewed as the standard poverty assessment practices applied in the Caribbean. In identifying this issue, James and Trotman (2009) state, "It appears that the [Caribbean] Poverty Reports were generally not prepared with a view to supporting the production of Millennium Development Goals Reports." The authors found that poverty rates have been compared over time although the poverty lines would have been revised upward, and that cross-country comparisons have been done with no clarification or justification. They assert further that where justification has been provided they have often been erroneous.

The utility of the Millennium Development Goals as a planning tool lies, in part, in their metrics. Once national baselines have been determined for most indicators, targets such as "halve by 2015 the number of people living on less than US \$ 1.00 per day" should translate into concrete objectives for each country. This would allow for clear and focused national plans and for manageable supporting strategies.

A perusal of the national plans and strategies demonstrates, however, that whilst most countries include qualitative descriptions of their development objectives—many of which align with the Millennium Development Goals — there is a paucity of targets expressed in quantitative terms. Heavy reliance on qualitative approaches to development planning is, in part, a manifestation of the challenge posed by lack of consistent and reliable data or monitoring mechanisms in the Caribbean. This deficiency was acknowledged as an impediment in the Caribbean Millennium Development Goals achievement report 2004 which indicated that "monitoring of Millennium Development Goals progress is severely constrained by lack of adequate, reliable and timely data," (UNDP, 2004). Data sparseness

encountered in the recent and ongoing exercise to prepare a Millennium Development Goals Scorecard and Outlook Report for Belize, and in the formulation of the present report, demonstrates that this challenge continues to impede countries' abilities to make informed decisions or to plan effectively for development.

Recent measures have been taken to address this issue, including the initiative Support to Poverty Reduction and Assessment in the Caribbean (SPARC) and an ECLAC-led process aimed at establishing a Caribbean Millennium Development Goals metadatabase. Both efforts are geared, in part, at harmonizing data collection processes and at supporting data-sharing practices. In the case of the ECLAC project, it is intended that harmonized processes and a metadatabase will allow for effective progress monitoring and comparisons of Millennium Development Goals progress across countries and over time.

These issues suggest that, even where data can be assembled to show multiple measures of poverty for any of the Caribbean countries, interpretation of such data, and particularly of the advances made towards Millennium Development Goals achievement of reducing poverty by two-thirds, must be done with caution.

## IV. Recommendations

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Given the status of achievement of the Millennium Development Goals in the Caribbean subregion in 2010, this Chapter will attempt to examine the likelihood of Caribbean countries reaching the Goals by the target deadline of 2015.

### A. The way forward

The UNDP Millennium Development Goals Breakthrough Strategy for accelerating and sustaining progress sets out the following areas of intervention as the most effective in supporting countries to achieve the Goals:

- Multiplier effects—Millennium Development Goals areas that will break down multiple barriers to achievement
- Sustaining progress and mitigating risks
- Advocacy, resources and partnership.

Based on the areas of progress and lags identified, those areas where multiple barriers to Caribbean countries' achievement of the Goals can be broken down are: governance, institutional and human capacity, and efforts to fight HIV and AIDS and other health-related issues. Non-communicable diseases are especially important.

In order to sustain progress and to mitigate against the risk of reversal, countries will need to deepen the regional integration movement and to expand South-South collaboration efforts and opportunities. South-South efforts should include technical cooperation to support replication of initiatives in individual countries.

There is also need to maintain fiscal discipline and avoid unsustainable public debt levels, to improve levels of public expenditure on social services, and to implement or expand programmes and initiatives that provide for pro-poor growth.

One key strategy for sustaining and mitigating risks is improving on comprehensive and proactive disaster risk management. In many cases, homes and other buildings are constructed below the standards required to withstand tropical cyclone conditions, or in low-lying areas prone to flooding.

## **Identifying and costing initiatives**

Improved effectiveness in pursuing the Millennium Development Goals requires comprehensive planning to identify the measures that can, and should, be taken to achieve the Goals, and the quantity and cost of the resources required. This requires planning and clear direction, which are necessary for long term planning processes. Projects and programmes must be designed to fit the pre-defined direction and to drive towards identified objectives, and the level of human and financial resource investment needed for their implementation must be determined.

The approach described above is known as Millennium Development Goals costing, and is currently being undertaken in Belize. Costing exercises require clarity in terms of baseline and goals specific to each target, and the application of a cross-functional team with hands-on experience and expertise in development, to identify programmes and strategies (such as replication and scaling up) that would yield the greatest impacts. Costing the programmes enables countries to be effective in providing guidance to international partners and for their own benefit, in targeting resources for Millennium Development Goals achievement and poverty reduction.

