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**REVIEW OF CARIBBEAN ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL PERFORMANCE
IN THE 1980s AND 1990s**



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TABLE OF CONTENTS

THE GLOBAL AND REGIONAL CONTEXT.....	1
ECONOMIC REFORMS IN THE CARIBBEAN	3
TRADE REFORMS AND TRADE PERFORMANCE IN THE CARIBBEAN.....	4
TRADE PERFORMANCE.....	7
MACROECONOMIC PERFORMANCE	9
SAVINGS, INVESTMENT AND ECONOMIC GROWTH.....	12
FOREIGN DIRECT INVESTMENT	13
FISCAL DEFICITS, INFLATION AND EXTERNAL DEBT.....	14
EXCHANGE RATES	15
PRODUCTION STRUCTURES IN THE CARIBBEAN	15
CHANGES IN THE SOCIAL STRUCTURES.....	17
ENVIRONMENT AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT.....	21
CONCLUSION.....	24
STATISTICAL ANNEX	25

THE GLOBAL AND REGIONAL CONTEXT

Introduction

The integration of the world economy gathered momentum in the mid-1980s and continued during the 1990s, through increased trade and financial flows around the world, and the establishment and strengthening of linkages related to the production and distribution of goods and services. Trade flows around the world received a boost from the successful conclusions of the negotiations of the Uruguay Round of trade talks, the establishment of the World Trade Organization (WTO) and the beginning, in 1995, of the implementation of the 1994 General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT).

Other factors reinforcing the growth of trade around the world included the widespread trade liberalization programmes implemented in many countries and the numerous, more comprehensive, and generally more outward-oriented, trade agreements instituted in many parts of the world. Unilateral trade liberalization programmes implemented at the national level also reinforced the trend towards a more open global trading system. During the 1990s the volume of world trade increased substantially compared with the previous decade. World trade increased overall by 53.6 per cent, from an average of 4.4 per cent for the period 1980-89, to an average of 6.76 per cent for the period 1990-97. Although the exports of goods are still dominant in total exports, services have made substantial progress since 1980 and represented more than 20 per cent of world exports in the 1990s¹.

Increased financial flows were the result of widespread liberalization of the current and capital accounts of many countries, successful macroeconomic reforms (including financial sector reforms), and the creation of an environment generally more welcoming to international capital flows. Exchange rate policy reforms, which led generally to more flexible exchange rate systems and the abolition, in many countries, of exchange controls also contributed to the worldwide increase in financial flows.

Technology and technological innovation were key factors influencing the increasing integration of the world economy. They have brought about substantial reductions in the costs of transportation, communications and computing, thus facilitating the integration of national markets in goods, capital and services. In addition, technological innovations have increased the tradeability of services, a growing sector of international trade. The reinforcement of the trend towards a more integrated world economy presents opportunities and challenges to both developing and advanced countries. Better access to larger markets, increased access to finance and investment opportunities, positive externalities from technological spillovers and more competition, are likely to result in efficiency gains in the world economy, but will also continue

¹ International Monetary Fund – World Economic Outlook and International Capital Markets, Interim Assessment – December 1998

to require adjustment to constantly changing economic realities. An inevitable result of an increasingly integrated world economy is the more rapid transmission of both favourable and unfavourable economic shocks.

This increasing globalisation of the world economy has brought about fears in both developed and developing countries. For developing countries, the general concern is that their firms would not be able to compete with the far more efficient firms of developed countries. On the other hand, loss of market share to firms from the low-wage developing countries is a major preoccupation of businesses in the developed countries. These fears have strengthened over recent years, in the face of increasing income disparities within and among countries, and increasing levels of poverty and marginalisation in many parts of the world.

In the Caribbean, major economic and social reforms were undertaken in the 1980s, which continued in the 1990s. These include macroeconomic reforms to consolidate the stability of the economies and correct the external and internal disequilibria, which had developed during the latter part of the 1970s and in the early 1980s. Trade reforms were embarked upon which sought to open regional economies further and capitalise upon the opportunities available in the increasingly liberalised world economy. The 1990s also saw the acceleration of activities to establish the Caribbean Community (CARICOM) Single Market and Economy (SME) (which now includes Suriname and Haiti), as well as CARICOM's widening of its trade and economic relations with the Dominican Republic and other countries in the Western Hemisphere.

During the 1980s and 1990s, there was increased focus on issues related to social equity. Foremost among these were the efforts made to increase employment, improve access to health and education and alleviate poverty, especially in those Caribbean countries which had experienced slow growth or political instability in the decades under review. Efforts were made, as well, to improve gender equity in the subregion, through the implementation of policies and programmes to improve the social and economic status of women. Increased migration and population growth continued to modify the characteristics of the Caribbean population. In 1994, the adoption of the Small Island Developing States Programme of Action (SIDS-POA) focused the attention of governments in the subregion and the world community on the need to preserve the fragile environment of these mostly island States, within the context of sound, sustainable development policies.

This paper seeks to review the social and economic performance of Caribbean countries in the 1980s and the 1990s and highlight a few of the changes which have taken place.

ECONOMIC REFORMS IN THE CARIBBEAN

Macroeconomic disequilibria and the deteriorating economic and social conditions in the Caribbean prompted many countries around the subregion to undertake wide-ranging economic reforms in the 1980s and the 1990s. These reforms include fiscal, monetary and trade policy measures.

The countries of the Organization of Eastern Caribbean States (OECS) managed largely to avoid the macroeconomic disequilibria that beset the other countries of the region in the 1980s. Throughout the decade, this was achieved mainly through relatively prudent macroeconomic management policies and favourable conditions for their exports of primary commodities (namely bananas and sugar) to the protected European market. These countries managed to achieve some of the best rates of growth in the world during the 1980s, experiencing an average of over 5 per cent during the decade. Dominica, one of the slower growing OECS countries, experienced a large fiscal deficit of 8 per cent of GDP in 1985, mainly because of a drop in foreign exchange earnings, which made it difficult to continue the expansionary fiscal policies implemented in the aftermath of increased revenues from banana exports. That country implemented a structural adjustment programme during the period 1987-1991 to correct its macroeconomic disequilibria.

Jamaica, Guyana and Trinidad and Tobago² also undertook structural adjustment programmes, following the expansionary public sector policies they implemented in the 1970s and 1980s, which resulted in growing fiscal and balance of payments deficits and mounting external debts. The economies of these three countries were subject to wide-ranging government intervention, including the establishment of many public-owned enterprises and the use of price and credit controls. In addition, exchange rates were fixed at levels where they became overvalued. Exchange controls and trade restrictions were heavily used and led to massive capital flight from these countries. Generally, these economies were heavily regulated creating many distortions and sending inconsistent signals to both producers and consumers.

Economic reforms implemented in the 1980s and into the 1990s sought to give greater recognition to the role of prices in a freer market. Jamaica, Guyana and Trinidad and Tobago implemented fiscal policy reforms aimed at reducing expenditures and increasing revenues. At the beginning, the reduction in expenditure was carried out mainly through the decrease in capital investment, but later took the form of freezing the wages of public employees, reducing employment in the public service, and decreasing government transfers to public enterprises, including public utilities. Other aspects of the fiscal reforms included the reform of the tax system, which consisted mainly of attempts to widen the tax base through the introduction of consumption taxes and measures to improve the efficiency of tax collection. In addition, vast privatization programmes were implemented in these countries, involving hundreds of State-owned companies.

Economic reforms also included the tightening of monetary policies, mainly through the reduction of public sector credit, the abolition of control on interest rates and the phasing out of

² Jamaica's first structural adjustment programme with the IMF dates back to 1977 while Trinidad and Tobago's first programme started in 1988.

interest rate subsidies. Exchange rate policies were also part of the reform programmes. Exchange rate regimes generally were liberalized and exchange controls phased out. Other aspects of the economic reform programmes included policies designed to facilitate foreign direct investment in these countries. Trade reform programmes carried out included tariff reforms as well as the elimination of quantitative restrictions. Export promotion measures were applied, as well, and included the elimination of export licensing; the simplification of export procedures; and the introduction of export rebate systems in many countries.

These policies seem to have had relative success in Guyana and Trinidad and Tobago, judging from the macroeconomic indicators of the countries which reveal good, but moderate, rates of growth, low inflation and low budget deficits. However, Guyana remains saddled with a heavy debt burden, which complicates economic management in that country and threatens the newly achieved and still fragile economic stability. In the case of Jamaica, the structural adjustment has been less successful in the sense that the country is yet to achieve sustained macroeconomic stability and is still grappling with high fiscal deficits and high inflation.

Notwithstanding the tensions of adjustment, good, but moderate, growth rates have returned in those countries that implemented structural adjustment programmes in the 1980s and 1990s. Guyana has registered the strongest growth of the subregion in the 1990s mainly because it started from a lower base and has implemented major economic reforms. In the 1990s, the countries of the OECS experienced more moderate growth rates than those they recorded in the 1980s.

TRADE REFORMS AND TRADE PERFORMANCE IN THE CARIBBEAN

Caribbean countries benefit from a number of preferential schemes including the Caribbean Basin Initiative (CBI), CARIBCAN and Lomé. Under the CBI, Caribbean countries, together with Central American countries, have duty free access to the United States market for most commodities. Garments, footwear and petroleum products are exceptions. Caribbean countries also benefit from special provisions under United States customs regulations on products made in the Caribbean using components from the United States.

Under Lomé IV, the European Union (EU) provides duty free access to its market to all African, Caribbean and Pacific (ACP) countries, including all CARICOM countries. The agreement also provides for special regimes for bananas, rum and sugar from CARICOM countries. The United States also offers duty free sugar quotas to some Caribbean countries, mainly Barbados, Guyana, Jamaica, St Kitts and Nevis and Trinidad and Tobago. Under CARIBCAN, Canada offers duty free access to all Caribbean exports, except textiles, clothing, footwear, some leather products, lubricating oils and methanol. These schemes have been eroded somewhat, mainly because of the implementation of the Uruguay Round of trade talks, the coming into effect of the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) and the ruling by a WTO dispute panel against the European Union banana regime.

The preferences offered for sugar and bananas had a positive impact on the economies of the Caribbean, since they served to maintain or increase employment and boost incomes and economic returns, despite the fact that these countries are high cost producers of these commodities. This support, which helped these industries to survive, does not seem to have increased their efficiency or productivity, leading to further dependence on the subsidies provided by the preferential regimes. The resources put into these industries may have led to a less than optimal use of resources in the economy and discouraged the development of other activities to assist in the achievement of the long-standing objective of economic diversification.

The preferences available under the United States Customs Codes 806/807 have contributed greatly to the creation of many of the export processing zones in the Caribbean, especially those of the Dominican Republic and Jamaica, and have served to stimulate the development of some manufacturing industries in the subregion. However, this may not be sustainable in the long run, given that the export success of these zones was based on special preferences, and that trade is becoming progressively more liberalized. In fact, there are indications that the access to the United States market, which was granted to Mexico under NAFTA, may have eroded the advantages of Caribbean exports under both CBI and the United States Customs Code.

In the 1990s, Caribbean trade policies were heavily influenced by the implementation of the programme for the establishment of a single market and economy in CARICOM, and initiatives undertaken to create trade links between CARICOM and other groupings in Latin America and the Caribbean. Another salient feature of Caribbean policies in the decade was the preparation for and the beginning of the negotiations, together with other ACP countries, for a successor agreement to Lomé IV. The negotiating position, so far, seems to be leaning towards seeking the continuation of preferences beyond 2005.

In the 1980s, the CARICOM Common External Tariff (CET), together with a host of other non-tariff barriers, was highly protective. It was highly dispersed with 16 tariff rates ranging from 0 to 70 per cent, but with most of the tariff positions (over nine-tenths) at or below the 45 per cent level. In addition to the tariffs, CARICOM countries applied an array of measures to imports including stamp duties, customs surcharges and consumption charges, all of which were usually higher than those applied to domestically produced goods. It was also typical of the trade regime in the CARICOM countries to include a wide range of exemptions, which generally included industrial inputs, machinery and equipment and materials for industrial inputs. It was also the norm to exempt from all duties imports for the numerous public sector enterprises which existed in these countries. The CARICOM trade regime also includes Rules of Origin based on the standard principles of products being wholly produced or having undergone substantial transformation in the subregion to qualify for duty free treatment. The substantial transformation criterion requires the use of specified regional inputs or, in certain cases, specified processes.

Duty exemptions have led to the substantial loss of revenues and may have contributed to increasing the level of effective protection in the countries, leading to the inefficient production of goods and services. The trade regime clearly encouraged production for the local or regional protected market and created a bias against production for exports. The Rules of Origin encouraged producers to use locally produced inputs, which were, more often than not, more

expensive than similar imports. This might have served to increase the costs of production of goods in the CARICOM subregion and created obstacles to the production and export of products capable of competing on international markets. The specification in the system of Rules of Origin, that a particular method of production must be used, may also have impeded the development of new products and prevented the business sector from taking advantage of new technological developments.

In the 1990s, the CARICOM trade regime was subject to substantial revision. The tariff structure was significantly simplified and the various rates reduced. Tariffs were reduced from a range of 0-70 per cent to 0-45 per cent in 1991. However, the major revision took place in 1993, when four tariff positions were adopted and were to be phased down over a period of five years. This reform signaled a shift toward more open economies in the Caribbean subregion. When implemented, the CARICOM CET will be in the range of 0-20 per cent, except for agricultural products, which will continue to attract a tariff of 40 per cent. However, there have been slippages in the implementation of the agreed phases of tariff reforms. The fourth and last phase, originally scheduled for completion in 1998, is yet to be implemented by the majority of the countries.

More recently, beginning in 1997, CARICOM prepared a number of protocols to revise the Treaty of Chaguaramas, its basic agreement. When implemented, some of these protocols will greatly increase the openness of member States to trade and investment from other members of the Community. For example, Protocol II, possibly the most advanced in terms of implementation, will allow CARICOM nationals to establish business enterprises, provide services and move capital without restrictions within the subregion. The further integration of factor markets, which is likely to come out of the implementation of this protocol, will be conducive to a better allocation of resources in the subregion and enhance the capacity of the countries to absorb and deal with external shocks more effectively. Other protocols that will significantly affect trade and investment in the subregion include Protocol III, which governs community industrial policy; Protocol V on agricultural policy; Protocol IV on trade policy; Protocol VIII which concerns dispute settlement; and Protocol IX on competition policy. These Protocols, when implemented, will greatly enhance the trade policy within the community and may impact positively on the community's external policies.

In addition to its efforts to create the single market and economy, CARICOM also pursued policies to integrate its member countries further into the wider Caribbean and Latin America. In the 1990s, Suriname became a full member of the Caribbean Community (1993), and in 1997, Haiti was provisionally accepted as a member.³ CARICOM also signed free trade agreements with Venezuela, Colombia and, more recently, with the Dominican Republic, in further efforts to integrate their economies in the wider Caribbean. The details of the latter agreement are still being negotiated. With the exception of the Bahamas, all CARICOM

³ At the Twentieth Meeting of the Conference of Heads of Government of CARICOM in July 1999, Heads of Government and Haiti exchanged Notes agreeing to the terms and conditions under which that country will accede to membership of the Community. Haiti is to deposit an Instrument of Accession to the Treaty of Chaguaramas, which established the Community in 1973. The Treaty must be ratified by the Haitian Parliament in order for Haiti's membership in CARICOM to take full legal effect.

countries are members of the WTO and participate in the negotiations of the (FTAA), with a view to interacting more within the increasingly liberalized world economy.

As part of the group of ACP countries, Caribbean countries are also participating in the ongoing negotiations with the European Union for a successor to Lomé IV. Recognizing their limited financial and human resources capabilities, these Caribbean countries have created a Regional Negotiating Mechanism (RNM) to coordinate and articulate their positions at these international negotiations. CARICOM member countries are also members of the Association of Caribbean States (ACS), and some countries have shown interest in the Caribbean Preferential Tariff Scheme which, when implemented, will give tariff preferences to goods originating from the participating ACS countries.

TRADE PERFORMANCE

In the 1980s, CDCC⁴ exports decreased from US\$12,765 million in 1980 to US\$7,018 million in 1987 or a decrease of 45 per cent. This decrease was largely a result of the economic contraction experienced by the larger countries in the subregion. For the corresponding period of the 1990s, exports increased from US\$12,172 million in 1990 to US\$14,073 million in 1997 or an increase of 15.6 per cent. The relative stability in the subregion, as a whole, and the resumption of growth in the larger economies in the 1990s, contributed to this increase in exports. For the CARICOM countries, total exports decreased from US\$496.74 million in 1980 to US\$475.41 million in 1990. Exports then increased to US\$810 million in the 1990s or close to double their 1990 levels, reflecting the overall pattern of increased growth and income in the Caribbean in the 1990s.

Intra-CARICOM exports increased over the years from 8.7 per cent of the countries' total exports in 1980 to 12.3 per cent in 1990 and 18.4 per cent in 1996, indicating increased growth and further trade liberalization in the Community. The fact that the intra-CARICOM exports kept rising despite the overall contraction of the subregion's exports in the 1980s indicates the level of protection of the regional market. Intra-CARICOM imports also increased as a proportion of total imports, but much more moderately. They represented 8.8 per cent of total imports in 1980, 9.5 per cent in 1990 and 10 per cent in 1996. Like CARICOM total exports, CARICOM total imports also decreased in the 1980s reaching US\$500 million in 1990, compared to US\$522.81 million in 1980. They then went up to stand at US\$712 million in 1996.

The destination of CARICOM exports changed very little in the 1990s compared to the 1980s, except for the notable increase of the proportion of CARICOM exports going to other members of the Community. The major destinations remained the United States with 48.7 per cent of CARICOM exports in 1980, 40.7 per cent in 1990 and 38.5 per cent in 1996. The second

⁴ CDCC member and associate member countries are: Anguilla, Antigua and Barbuda, Aruba, the Bahamas, Barbados, Belize, British Virgin Islands, Cuba, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Grenada, Guyana, Haiti, Jamaica, Montserrat, Netherlands Antilles, Puerto Rico, St. Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, St. Vincent and the Grenadines, Suriname, Trinidad and Tobago and the United States Virgin Islands.

major destination of Caribbean exports was the European Union with 16.5 per cent of CARICOM exports in 1980, 20.6 per cent in 1990 and 18 per cent in 1996. The proportion of CARICOM exports going to other CARICOM countries represented 18.3 per cent in 1996 or a percentage which was slightly higher than that going to the European Union. The origin of CARICOM imports followed a pattern similar to that of exports. CARICOM received 27.8 per cent of its imports of 1980 from the United States. That proportion increased to 41.2 per cent in 1990 and 44.4 per cent in 1996. The second largest source of CARICOM imports was the European Union, which provided 15.8 per cent of CARICOM imports in 1980, 15.5 per cent in 1990 and 14.1 per cent in 1996. A new important feature of CARICOM's imports is the growing importance of imports from Asia. These imports represented 6 per cent of CARICOM imports in 1980, then moved to 7.7 per cent in 1990 and 14.1 per cent in 1996.

In the early 1980s, CARICOM exports were dominated initially by oil and bauxite, but as the prices of these commodities fell towards the end of the decade, agricultural products (namely bananas, sugar and cocoa) assumed greater importance. Revenues from sugar and bauxite declined in the 1990s, reflecting generally weaker prices and recurrent damage caused by natural disasters. Earnings from sugar increased in the 1980s from US\$3,887.7 million in 1980 to US\$4,443 million in 1986. Since then, they decreased from US\$1660.5 million in 1992 to US\$1170.8 million in 1995. Bauxite revenues in Jamaica and Guyana have been on the decline as well. They fell from average earnings of US\$227.2 million in the 1980s, to an average of US\$146.2 million in the 1990s. In contrast, the average earnings of Caribbean countries from bananas increased significantly in the 1990s to an average of US\$156.92 million in the period 1990-97, compared to an average of US\$84.7 million in the 1980s.

Manufacturing represented an increasing share of Caribbean exports in the late 1980s and into the 1990s. The main products that were being manufactured were household goods assembly, electronic goods assembly, iron and steel, clothing, processed foods and petroleum-based products. However, the manufacturing sector exports were essentially oriented towards the regional protected market or the preferential United States market, in the case of offshore production. More recently, with the implementation of economic reforms and the move towards more open markets, the manufacturing sector in the Caribbean has also begun to target international markets, especially those of the wider Caribbean and Latin America.

Exports of services, especially tourism, have emerged as significant foreign exchange earners in the Caribbean. Tourism has contributed significantly to the foreign exchange revenues of Antigua and Barbuda, Barbados, Bahamas, Jamaica, Saint Lucia and Saint Vincent and the Grenadines. In each of these countries, in 1996, with the exception of Jamaica, tourism revenues largely exceeded revenues from the exports of goods.

Antigua and Barbuda's exports brought in US\$30.09 million in 1996, while its earnings from tourism amounted to US\$257.9 million. Barbados earned US\$214.23 million from exports of goods in 1996, while its earnings from tourism for the same year amounted to US\$684.9 million. The Bahamas earned US\$1397.8 million from tourism in 1996, while its exports of goods brought in a mere US\$202 million. Saint Lucia earned US\$79.48 million from its exports of goods in 1996, but its earnings from tourism amounted to US\$268.9 million for the same year.

MACROECONOMIC PERFORMANCE

The growth performance of Caribbean countries varied a great deal in the 1980s with some countries showing much stronger growth than others, while a few countries experienced a contraction of their economies. The OECS countries and Belize grew at an average of over 5 per cent during the 1980s. This strong growth performance was the result of substantial revenue earnings from the exports of bananas for Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines and Dominica and expanding revenues from tourism for Antigua and Barbuda, Saint Lucia, and Saint Vincent and the Grenadines. Increased income from banana and tourism exports stimulated the growth of domestic activities in construction, retail trade, banking and insurance and real estate in these countries. These countries also implemented generally sound macroeconomic policies.

Table 1
Per cent change in GDP for the period 1980-1989 (at constant prices)

	1980	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	Average Growth Rate
ANTIGUA & BARBUDA	6.7	0.4	6.9	7.5	7.7	8.4	8.8	7.6	5.9	6.7
BAHAMAS	6.7	6.9	3.2	6.4	5.2	1.4	4.6	4.7	4	4.8
BARBADOS	4.3	-5.0	0.4	3.6	1.2	5.1	2.5	3.5	3.5	2.1
BELIZE	2.4	-0.8	0.8	0.8	2.3	1.5	5	7.6	14.7	3.8
CUBA (1)	-0.5	3.9	4.9	7.2	4.6	1.2	-3.5	2.3	1.1	2.4
DOMINICA	16.5	1.9	3	5	1.7	6.8	6.8	5.6	-1.1	5.1
DOMINICAN REPUBLIC	6	1.5	4.6	0.3	-2.6	2	8.1	0.9	4.5	2.8
GRENADA	...	5.3	1.4	5.4	4.9	5.5	6	4.3	5.7	4.8
GUYANA	1.9	-10.4	-9.3	2.1	1	0.2	0.7	-3	-4.7	-2.4
HAITI	6.7	-3.5	0.6	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.1	-0.8	0.7	0.6
JAMAICA	-5.4	0.5	2.3	-0.9	-4.7	1.9	5.2	1.5	6.5	0.8
ST KITTS/NEVIS	3.9	6.8	-1.1	9	5.6	6.3	6.8	4.7	6.7	5.4
ST LUCIA	-1	3.2	4.1	5	6	5.9	2	5	4.6	3.9
ST VINCENT & GREN.	3.3	5.1	5.8	5.3	4.6	7.2	5.7	8.4	7.2	5.8
SURINAME	-6.6	2.0	-4.1	-1.9	-2.3	-2	-6.6	...	2	-2.4
TRINIDAD & TOBAGO	-6.5	4.0	5.2	-7.1	-4.5	-1	-6.1	-4.7	0.7	-2.2
BR. VIRGIN ISLANDS	14	...	5.9	5.6	0.2	4.2	16	10	-	8.0
MONTserrat	9.4	...	-5.3	2.8	5.4	5.1	10.8	12.1	-	5.8
PUERTO RICO	1.6	-4.8	1.7	6.6	2.2	7	7.6	5.2	4.9	4.6

(1) Global social product in 1981 prices

Source: ECLAC based on national data

Another country where tourism made a significant contribution to foreign exchange earnings and domestic economic activity was Jamaica which grew at an average rate of 0.8 per cent in the 1980s. The fluctuations in earnings from bauxite and alumina and the servicing of a heavy debt burden dampened, somewhat, the growth of the Jamaican economy in the 1980s. The Barbados economy grew at an average of 2.12 per cent in the 1980s. A contraction of major proportions in the Barbados economy in 1982, explained partly by the world recession of the early 1980s, the weakening in the prices of agricultural products and the decline in tourist receipts, contributed to the moderate average growth of that country in the 1980s.

Three Caribbean countries, Guyana, Trinidad and Tobago and Suriname experienced declines in their GDP in the 1980s. That decline was as a result of substantial decreases in the prices of their main export commodities: oil for Trinidad and Tobago; and bauxite for Guyana and Suriname, and the consequent reduction in their foreign exchange earnings. The fall in export earnings had negative effects on domestic economic activity in these countries. In addition, Suriname experienced persistent political instability. Also, the countries had experienced large fiscal and balance of payments deficits and had to implement strong and comprehensive economic reform programmes in the latter part of the 1980s.