Achieving gains in higher education, gender equality and further improvements in health, requires that strategic investment be made in gender and education, two cross-cutting Goals. These investments would, in turn, generate gains in male participation at secondary and tertiary levels, improvement in women's participation in politics and wage employment in non-agricultural sectors. Spillover impacts should accrue to governance, information and communication technology and, more directly, to poverty in terms of improvements in living conditions and caloric intake.

Achievement of other Millennium Development Goals can only be possible where priorities and programmes are country-driven and have the full commitment of governments and citizens. This suggests a need for more direct (rather than peripheral) involvement of the private sector and for intensified cross-sector collaboration (public, private and non-governmental communities), such as in education, health, and natural resources and the environment.

The identification of required resources and, moreover, continued country ownership of efforts to achieve the Millennium Development Goals and reduce poverty, requires strong technical leadership by public officials, suggesting a need for strengthened government capacity-building programmes. Elements that can support this strengthening include articulation of procedures, implementation of technology and improved information management.

The final recommendation for improvement is the establishment of clear monitoring and evaluation systems, and regular monitoring, reporting and programme adjustment. Countries' systems should be built around the programme targets, which should, in turn, be linked to the indicators and targets. These targets should be the focus of monitoring and evaluation plans that should have established reporting periods and protocols for adjustment.

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## **Annex**

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**MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS BASELINE AND STATUS  
PER LOCALIZED INDICATOR FOR REPORTING COUNTRIES**

Goal	Internationally Agreed Target and Indicator	Localized Indicator	Guyana		Suriname		Jamaica	
			Baseline <sup>1</sup>	Status <sup>1</sup>	Baseline <sup>2</sup>	Status <sup>2</sup>	Baseline <sup>3</sup>	Status <sup>3</sup>
Goal 1	<b>Target 1: Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who live on less than US\$1.25 per day</b>							
	Proportion of population living on under US\$ 1 (indicator redefined to be based on US \$ 1.25) per day	Proportion of population below the national poverty line (Caribbean)	43% (1993)	35% (1999)	65.95% (1999/2000)		28.4 % (1990)	9.9% (2007)
		Poverty Gap Ratio (Caribbean)	16.2% (1993)	12.4% (1999)				
	Share of poorest quintile in national consumption	Percentage of population in extreme poverty (measured as indigence using food-only poverty line, Caribbean)	29% (1993)	19% (1999)			6% (1990)	6.8% (2007)
	<b>Target 3: Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger</b>							
		Prevalence of underweight children					8.4% (1990)	2.2% (2007)
		Percentage of under-five population with moderate to mild malnutrition (Suriname)	20.6% (1995)	7.0% (2005)				
		Percentage of under-five population with severe malnutrition (Suriname)	1.1% (1995)	0.6% (2005)				
	Proportion of population living below level of dietary energy consumption		...	...			8.3% (1990)	2.9% (2007)
Goal 2	<b>Target 4: Ensure that by 2015 children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling</b>							
	Net enrolment ratio in primary education							90.2% (2007)
	Both Sexes		...	95% (2002)	90% (2000-2003)			
	Boys		...	93% (2002)				
	Girls		...	100% (2003)				
	Proportion of pupils starting grade 1 who reach		83.5% (2001)	87% (2003)	84% (2000-2003)			94.2% (2007)

Goal	Internationally Agreed Target and Indicator	Localized Indicator	Guyana		Suriname		Jamaica	
			Baseline <sup>1</sup>	Status <sup>1</sup>	Baseline <sup>2</sup>	Status <sup>2</sup>	Baseline <sup>3</sup>	Status <sup>3</sup>
	grade 5							
	Percentage of primary school entrants reaching grade 5							
		Drop out rate (primary)						
	Literacy rate of 15 - 24 year olds		...	...				94.3% (2007)
	<b>Target 4: Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education by 2015</b>							
Goal 3	Ratio of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education							
	Primary		0.96 (1996)	0.96 (2003)			0.99 (1990)	0.96 (2007)
	Secondary		1.06 (1996)	1.02 (2003)			1.07 (1990)	1.02 (2007)
	Tertiary		1.22 (1996)	1.03 (2003)			1.26 (1990)	1.98 (2007)
	Ratio of literate females to males		...	...			...	1.07 (2007)
	Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector		38% (1992)	35% (2002)			38.3% (1990)	48.9% (2007)
	Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament		18.5% (1992)	29% (2006)			5.0% (1990)	13% (2007)
	<b>Target 5: Reduce by two thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the under-five mortality rate</b>							
Goal 4	Under five mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)		75 (1999)	64 (2004)	31 (1990)	15.9 (2001)	29.5 (1993)	25.4 (2007)
			26.5 (2000)	26 (2004)				
	Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)		45 (1999)	47 (2004)	21.1 (1990)	21.7 (2001)	24.4 (1990)	21.3 (2007)
				20.7 (2004)				
	Proportion of 1- year -olds immunized against measles		89% (2000)	95% (2006)	65% (1990)	98.4 (1997)	74% (1990)	87.2% (2006)
	<b>Target 6: Reduce by three quarter between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio</b>							
Goal 5	Maternal mortality ratio	Maternal mortality per 100,000 live births	140.1 (1991)	113.0 (2006)	226 (1990)		120 (1986-87)	
	Proportion of births attended by skilled		85.6% (2000)	97.6% (2006)	80% (1990)			96.8% (2006)