The picture in the 1980s changed somewhat in the 1990s with the resumption of growth in the countries which experienced economic contraction in the previous decade and the continuation of growth, albeit at more moderate levels in the OECS countries. In the 1990s, the OECS countries' growth performance slowed down somewhat, as compared to the 1980s, but these countries still managed to record an average growth rate of 3.05 per cent for the period 1990-97. This relative slowdown in economic growth was the result of the recurrent negative effects of hurricanes on agricultural production, the economic infrastructure and the tourism industry.

After a severe economic contraction in the 1980s, Guyana's economy resumed growth in the 1990s when it expanded at an average of 5.6 per cent for the period 1990-1997, the highest average growth rate in the subregion. The economic recovery programme implemented in the country in the late 1980s and the country's low starting base contributed to the strong resumption of growth in the economy. Better macroeconomic management, which significantly brought down the fiscal deficit and the rate of inflation, combined with measures to create a better functioning of the market, resulted in increased output, particularly in the agricultural sector (led by sugar and rice). However, Guyana still carries a heavy debt burden resulting from its foreign financed expansionary policies of the 1970s. The country still finds it difficult to service its debt despite the fact that it benefited from the cancellation of part of its debt, under the programme for highly indebted poor countries.

The economies of Jamaica and Suriname grew by an average of 0.6 per cent and 0.9 per cent, respectively, for the period 1990-97. After a strong recovery in the late 1980s and early 1990s, the Jamaican economy started to slow down in the mid-1990s and declined from 1996 onwards. This decline in the latter part of the 1990s was the result of a combination of macroeconomic disequilibria, resulting from increased government expenditures financed by the Central Bank, the servicing of a heavy debt burden and drought conditions which negatively affected the agricultural sector. Jamaica has also financed a costly restructuring of its financial sector.

Table 2
Per cent change in GDP for the period 1990-1997

	1990	1991	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	Average Growth Rate
ANGUILLA	-	-	7.5	7.1	-4.1	3.4	9.4	4.7
ANTIGUA AND BARBUDA	2.8	1.6	5.1	6.2	-5.0	5.4	2.7	2.7
ARUBA	-	-	5.0	6.0	6.0	4.0	4.0	5.0
BARBADOS	-3.1	-4.1	1.0	4.0	2.5	4.7	3.1	1.2
BELIZE	8.9	4.2	4.3	1.5	3.8	1.5	2.9	3.9
CUBA	1.0	-	-14.9	0.7	2.5	7.8	2.5	-0.1
DOMINICA	6.6	-2.1	1.9	2.1	1.6	3.7	1.4	2.2
DOMINICAN REPUBLIC	-4.8	-0.5	3.0	4.3	4.8	7.3	8.2	3.2
GRENADA	5.2	2.9	-1.2	3.3	3.1	3.1	4.6	3.0
GUYANA	-3.1	6.1	8.3	8.5	5.1	7.9	6.3	5.6
HAITI	-0.6	-1.4	-2.4	-8.3	4.4	2.8	1.1	-0.6
JAMAICA	4.8	0.2	1.4	1.1	0.5	-1.7	-2.4	0.6
MONTSERRAT	-	-	1.9	-0.8	-2.9	-0.6
NETHERLANDS ANT.	-	-	-1.8	1.7	1.3	-1.0	-2.5	-0.5
SAINT KITTS AND NEVIS	3.0	6.9	5.4	5.4	3.5	5.9	6.3	5.2
SAINT LUCIA	4.0	1.7	2.3	2.5	1.1	-0.8	2.2	1.9
ST. VINCENT & GREN.	7.1	4.6	-0.7	-3.0	8.3	1.3	2.2	2.8
SURINAME	0.2	-	-4.4	-4.2	5.2	3.0	5.6	0.9
TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO	0.2	1.8	-1.5	3.6	3.8	3.5	3.2	2.1

Source: ECLAC, based on national data

After experiencing economic contraction in the early part of the 1990s, the Suriname economy recovered in 1995 and resumed growth from that time onwards, following the economic reform programme implemented in the mid-1990s. However, the fact that Suriname still experienced instability and had a heavy debt burden, complicates macroeconomic management and may have adversely affected the still fragile recent recovery.

The Barbados economy slowed somewhat in the 1990s. It grew at an average of 1.2 per cent during the period 1990-97 compared to an average growth rate of 3.5 per cent in the 1980s. The economy experienced a strong contraction in both 1990 and 1991, when GDP contracted by 3.1 per cent and 4.1 per cent, respectively. This contraction was caused by the weakness of the world economy in the early 1990s and the loss of competitiveness of the country's main exports of tourism, agricultural products and manufactures. The loss of competitiveness was the result of increasing cost of production in the country. The implementation of an economic stabilization programme in 1991 and a more favourable external environment contributed to a resumption of growth from 1993 onwards.

After contracting for a number of years in the latter part of the 1980s, the Trinidad and Tobago economy recovered in the 1990s, growing at an average of 2.1 per cent for the period 1990-1997. Trinidad and Tobago implemented a strong and wide-ranging adjustment programme in 1988, which resulted in substantial reductions in the country's fiscal and balance of payments deficits, and an economic environment more conducive to investment and growth. The

resumption of growth in the oil and gas sectors and a re-emergence of the manufacturing sector had positive effects on other activities in the economy, such as construction, banking, insurance and real estate.

SAVINGS, INVESTMENT AND ECONOMIC GROWTH

While the mobilization of domestic savings has long been recognized as essential for economic growth and development, the high level of public consumption in many Caribbean countries continues to be the major factor retarding high levels of capital accumulation.

The average ratio of gross investment to GDP increased in all the More Developed Countries (MDCs), with the exception of Trinidad and Tobago. It increased slightly from 23 per cent to 30.3 per cent in Jamaica, and it almost doubled in the case of Guyana, rising from 27.3 to 43.1 per cent in 1980s and 1990s period, respectively. For Trinidad and Tobago, the ratio of gross investment to GDP lost 7 percentage points during the 1990s.

The countries of the OECS maintained relatively high investment to GDP ratios compared to the MDCs, partly as a result of the relatively high real GDP growth rates. The average ratio of gross investment to GDP for OECS countries rose from 33.2 per cent in the period 1981-1989 to 36.4 per cent in the 1990-1996 period. Not surprisingly, the fastest growers, such as the OECS countries, tended to have the highest rate of capital accumulation, while the worst performers have had the lowest rates of investment.

In virtually all the countries in the Caribbean the ratio of gross investment continued to outpace the ratio of gross domestic savings by a substantial margin.⁵ This resulted in chronic current account deficits. It appears, therefore, that external savings continue to be the most dynamic component of financing domestic investment. Current account deficits tended to be higher in the OECS countries, averaging 26.6 per cent and 18.0 per cent of GDP in 1980s and 1990s, respectively. In the MDCs, current account deficits improved markedly from an average 4.9 per cent in the 1980s to 0.36 per cent in the 1990s. Trinidad and Tobago recorded a surplus on the current account in the 1990s estimated at 10.7 per cent of gross domestic product, but this came at the expense of investment.

There appears to be clear discernable patterns between growth in the economy and investment to GDP ratio. The average investment to GDP ratio in the OECS countries in the 1980s was 33.2 per cent with real economic growth averaging 5.1 per cent compared to an investment to GDP ratio and economic growth of 22.9 and – 0.4 per cent, respectively, for the MDCs. In the 1990s, however, the picture changed somewhat with GDP growth declining to an average 3.01 per cent in the OECS, while investment to GDP ratio increased to almost 36.4 per

⁵ Due to the lack of sufficient time series data, gross domestic product (GDP) and domestic savings are used rather than gross national product (GNP) and thus national savings. The difference between gross domestic savings (GDS) and gross national savings (GNS) is the net factor income from abroad. In the case of some Caribbean countries receiving remittances from nationals working abroad, gross national savings could be larger relative to gross domestic savings.

cent. The contraction in GDP growth was attributable to a substantial decline in GDP growth in Montserrat to a negative 0.6 per cent on account of the damage caused by the volcano to the country's economic infrastructure. In the MDCs, economic growth rate rebounded significantly to 2.4 per cent with investment ratio increasing further to 29.3 per cent.

It appears, therefore, that countries with high economic growth on average tend to have relatively high investment to GDP ratios. It is interesting to note that the levels of gross fixed capital formation in the OECS countries have been comparable to those of South East Asian countries.

FOREIGN DIRECT INVESTMENT

There has been a tremendous surge in capital inflows to developing countries in recent times. These flows have been shared across geographical regions, with the exception of sub-Saharan Africa. Of the flows to Latin America and the Caribbean, almost one third went to Brazil alone.⁶ An analysis of inflows by type reveals that, unlike South East Asia, which attracted portfolio equity ("hot money"), the Caribbean countries mostly attracted foreign direct investment (FDI).

These foreign direct investments have continued to play an increasing role in the economic development of many Caribbean countries, augmenting low domestic savings. Foreign direct investment to the subregion grew from US\$689 million in 1990 to US\$2,084 million in 1997, representing an increase of 202 per cent during the period under review. The largest recipient of FDI in the Caribbean has been Trinidad and Tobago, which accounted for 48 per cent of FDI in 1997, followed by the Dominican Republic with 20 per cent, and Jamaica with 6.6 per cent of total inflows. In Guyana, net FDI inflows picked up considerably since 1992, and accounted for 4.3 per cent of total FDI in 1997. Net inward foreign direct investment also played an important role (though to a lesser extent) in the economies of OECS countries, accounting for approximately 8 per cent of flows to the Caribbean. In 1997 net inward foreign direct investment to the subregion rose by 55.8 per cent, despite the financial crisis that started in South East Asia and eventually spread to other developing countries.

The lion's share of FDI went to Trinidad and Tobago (US\$1000 million), mainly channeled into the petroleum industry (exploration, production and refining facilities and petrochemical firms).⁷ In the Dominican Republic, foreign direct investment went into the export manufacturing industry, particularly the maquila industries in the export processing zones (EPZs). A host of factors, such as trade and financial liberalization, privatization and deregulation, introduction of liberal investment policies and fiscal incentives, have contributed to the sharp increase in net inward foreign direct investment to the Caribbean.

⁶ See ECLAC LC/G.2042-P "Foreign Investment in Latin America and the Caribbean" December 1998.

⁷ Ibid., p 48.

FISCAL DEFICITS, INFLATION AND EXTERNAL DEBT

Fiscal deficits were generally moderate in the Caribbean, except for Guyana where the fiscal deficit reached 50 per cent of GDP in 1987. However, that deficit declined dramatically to reach a level of 3.3 per cent of GDP in 1996. Prudent fiscal policies in the OECS have meant that these countries generally avoided large fiscal deficits, while managing a good economic performance. Even during the relative slowdown of their economies in the 1990s, these countries managed to achieve fiscal surpluses or moderate fiscal deficits. Trinidad and Tobago also managed to substantially reduce its budget deficits in the 1990s, even achieving modest surpluses in 1995 and 1996.

Table 3
Fiscal Deficit (as a per cent of GDP)

	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Antigua and Barbuda	-	-4.0	-4.1	1.2	-1.9	-0.5	-1.4	-2.8	-2.9	-1.1
Aruba	-7.5	-5.5	-3.7	-2.6	-0.4	-1.8	0.5	0.2	-0.4	-1.5
Barbados	-8.8	-4.6	-2.3	-8.4	-1.8	-1.9	-2.5	-1.2	-0.9	-3.8
Belize	-0.4	10.1	0.3	0.3	-5.0	-7.5	-9.1	-7.6	-4.3	-3.4
Dominica	-1.2	1.2	-0.1	-10.0	-3.3	-5.7	-0.3	-4.8	-5.7	-1.9
Grenada	-10.2	-10.6	-11.2	-14.6	-4.8	-0.6	-0.9	-1.9	0.1	-3.3
Guyana	-50.0	-36.4	-7.9	-24.6	-27.3	-19.8	-8.1	-1.8	-2.3	-3.3
Jamaica	7.1	3.4	-1.7	4.8	-5.6	-6.6	-2.7	-10.7	-5.4	-24.6
Netherlands Antilles	-0.3	-1.1	-2.9	-3.8	-3.4	-6.7	-2.5	-6.2	-5.1	-4.8
St. Kitts and Nevis	-25.9	-8.7	-4.5	-0.3	-2.3	-1.2	-1.4	-3.0	-6.6	-5.7
St. Lucia	-0.6	3.1	2.0	1.0	0.7	-1.8	-0.7	-0.8	-1.2	-2.2
St. Vincent & the Grenadines	3.6	1.1	-2.6	-0.8	-0.2	-4.3	-4.8	-0.3	-2.4	1.6
Trinidad and Tobago	-5.9	-5.7	-4.2	-1.2	-0.2	-2.7	-0.2	0.0	0.2	1.5

Source: ECLAC based on national data

The fiscal deficit in Jamaica deteriorated substantially since the mid-1990s. It reached 10.7 per cent and 24.6 per cent in 1994 and 1996, respectively. One of the major contributors to this recent deterioration of the fiscal accounts in Jamaica was the extraordinary expenditure incurred for the establishment of the Financial Sector Adjustment Company to restructure the country's troubled financial institutions.

The external debt situation has been moderate in the Caribbean, except for Guyana and Jamaica, where debt, although decreasing as a percentage of GDP, is still quite high and constitutes a heavy burden on the economies of these two countries. In Guyana, external debt decreased from 382.4 per cent of GDP in 1987 to 215 per cent of GDP in 1996, while in Jamaica it decreased from 137.7 per cent of GDP in 1987 to 56 per cent of GDP in 1996.

Inflation in the Caribbean has been moderate, except in Guyana, Suriname and, to a certain extent, Jamaica. High rates of inflation in these countries resulted from their expansionary policies of the past, which were associated with financing by the Central Bank through the printing of money. In Guyana, the rate of inflation has decreased dramatically since the institution of the economic recovery programme in that country, and the consequent tightening of monetary and fiscal policies. It decreased from 64.9 per cent in 1990 to 4.6 per cent in 1998. In Jamaica, the rate of inflation also decreased substantially, but remained high at 7.8

per cent in 1998. The rate could increase quickly if the high fiscal deficit in that country is not brought under control. The rate of inflation was still very high in Suriname, 16.3 per cent in 1997, and the continuing economic and political instability in that country could weaken macroeconomic management and increase further inflationary pressures.

In the OECS countries, the generally sound fiscal policies implemented in both the 1980s and the 1990s have served to restrict inflationary pressures in these economies. In addition, Trinidad and Tobago has managed to bring its inflation rates down from a high level of 10.8 per cent in 1993 to a level of 3.7 per cent in 1997, mainly through the implementation of tighter fiscal policies.

EXCHANGE RATES

The exchange rates in most of the Caribbean countries were fixed in the 1980s. The exchange rates of Guyana, Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago became overvalued in the face of serious fiscal and balance payments deficits. These countries had to defend the fixed parity of their respective currencies to the United States dollar through the imposition of exchange controls and other trade restriction measures, such as exports proceeds surrender requirements, creating major distortions in their economies, and encouraging imports and import substitutions at the expense of exports. These policies only served to worsen the macroeconomic disequilibria of these countries, and later led to the implementation of structural reforms.

After a series of devaluations, Guyana, Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago abandoned the costly defense of their overvalued fixed exchange rates and allowed their currencies to depreciate by adopting floating exchange rates. The exchange rates have come under pressure on many occasions since then, and their value has been supported by the monetary authorities, through the tightening of credit in the economies and the conduct of open market operations. The OECS have been able to maintain their fixed exchange rate mainly because of their generally healthy fiscal and balance of payments positions, and the currency board approach to monetary management by their Central Bank, the Eastern Caribbean Central Bank (ECCB). The Bank maintains a strict relationship between money supply and foreign currency reserves. In addition, a limit on fiscal deficit financing is strictly enforced. Barbados has maintained a fixed exchange rate, mainly by using income and price policies to alleviate recurrent downward pressure on the exchange rate.

PRODUCTION STRUCTURES IN THE CARIBBEAN

Caribbean production structures evolved over the decade of the 1990s compared with the previous decade. There was a generally slight movement in the 1980s away from agriculture and manufacturing towards services. There were, however, significant differences among the countries of the subregion. In fact, Guyana, Saint Lucia and Saint Vincent and the Grenadines experienced an increase in the contribution of agriculture to their GDP.

In Guyana, agricultural output increased dramatically with the introduction of economic reforms in the late 1980s, especially the lifting of price controls and exchange restrictions and the liberalization of trade and the exchange rate. Saint Lucia and Saint Vincent and the Grenadines increased their agricultural production in reaction to banana price increases and the depreciation of the United States dollar vis-à-vis the Pound Sterling.

Manufacturing declined in the 1980s mainly because of the contraction of that sector in the major Caribbean manufacturing centers, such as Trinidad and Tobago, which went into a recession in the latter part of the 1980s.

The dynamic sector of the 1980s was services, mainly tourism, which became a major source of foreign exchange earnings, economic activity and employment in Caribbean countries, such as Barbados, the OECS countries and Jamaica. In the 1990s, tourism continued to be a significant contributor to the economic growth in these countries encouraging other Caribbean countries, such as Trinidad and Tobago, to start developing that sector of their economies.

Many countries in the subregion actively promoted other subsectors of services, such as informatics and offshore finance. The manufacturing sector also picked up somewhat in the 1990s, mainly in Trinidad and Tobago, Saint Lucia and Barbados. The contribution of the manufacturing sector to national output in Trinidad and Tobago has increased from 13.2 per cent in 1993 to 16.6 per cent in 1996. In Barbados and Saint Lucia it contributed 5.2 per cent and 7.5 per cent, respectively, in 1996.

The production of the main agricultural crops in the Caribbean continued their secular decline in the 1990s. Sugar production declined from 1.1 million tons in 1970 to 396,000 tons in 1996. A similar decline was observed in the production of cocoa and coffee, which decreased from 11.7 tons in 1970 to 4.9 tons in 1996 and from 4.1 tons in 1970 to 1.7 tons in 1996, respectively. The production of bananas, although fluctuating, remained unchanged over the two decades. However, the threat to the preferential access of bananas to the European market may negatively affect the production of this agricultural commodity. Some of the factors contributing to the decline in agricultural production include decrease in prices, improper post harvest treatment, inadequate natural resources management (particularly land and water resulting in low soil fertility), low productivity and failure to adhere to standards requirements. Technology introduced in agriculture has generally concentrated on production rather than transformation.

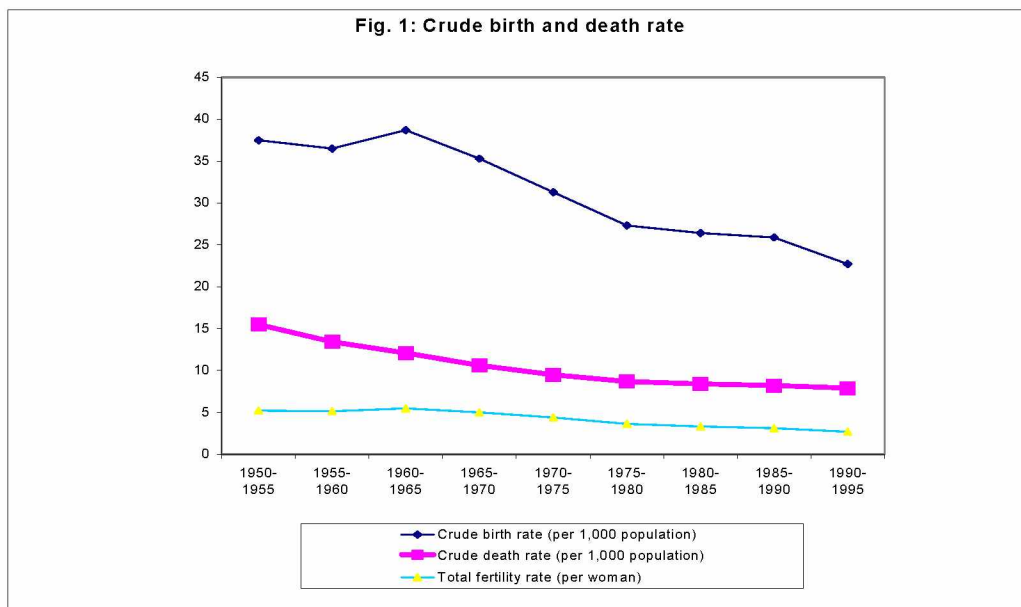
The manufacturing sector in the Caribbean which caters largely for the protected subregional market and the United States market, in the case of the free trade zones, has not, by and large, attained the level of efficiency to compete successfully on international markets. The low productivity of this sector has led to the establishment of many programmes in the subregion to improve efficiency of production. Many countries have put in place special systems of support to small and medium sized firms, which generally provide training in management skills and promote entrepreneurship. For example, Trinidad and Tobago has, since the mid-1980s, initiated small business development and training programmes, such as the Youth Training and Employment Partnership Programme (YTEPP). Also in the OECS, small enterprise development units and national development corporations were established to promote entrepreneurship.

However, these support schemes generally lack implementation capacity, especially in the provision of technological assistance.

There are a number of policy documents, which seek to promote science and technology in the subregion, but these have not been implemented, leaving the countries with weak research and development capabilities and low levels of technological development. More recently, many countries have established bureaux of standards, but most of these are still inadequately staffed and lack the resources and, in some cases, the legislative authority to function properly. There has, however, been no progress in the establishment of national bodies responsible for the direction and funding of science and technology along the lines of the national offices for science and technology, which exist in many Latin American countries. This constitutes a major impediment to the development of science and technology in the Caribbean and its incorporation into the production process.

CHANGES IN THE SOCIAL STRUCTURES

There have been significant changes in the social structures of Caribbean countries – changes driven mainly by the rate of population growth, the ageing of the population, migration, urbanization and the increasing negative effects of HIV/AIDS. Population growth was slow over the 1980s and 1990s, due to a number of factors which have been more evident over recent years. These factors include the continued fall in fertility rates and the relatively high levels of emigration. The Caribbean has experienced a general decrease in fertility rates mainly because of the increasing levels of education of women and the sustained implementation of family planning programmes in many countries. However, this decline is slower in adolescent females than it is in other age groups. In 1994, the proportion of births to adolescent mothers in the Caribbean was 15 per cent, but was higher in some of the countries, like Jamaica and Guyana, where it was over 20 per cent.



The combination of declining birth and death rates has resulted in the slow but steady ageing of the Caribbean population. The crude birth rate decreased from 32 per 1,000 persons in 1975-1980 to 23 per 1,000 in 1990-1998. The crude death rate also decreased from 10 per 1,000 in 1975-1980 to 8 per 1,000 persons in 1990-1996.

Table 4:
Proportion of population over 60 in selected countries in the Caribbean, 1950-1995

Indicator	Estimates									
	1950	1955	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990	1995
Percentage aged 60 or over	6.9	7.0	7.2	7.5	7.9	8.1	8.6	8.7	9.1	9.3
Bahamas	6.6	6.4	5.8	5.4	5.5	5.9	6.3	6.4	6.6	7.1
Barbados	8.5	9.5	10.0	11.1	12.2	13.6	14.1	14.8	15.3	14.4
Belize	6.0	6.2	6.4	6.4	6.5	6.8	6.3	6.1	6.2	6.1
Cuba	7.3	7.4	7.9	8.8	9.4	9.9	10.8	11.2	11.7	12.4
Dominican Republic	5.2	5.0	4.9	4.7	4.6	4.7	4.8	5.0	5.6	6.1
Guyana	6.7	5.8	5.2	5.4	5.3	5.5	5.7	5.7	5.9	6.1
Jamaica	5.8	6.3	6.6	8.1	8.5	8.5	9.3	9.4	10.0	9.5
Netherlands Antilles	8.8	7.7	7.3	7.4	8.0	8.6	9.3	9.9	10.2	10.5
Puerto Rico	6.1	6.9	7.7	8.2	9.5	9.2	11.2	12.0	13.2	13.6
Suriname	8.4	7.2	6.2	6.0	5.7	5.8	6.3	6.3	6.8	7.5
Trinidad and Tobago	6.1	6.1	5.9	5.7	6.7	7.6	8.1	8.0	8.7	8.9

Source: United Nations Secretariat, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division
World Population Prospects, The 1998 Revision, Volume I, Comprehensive Tables

The average percentage of people of over 60 increased from 7.9 per cent in 1970 to 9.3 per cent in 1995, mainly due to better health conditions, the migration of younger people and the increasing number of returning retirees. On average women tend to live four to six years more than men.