Goal	Internationally Agreed Target and Indicator	Localized Indicator	Guyana		Suriname		Jamaica	
			Baseline <sup>1</sup>	Status <sup>1</sup>	Baseline <sup>2</sup>	Status <sup>2</sup>	Baseline <sup>3</sup>	Status <sup>3</sup>
	personnel							
Goal 6	<b>Target 7: Halt by 2015, and begin to reverse, the spread of HIV/AIDS</b>							
	HIV prevalence among 15 - 24 year old pregnant women	HIV prevalence among adults 15 - 49 years	...	20.2% (2004)	1.3% (2001)			1.3% (2007)
	Contraceptive prevalence rate		...	37% (2000)				
	Number of children orphaned by HIV/AIDS		...	...				
	Incidence of Malaria						0	191 (2008)
	Incidence of Tuberculosis					123 (1990)	98 (2008)	
	<b>Target 8: Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases</b>							
	<b>Target 8a: Halt by 2015, and begin to reverse the incidence of malaria</b>							
	Prevalence rates associated with malaria		11.5% (2000)	18.5% (2005)				
	Death rates associated with malaria			22 (2005)				
	<b>Target 8b: Have halted by 2015, and begun to reverse, the incidence of tuberculosis and other major diseases</b>							
Goal 7	<b>Target 9: Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes and reverse the loss of environmental resources</b>							
	Proportion of land covered by forests		76%				30.6% (1990)	30.6% (2007)
	Protected area as a proportion of total surface area		...	5.201 km <sup>2</sup> of 163,820 km <sup>2</sup> (2006)	14% (1990)		T 8.2% (1990)	
							M 0% (1990)	
	GDP per unit of energy use	Nominal GDP per unit of fuel imports						
Carbon dioxide emissions per capita	Carbon dioxide emissions per 1,000 population	1.65 Gg (1990)	2.3 Gg (2002)					

Goal	Internationally Agreed Target and Indicator	Localized Indicator	Guyana		Suriname		Jamaica	
			Baseline <sup>1</sup>	Status <sup>1</sup>	Baseline <sup>2</sup>	Status <sup>2</sup>	Baseline <sup>3</sup>	Status <sup>3</sup>
<b>Target 10: Halve, by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation</b>								
	Proportion of population with sustainable access to an improved source of water	Percentage of population with access to safe drinking water	50.1% (1991)	74.2% (2002)			91.37% (1990)	91.7% (2007)
<b>Target 11: By 2020, to have achieved a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers</b>								
	Proportion of people with access to improved sanitation	Proportion of dwellings owned, leased and rented	31% (1991)	40.1% (2002)			99.1% (1990)	98.9% (2007)
	Proportion of people with access to secure tenure		85.9% (1991)	79% (2002)				
	Proportion of urban population living in slums						29.2% (1990)	60.2% (2007)
<b>Target: Address the special needs of the least developed countries, landlocked countries and small island developing States</b>								
<b>Goal 8</b>	Target 8.5 ODA received in small island developing States in million US\$						270.6 (1990)	27.87 (2007)
	Debt service as a percentage of exports of goods and services and net income							12.43% (2007)
	Telephone lines per 100 population						4.46 (1990)	12.96 (2008)
	Cellular subscribers per 100 population						0 (1990)	100.9 (2008)
	Internet users per 100 population						0 (1990)	55.3 (2008)

Sources:

1. Guyana Millennium Development Goals 2007
2. Suriname MDG Baseline Report
3. National Report of Jamaica on the Millennium Development Goals for the Annual Ministerial Review of the Economic Commission and Social Council (2009)





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