Migration, driven mainly by the search for opportunities for better lives, has continued to influence the demographic profiles of the subregion. Migration takes place both outside and inside the Caribbean. In the case of migration outside the Caribbean, the main destination of the mainly skilled migrants were the United Kingdom, the United States and Canada. Migration to the United States increased from 760,000 in the 1970s to 777,382 in the 1980s. It was estimated that 3.5million Caribbean migrants lived in the United States in 1991 and that number was expected to increase by 400,000 individuals during the period 1991-1993. Inside the subregion, there has been movement of people from the slow growing countries to the relatively high growth countries in search of jobs. An extreme case is the case of Montserrat where, due to the volcanic eruption, the population of the country decreased, through migration from 10,630 inhabitants in 1991 to 4,000 in 1998. Another factor influencing the population profiles of Caribbean countries is the negative impact of HIV/AIDS on the Caribbean population. It has been estimated that the HIV/AIDS epidemic is responsible for 60 to 80 per cent of the deaths in the 25-34 age group, causing significant economic and social costs to the countries of the subregion.

Table 5:
Reported cases of Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome, by country and
year, with incidence rates per 100,000 population CAREC member countries-

Country	Year							
	1994		1995		1996		1997	
	Cases	Rates	Cases	Rates	Cases	Rates	Rates	Cases
Anguilla	0	0	0	0	1b	11.1	-	na
Antigua & Barbuda	16	24.6	7	10.6	13	19.7	7	10.4
Bahamas	316	120.6	389	147.9	376	134.3	273c	96.1
Barbados	119	44.9	95	35.6	130	49.4	113	42.8
Belize	18	8.7	28	13.5	38	17.2	-	na
Bermuda	44	69.8	48	81.4	40	66.7	14	21.9
Cayman Islands	4	14.8	0	0	3	11.1	1	3
Dominica	6	8.1	5	6.8	14	18.9	19	26.8
Grenada	7	7.4	18	19.1	18	18.2	4c	4.3
Guyana	105	14.3	96a	13	144	19.6	116	13.6
Jamaica	359	14.5	5.5	20.2	527	21	370c	14.5
Montserrat	0	0	0	0	0	0	0b	0
Saint Lucia	13	9.2	10	7	14	9.7	15	10.3
St Christopher/Nevis	7	16.3	6	14	6	14	0.167	9.1
St Vincent & the Grenadines	12	10.3	6	5.1	26	22	24	20.2
Suriname	26	6.2	201	4.8	-	na	186	43.7
Trinidad & Tobago	269	22.6	340	27	412	32.5	118b	9.3
Turks & Caicos Islands	-	na	-	Na	-	na	-	na
Virgin Islands U.K.	1	5.6	3	16.7	1	5.6	3	16.7
Subregional Total/Rates	1322	21.2	1576	24.9	1763	26.9	1267	20.1

a = Report received for 1st and 2nd quarters only

b = Report received for 1st quarter only

c = Report received for 1st - 3rd quarters inclusive

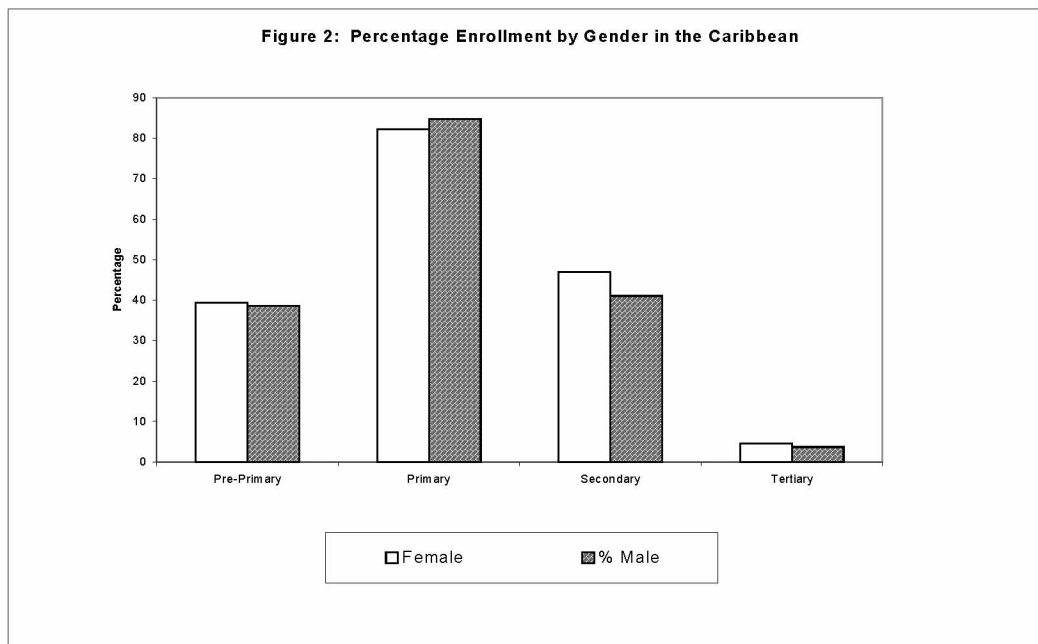
n.a = Not applicable

- = Data not available

Source: Caribbean Epidemiology Centre (CAREC)

The changing structures of production in the Caribbean, which are characterized by the decline in agriculture and the growth in both manufacturing and services, have resulted in an increasing movement of people from rural to urban areas looking for better job opportunities. The overall average urbanisation for the Caribbean increased from 38 per cent to 44 per cent for the period 1975-1992. Trinidad and Tobago, whose urban population has increased from 63 per cent to 65 percent in 1975-1992 has the highest concentration of population in urban areas. Also the size of households in the subregion has been on the decline, but the headship structure has not changed much. Female-headed households remain a significant proportion of total households. As a proportion of total households they varied from 22.3 per cent in Belize to 43.9 per cent in Barbados.

Over the decades of the 1980s and 1990s, there have been significant advances towards gender equity in the Caribbean. This is indicated by the fundamental changes in educational enrolment of both sexes. Unlike in the 1960s, females are now at least equally represented in enrolment at all educational levels. In fact, there are now more females enrolled at the secondary and tertiary levels in the Caribbean than there are males.



A better educated female population, together with the enactment and enforcement of legislation in most of the countries against discrimination on the basis of sex, has resulted in an increase in the potential for women's participation in the labour force and general improvement in women's social and economic status. However, women are still more represented in the ranks of the unemployed than their male counterparts and their representation in government and Parliament is still relatively low. In 1996, women's participation in Caribbean Parliaments was 14.3 per cent, much higher than the 6.6 per cent in 1992 but still below the weight of females in the total population. Also women's participation in the workforce has not changed compared to the 1980s. In 1996, the International Labour Organisation (ILO) estimated that women accounted for 44 per cent of the labour force, but held only 41 per cent of the jobs. Women also tended to hold jobs concentrated in particular occupational groups, mainly technicians, clerks, sales and service workers and elementary occupations. Recent data shows that self-employed women accounted for 25 per cent of the total self-employed in the Caribbean.

The marked slowdown in a number of Caribbean economies and the subsequent restructuring and adjustment have resulted in increasing levels of poverty in some countries. The levels of poverty varied widely among the countries.

Table 6
Poverty estimates of selected Caribbean countries

Country	Head Count Index
Bahamas	5.0
Barbados	8.0
St. Kitts and Nevis	15.0
Trinidad and Tobago	21.2
Antigua and Barbuda	12.0
Saint Lucia	25.1
Dominica	33.0
St. Vincent & the Grenadines	17.0
Belize	34.6
Grenada	20.0
Suriname	47.0
Dominican Republic	20.6
Jamaica	34.2
Guyana	43.2
Haiti	65.0

Source: World Bank Report No. 15342-LAC, Caribbean Countries
Poverty Reduction and Human Resource Development in the
Caribbean, May 14, 1996.

In Haiti, 65 per cent of the population is estimated to live under the poverty line, while the proportion of that category in Barbados and Bahamas was only 8 and 5 per cent, respectively. Most countries have put in place action plans to eradicate poverty, including the implementation of employment creation and training programmes.

The features of social security schemes in the Caribbean vary among the countries, however, they are all funded by the State. Only the social security scheme in Barbados provides unemployment benefits, the others generally provide for health plans, transfers to the indigents and pensions to retirees. The coverage of older persons is still inadequate in some Caribbean countries where only a small proportion of the older people is covered. This is the case in Belize and Grenada where only 10 per cent and 5 per cent of older people, respectively, are covered by the social security systems. Private pension plans are increasing in the subregion, but these are still at an early stage of development.

ENVIRONMENT AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

The mostly island States of the Caribbean subregion are known for their fragile ecosystems, which are highly vulnerable to environmental degradation. The emergence of tourism as the mainstay of many Caribbean countries' economies and the concentration of tourist facilities along the coast have resulted in damages to coastal processes, increased pollution and

the destruction of marine ecosystems. Another aspect of environmental degradation in the Caribbean is indicated by the progress of deforestation. Forest cover has been reduced from 20.4 per cent of the land area in 1990 to 18.7 per cent in 1995. The average annual deforestation rate in the Caribbean was 1.7 per cent with variations from 1.2 per cent in Cuba to 7.2 per cent in Jamaica. The rate of deforestation in Belize, Guyana and Suriname is much lower than the average for the Caribbean.

Table 7
Annual rates of deforestation in the insular Caribbean,
1990 - 1995

Country	Annual rate of deforestation	Main driving factors
Jamaica	7.2	
Saint Lucia	3.6	
Haiti	3.4	
Bahamas	2.6	
Dominican Republic	1.6	
Trinidad and Tobago	1.5	
Cuba	1.2	
Insular Caribbean	1.7	na
Central America & Mexico	3.0	na
Tropical South America	0.6	na
World	0.3	na

Source: FAO (annual rate of deforestation)

The heavy dependency of the countries on the receipts from tourism and the fear from losing this important source of foreign exchange revenues are among the main reasons which have prompted the governments of the subregion to design and implement programmes and projects to arrest damage to the environment. These projects have included sewage schemes, coastal zone management plans and plans for marine and terrestrial protected areas. Some countries, like Trinidad and Tobago and Jamaica, have also strengthened their environmental management capacities in the 1990s with the establishment of environment management authorities. In other countries, however, environmental management remained fragmented and shared among many ministries and other institutions. The approach to management of the environment in the Caribbean is largely based on regulations and is further complicated by the existence of many perverse taxes and subsidies. A positive development worth noting is the increasing participation of local communities in the preservation of natural resources. Good examples are the preservation of turtle stock in Trinidad and Tobago the management of national parks in Jamaica and the management of marine parks in Saint Lucia.

Caribbean countries' pursuit of sustainable development has been strengthened by the adoption of the Small Island Developing States Programme of Action (SIDS POA). The Programme elaborates principles and sets out strategies for development to protect the fragile environment of these mostly islands States. The Programme is, however, heavily biased towards

the environment and tends to neglect economic and social issues, which also need the urgent attention of policy makers. These economic and social issues include poverty, unemployment, trade, agriculture and its relationship to the environment, the alienation of young males, the increase in crimes, drug abuse and the AIDS pandemic. In addition, the yearly damages done to the countries' economic and social infrastructure as a result of hurricanes and tropical storms constitute another major preoccupation of the countries of the subregion. Some countries have been significantly affected by as many as seven hurricanes in this decade. Caribbean small island States recognize the Programme of Action as an instrument which provides a generic framework for activities geared towards their sustainable development, with particular emphasis on the environmental dimension. This recognition implies that the framework is not sufficiently dynamic and multidimensional. Likewise, general prescriptions deny policy makers the specificity that would have transformed it into a more effective operational tool.

The small island developing States of the Caribbean have attached the greatest priority to such issues as coastal and marine resources, natural and environmental disasters and tourism in their approach to the implementation of the SIDS POA. This special attention is based on the fact that marine and coastal environment remains a vital resource in the subregion, whether in the context of fisheries, tourism or settlements, and that the Caribbean is vulnerable to hurricanes, volcanoes and other violent climatic and geophysical phenomena. In addition to the substantive areas, a number of cross-sectoral issues have received high priority, i.e. the issues related to national institutions and administrative capacity. Nevertheless, there is a consensus among Caribbean SIDS that all 14 priority areas in the Programme of Action are relevant to their sustainable development.

The implementation of the Programme has been uneven among the countries, mainly because of the differences in their capabilities. Nevertheless, encouraged by the generally acceptable levels of progress in the region, Caribbean SIDS are striving to maintain or even enhance the contribution of the process to national as well as regional development despite the constraints, which include the lack of financial resources. Among the achievements in the implementation of the SIDS POA is the enhanced understanding of sustainable development issues, which continues to emerge from the process. Evidence of this is shown by the improved identification of environmental as well as socioeconomic concerns and projects throughout the region.

Another achievement is related to the critical area of institutional building. Institutional strengthening has been pursued through capacity building, the enactment of environmental legislation, the application of management tools, such as environmental impact assessments and the adoption and implementation of environment action plans. Closely related to the strengthening of national capabilities is the creation in a number of Caribbean SIDS of sustainable development councils or commissions to provide for broad participation in national sustainable development planning and policy development. At the regional level, Caribbean countries have established a mechanism for the coordination of the implementation of the SIDS POA. The mechanism comprises a secretariat (the ECLAC Subregional Headquarters for the Caribbean), a SIDS Bureau, an Inter-Agency Collaborative Group and a joint work programme.

CONCLUSION

In the 1990s, economic growth has generally resumed in those countries, i.e. Trinidad and Tobago, Guyana, Dominican Republic, whose economies contracted in the 1980s. Growth also continued, although at lower rates in those countries, such as the OECS, whose economies grew at high rates in the 1980s. These economic gains remain fragile, however, given the structure of the economies and their lack of diversification and can disappear very quickly as a result of a hurricane or a decline in the foreign exchange earnings from the main export commodities, i.e. bananas in the OECS. The long-standing objective of diversifying the economy remains to be achieved despite progress made in some countries, for example Trinidad and Tobago.

There has been progress in gender equity, especially in the improvement of women's access to education. However, other issues of social equity, such as poverty alleviation, better access to education and health, are still among the challenges facing the Caribbean subregion. Demographic dynamics, including an ageing population and all its socio-economic implications, will continue to require the adoption and implementation of appropriate population policies, as well as a major restructuring of the social security systems.

Although there has been progress in some countries, the Caribbean subregion still needs, with the assistance of the international community, to put into place concrete programmes and projects for the implementation of the SIDS POA.

STATISTICAL ANNEX

**TOTAL EXPORTS (US\$M) FOR THE CDCC COUNTRIES
FOR THE PERIOD 1980-1997**

	1980	1987	1990	1997
ANGUILLA	...	1.85	0.37	...
ANTIGUA AND BARBUDA	26.28	19.45	20.63	...
ARUBA	...	25.98	28.32	...
BAHAMAS	5009.40	2727.70	238.00	...
BARBADOS	149.29	111.22	121.74	210.48
BELIZE	81.86	86.93	108.46	179.00
BRITISH VIRGIN IS.	...	6.10	3.70	...
CUBA	5940.00	4018.00
DOMINICA	9.74	48.00	55.03	...
DOMINICAN REPUBLIC	961.90	711.30	734.50	4613.70
GRENADA	17.39	31.89	27.85	...
GUYANA	389.02	246.62	218.48	585.94
HAITI	265.80	192.70
JAMAICA	957.70	709.30	1190.60	1699.10
MONTSERRAT	1.19	3.53	1.48	...
NETHERLANDS ANT.	81.89	62.72	65.53	...
SAINT KITTS AND NEVIS	23.60	27.99	27.65	32.20
SAINT LUCIA	46.00	79.52	127.30	...
ST. VINCENT/GREN.	15.44	51.66	82.72	...
SURINAME	918.20	604.70	831.60	...
TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO	4077.00	1462.39	2082.56	2542.30
US VIRGIN ISLANDS
TOTAL	12765.89	7018.83	12172.33	14073.42

Source: ECLAC based on national data

VALUE OF INTRA-CARICOM IMPORTS AND AS A PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL IMPORTS FROM ALL SOURCES 1980, 1990 AND 1996 (US\$m)				VALUE OF INTRA-CARICOM DOMESTIC EXPORTS AND AS A PERCENTAGE OF DOMESTIC EXPORTS TO ALL DESTINATIONS 1980, 1990 AND 1996 (US\$m)			
CARICOM COUNTRIES	1980	1990	1996 (a)	CARICOM COUNTRIES	1980	1990	1996 (a)
CARICOM (A)	522.81	500.11	712.00	CARICOM (A)	496.74	475.41	810.96
MDCs	390.96	301.19	496.00	MDCs	453.85	392.19	742.93
BARBADOS	99.74	109.48	124.19	BARBADOS	41.89	52.96	86.07
GUYANA	93.93	24.74	...	GUYANA	53.26	12.33	...
JAMAICA	85.63	87.70	287.33	JAMAICA	56.44	70.44	50.93
SURINAME	(d)	(d)	...	SURINAME	(d)	(d)	...
TRINIDAD & TOBAGO	111.63	79.26	84.44	TRINIDAD & TOBAGO	302.26	256.41	605.93
LDCs	131.85	198.93	216.04	LDCs	42.93	83.22	68.04
BELIZE	2.41	13.00	10.67	BELIZE	5.59	8.33	4.59
OECS	129.44	185.93	205.33	OECS	37.30	74.89	63.44
ANTIGUA & BARBUDA	43.04	34.37	...	ANTIGUA & BARBUDA	5.93	6.30	...
DOMINICA	12.78	25.07	32.07	DOMINICA	5.67	13.59	23.70
GRENADA	16.48	25.74	40.11	GRENADA	1.93	6.00	5.37
MONTserrat	4.33	7.85	...	MONTserrat	0.41	0.04	0.26
ST. KITTS AND NEVIS	9.44	15.93	26.07	ST. KITTS AND NEVIS	4.19	2.59	0.37
SAINT LUCIA	26.78	48.70	68.44	SAINT LUCIA	12.85	20.26	10.19
ST. VINCENT & GREN.	16.59	28.26	38.63	ST. VINCENT & GREN.	6.33	26.11	23.59
(B) VALUE OF CARICOM IMPORTS FROM ALL SOURCES	5923.41	5257.37	7095.37	(B) VALUE OF CARICOM IMPORTS FROM ALL SOURCES	5726.59	3871.11	4395.85
(A)/(B) (%)	8.80	9.50	10.00	(A)/(B) (%)	8.7	12.3	18.4

(a) Excludes data for Antigua and Barbuda, Guyana, Montserrat and Suriname

(d) Suriname became a full member of CARICOM in July 1995. Hence, prior to 1995, data for Suriname will not be included in CARICOM's trade

Source: CARICOM Secretariat

(a) Excludes data for Antigua and Barbuda, Guyana and Suriname

(d) Suriname became a full member of CARICOM in July 1995. Hence, prior to 1995, data for Suriname will not be included in CARICOM's trade

Source: CARICOM Secretariat

**VALUE AND DISTRIBUTION OF CARICOM'S EXPORTS BY PRINCIPAL DESTINATIONS:
1980, 1990 AND 1996**

PRINCIPAL SOURCES	1980				1990 (a)				1996 (b)			
	DOMESTIC EXPORTS	E-EXPORTS	TOTAL EXPORTS		EXPORTS DOMESTIC	E-EXPORTS	TOTAL EXPORTS		DOMESTIC EXPORTS	E-EXPORTS	TOTAL EXPORTS	
			VALUE	%			VALUE	%			VALUE	%
CARICOM'S TOTAL IMPORTS	5726.60	200.33	5926.93	100.00	3861.41	226.15	4087.56	100.00	4395.85	262.07	4657.93	100.00
CARIBBEAN COMMUNITY AND COMMON MKT	533.30	32.33	565.59	9.50	473.33	29.41	502.74	12.30	817.85	42.04	859.89	18.50
CARIBBEAN COMMON MARKET	496.80	32.11	528.85	8.90	469.11	29.11	498.22	12.20	810.96	40.70	851.67	18.30
THE BAHAMAS	36.50	0.22	36.74	0.60	4.26	0.26	4.52	0.10	6.89	1.33	8.22	0.20
OTHER CARIBBEAN COUNTRIES	48.70	8.33	495.81	8.40	311.26	6.00	317.26	7.80	368.70	10.74	379.44	8.10
CANADA	95.90	10.11	106.04	1.80	168.07	6.67	174.70	4.30	232.59	5.70	238.30	5.10
UNITED STATES OF AMERICA	2839.20	48.15	2887.33	48.70	1619.15	42.52	1661.67	40.70	1678.15	117.22	1795.37	38.50
LATIN MAERICAN INTEGRATION ASSOCIATION	88.10	25.07	113.19	1.90	90.70	25.70	116.41	2.80	208.52	23.67	232.15	5.00
CENTRAL AMERICAN COMMON MARKET	86.80	1.74	88.52	1.50	16.89	1.52	18.41	0.50	20.85	2.07	22.93	0.50
EUROPEAN UNION	96.40	12.85	976.96	16.50	799.63	41.30	840.93	20.60	820.11	19.00	839.11	18.00
UNITED KINGDOM	416.10	10.85	426.96	7.20	502.78	33.15	535.93	13.10	438.89	13.11	451.96	9.70
REST OF EEC	548.00	2.00	550.00	9.30	296.85	8.15	305.00	7.50	381.26	5.93	387.15	8.30
EUROPEAN FREE TRADE ASSOCIATION	141.20	0.26	141.48	2.40	154.04	0.22	154.26	3.80	91.67	0.33	92.00	2.00
SELECTED ASIAN COUNTRIES (1)	22.50	0.56	23.07	0.40	40.96	7.11	48.07	1.20	42.63	1.00	43.67	0.90
JAPAN	20.70	0.11	20.78	0.40	32.48	3.56	36.04	0.90	38.15	0.41	38.56	0.80
REST OF SELECTED ASIAN COUNTRIES		0.41	2.30	0.00	8.52	3.56	12.04	0.30	4.48	0.63	5.11	0.10
	1.90											
REST OF THE WORLD	468.00	60.96	528.96	8.90	187.37	65.78	253.15	6.20	114.81	40.30	155.07	3.3

(1) SELECTED ASIAN COUNTRIES are: China, Hong Kong, India, Japan, Singapore, South Korea, Taiwan and Thailand

(a) Excludes data for Antigua and Barbuda which are not available

(b) Excludes data for Antigua and Barbuda, Guyana and Suriname which are not available

1980-1990 excludes Re-export data for Montserrat which are not available

Source: CARICOM Secretariat

**VALUE AND DISTRIBUTION OF CARICOM'S IMPORTS BY PRINCIPAL SOURCES:
1980, 1990 AND 1996
US\$M**

PRINCIPAL SOURCES	1980 (a) VALUE	%	1990 (b) VALUE	%	1996 (c) VALUE	%
CARICOM'S TOTAL IMPORTS	5906.50	100.00	5065.20	100.00	6796.10	100.00
CARIBBEAN COMMUNITY AND COMMON MKT	520.40	8.80	466.10	9.20	634.60	9.30
CARIBBEAN COMMON MARKET	518.50	8.80	465.80	9.20	633.30	9.30
THE BAHAMAS	2.00	0.00	0.40	0.00	1.30	0.00
OTHER CARIBBEAN COUNTRIES	315.40	5.30	176.70	3.50	174.00	2.60
CANADA	273.80	4.60	273.00	5.40	228.90	3.40
UNITED STATES OF AMERICA	1640.80	27.80	2087.40	41.20	3017.80	44.40
LATIN AMERICAN INTEGRATION ASSOCIATION	328.10	5.60	569.20	11.20	845.40	12.40
CENTRAL AMERICAN COMMON MARKET	49.60	0.80	34.60	0.70	54.60	0.80
EUROPEAN UNION	934.10	15.80	783.50	15.50	955.70	14.10
UNITED KINGDOM	655.80	11.10	434.20	8.60	392.40	5.80
REST OF EEC	278.30	4.70	349.20	6.90	563.40	8.30
EUROPEAN FREE TRADE ASSOCIATION	72.30	1.20	87.30	1.70	54.40	0.80
SELECTED ASIAN COUNTRIES (1)	390.70	6.60	389.50	7.70	559.50	8.20
JAPAN	291.10	4.90	231.70	4.60	329.40	4.80
REST OF SELECTED ASIAN COUNTRIES	99.60	1.70	157.80	3.10	230.10	3.40
REST OF THE WORLD	1381.20	23.40	198.00	3.90	271.30	4.00

(1) SELECTED ASIAN COUNTRIES are: China, Hong Kong, India, Japan, Singapore, South Korea, Taiwan and Thailand

(a) Excludes data for Montserrat which are not available

(b) Excludes data for Antigua and Barbuda which are not available

(c) Excludes data for Antigua and Barbuda, Grenada, Guyana, Montserrat, St. Vincent and the Grenadines and Suriname which are not available

Source: CARICOM Secretariat

SUGAR EXPORTS (Value US\$m)

	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1992	1993	1994	1995
BARBADOS	52.70	25.60	30.80	18.70	28.50	25.00	28.60	30.50	28.70	30.10	28.80
BELIZE	48.00	43.00	33.00	34.00	33.00	23.00	32.00	33.00	41.00	40.00	48.00
CUBA	3279.00	3335.00	3808.00	4078.00	4123.00	4442.00	4069.00	1220.00	753.00	748.00	704.00
DOMINICAN REPUBLIC	290.00	513.00	266.00	264.00	272.00	159.00	134.00	115.00	112.00	117.00	102.00
GUYANA	121.00	109.00	88.00	72.00	71.00	66.00	83.00	134.00	116.00	116.00	135.00
JAMAICA	55.00	47.00	49.00	57.00	66.00	50.00	62.00	83.00	97.00	69.00	96.00
ST. KITTS & NEVIS	14.00	14.70	12.20	10.00	11.70	8.70	11.70	13.00	13.60	11.60	13.00
TRINIDAD & TOBAGO	28.00	27.00	22.00	26.00	29.00	22.00	23.00	32.00	27.00	28.00	44.00
TOTAL	3887.70	4114.30	4309.00	4559.70	4634.20	4795.70	4443.30	1660.50	1188.30	1159.70	1170.80

Source: ECLAC based on national data

Average earnings from banana exports			Average earnings from bauxite exports		
COUNTRY	Average 1980-89	Average 1990-97	COUNTRY	Average 1980-89	Average 1990-97
BELIZE	4.44	17.75	GUYANA	94.2	79.0
DOMINICA	17.72	22.88	JAMAICA	133.0	85.5
GRENADA	3.67	2.188	TOTAL	227.2	164.5
JAMAICA	9.40	42.75			
SAINT LUCIA	33.53	46.06	Average earnings from alumina exports		
ST. VINCENT/GREN.	16.39	25.3			
TOTAL	84.71	156.93	JAMAICA	349.1	563.5

Source: ECLAC based on national data

Table on Value of Tourist Receipts and Exports of Goods - 1992 and 1996

	Tourist Receipts 1992	Total Exports 1992	Tourist Receipts 1993	Total Exports - 1993	Tourist Receipts 1996	Total Exports - 1996
ANGUILLA	38.20	0.62	47.10	1.14	48.00	1.592593
ANTIGUA & BARBUDA	243.40	54.67	276.90	47.27	257.90	30.08519
ARUBA	442.40	...	464.10	...	605.80	...
BAHAMAS	1243.60	192.40	1304.00	162.30	1397.80	202
BARBADOS	462.50	133.83	528.00	134.34	684.90	214.23
BELIZE	64.70	119.21	70.00	118.94	83.60	153.55
BRITISH VIRGIN IS.	99.90	4.30	196.40	4.60	267.60	...
CUBA	567.00	2522	729.00	1992	1380.00	3690
DOMINICA	25.90	51.86	29.40	46.89	36.60	49.88889
DOMINICAN REPUBLIC	1054.80	562.5	1070.30	3211	1754.80	4052.8
GRENADA	42.30	21.56	48.30	21.52	59.60	23.77778
GUYANA	31.20	378.48	44.50	401.67	38.40	581.4225
HAITI	35.00	118.4	30.00	130.8	58.00	147.5
JAMAICA	858.00	1116.50	942.00	1105.40	1092.00	1721
MONTSERRAT	13.70	1.81	7.70	2.27	8.40	23.51852
NETHERLANDS ANTILLES	528.10	...	611.30	...	553.40	...
PUERTO RICO	1519.70	...	1628.10	...	1898.30	22.81481
SAINT KITTS AND NEVIS	67.30	31.86	69.40	27.00	66.80	79.48148
SAINT LUCIA	209.30	124.00	180.50	119.59	268.90	49.37037
ST. VINCENT & GREN.	29.00	74.76	30.70	57.82	59.20	...
SURINAME	19.00	608.6	17.00	298.3	17.00	2302.711
TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO	109.20	1868.94	82.00	1513.74	104.50	...
US VIRGIN ISLANDS	816.10	...	901.60	...	687.40	13345.74
TOTAL	8520.30	7986.30	9308.30	9396.58	11428.90	26691.49

Source: ECLAC based on national data

FISCAL DEFICIT
(As a percent of GDP)

	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Antigua and Barbuda	-	-4.0	-4.1	1.2	-1.9	-0.5	-1.4	-2.8	-2.9	-1.1
Aruba	-7.5	-5.5	-3.7	-2.6	-0.4	-1.8	0.5	0.2	-0.4	-1.5
Barbados	-8.8	-4.6	-2.3	-8.4	-1.8	-1.9	-2.5	-1.2	-0.9	-3.8
Belize	-0.4	10.1	0.3	0.3	-5.0	-7.5	-9.1	-7.6	-4.3	-3.4
Dominica	-1.2	1.2	-0.1	-10.0	-3.3	-5.7	-0.3	-4.8	-5.7	-1.9
Grenada	-10.2	-10.6	-11.2	-14.6	-4.8	-0.6	-0.9	-1.9	0.1	-3.3
Guyana	-50.0	-36.4	-7.9	-24.6	-27.3	-19.8	-8.1	-1.8	-2.3	-3.3
Jamaica	7.1	3.4	-1.7	4.8	-5.6	-6.6	-2.7	-10.7	-5.4	-24.6
Netherlands Antilles	-0.3	-1.1	-2.9	-3.8	-3.4	-6.7	-2.5	-6.2	-5.1	-4.8
St. Kitts and Nevis	-25.9	-8.7	-4.5	-0.3	-2.3	-1.2	-1.4	-3.0	-6.6	-5.7
St. Lucia	-0.6	3.1	2.0	1.0	0.7	-1.8	-0.7	-0.8	-1.2	-2.2
St. Vincent and the Grenadines	3.6	1.1	-2.6	-0.8	-0.2	-4.3	-4.8	-0.3	-2.4	1.6
Trinidad and Tobago	-5.9	-5.7	-4.2	-1.2	-0.2	-2.7	-0.2	0.0	0.2	1.5

Source: ECLAC based on national data

EXTERNAL DEBT
(As a percentage of GDP)

	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Antigua and Barbuda	101.9	85.2	80.5	79.0	70.5	67.7	60.6	54.2	54.3	47.5
Barbados	28.3	29.6	26.4	28.2	26.9	25.3	25.2	24.5	22.9	21.5
Belize	48.0	46.7	41.7	39.2	39.3	34.3	37.2	39.6	37.3	42.3
Dominica	62.0	55.6	57.6	62.1	43.2	58.3	53.3	53.9	53.8	51.7
Grenada	49.4	46.3	40.5	54.8	43.7	39.2	39.0	40.0	37.9	36.3
Guyana	382.4	342.7	417.2	520.4	617.0	613.7	512.7	451.2	353.8	215.3
Jamaica	137.7	112.9	111.8	109.4	185.5	111.4	122.7	93.8	84.6	56.0
St. Kitts and Nevis	23.6	24.9	26.6	27.2	26.4	28.5	28.0	27.8	27.3	26.2
St. Lucia	11.6	15.1	17.2	21.1	22.5	24.0	24.3	24.6	24.1	26.1
St. Vincent and the Grenadines	32.1	33.8	35.1	34.4	36.8	35.6	38.1	42.8	39.5	37.4
Trinidad and Tobago	30.6	36.8	33.7	30.5	29.6	28.4	38.5	34.8	32.2	31.1

Source: ECLAC based on national data

INFLATION RATES FOR THE CDCC FOR THE PERIOD 1990-1998

[illegible]

Investment, Savings and the Current Account			
Annual Averages	Domestic Investment (% of GDP) A	Domestic Savings (% of GDP) B	Current account Balance (% of GDP) (B)-(A)
1981-89			
CARICOM	28.8	14.5	-17.2
MDCs	22.9	18.0	-4.9
Barbados	18.9	19.4	0.5
Guyana	27.3	14.6	-12.7
Jamaica	23	16.1	-6.9
Trinidad and Tobago	22.3	21.8	-0.5
LDCs	32.1	8.0	-24.2
Belize	26.2	16.3	-9.9
OECS	33.2	6.9	-26.6
Antigua and Barbuda
Dominica	30.7	6.5	-24.2
Grenada	37.3	6.1	-31.2
Montserrat	39.9	-5.4	-45.3
St. Kitts and Nevis	37.4	9.9	-27.5
St. Lucia	24.3	10.7	-13.6
St. Vincent & Gren.	29.4	11.7	-17.7
1990-96			
CARICOM	30.4	22.8	-11.4
MDCs	29.3	26.2	-0.4
Barbados	...	19.2	...
Guyana	43.1	35.1	-8
Jamaica	30.3	24.4	-5.9
Trinidad and Tobago	15.4	26.1	10.7
LDCs	35	21.1	-16.0
Belize	27.1	22.3	-4.8
OECS	36.3	20.9	-18.0
Antigua and Barbuda	...	33.3	...
Dominica	36.3	0.9	-35.4
Grenada	35.7	35.1	-0.6
Montserrat	44.9	18.4	-26.5
St. Kitts and Nevis	44.9	24.7	-20.2
St. Lucia	24.9	17.1	-7.8
St. Vincent & the Grenadines	31.3	17.1	-17.2

Source: ECLAC and The Savings/Investment Environment in the Caribbean (1995).

NET INWARD FDI TO THE CARIBBEAN COUNTRIES (1990-1997)
(Millions of dollars)

Countries	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Anguilla	11	6	15	6	13	na	na	na
Antigua and Barbuda	61	55	20	15	25	31	19	28
Aruba	131	185	-37	-18	-73	-6	84	196
Barbados	11	7	14	9	13	12	22	18
Belize	17	14	16	9	15	21	17	12
Cuba	1	10	7	3	14	9	12	13
Dominica	13	15	21	13	23	54	18	20
Dominican Republic	133	145	180	225	360	404	394	414
Grenada	13	15	23	20	19	20	18	22
Guyana	8	13	147	70	107	74	81	90
Haiti	na	-2	-2	-2	-3	7	4	5
Jamaica	138	133	142	78	170	245	273	137
Montserrat	10	8	5	5	1	na	na	na
Netherlands Antilles	8	33	40	11	22	10	11	17
Saint Kitts and Nevis	49	21	13	14	15	20	17	25
Saint Lucia	45	58	41	34	32	30	23	45
St. Vincent and Grenadines	8	9	15	31	47	31	18	42
Suriname	-77	19	-54	-47	-30	-21	7	na
Trinidad and Tobago	109	169	178	379	516	299	320	1000
TOTAL	689	913	784	855	1286	1240	1338	2084

Source: ECLAC

Proportion of households headed by males and females for selected ECLAC/CDCC member countries, 1980/81 to 1995						
Percentage of Total Households	Males 1980/81	Females 1980/1981	Males 1990/1991	Females 1990/1991	Males 1995	Females 1995
Barbados	56.1	43.9	56.5	43.5	56.5	43.5
Belize	77.7	22.3	78.2	21.8	78.0	22.0
British Virgin Islands	74.6	25.4	71.3	28.7	71.3	28.7
Dominica	62.3	37.7	63.1	36.9	62.7	37.3
Grenada	54.8	45.2	57.3	42.7	57.3	42.7
Guyana	75.6	24.4	71.5	28.5	70.5	29.5
Montserrat	57.9	42.1	60.4	39.6	60.0	40.0
St. Lucia	61.2	38.8	59.6	40.4	59.6	40.4
St Vincent & the Grenadines	57.6	42.4	60.7	39.3	60.5	39.5
Trinidad and Tobago	74.7	25.3	72.0	28.0	73.5	26.5

Source 1: Digest of Select Demographic and Social Indicators, ECLAC

Source 2: The Caribbean Subregional Review and Appraisal Report on the implementation of ICPD+5

Census population for selected Caribbean countries, 1950-1995						
Country	1950	1960	1970	1980	1990	1995
Antigua and Barbuda	41, 757 (a)	54, 060	61,794	...	59, 355(h)	...
Aruba	...	53, 199	57, 905(I)	60, 312 (f)	66,687(h)	...
Bahamas	84, 841 (b)	130, 220(d)	169,534	209,505	255,049	280,000
Barbados	192, 800	232, 327	236,891	247,129	260,491	264,000
Belize	59, 220 (a)	90, 505	120,670	145,318	189,392 (h)	213,000
British Virgin Islands	6, 505 (a)	7, 921	9,765	10,985	16, 115(h)	...
Cuba	5, 829, 029(b)	...	8,569,121	9,710,113	10,598,082	10,964,000
Dominica	47, 624	59,916	69,549	73, 795(f)	71, 183(h)	...
Dominican Republic	2,135,872	3,047,070	4,009,458	5, 647, 977(f)	7,169,846	7,823,000
Grenada	72, 387(a)	88,677	93,622	89, 088(f)	95, 597(h)	...
Guyana	359, 379(a)	560,330	701,718	759,567	723, 673(h)	830,000
Haiti	4, 329, 991(e)	5,352,746	6,486,049	...
Jamaica	1, 237, 063(c)	1,609,814	1,813,594	2, 190, 357(g)	2, 366, 067p	2,473,000
Montserrat	14, 333(a)	12,167	11,458	11,606	10,639	...
Netherlands Antilles	...	135,715	165, 289(I)	171, 620(f)	189, 474(j)	205,000
Puerto Rico	2,712,033	3,196,520	3,522,037	3,715,000
St. Kitts and Nevis	41, 206(a)	50,883	45,327	43,309	40, 618(h)	...
St. Lucia	70, 113(a)	86,108	100,583	115,252	135, 685(h)	...
St. Vincent & the Grenadines	61, 647(a)	79,948	86,944	97,845	106, 499(h)	...
Suriname	384, 903(e)	352,041	447, 000(h)	409,000
Trinidad and Tobago	563, 222	827,957	940,719	1,079,791	1,213,733	1,262,000
Turks and Caicos	6, 817	5,668	5,558	7,413	12,350	...
U.S. Virgin Islands	62,468	96,569	101,809	...

(a) data represents 1946

(b) data represents 1953

(c) data represents 1943

(d) data represents 1963

(e) data represents 1971

(f) data represents 1981

(g) data represents 1982

(h) data represents 1991

(I) data represents 1972

(j) data represents 1992

P = Provisional

Source: United Nations, World Prospects 1998, Volume 1 (1995 data),

Source: Digest of Selected Demographic and Statistical Indicators, 1960-1994, ECLAC

Life expectancy at birth for selected countries in the Caribbean, 1950 - 1995									
Major area, region and country	Life expectancy at birth (in years)								
	1950-1955	1955-1960	1960-1965	1965-1970	1970-1975	1975-1980	1980-1985	1985-1990	1990-1995
CARIBBEAN (10)									
Both sexes	52.1	55.4	58.5	61.1	63.1	64.5	65.5	66.9	67.9
Males	50.7	53.9	56.9	59.5	61.4	62.7	63.7	64.9	65.7
Females	53.5	56.9	60.1	62.7	64.9	66.4	67.5	69.0	70.2
Bahamas									
Both sexes	59.8	62.3	64.2	65.8	66.6	67.3	69.7	70.6	72.2
Males	58.3	60.8	61.0	62.9	63.2	63.5	64.8	66.8	69.3
Females	61.2	63.8	67.3	68.6	69.9	71.2	72.9	74.5	76.1
Barbados									
Both sexes	57.2	62.6	65.9	67.6	69.4	71.3	73.2	74.6	75.3
Males	55.0	60.2	63.5	65.2	66.9	68.7	70.5	71.9	72.9
Females	59.5	65.0	68.3	70.1	72.0	73.9	75.5	76.9	77.9
Cuba									
Both sexes	59.3	62.3	65.2	68.3	70.7	72.6	73.4	74.1	74.9
Males	57.8	60.8	63.8	67.0	69.4	71.5	72.3	72.8	73.5
Females	61.3	64.2	67.1	70.2	72.7	74.8	75.7	76.5	77.3
Dominican Republic									
Both sexes	45.9	49.9	53.5	56.9	59.8	61.9	65.4	67.9	69.3
Males	44.7	48.6	52.1	55.4	58.1	60.3	63.7	66.3	67.6
Females	47.3	51.4	55.2	58.7	61.1	64.0	67.6	70.3	71.7
Haiti									
Both sexes	37.6	40.7	43.6	46.2	48.5	50.7	51.3	52.6	53.5
Males	36.3	39.4	42.3	44.9	47.1	49.2	49.9	51.0	51.5
Females	38.9	42.0	44.9	47.6	50.0	52.2	52.8	54.2	55.5
Jamaica									
Both sexes	58.5	62.6	65.6	67.5	69.0	70.1	71.2	72.4	73.7
Males	56.9	60.8	63.7	65.7	67.3	68.4	69.6	70.7	71.9
Females	60.2	64.5	67.5	69.3	70.7	71.8	72.9	74.2	75.8
Females	58.1	62.3	66.0	69.0	72.0	75.0	76.4	79.2	81.5
Netherlands Antilles									
Both sexes	60.5	64.4	66.6	68.3	70.4	72.1	73.8	74.5	74.6
Males	59.1	63.0	64.8	66.4	67.8	69.5	70.9	71.5	71.5
Females	61.6	65.6	68.3	70.2	73.0	74.8	76.5	77.5	77.6
Puerto Rico									
Both sexes	64.3	68.5	69.6	71.1	72.2	73.4	73.8	74.6	73.6
Males	62.7	66.6	67.0	68.2	69.2	70.2	70.5	70.6	69.4
Females	66.0	70.7	72.3	74.0	76.0	77.0	77.5	78.9	78.5
Trinidad & Tobago									
Both sexes	59.1	61.8	64.9	65.4	65.9	68.3	70.2	72.1	72.6
Males	58.2	60.1	62.9	63.4	63.6	65.9	67.8	69.8	70.5
Females	59.9	63.5	67.1	67.6	68.3	70.9	72.8	74.5	75.2

Source: Dr. Frank Mills. 1990-1991 Population and Housing Census of the Commonwealth Caribbean. Regional monograph: International and Extraregional Mobility. The New Caribbean Migration. CARICOM. May 1997 p.21

Regional Migration Rates for Selected Caribbean Countries: 1990 and 1991								
Selected Countries (1)	Total Population (2)	Natives (3)	Migrants		Migration Rates			
			In- (4)	Out- (5)	In- (6)	Out- (7)	Net (8)	Turnover (9)
Total	5,219,302	5,117,708	104,669	104,669
Antigua and Barbuda	59,104	56	8,287	5,620	15.1	10.7	+4.8	25.3
Bahamas	233,228	210,590	4,047	109	1.9	0.1	+1.9	2.0
Barbados	244,817	236,322	12,849	4,240	5.4	1.9	+3.6	7.2
British Virgin Islands	16,105	13,847	5,812	2,949	42.0	26.8	+20.7	63.3
Dominica	69,463	67,642	871	7,507	1.3	10.1	-9.8	12.4
Grenada	83,838	82,155	2,806	18,687	3.4	19.1	-19.3	26.2
Guyana	701,653	698,950	1,003	13,453	0.1	1.9	-1.8	2.1
Jamaica	2,299,675	2,271,072	...	4,926	...	0.2
Montserrat	10,634	9,928	1,362	1,958	13.7	18.6	-6.0	33.4
St Kitts and Nevis	40,612	38,886	1,553	8,309	4.0	18.2	-17.4	25.4
St Lucia	133,308	130,723	2,996	8,483	2.3	6.2	-4.2	8.8
St Vincent	106,482	104,980	2,734	18,169	2.6	15.1	-14.7	19.9
Trinidad and Tobago	1,118,574	1,105,325	37,071	8,735	3.4	0.8	+2.6	4.1
U.S. Virgin Islands	101,809	92,232	23,280	1,524	25.2	2.2	+23.6	26.9

Source: Population & Housing Census of the Commonwealth Caribbean Reference Monograph. Intraregional & Extra regional Mobility: The New Caribbean Migration. Page 18

Rural-Urban population comparisons in the wider Caribbean, selected countries, 1990-1995								
	Percent in Urban Areas				Average annual rates of urban growth			Average annual urban growth rate
	1960	1970-1980	1960-1970	1990/91	1960-1970	1970-1980	1980-1990/91	(%) 1990-1995
Antigua and Barbuda	40	34	35	35	-1.07	0.76	0.76	0.80
Barbados	35	37	40	45	0.79	1.22	1.40	1.50
Belize	54	54	50	48	2.20	1.42	2.21	...
Cuba	55	60	68	74	2.92	2.54	1.65	1.40
Dominican Republic	30	40	52	60	6.01	4.74	4.00	3.30
Guyana	29	29	29	34	2.35	1.04	1.44	...
Haiti	16	20	24	29	4.09	3.51	3.80	4.00
Jamaica	34	41	47	...	3.44	2.51	...	1.50
Montserrat	16	11	11	12	-4.27	0.29	0.53	1.80
Netherlands Antilles	68	68	68	68	1.67	0.88	0.98	1.20
Puerto Rico	44	58	67	71	4.11	3.02	1.60	1.40
St. Kitts and Nevis	28	34	36	40	1.10	-0.02	0.46	1.10
St. Vincent/Grenadines	14	15	27	41	1.90	6.94	4.95	3.60
Suriname	47	46	45	48	2.21	-0.73	1.80	...
Trinidad and Tobago	64	63	63	69	1.18	1.09	2.24	1.90
Turks and Caicos	41	41	42	43	-0.21	3.17	4.54	4.70
U.S. Virgin Islands	44	44	44	44	6.70	4.20	0.53	0.90

Source: Digest of Selected Demographic and Statistical Indicators, 1960-1994

Source: Socioeconomic and Political Context by Karl Theodore and Edward Green in Health Conditions in the Caribbean

Unemployment rate by country and sex, labour force participation rate by country and sex, 1996				
	Unemployment Rate by Sex, 1996		Labour Force Participation Rate by Sex, 1996	
	Male %	Female %	Male %	Female %
Anguilla	6.3	9.0	82.0	60.7
Antigua and Barbuda	6.4	5.6	81.6	62.9
Aruba	5.4	7.9	76.0	53.0
Bahamas	8.6	14.7	79.8	68.2
Barbados	12.4	18.9	74.3	61.6
Belize	11.7	18.6	79.0	34.0
British Virgin Islands	3.4	3.1	84.3	68.6
Dominica	9.8	9.2	75.2	38.9
Grenada	14.6	12.7	67.8	38.2
Guyana	8.4	18.1	81.2	39.3
Jamaica	9.9	23.0	75.5	60.6
Netherlands Antilles	10.4	18.1	54.2	40.6
St. Lucia	13.8	19.3		
St. Vincent & the Grenadines	18.4	22.1	80.8	35.8
Suriname	7.9	16.4	72.0	39.0
Trinidad and Tobago	13.2	21.0	74.2	46.8

Male/Female participation rates in parliamentary Assemblies in selected countries in the Caribbean for 1985, 1992, 1996									
	% Male	% Male	% Male	%Female	% Female	%Female	ratio M:F	ratio M:F	ratio M:F
Country	1985	1992	1996	1985	1992	1996	1985	1992	1996
Anguilla	90	100		10	0		9	all male	
Antigua/Barbuda	100	100	100.00	0	0	0	all male	all male	all male
Bahamas	92.9	87.3	91.8	7.1	10	8.2	13.1	6.9	11.2
Barbados	89.6	85.7		10.41	7		8.6	6	
Belize	91.7	89.2	89.5	8.3	4	10.5	11	8.3	8.5
Br. Virgin Islands	100	91.7		0	8.3		all male	11	
Dominica	87.1	83.9	90.00	12.9	5	10	6.8	5	9
Grenada	71.4	93.3	73.3	28.6	1	26.7	2.5	14	2.8
Guyana	77.8	83.3	80.6	22.2	12	19.4	3.5	5	4.1
Jamaica	95	88.3	86.4	5	7	13.6	19	7.5	6.3
Montserrat	84.6	69.2	83.40	15.4	30.8	16.6	5.5	2.3	6
St. Kitts/Nevis	93.3	93.3	86.7	6.7	1	13.3	13.9	13.9	6.5
St. Lucia	96.6	86.2	76.5	3.4	4	23.5	28.4	6.2	3.3
St. Vincent/Gren.	100	83.3	89.5	0	2	10.5	all male	5	8.5
Trinidad & Tobago	85	82	80.9	15	12	19.1	5.7	4.6	4.2
Turks/Caicos	88.9	81		11.1	4		8	4.3	

¹ ECLAC/CDCC. Achieving Social Justice, Equality, Peace and Development: A Review of the Status of Women of the Caribbean Subregion in Preparation of the Fourth World Conference on Women, 1995. LC/CAR/G. 442 31 January 1995 p17.

Human Development Index (various years) of selected Caribbean countries

Country	1991	1993	1994	1995	1997	1998
Belize	67	82	88	29	63	63
Dominican Republic	80	97	96	96	87	88
Guyana	89	105	107	105	104	100
Jamaica	59	69	65	88	83	84
St. Lucia	68	72	77	84	56	58
Trinidad & Tobago	39	31	35	39	40	40
Antigua/Barbuda	46	60	55	55	29	29
Bahamas	28	32	36	26	28	32
Barbados	22	20	20	25	25	24
Dominica	53	51	64	69	41	41
Grenada	64	59	78	67	54	51
Haiti	125	137	137	148	156	159
St. Kitts/Nevis	65	79	70	37	49	50
St. Vincent and the Grenadines	79	76	69	79	57	55
Suriname	55	65	85	77	66	65

Source: UNDP Human Development Reports 1991, 1993, 1994, 1995, 1997 and 1998.